

Use of Wood in Buildings and Bridges

James P. Wacker, Research General Engineer

Contents

Light-Frame Buildings 17-1
Foundations 17-2
Floors 17-2
Exterior Walls 17-3
Ceiling and Roof 17-4
Wood Decks 17-4
Post-Frame and Pole Buildings 17-4
Log Buildings 17-6
Heavy Timber Buildings 17-6
Timber Frame 17-6
Mill Type 17-7
Glulam Beam 17-7
Arch Structure 17-8
Dome 17-8
Timber Bridges 17-8
Log Stinger 17-8
Sawn Lumber 17-9
Glulam 17-9
Structural Composite Lumber 17-9
Considerations for Wood Buildings 17-9
Structural 17-9
Thermal Insulation and Air Infiltration Control 17-9
Moisture Control 17-10
Sound Control 17-11
Literature Cited 17-12

In North America, most housing and commercial structures built prior to the 20th century used wood as the major structural material. The abundant wood resource formed the basic structure for most houses, commercial buildings, bridges, and utility poles. Today, houses and many light commercial and industrial buildings are made using modern wood structural materials. Recently, there has been increased interest in using wood for various types of transportation structures, including highway bridges.

In this chapter, the features of various types of building systems are described. Emphasis is placed on how these systems have adapted to the use of modern materials and techniques. For example, where floor, wall, and roof sheathing for light-frame construction were once commonly made from wood boards, sheathing is now commonly made from structural panel products, such as plywood and oriented strandboard (OSB). Compared with boards, these panel products are quicker to install and provide improved structural resistance to wind and earthquake loadings. Furthermore, prefabricated floor and wall panels along with prefabricated roof and floor trusses or I-joists are replacing piece-by-piece on-site construction with dimension lumber. A structure can be enclosed within a short time on site using factory-made panelized systems.

Engineered wood products are being used increasingly for transportation structures. A brief description of the uses of wood in railroad and highway bridges and other transportation structures is included.

Light-Frame Buildings

Historically, two general types of light-frame construction have been used—balloon and platform framing. Balloon framing, which was used in the early part of the 20th century, consists of full-height wall framing members for two-story construction. Additional information on balloon framing is available from older construction manuals. Since the latter part of the 20th century, platform framing has dominated the housing market and is widely used in commercial and light industrial applications. Platform framing features the construction of each floor on top of the one beneath. Platform framing construction differs from that of 60 years ago in the use of new and innovative materials, panel products for floor and roof sheathing, and prefabricated components and modules as opposed to “stick built” or on-site construction. A detailed description of the platform-type of construction

is given in *Wood Frame House Construction* (Sherwood and Stroh 1989); additional information is given in the *Wood Frame Construction Manual for One- and Two-Family Dwellings, 2001* (AF&PA 2001).

Foundations

Light-frame buildings with basements are typically supported on cast-in-place concrete walls or concrete block walls supported by footings. This type of construction with a basement is common in northern climates. Another practice is to have concrete block foundations extend a short distance above ground to support a floor system over a “crawl space.” In southern and western climates, some buildings have no foundation; the walls are supported by a concrete slab, thus having no basement or crawl space.

Treated wood is also used for basement foundation walls. Basically, such foundations consist of wood-frame wall sections with studs and plywood sheathing supported on treated wood plates, all of which are preservatively treated to a specified level of protection. To distribute the load, the plates are laid on a layer of crushed stone or gravel. Walls, which must be designed to resist the lateral loads of the backfill, are built using the same techniques as conventional walls. The exterior surface of the foundation wall below grade is draped with a continuous moisture barrier to prevent direct water contact with the wall panels. The backfill must be designed to permit easy drainage and provide drainage from the lowest level of the foundation.

Because a foundation wall needs to be permanent, the preservative treatment of the plywood and framing and the type of fasteners used for connections are very important. A special foundation (FDN) treatment has been established for the plywood and framing, with strict requirements for depth of chemical penetration and amount of chemical retention. Corrosion-resistant fasteners (for example, stainless steel) are recommended for all preservatively treated wood. Additional information and materials and construction procedures are given in *Permanent Wood Foundation Basic Requirements* (AF&PA 2007).

Floors

For houses with basements, the central supporting structure may consist of wood posts on suitable footings that carry a built-up girder, which is frequently composed of planks the same width as the joists (standard 38 by 184 mm to 38 by 286 mm (nominal 2 by 8 in. to 2 by 12 in.)), face-nailed together, and set on edge. Because planks are seldom sufficiently long enough to span the full length of the beam, butt joints are required in the layers. The joints are staggered in the individual layers near the column supports. The girder may also be a glulam beam or steel I-beam, often supported on adjustable steel pipe columns. Similar details may be applied to a house over a crawl space. The floor framing in residential structures typically consists of wood joists on

400- or 600-mm (16- or 24-in.) centers supported by the foundation walls and the center girder (Fig. 17–1).

Joist size depends on the anticipated loading, spacing between joists, distance between supports (span), species, and grade of lumber. Commonly used joists are standard 38- by 184-mm or 38- by 235-mm (nominal 2- by 8-in. or 2- by 10-in.) lumber, prefabricated wood I-joists, or parallel chord trusses. Lumber joists typically span from 3.6 to 4.8 m (12 to 16 ft). Span tables are available from the American Forest & Paper Association (AF&PA 2005b). Span capabilities of prefabricated wood I-joists or parallel chord trusses are recommended by the manufacturer.

Floor openings for stairways, fireplaces, and chimneys may interrupt one or more joists. Preferably, such openings are parallel to the length of the joists to reduce the number of joists that will be interrupted. At the interruption, a support (header) is placed between the uninterrupted joists and attached to them. A single header is usually adequate for openings up to about 1.2 m (4 ft) in width, but double headers are required for wider openings. Special care must be taken to provide adequate support at headers (using joist hangers, for example).

Cutting of framing members to install items such as plumbing lines and heating ducts should be minimized. Cut members may require a reinforcing scab, or a supplementary member may be needed. Areas of highly concentrated loads, such as under bathtubs, require doubling of joists or other measures to provide adequate support. One advantage of framing floors with parallel-chord trusses or prefabricated I-joists is that their longer span capabilities may eliminate the need for interior supports. An additional advantage is that the web areas of these components are designed for easy passing of plumbing, electrical, and heating ducts.

Floor sheathing, or subflooring, is used over the floor framing to provide a working platform and a base for the finish flooring. Older homes have board sheathing but newer homes generally use panel products. Common sheathing materials include plywood and OSB, which are available in a number of types to meet various sheathing requirements. Exterior-type panels with water-resistant adhesive are desirable in locations where moisture may be a problem, such as floors near plumbing fixtures or situations where the subfloor may be exposed to the weather for some time during construction.

Plywood should be installed with the grain direction of the face plies at right angles to the joists. Oriented strandboard also has a preferred direction of installation. Nailing patterns are either prescribed by code or recommended by the manufacturer. About 3 mm (1/8 in.) of space should be left between the edges and ends of abutting panels to provide for dimensional changes associated with moisture content.

