

Fundamentals of Building Construction Materials and Methods
7th Edition PDF

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SEVENTH EDITION

7

FUNDAMENTALS OF
**BUILDING
CONSTRUCTION**

MATERIALS AND
METHODS

EDWARD ALLEN
JOSEPH IANO

WILEY

FUNDAMENTALS OF BUILDING CONSTRUCTION



FUNDAMENTALS OF BUILDING CONSTRUCTION

M A T E R I A L S A N D M E T H O D S

SEVENTH EDITION

Edward Allen and Joseph Iano

WILEY

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CONTENTS

Preface to the Seventh Edition xi

1 Making Buildings 3

Learning to Build 4

Buildings and the Environment 4

■ OTHER SUSTAINABLE BUILDING PROGRAMS AND STANDARDS 8

The Work of the Design Professional 12

The Work of the Construction Professional 20

Trends in the Delivery of Design and Construction Services 25



2 Foundations and Sitework 33

Foundation Requirements 34

Earth Materials 35

■ SUSTAINABILITY AND FOUNDATIONS AND SITEWORK 41

Earthwork and Excavation 42

Foundations 50

Foundations as Building Enclosure 65

Sitework 72

Designing Foundations 75

Foundations and the Building Code 75

3 Wood 79

Trees 80

■ SUSTAINABILITY AND WOOD 84

Lumber 84

Wood Products 96

Plastic Lumber 102

Wood Panel Products 102

Protecting Wood from Decay and Fire 106

■ CHEMICAL WOOD PRESERVATIVE TREATMENTS 107

Wood Fasteners and Adhesives 109

■ WOOD PRODUCT ADHESIVES AND FORMALDEHYDE 115

Prefabricated Wood Components 115



CASE STUDY 121
French American School



4 Heavy Timber and Mass Timber Construction 125

Types of Construction 126

■ SUSTAINABILITY AND HEAVY TIMBER AND MASS TIMBER CONSTRUCTION 129

Fire Resistance of Large Wood Members 131

■ CALCULATING THE FIRE RESISTANCE OF WOOD MEMBERS 131

Traditional Heavy Timber Construction 132

Contemporary Heavy Timber Construction 134

Mass Timber Construction 140

Wood–Concrete Composite Construction 143

Longer Spans in Heavy Timber and Mass Timber 144

■ PRELIMINARY DESIGN OF HEAVY TIMBER AND MASS TIMBER STRUCTURES 148

5 Wood Light Frame Construction 151

History 153

Platform Frame 154

■ SUSTAINABILITY AND WOOD LIGHT FRAME CONSTRUCTION 156

Foundations for Wood Light Frame Structures 156

Building the Frame 164

Variations on Wood Light Frame Construction 199

■ PRELIMINARY DESIGN OF WOOD LIGHT FRAME STRUCTURES 202

Wood Light Frame Construction and the Building Codes 202

Uniqueness of Wood Light Frame Construction 204