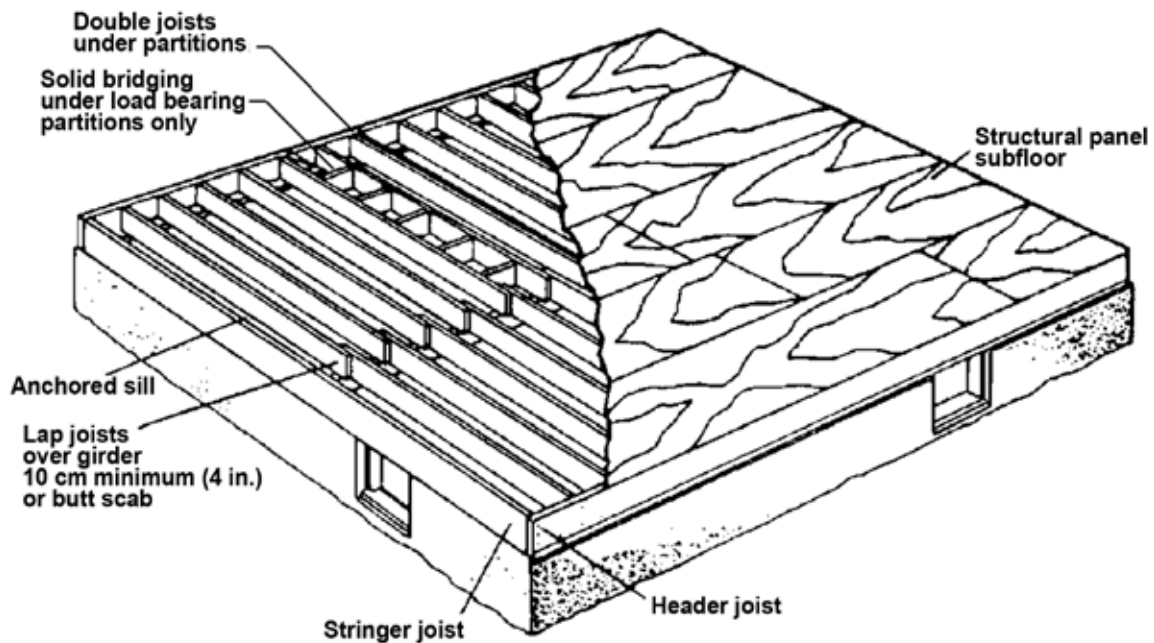


Figure 17-1. Typical floor details for platform construction with joists spliced on center beam.

Literature from APA—The Engineered Wood Association includes information on the selection and installation of the types of structural panels suitable for subfloors (APA 2007).

Exterior Walls

Exterior walls of light-frame structures are generally load bearing; they support upper floors and the roof. An exception is the gable ends of a one- or two-story building. Basically, wall framing consists of vertical studs and horizontal members, including top and bottom plates and headers (or lintels) over window and door openings. The studs are generally standard 38- by 89-mm, 38- by 114-mm, or 38- by 140-mm (nominal 2- by 4-in., 2- by 5-in., or 2- by 6-in.) members spaced between 300 and 600 mm (12 and 24 in.) on center. Selection of the stud size depends on the load the wall will carry, the need for support of wall-covering materials, and the need for insulation thickness in the walls. Headers over openings up to 1.2 m (4 ft) are often 38 by 140 mm (2 by 6 in.), nailed together face to face with spacers to bring the headers flush with the faces of the studs. Special headers that match the wall thickness are also available in the form of either prefabricated I-joists or structural composite lumber. Wall framing is erected over the platform formed by the first-floor joists and subfloor. In most cases, an entire wall is framed in a horizontal position on the subfloor, then tilted into place. If a wall is too long to make this procedure practical, sections of the wall can be formed horizontally and tilted up, then joined to adjacent sections.

Corner studs are usually prefabricated in such a configuration as to provide a nailing edge for the interior finish

(Fig. 17-2). Studs are sometimes doubled at the points of intersection with an interior partition to provide backup support for the interior wall finish. Alternatively, a horizontal block is placed midheight between exterior studs to support the partition wall. In such a case, backup clips on the partition stud are needed to accommodate the interior finish.

Upper plates are usually doubled, especially when rafters or floor joists will bear on the top plate between studs. The second top plate is added in such a way that it overlaps the first plate at corners and interior wall intersections. This provides a tie and additional rigidity to the walls. In areas subject to high winds or earthquakes, ties should be provided between the wall, floor framing, and sill plate that should be anchored to the foundation. If a second story is added to the structure, the edge floor joist is nailed to the top wall plate, and subfloor and wall framing are added in the same way as the first floor.

Sheathing for exterior walls is commonly some type of panel product. Here again, plywood or OSB may be used. Fiberboard that has been treated to impart some degree of water resistance is another option. Several types of fiberboard are available. Regular-density board sometimes requires additional bracing to provide necessary resistance to lateral loads. Intermediate-density board is used where structural support is needed. Numerous foam-type panels can also be used to impart greater thermal resistance to the walls.

In cases where the sheathing cannot provide the required racking resistance, diagonal bracing must be used. Many foam sheathings cannot provide adequate racking resistance,