6 Exterior Finishes for Wood Light Frame Construction 211

Protection from the Weather 212

Roofing 213

Windows and Doors 220

■ PAINTS AND COATINGS 224

Siding 228

Corner Boards and Exterior Trim 237

Sealing Exterior Joints 238

■ SUSTAINABILITY AND PAINTS AND OTHER ARCHITECTURAL COATINGS 240

Exterior Painting, Finish Grading, and Landscaping 240

Exterior Construction 240

7 Interior Finishes for Wood Light Frame Construction 245

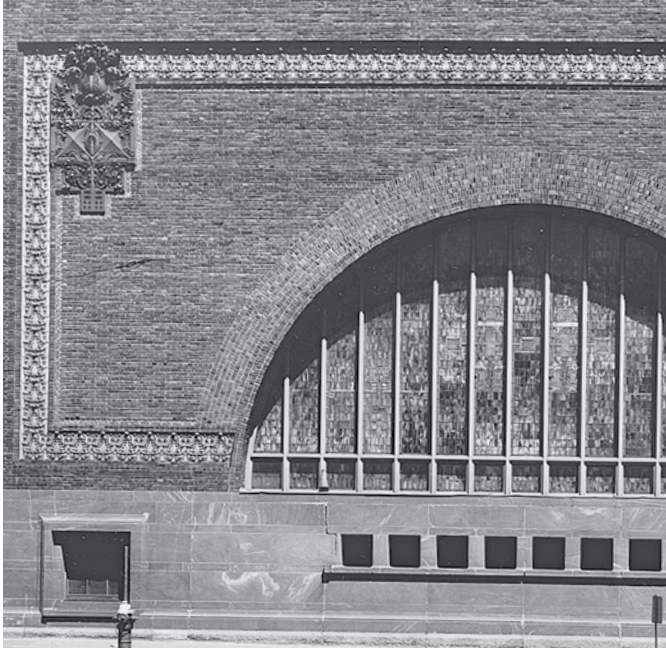
Completing the Building Enclosure 253

■ SUSTAINABILITY AND INSULATION MATERIALS FOR WOOD LIGHT FRAME CONSTRUCTION 262

Wall and Ceiling Finish 264

Millwork and Finish Carpentry 265

- **PROPORTIONING FIREPLACES** 266
- **PROPORTIONING STAIRS** 280
- Flooring and Ceramic Tile Work 282
- Finishing Touches 284



8 Brick Masonry 289

- History 290
- Mortar 293
- **SUSTAINABILITY AND BRICK MASONRY** 296
- Brick 296
- Brick Masonry 304
- Masonry Wall Construction 319

9 Stone and Concrete Masonry 329

- Stone Masonry 330
- **SUSTAINABILITY AND STONE AND CONCRETE MASONRY** 343
- Concrete Masonry 348
- Other Types of Masonry Units 358
- Masonry Wall Construction 359

10 Masonry Wall Construction 363

- Types of Masonry Walls 364
- **PRELIMINARY DESIGN OF LOADBEARING MASONRY STRUCTURES** 372
- Spanning Systems for Masonry Bearing Wall Construction 372
- Detailing Masonry Walls 376
- Special Problems of Masonry Construction 380
- **MOVEMENT JOINTS IN BUILDINGS** 382
- Masonry Paving 388
- Masonry and the Building Codes 389
- Uniqueness of Masonry 389



11 Steel Frame Construction 395

- History 396
- The Material Steel 398
- **PRELIMINARY DESIGN OF STEEL STRUCTURES** 401
- Joining Steel Members 409

Details of Steel Framing 415

- **SEISMIC FORCE RESISTING SYSTEMS** 421

The Construction Process 426

Fire Protection of Steel Framing 442

Longer Spans and Higher-Capacity Columns in Steel 447

- **FABRIC STRUCTURES** 454
- **SUSTAINABILITY AND STEEL FRAME CONSTRUCTION** 458

Steel and the Building Codes 459

Uniqueness of Steel 459

12 Light Gauge Steel Frame Construction 467

The Concept of Light Gauge Steel Construction 468

- **SUSTAINABILITY AND LIGHT GAUGE STEEL FRAMING** 469

Light Gauge Steel Framing 470

Other Uses of Light Gauge Steel Framing 479

- **PRELIMINARY DESIGN OF LIGHT GAUGE STEEL FRAME STRUCTURES** 481

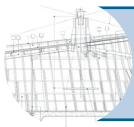
Insulating Light Gauge Steel Frame Structures 481