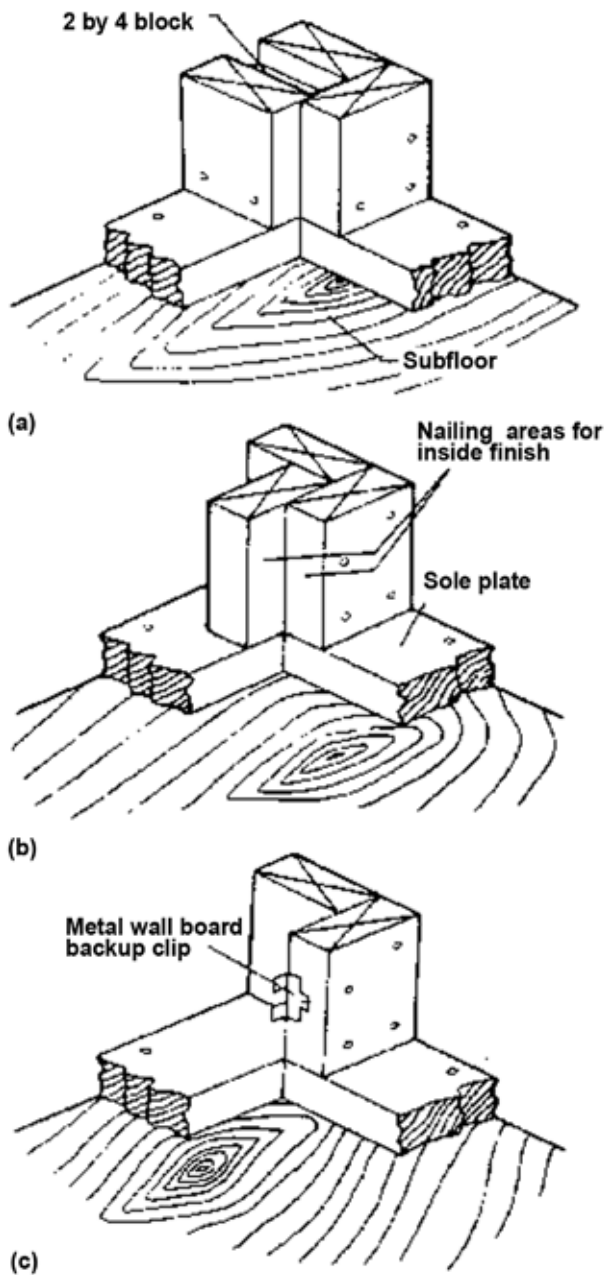


Figure 17-2. Corner details for wood stud walls that provide support for interior sheathing: (a) traditional three-stud corner with blocking; (b) three-stud corner without blocking; (c) two-stud corner with wallboard backup clips.

so either diagonal braces must be placed at the corners or structural panels must be applied over the first 1.2 m (4 ft) of the wall from the corner. When light-weight insulating foam sheathings are used, bracing is commonly provided by standard 19- by 89-mm (nominal 1- by 4-in.) lumber or steel strapping.

Ceiling and Roof

Roof systems are generally made of either the joists-and-rafter systems or with trusses. Engineered trusses reduce on-site labor and can span greater distances without intermediate support, thus eliminating the need for interior load-carrying partitions. This provides greater flexibility in the layout of interior walls. Prefabricated roof trusses are used to form the ceiling and sloped roof of more than two-thirds of current light-frame buildings. For residential buildings, the trusses are generally made using standard 38- by 89-mm (nominal 2- by 4-in.) lumber and metal plate connectors with teeth that are pressed into the pieces that form the joints (TPI 2007).

Joists and rafter systems are found in most buildings constructed prior to 1950. Rafters are generally supported on the top plate of the wall and attached to a ridge board at the roof peak. However, because the rafters slope, they tend to push out the tops of the walls. This is prevented by nailing the rafters to the ceiling joists and nailing the ceiling joists to the top wall plates (Fig. 17-3a).

A valley or hip is formed where two roof sections meet perpendicular to each other. A valley rafter is used to support short-length jack rafters that are nailed to the valley rafter and the ridge board (Fig. 17-3b). In some cases, the roof does not extend to a gable end but is sloped from some point down to the end wall to form a “hip” roof. A hip rafter supports the jack rafters, and the other ends of the jack rafters are attached to the top plates (Fig. 17-3c). In general, the same materials used for wall sheathing and subflooring are used for roof sheathing.

Wood Decks

A popular method of expanding the living area of a home is to build a wood deck adjacent to one of the exterior walls. Decks are made of preservatively treated lumber, which is generally available from local building supply dealers and, depending upon the complexity, may be built by the “do-it-yourselfer.” To ensure long life, acceptable appearance, and structural safety, several important guidelines should be followed. Proper material selection is the first step. Then, proper design and construction techniques are necessary. Finally, proper maintenance practices are necessary. Detailed recommendations for all these areas are included in *Wood Decks: Materials, Construction, and Finishing* (McDonald and others 1996) and *Prescriptive Residential Wood Deck Construction Guide* (AWC 2009).

Post-Frame and Pole Buildings

In post-frame and pole buildings, round poles or rectangular posts serve both as the foundation and the principal vertical framing element. This type of construction was known as “pole buildings” but today, with the extensive use of posts,

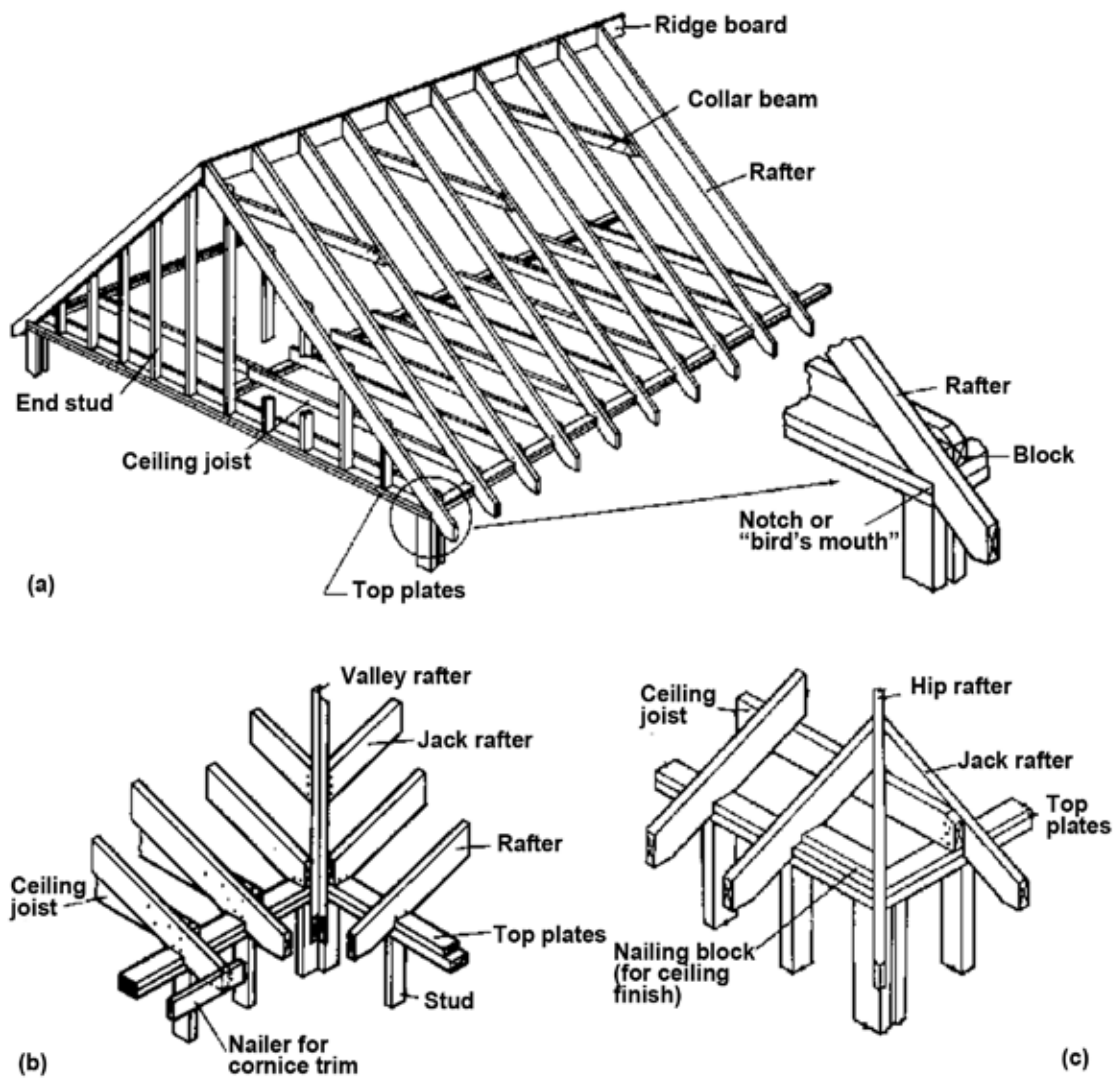


Figure 17-3. (a) A rafter-type roof with typical framing details for (b) a valley and (c) a hip corner.

is commonly referred to as “post-frame” construction. For relatively low structures, light wall and roof framing are nailed to poles or posts set at fairly frequent centers, commonly 2.4 to 3.6 m (8 to 12 ft). This type of construction was originally used with round poles for agricultural buildings, but the structural principle has been extended to commercial and residential buildings (Fig. 17-4).

Round poles present some problems for connecting framing members; these problems can be eased by slabbing the outer face of the pole. For corner poles, two faces may be slabbed at right angles. This permits better attachment of both light and heavy framing by nails or timber connectors. When the pole is left round, the outer face may be notched to provide seats for beams.

Rectangular posts are the most commonly used and may be solid sawn, glulam, or built-up by nail laminating. Built-up

posts are advantageous because only the base of the post must be preservative treated. The treated portion in the ground may have laminations of various lengths that are matched with the lengths of untreated laminations in the upper part of the post. The design of these types of posts must consider the integrity of the splice between the treated and untreated lumber. The wall system consists of horizontal girts often covered by light-gauge metal that provides some degree of racking resistance. Roof trusses made with metal plate connectors are attached to each pole, or post, and roof purlins are installed perpendicular to the trusses at spacings from 1.2 to 3.7 m (4 to 12 ft), with 2.4 m (8 ft) as a common spacing. For 2.4-m (8-ft) truss spacing, these purlins are often standard 38 by 89 mm (nominal 2 by 4 in.) spaced on 0.6-m (2-ft) centers and attached to either the top of the trusses or between the trusses using joists hangers. The roofing is often light-gauge metal that provides some diaphragm

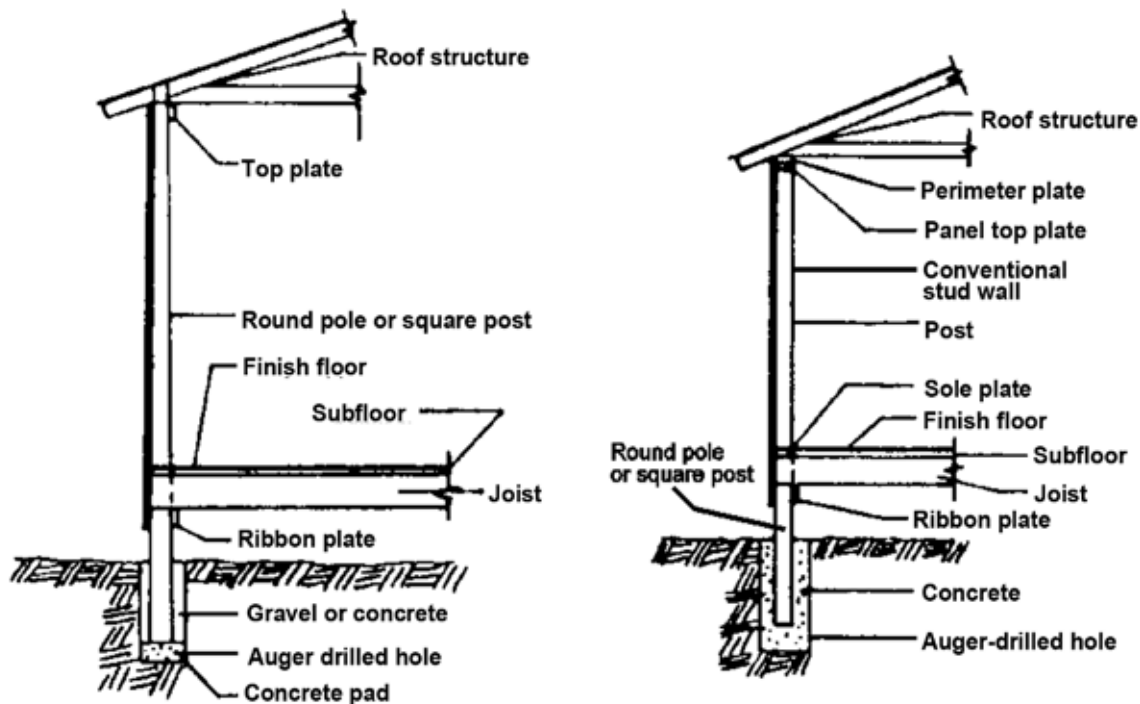


Figure 17-4. Pole and post-frame buildings: (left) pole or post forms both foundation and wall; (right) pole or post forms only the foundation for conventional platform-framed structure.

stiffness to the roof and transmits a portion of the lateral loading to the walls parallel to the direction of the load. Detailed information on the design of post-frame buildings is provided by the National Frame Builders Association (1999) or Walker and Woeste (1992).

Log Buildings

Interest is growing in log houses—from small, simple houses for vacation use to large, permanent residences (Fig. 17-5). Many U.S. firms specialize in the design and materials for log houses. Log houses nearly always feature wall systems built from natural or manufactured logs rather than from dimension lumber. Roof and floor systems may also be built with logs or conventional framing. Log house companies tend to categorize log types into two systems: round and shaped. In the round log system, the logs are machined to a smooth, fully rounded surface, and they are generally all the same diameter. In the shaped system, the logs are machined to specific shapes, generally not fully round. The exterior surfaces of the logs are generally rounded, but the interior surfaces may be either flat or round. The interface between logs is machined to form an interlocking joint.

Consensus standards have been developed for log grading and the assignment of allowable properties, and these standards are being adopted by building codes (ASTM 2009). Builders and designers need to realize that logs can reach the building site at moisture content levels greater than ideal. The effects of seasoning and the

consequences of associated shrinkage and checking must be considered. Additional information on log homes is available from The Log Home Council, National Association of Home Builders, Washington, D.C., or in *Standard on the Design and Construction of Log Structures* (ICC 2007).

Heavy Timber Buildings

Timber Frame

Timber frame houses were common in early America and are enjoying some renewed popularity today. Most barns and factory buildings dating prior to the middle of the 20th century were heavy timber frame. The traditional timber frame is made of large sawn timbers (larger than 114 by 114 mm (5 by 5 in.)) connected to one another by hand-fabricated joints, such as mortise and tenon. Construction of such a frame involves rather sophisticated joinery, as illustrated in Figure 17-6.