Finishes for Light Gauge Steel Framing 482

Advantages and Disadvantages of Light Gauge Steel Framing 482

Light Gauge Steel Framing and the Building Codes 482

- **METALS IN ARCHITECTURE** 484



CASE STUDY 490

Camera Obscura at Mitchell Park,
Greenport, New York

13 Concrete Construction 495

History 496

Cement and Concrete 497

- **SUSTAINABILITY AND CONCRETE CONSTRUCTION** 500

Making and Placing Concrete 503

Formwork 507

Reinforcing 508

Concrete Creep 522

Prestressing 522

Concrete Standards 527

Innovations in Concrete 527

14 Sitecast Concrete Framing Systems 533

Casting a Concrete Slab on Grade 535

Casting a Concrete Wall 540

Casting a Concrete Column 544

One-Way Floor and Roof Framing Systems 545

Two-Way Floor and Roof Framing Systems 555

Sitecast Posttensioned Framing Systems 561

Other Types of Sitecast Concrete 562

- **CUTTING CONCRETE, STONE, AND MASONRY** 568

Longer Spans in Sitecast Concrete 570

Designing Economical Sitecast Concrete Buildings 572

- **PRELIMINARY DESIGN OF SITECAST CONCRETE STRUCTURES** 574

Sitecast Concrete and the Building Codes 575

Uniqueness of Sitecast Concrete 575



15 Precast Concrete Framing Systems **583**

Precast, Prestressed Concrete Structural Elements 586

■ PRELIMINARY DESIGN OF PRECAST CONCRETE STRUCTURES 587

Assembly Concepts for Precast Concrete Buildings 588

Manufacture of Precast Concrete Structural Elements 589

Joining Precast Concrete Members 595

■ FASTENING TO CONCRETE 596

Composite Precast/Sitecast Concrete Construction 609

The Construction Process 609

■ SUSTAINABILITY AND PRECAST CONCRETE FRAMING SYSTEMS 610

Precast Concrete and the Building Codes 611

Uniqueness of Precast Concrete 611

16 Designing the Building Enclosure **621**

Functional Requirements of the Building Enclosure 622

■ SUSTAINABILITY AND THE BUILDING ENCLOSURE 629

Keeping Water Out 629

Controlling the Flow of Heat 634

Controlling Air Leakage 636

Controlling the Diffusion of Water Vapor 638

Sealing Joints in the Exterior Wall 641

17 Roofing **649**

Low-Slope Roofs 651

■ SUSTAINABILITY AND ROOFING 656

Steep Roofs 671

Cool Roofs 684

■ DISSIMILAR METALS AND GALVANIC CORROSION 686

Green Roofs 688

Photovoltaic Systems 690

Roofing and the Building Codes 691



18 Glass and Glazing **695**

History 696

The Material Glass 699

■ SUSTAINABILITY AND GLASS 700

■ **OTHER TYPES OF GLASS 711**

Glazing 712

Glass and Energy 721

Glass and the Building Codes 721



CASE STUDY 726

Skating Rink at Yerba Buena Gardens

19 Windows and Doors 731

Windows 732

■ **PLASTICS IN BUILDING CONSTRUCTION 739**

■ **SUSTAINABILITY AND WINDOWS AND DOORS 745**

Doors 745

Other Window and Door Requirements 752

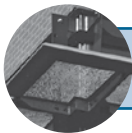
20 Cladding with Masonry and Concrete 759

Masonry Veneer Curtain Walls 760

Stone Curtain Walls 767

Precast Concrete Curtain Walls 771

Exterior Insulation and Finish Systems 774



CASE STUDY 778

Seattle University School of Law

21 Cladding with Metal and Glass 783

Aluminum 784

■ **SUSTAINABILITY AND CLADDING WITH METAL AND GLASS 789**

Aluminum and Glass Framing Systems 791

An Outside Glazed Curtain Wall System 797

Double-Skin Facades 800

Sloped Glazing Systems 800

The Curtain Wall Design Process 801

Metal Panel Cladding 801

22 Selecting Interior Finishes 807

Installation of Mechanical and Electrical Services 808

■ **SUSTAINABILITY AND INTERIOR FINISHES 810**

The Sequence of Interior Finishing Operations 810

Selecting Interior Finishes 811

■ **OTHER SURFACE FLAMMABILITY CRITERIA 815**

Long-Term Trends in Interior Finish Systems 817

23 Interior Walls and Partitions 821

Interior Walls and Fire Criteria 822

Partition Framing 823

■ **SUSTAINABILITY AND GYPSUM AND OTHER WALL COVERING PRODUCTS 826**

Plaster Partitions 827

Gypsum Board Partitions 837

■ **PLASTER ORNAMENT 838**

Masonry Partitions 848

Wall and Partition Facings 848

24 Finish Ceilings and Floors 855

Finish Ceilings 856

Types of Ceilings 857

■ **SUSTAINABILITY AND FINISH CEILINGS AND FLOORS 866**

Finish Flooring 867

Types of Finish Flooring Materials 871

Appendix 884

Glossary 886

Index 917

PREFACE TO THE SEVENTH EDITION

First published over a quarter century ago, *Fundamentals of Building Construction: Materials and Methods* has wrought a revolution in building construction education. It made a previously unpopular area of study not merely palatable but vibrant and well liked. It has taken a practical, and at times undervalued, body of knowledge and made it widely recognized as centrally relevant to good building design. It has replaced dry, unattractive books with a well-designed, readable volume that students value and keep as a reference work. It was the first book in its field to be evenhanded in its coverage and profusely and effectively illustrated throughout. It was the first to release the teacher from the burden of explaining everything in the subject, thereby freeing class time for discussions, case studies, field trips, and other enrichments.

Gaining a useful knowledge of the materials and methods of building construction is crucial and a necessity for the student of architecture, engineering, or construction, but it can be a daunting task. The field is broad, diverse, complex, and under constant change, such that it seems impossible to ever master. This book has gained its preeminent status as an academic text in this field because of its logical organization, outstanding illustrations, clear writing, and distinctive philosophy.

It is *integrative*, presenting a unified narrative that interweaves issues of building science, material properties, building craft, and legal constraints so that the reader does not have to refer to separate parts of the book to make the connections among these issues. The elements of building construction are presented as whole working systems rather than disconnected parts.

It is *selective* rather than comprehensive. This makes it easy and pleasant for the reader to gain a working knowledge that can later be expanded, without piling on so many facts and figures that the reader becomes discouraged from learning about construction. This book deals, as its subtitle indicates, with fundamentals.

It is *empowering* because it is structured around the process of designing and constructing buildings.

The student of architecture will find that it features the design possibilities of the various materials and systems. Students interested in building or managing the construction process will find its organization around construction sequences to be invaluable.

This seventh edition incorporates extensive updates and revisions. Chapter 4, now entitled “Heavy Timber and Mass Timber Construction,” covers new and exciting developments in the design and construction of tall wood buildings. We discuss mass timber construction methods, upcoming building code provisions that will regulate this new construction type, and more. A rewritten chapter, now titled “Designing the Building Enclosure,” comprehensively addresses in one place all aspects of building enclosure (“building envelope”) science, making this important material easier for students to access and instructors to teach. In Chapter 1, our coverage of sustainable building has kept pace with this evolving topic, including, for example, an expanded discussion of the increasingly sophisticated tools available for assessing the environmental and health impacts of building materials. Throughout the remainder of the text the reader will find extensive updates in content, along with new illustrations and photographs, reflecting the latest practices and developments in the field.

In this edition, a special thank-you goes to Fast + Epp engineers, and in particular, Davin Lewis, P.E., of that firm, for their generous advice and assistance. Thank you as well to David Barber of Arup and Colin Shane of RDH for their efforts. Lastly, we offer our thanks to the many teachers, students, and professionals who have purchased and used this work. Your satisfaction is our greatest reward, your loyalty is greatly appreciated, and your comments are always welcome!

—E.A., Weyland, Massachusetts

—J.I., Seattle, Washington

Additional resources for instructors and students are readily available via the companion website: www.wiley.com/go/allenfb7e.

Icons throughout the text indicate SketchUp exercises and animations which are also available for download on the companion website.

FUNDAMENTALS OF BUILDING CONSTRUCTION





MAKING BUILDINGS

- **Learning to Build**
- **Buildings and the Environment**
 - Sustainable Buildings
 - Sustainable Building Materials
 - The Impact of Sustainable Buildings
- **The Work of the Design Professional**
 - Environmental and Land Use Regulations
 - Building Codes
 - Other Constraints
 - Construction Standards and Information Resources
- **The Work of the Construction Professional**
 - Providing Construction Services
 - Construction Scheduling
 - Managing Construction
- **Trends in the Delivery of Design and Construction Services**
 - Fostering Collaboration
 - Improving Productivity
 - Advances in Information Technology

OTHER SUSTAINABLE BUILDING PROGRAMS
AND STANDARDS

An ironworker connects a steel wide-flange beam to a column.
(Courtesy of Bethlehem Steel Company.)