In today's timber frame home, a prefabricated, composite sheathing panel (1.2 by 2.4 m (4 by 8 ft)) is frequently applied directly to the frame. This panel may consist of an inside layer of 13-mm (1/2-in.) gypsum, a core layer of rigid foam insulation, and an outside layer of exterior plywood or OSB. Finish siding is applied over the composite panel. In some cases, a layer of standard 19-mm (nominal 1-in.) tongue-and-groove, solid-wood boards is applied to the frame, and a rigid, foam-exterior, plywood composite panel is then applied over the boards to form the building exterior.



Figure 17–5. Modern log homes are available in a variety of designs.

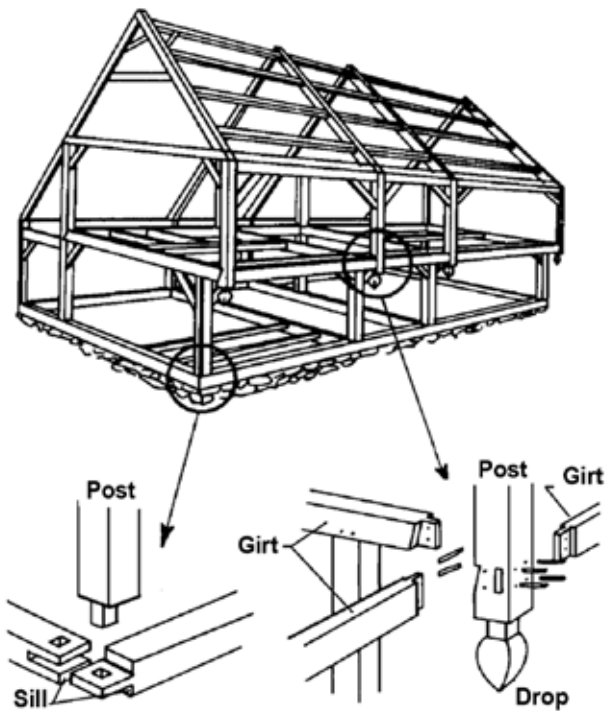


Figure 17–6. Timber frame structure with typical joint details.

Local fire regulations should be consulted about the acceptance of various foam insulations.

Framing members are cut in large cross sections; therefore, seasoning them before installation is difficult, if not impossible. Thus, the builder (and the owner) should recognize the dimensional changes that may occur as the members dry in place. The structure must be designed to accommodate these dimensional changes as well as seasoning checks, which are almost inevitable.

Mill Type

Mill-type construction has been widely used for warehouse and manufacturing structures, particularly in the eastern United States. This type of construction uses timbers of large cross sections with columns spaced in a grid according to the available lengths of beam and girder timbers. The size of the timbers makes this type of construction resistant to fire. The good insulating qualities of wood as well as the char that develops during fire result in slow penetration of fire into the large members. Thus, the members retain a large proportion of their original load-carrying capacity and stiffness for a relatively lengthy period after the onset of fire.

To be recognized as mill-type construction, the structural elements must meet specific sizes—columns cannot be less than standard 184 mm (nominal 8 in.) in dimension, and beams and girders cannot be less than standard 140 by 235 mm (nominal 6 by 10 in.) in cross section. Other limitations must be observed as well. For example, walls must be made of masonry, and concealed spaces must be avoided. The structural frame has typically been constructed of solid-sawn timbers, which should be stress graded. These timbers can now be supplanted with glulam timbers, and longer spans are permitted.

Glulam Beam

A panelized roof system using glulam roof framing is widely used for single-story commercial buildings in the southwestern United States. This system is based on supporting columns located at the corners of pre-established grids. The main glulam beams support purlins, which may be sawn timbers, glulam, parallel chord trusses, or prefabricated wood I-joists. These purlins, which are normally on 2.4-m (8-ft) centers, support preframed structural panels. The basic unit of the preframed system is a 1.2- by 2.4-m (4- by 8-ft) structural panel nailed to standard 38- by 89-mm or 38- by 140-mm (nominal 2- by 4-in. or 2- by 6-in.) stiffeners (subpurlins). The stiffeners run parallel to the 2.4-m (8-ft) dimension of the structural panel. One stiffener is located at the centerline of the panel; the other is located at an edge, with the plywood edge at the stiffener centerline. The stiffeners are precut to a length equal to the long dimension of the plywood less the thickness of the purlin, with a small allowance for the hanger.

In some cases, the purlins are erected with the hangers in place. The prefabricated panels are lifted and set into place in the hangers, and the adjoining basic panels are then attached to each other. In other cases, the basic panels are attached to one purlin on the ground. An entire panel is lifted into place to support the loose ends of the stiffeners. Additional details on this system and other glulam details are available from the American Institute of Timber Construction (www.aitc-glulam.org).

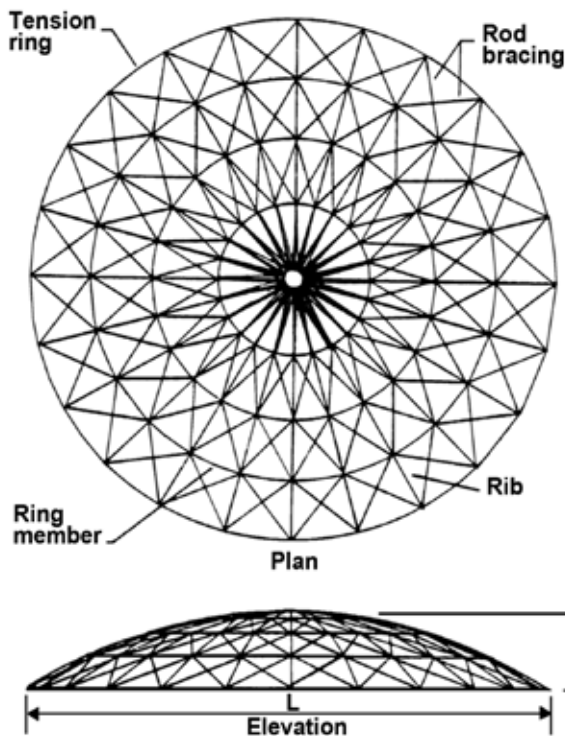


Figure 17-7. Member layout for a radial-rib dome.

Arch Structure

Arch structures are particularly suited to applications in which large, unobstructed areas are needed, such as churches, recreational buildings, and aircraft hangars. Many arch forms are possible with the variety limited only by the imagination of the architect. Churches have used arches from the beginning of glulam manufacture in the United States. Additional information on the use and design of arches is given in *The Timber Construction Manual* (AITC 2004).

Dome

Radial-rib domes consist of curved members extending from the base ring (tension ring) to a compression ring at the top of the dome along with other ring members at various elevations between the tension and compression rings (Fig. 17-7). The ring members may be curved or straight. If they are curved to the same radius as the rib and have their centers at the center of the sphere, the dome will have a spherical surface. If the ring members are straight, the dome will have an umbrella look. Connections between the ribs and the ring members are critical because of the high compressive loads in the ring members. During construction, care must be taken to stabilize the structure because the dome has a tendency to rotate about the central vertical axis.