We build to satisfy our practical and spiritual needs. Not all human activity can take place outdoors. We need shelter from sun, wind, rain, and snow. We need dry, level surfaces for our activities. On these sheltered surfaces, we need air that is warmer or cooler, more or less humid, than outdoors. We need less light by day, and more by night, than is offered by the natural world. We need services that provide energy, communications, water, and disposal of wastes. And we need structures that house and express our cultural and spiritual aspirations. So, we gather materials and assemble them into the constructions we call buildings in an attempt to satisfy these needs.

LEARNING TO BUILD

This book is about the materials and methods of building construction. Throughout it, alternative ways of building are described: different structural systems, different methods of building enclosure, and different interior finishes, each with characteristics that distinguish it from the alternatives. Sometimes a choice between alternatives is based on visual characteristics, such as when a particular finish material is preferred for its surface character and beauty, or when a material such as concrete is selected over steel for its massiveness and plasticity. Sometimes choices are purely technical, such as the selection of a membrane that is impervious to water for a low-slope roof, or when a particular method of masonry wall reinforcing is selected to provide resistance to earthquake forces. Choices of materials and building systems may be made with the goal of minimizing environmental impacts or they may be dictated by regulations intended to protect public safety and welfare. Construction costs, energy efficiency, durability, and many other factors come into consideration.

This textbook will start you down the path of becoming skilled at making such choices. But it is incumbent upon the student to go beyond what is provided here—to other books, product literature, trade publications, professional periodicals, websites, and

especially the design office, workshop, and building site. One must learn how materials feel in the hand; how they look in a building; how they are manufactured, worked, and put in place; how they perform in service; how they age with time. One must become familiar with the people and organizations that produce buildings—the architects, engineers, product manufacturers, materials suppliers, contractors, subcontractors, workers, inspectors, managers, and building owners—and learn to understand their respective methods, problems, and points of view. There is no other way to gain the breadth of information and experience necessary than to get involved in the art and practice of building.

In the meantime, this long and hopefully enjoyable process of education in the materials and methods of building construction can begin with the information presented within this text.

Go into the field where you can see the machines and methods at work that make the modern buildings, or stay in construction direct and simple until you can work naturally into building-design from the nature of construction.

—Frank Lloyd Wright, “To the Young Man in Architecture,” 1931

BUILDINGS AND THE ENVIRONMENT

In constructing and occupying buildings, we expend large quantities of the earth's resources and generate a significant portion of its environmental pollution. The construction and operation of buildings account for as much as a third of the world's energy consumption and carbon dioxide (a global warming gas) emissions. In the United States, building operation and construction consume between a third and a half of the country's energy, 70 percent of its electricity, 12 percent of its potable water, 30 percent of its raw materials, and a third of its solid waste. And these same activities are responsible for as much as 45 percent of the country's carbon dioxide emissions. Buildings are also significant emitters of particulates and other air pollutants. In short, building construction and operation contribute to many forms of environmental degradation and place a significant burden on the earth's resources.

In 1987, the United Nations report “Our Common Future” provided a concise definition of *sustainable development*: building to meet the needs of the present generation without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. But, by consuming irreplaceable fossil fuels and other nonrenewable resources, by building in sprawling patterns on prime agricultural land, by using destructive land development and forestry practices that degrade natural ecosystems, by generating substances that pollute water, soil, and air, and by generating copious amounts of waste materials that are eventually incinerated or buried in the earth, we have been building in a manner that will make it increasingly difficult for our children and their children to meet their needs for communities, buildings, and healthy lives. Sustainable building construction demands a more symbiotic relationship between people, buildings, communities, and

FIGURE 1.1

The Bullitt Center, Seattle, designed by architect Miller Hull Partnership, was the first commercial building to achieve Living Building certification in 2015.