Other dome patterns called Varax and Triax are also used. Their geometries are quite complex, and specialized computer programs are used in their design. Steel hubs used at the joints and supports are critical. An example of a Triax dome is shown in Figure 17-8.



Figure 17-8. This 161.5-m- (530-ft-) diameter Tacoma dome (Tacoma, Washington), built in 1982–1983, is one of the longest clear roof spans in the world. (Photo courtesy of Western Wood Structures, Inc., Tualatin, Oregon.)

Timber Bridges

Prior to the 20th century, timber was the major material used for both highway and railroad bridges. The development of steel and reinforced concrete provided other options, and these have become major bridge building materials. However, the U.S. inventory does contain a substantial number of timber bridges, many of which continue to carry loads beyond their design life. A recent initiative in the United States has focused research and technology transfer efforts on improving the design and performance of timber bridges. As a result, hundreds of timber highway bridges were built across the United States during the past several years, many using innovative designs and materials.

Bridges consist of a substructure and a superstructure. The substructure consists of abutments, piers, or piling, and it supports the superstructure that consists of stringers and/or a deck. The deck is often covered with a wearing surface of asphalt. Timber may be combined with other materials to form the superstructure, for example, timber deck over steel stringers. Several bridge railing systems were recently crash-tested and approved for use by the Federal Highway Administration (Faller and others 1999). Covered bridges are also undergoing a resurgence of interest, with a recent national program for the rehabilitation and restoration of numerous historic structures. The various types of timber bridge superstructures are described in the following sections. Detailed information on modern timber bridges is given in *Timber Bridges: Design, Construction, Inspection, and Maintenance* (Ritter 1992).

Log Stringer

A simple bridge type that has been used for centuries consists of one or more logs used to span the opening. Several logs may be laid side-by-side and fastened together. The log stringer bridge has been used to access logging areas and is advantageous when adequate-sized logs are available and the bridge is needed for only a short time. Unless built with a durable species, the life span of log stringer bridges is usually limited to less than 10 years.



Figure 17–9. Glulam beam bridge over the Dangerous River, near Yukatat, Alaska, consists of three 43.5-m (143-ft) spans. Each span is supported by four 2.3-m (91.5-in.-) deep glulam beams.

Sawn Lumber

Several types of bridges can be built with sawn lumber. Even though the span is usually limited to about 9 m (30 ft) because of the limited size of lumber available, this span length entails the majority of timber bridges in the United States.

Several timbers can be used to span the opening, and a transverse lumber deck can be placed over them to form a stringer and deck bridge. Lumber can be placed (on-edge) side-by-side and used to span the entire opening, forming a longitudinal deck bridge. The lumber can be fastened together with nails or large spikes in partial-width panelized bridge systems or compressed together with high-strength tension rods to form a “stress-laminated” slab-type deck.

Glulam

Structural glued-laminated (glulam) timber greatly extends the span capabilities of the same types of bridges described in the previous paragraph. Glulam stringers placed 0.6 to 1.8 m (2 to 6 ft) on center can support a glulam deck system and result in spans of 12 to 30 m (40 to 100 ft) or more (Fig. 17–9). Using glulam panels to span the opening results in a longitudinal deck system, but this is usually limited to about 9-m (30-ft) spans. These panels are either interconnected or supported at one or more locations with transverse distributor beams. Glulam beams can be used to form a solid deck and are held together with high-stress tension rods to form a stress-laminated slab-type deck. Curved glulam members can be used to produce various aesthetic effects and long-span bridges (Fig. 17–10).

Structural Composite Lumber

Two types of structural composite lumber (SCL)—laminated veneer and oriented strand—are beginning to be used to build timber bridges. Most of the same type of bridges built with either solid-sawn or glulam timber can be built with SCL (Chap. 11).

Considerations for Wood Buildings

Many factors must be considered when designing and constructing wood buildings, including structural, insulation, moisture, and sound control. The following sections provide a brief description of the design considerations for these factors. Fire safety, another important consideration, is addressed in Chapter 18.

Structural

The structural design of any building consists of combining the prescribed performance requirements with the anticipated loading. One major performance requirement is that there be an adequate margin of safety between the structure’s ultimate capacity and the maximum anticipated loading. The probability that the building will ever collapse is minimized using material property information recommended by the material manufacturers along with code-recommended design loads.

Another structural performance requirement relates to serviceability. These requirements are directed at ensuring that the structure is functional, and the most notable one is that deformations are limited. It is important to limit deformations so that floors are not too “bouncy” or that doors do not bind under certain loadings. Building codes often include recommended limits on deformation, but the designer may be provided some latitude in selecting the limits. The basic reference for structural design of wood in all building systems is the *National Design Specification for Wood Construction* (AF&PA 2005a).

Thermal Insulation and Air Infiltration Control

For most U.S. climates, the exterior envelope of a building needs to be insulated either to keep heat in the building or prevent heat from entering. Wood frame construction is well-suited to application of both cavity insulation and surface-applied insulation. The most common materials used for cavity insulation are glass fiber, mineral fiber, cellulose insulation, and spray-applied foams. For surface applications, a wide variety of sheathing insulations exist, such as rigid foam panels. Insulating sheathing placed on exterior walls may also have sufficient structural properties to provide required lateral bracing. Prefinished insulating paneling can be used as an inside finish on exterior walls or one or both sides of the interior partitions. In addition, prefinished insulation can underlay other finishes.

Attic construction with conventional rafters and ceiling joists or roof trusses can be insulated between framing members with batt, blanket, or loose-fill insulation. In some warm climates, radiant barriers and reflective insulations can provide an additional reduction in cooling loads. The “Radiant Barrier Attic Fact Sheet” from the U.S. Department of Energy (1991) provides information on climatic areas that are best suited for radiant barrier applications. This document also provides comparative information on



Figure 17–10. The Alton Saylor Memorial Bridge is a glulam deck arch bridge crossing Joncy Gorge in Angelica, New York. The center three-hinged arch spans 52 m (171 ft) and is the longest clear span in the United States. (Photo courtesy of Laminated Concepts, Inc., Big Flats, New York.)

the relative performance of these products and conventional fibrous insulations.

Existing frame construction can be insulated pneumatically using suitable loose-fill insulating material. When loose-fill materials are used in wall retrofit applications, extra care must be taken during the installation to eliminate the existence of voids within the wall cavity. All cavities should be checked prior to installation for obstructions, such as fire stop headers and wiring, that would prevent the cavity from being completely filled. Care must also be taken to install the material at the manufacturer’s recommended density to ensure that the desired thermal performance is obtained. Accessible space can be insulated by manual placement of batt, blanket, or loose-fill material.

In addition to being properly insulated, the exterior envelope of all buildings should be constructed to minimize air flow into or through the building envelope. Air flow can degrade the thermal performance of insulation and cause excessive moisture accumulation in the building envelope.

More information on insulation and air flow retarders can be found in the ASHRAE *Handbook of Fundamentals*, chapters 22 to 24 (ASHRAE 2005).

Moisture Control

Moisture sources for buildings can be broadly classified as follows: (1) surface runoff of precipitation from land areas, (2) ground water or wet soil, (3) precipitation or irrigation water that falls on the building, (4) indoor humidity, (5) outdoor humidity, (6) moisture from use of wet building materials or construction under wet conditions, and (7) errors, accidents, and maintenance problems associated with indoor plumbing. At a given instant of time, the categories are distinct from each other. Water can change phase and

can be transported over space by various mechanisms. Water may therefore be expected to move between categories over time, blurring the distinctions between categories. Christian (1994) provides quantitative estimates of potential moisture loads from various sources.

Moisture accumulation within a building or within parts of a building can affect human comfort and health, influence building durability, and necessitate maintenance and repair activities (or can require that these activities be undertaken more frequently). Moisture accumulation in the building’s thermal envelope is also likely to influence the building’s energy performance. Some problems associated with moisture accumulation are easily observed. Examples include: (a) mold and mildew, (b) decay of wood-based materials, (c) corrosion of metals, (d) damage caused by expansion of materials from moisture (such as buckling of wood floors), and (e) decline in visual appearance (such as paint peeling, distortion of wood-based siding, or efflorescence on masonry surfaces). Some problems associated with moisture accumulation may not be readily apparent but are nonetheless real; an example is reduced performance of insulated assemblies (resulting in increased energy consumption). Detailed discussions on the effects and the control of moisture in buildings can be found in an ASTM standard (ASTM 2008), the ASHRAE *Handbook of Fundamentals*, chapters 23 and 24 (ASHRAE 2005), and Lstiburek and Carmody (1999).

Mold, Mildew, Dust Mites, and Human Health

Mold and mildew in buildings are offensive, and the spores can cause respiratory problems and allergic reactions in humans. Mold and mildew will grow on most surfaces if the relative humidity at the surface is above a critical value and the surface temperatures are conducive to growth. The longer the surface remains above this critical relative humidity level, the more likely mold will appear; the higher the humidity or temperature, the shorter the time needed for germination. The surface relative humidity is a complex function of material moisture content, material properties, local temperature, and humidity conditions. In addition, mold growth depends on the type of surface. Mildew and mold can usually be avoided by limiting surface relative humidity conditions >80% to short periods. Only for nonporous surfaces that are regularly cleaned should this criterion be relaxed. Most molds grow at temperatures approximately above 4 °C (40 °F). Moisture accumulation at temperatures below 4 °C (40 °F) may not cause mold and mildew if the material is allowed to dry out below the critical moisture content before the temperature increases above 4 °C (40 °F).

Dust mites can trigger allergies and are an important cause of asthma. They thrive at high relative humidity levels (>70%) at room temperature, but will not survive at sustained relative humidity levels less than 50%. However, these relative humidity levels relate to local conditions in the typical places that mites tend to inhabit (for example, mattresses, carpets, soft furniture).

Paint Failure and Other Appearance Problems

Moisture trapped behind paint films may cause failure of the paint (Chap. 16). Water or condensation may also cause streaking or staining. Excessive swings in moisture content of wood-based panels or boards may cause buckling or warp. Excessive moisture in masonry and concrete can produce efflorescence, a white powdery area or lines. When combined with low temperatures, excessive moisture can cause freeze–thaw damage and spalling (chipping).

Structural Failures

Structural failures caused by decay of wood are rare but have occurred. Decay generally requires a wood moisture content equal to or greater than fiber saturation (usually about 30%) and temperatures between 10 and 43 °C (50 and 100 °F). Wood moisture content levels above fiber saturation are only possible in green lumber or by absorption of liquid water from condensation, leaks, ground water, or other saturated materials in contact with the wood. To maintain a safety margin, a 20% moisture content is sometimes used during field inspections as the maximum allowable level. Once established, decay fungi produce water that enables them to maintain moisture conditions conducive to their growth. See Chapter 14 for more information on wood decay.

Rusting or corrosion of nails, nail plates, or other metal building products is also a potential cause of structural failure. In the rare cases of catastrophic structural failure of wood buildings (almost always under the influence of a large seismic load or an abnormally high wind load), failure of mechanical connections usually plays a critical role. Corrosion may occur at high relative humidity levels near the metal surface or as a result of liquid water from elsewhere. Wood moisture content levels >20% encourage corrosion of steel fasteners in wood, especially if the wood is treated with preservatives. In buildings, metal fasteners are often the coldest surfaces, which encourages condensation on, and corrosion of, fasteners.

Effect on Heat Flow

Moisture in the building envelope can significantly degrade the thermal performance of most insulation materials but especially the thermal resistance of fibrous insulations and open cell foams. The degradation is most pronounced when daily temperature reversals across the insulation drive moisture back and forth through the insulation.

Moisture Control Strategies

Strategies to control moisture accumulation fall into two general categories: (1) minimize moisture entry into the building envelope and (2) provide for removal (dissipation) of moisture from the building envelope. Inasmuch as building materials and assemblies are often wetted during construction, design strategies that encourage dissipation of moisture from the assemblies are highly recommended. Such strategies will also allow the building to better withstand wetting events that occur rarely, and thus are largely

unanticipated, but which nonetheless occur at least once during the building’s lifespan. Effective moisture dissipation strategies typically involve drainage and ventilation.

The transport mechanisms that can move moisture into or out of building envelopes have various transport capabilities. The mechanisms, in order of the quantities of moisture that they can move, are as follows: (a) liquid water movement, including capillary movement; (b) water vapor transport by air movement; and (c) water vapor diffusion. Trechsel (2001) discusses these in detail. In design for control of moisture entry, it is logical to prioritize control of the transport mechanisms in the order of their transport capabilities. A logical prioritization is thus as follows: (a) control of liquid entry by proper site grading and installing gutters and downspouts and appropriate flashing around windows, doors, and chimneys; (b) control of air leakage by installing air flow retarders or careful sealing by taping and caulking; and (c) control of vapor diffusion by placing vapor retarders on the “warm” side of the insulation. Trechsel (2001) makes the point that although air leakage can potentially move much greater amounts of moisture than diffusion, the potential for moisture damage is not necessarily proportional to the amount of moisture movement, and thus that moisture diffusion in design of building envelopes should not be ignored.

In inhibiting vapor diffusion at the interior surfaces of building assemblies in heating climates (or alternatively, encouraging such diffusion at interior surfaces of building assemblies in cooling climates), control of indoor humidity levels is usually important. In heating climates, ventilation of the living space with outdoor air and limiting indoor sources of moisture (wet firewood, unvented dryers, humidifiers) will lower indoor humidity levels. This is very effective at lowering the rate of moisture diffusion into the building’s thermal envelope. In cooling climates, the lower indoor humidity levels afforded by mechanical dehumidification will encourage dissipation of moisture (to the interior) from the building’s thermal envelope. More information on the definition of heating and cooling climates and specific moisture control strategies can be found in the *ASHRAE Handbook of Fundamentals*, chapter 24 (ASHRAE 2005).

Sound Control

An important design consideration for residential and office buildings is the control of sound that either enters the structure from outside or is transmitted from one room to another. Wood frame construction can achieve levels of sound control equal to or greater than more massive construction, such as concrete. However, to do so requires designing for both airborne and impact noise insulation.

Airborne noise insulation is the resistance to transmission of airborne noises, such as traffic or speech, either through or around an assembly such as a wall. Noises create vibrations on the structural surfaces that they contact, and the design challenge is to prevent this vibration from reaching and

Table 17–1. Sound transmission class (STC) ratings for typical wood-frame walls

STC rating	Privacy afforded	Wall structure
25	Normal speech easily understood	6-mm (1/4-in.) wood panels nailed on each side of standard 38- by 89-mm (nominal 2- by 4-in.) studs.
30	Normal speech audible but not intelligible	9.5-mm (3/8-in.) gypsum wallboard nailed to one side of standard 38- by 89-mm (nominal 2- by 4-in.) studs.
35	Loud speech audible and fairly understandable	20-mm (5/8-in.) gypsum wallboard nailed to both sides of standard 38- by 89-mm (nominal 2- by 4-in.) studs.
40	Loud speech audible but not intelligible	Two layers of 20-mm (5/8-in.) gypsum wallboard nailed to both sides of standard 38- by 89-mm (nominal 2- by 4-in.) studs.
45	Loud speech barely audible	Two sets of standard 38- by 64-mm (nominal 2- by 3-in.) studs staggered 0.2 m (8 in.) on centers fastened by standard 38- by 89-mm (nominal 2- by 4-in.) base and head plates with two layers of 20-mm (5/8-in.) gypsum wallboard nailed on the outer edge of each set of studs.
50	Shouting barely audible	Standard 38- by 89-mm (nominal 2- by 4-in.) wood studs with resilient channels nailed horizontally to both sides with 20-mm (5/8-in.) gypsum wallboard screwed to channels on each side.
55	Shouting not audible	Double row of standard 38- by 89-mm (nominal 2- by 4-in.) studs 0.4 m (16 in.) on centers fastened to separate plates spaced 25 mm (1 in.) apart. Two layers of 20-mm (5/8-in.) gypsum wallboard screwed 0.3 m (12 in.) on center to the studs. An 89-mm- (3.5-in.-) thick sound-attenuation blanket installed in one stud cavity.

leaving the opposite side of the structural surface. Sound transmission class (STC) is the rating used to characterize airborne noise insulation. A wall system with a high STC rating is effective in preventing the transmission of sound. Table 17–1 lists the STC ratings for several types of wall systems; detailed information for both wall and floor are given in FPL–GTR–43 (Rudder 1985).

Impact noise insulation is the resistance to noise generated by footsteps or dropping objects, generally addressed at floor–ceiling assemblies in multi-family dwellings. Impact insulation class (IIC) is the rating used to characterize the impact noise insulation of an assembly. Both the character of the flooring material and the structural details of the floor influence the IIC rating. Additional information on IIC ratings for wood construction is given in FPL–GTR–59 (Sherwood and Moody 1989).

Literature Cited

AF&PA. 2001. Wood frame construction manual for one- and two-family dwellings, 2001 edition. Washington, DC: American Forest & Paper Association.

AF&PA. 2005a. National design specification for wood construction. Washington, DC: American Forest & Paper Association.

AF&PA. 2005b. Span tables for joists and rafters. Washington, DC: American Forest & Paper Association.

AF&PA. 2007. Permanent wood foundation design specification. Washington, DC: American Forest & Paper Association.

AITC. 2004. Timber construction manual, 5th edition. American Institute of Timber Construction. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

APA. 2007. Engineered wood construction guide: floor construction. Section 2, Form E30. September 2007. Tacoma, WA: APA–The Engineered Wood Association.

ASHRAE. 2005. Handbook of fundamentals. Atlanta, GA: American Society of Heating, Refrigerating and Air-Conditioning Engineers.

ASTM. 2008. Standard guide for limiting water-induced damage to buildings. ASTM E241-08. West Conshohocken, PA: American Society for Testing and Materials.

ASTM. 2009. Standard methods for establishing stress grades for structural members used in log buildings. ASTM D3957-09. West Conshohocken, PA: American Society for Testing and Materials.

AWC. 2009. Prescriptive wood deck construction guide. Washington, DC: American Wood Council.

Christian, J.E. 1994. Moisture sources. Chapter 8 in moisture control in buildings, ASTM MNL18 (ISBN 0-8031-2051-6). Philadelphia, PA: American Society for Testing and Materials.

Faller, R.K.; Ritter, M.A.; Rosson, B.T.; Duwadi, S.R. 1999. Railing systems for use on timber deck bridges. Underground and other structural design issues. Washington, D.C.: National Academy Press. Transportation research record 1656. pp. 110–119.

Chapter 17 Use of Wood in Buildings and Bridges

ICC. 2007. Standard on the design and construction of log structures. ICC400-2007. Washington, DC: International Code Council.

Lstiburek, J.; Carmody, J. 1999. Moisture control handbook: principles and practices for residential and small commercial buildings. New York: Wiley.

McDonald, K.A.; Falk, R.H.; Williams, R.S.; Winandy, J.E. 1996. Wood decks: materials, construction, and finishing. Madison, WI: Forest Products Society.

National Frame Builders Association. 1999. Post frame building design manual. Glenview, IL: National Frame Builders Association.

Ritter, M.A. 1992. Timber bridges—design, construction, inspection and maintenance. EM 7700–8. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, Engineering Staff.

Rudder, F.F. Jr. 1985. Airborne sound transmission loss characteristics of wood-frame construction. Gen. Tech. Rep. FPL–GTR–43. Madison, WI: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, Forest Products Laboratory.

Sherwood, G.E.; Moody, R.C. 1989. Light-frame wall and floor systems—analysis and performance. Gen. Tech. Rep. FPL–GTR–59. Madison, WI: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, Forest Products Laboratory.

Sherwood, G.E.; Stroh, R.C. 1989. Wood frame house construction. Agric. Handb. 73. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office. (Also available from Armonk Press, Armonk, NY.)

TPI. 2007. National design standards for metal plate connected wood truss construction. ANSI/TPI 1–2007. Alexandria, VA: Truss Plate Institute.

Trechsel, H.R. 2001. Moisture primer. Chapter 1 in moisture analysis and condensation control in buildings. ASTM MNL40 (ISBN 0-8031-2089-3). West Conshohocken, PA: ASTM International.

U.S. Department of Energy. 1991. Radiant barrier attic fact sheet. Oak Ridge, TN: Oak Ridge National Laboratory.

Walker, J.N.; Woeste, F.E. 1992. Post-frame building design. ASAE Monograph No. 11. St. Joseph, MI: American Society of Agricultural and Biological Engineers.