This building generates as much as 60 percent more electricity than it uses and consumes less than one-quarter of the energy of a typical U.S. office building.

(Photo by Joe Iano.)

the natural environment. Sustainable buildings—in both their construction and operation—must use less energy, consume fewer resources, cause less pollution of the air, water, and soil, reduce waste, discourage wasteful land development practices, and contribute to the protection of natural environments and ecosystems.

Over the decades since the release of “Our Common Future,” the practice of sustainable design and construction, also called *green building*, has grown. The understanding of the interplay between buildings and the environment has deepened, and standards for assessing the sustainability of materials and construction practices have grown in number and matured in approach. The definition of sustainability has expanded to address the human health impacts of buildings and to include issues of social and economic fairness. And the expectations for the performance of sustainable buildings have, in some cases, moved from doing less environmental harm to doing no harm or even undoing previous such harms. That is, a sustainable building can be designed to consume no energy or even generate excess energy, cause no air pollution or even help clean the atmosphere, and so on (Figure 1.1).

Also during this time, interest in and adoption of green building has broadened among public agencies, private owners, and the users of buildings. The design and construction industry has become more skillful at applying green practices, and sustainable building has become more



integrated with mainstream practice. As a result, sustainable building performance continues to improve while the premium in cost and effort to design and construct such buildings continues to decline.

Sustainable Buildings

Sustainable building requires a holistic, interdisciplinary approach to design and construction. For example, one project goal may be to provide natural daylighting, as a means to improving productivity and the well-being of building occupants. Good daylighting design reduces reliance on electric lighting. This, in turn, reduces electricity consumption and excess heat generated by the electric lights. This, then, reduces cooling loads and allows the building's cooling system to be reduced in capacity and physical size. Daylighting design can also influence building

siting and shape, the arrangement and sizes of spaces within the building, and the building structure and enclosure. As a result of the decision to provide natural daylighting, many building systems are impacted, and many opportunities for cost savings, reductions in energy consumption, improvements in occupant health and comfort, and lessening of environmental impacts are created.

This kind of design thinking, called *integrated design process (IDP)*, is a whole-systems way of working that breaks down traditional boundaries between disciplines and parts of the work. All key members of the design, construction, and owner groups are brought together. A clear vision and goals are established. The process spans from the earliest conceptual phase through design, construction, and post-occupancy (the operational phase once the project is completed). And a collaborative, interdisciplinary



LEED for New Construction and Major Renovation

Project Checklist

Project Name

Date

Y ? N

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Credit 1 Integrative Process	1
--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------	------------------------------	---

			Location and Transportation	Possible Points:	16
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Credit 1 LEED for Neighborhood Development Location		16
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Credit 2 Sensitive Land Protection		1
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Credit 3 High Priority Site		2
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Credit 4 Surrounding Density and Diverse Uses		5
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Credit 5 Access to Quality Transit		5
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Credit 6 Bicycle Facilities		1
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Credit 7 Reduced Parking Footprint		1
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Credit 8 Green Vehicles		1

			Sustainable Sites	Possible Points:	10
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Prereq 1 Construction Activity Pollution Prevention		Required
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Credit 1 Site Assessment		1
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Credit 2 Site Development—Protect or Restore Habitat		2
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Credit 3 Open Space		1
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Credit 4 Rainwater Management		3
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Credit 5 Heat Island Reduction		2
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Credit 6 Light Pollution Reduction		1

			Water Efficiency	Possible Points:	11
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Prereq 1 Outdoor Water Use Reduction		Required
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Prereq 2 Indoor Water Use Reduction		Required
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Prereq 3 Building-Level Water Metering		Required
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Credit 1 Outdoor Water Use Reduction		2
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Credit 2 Indoor Water Use Reduction		6
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Credit 3 Cooling Tower Water Use		2
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Credit 4 Water Metering		1

			Energy and Atmosphere	Possible Points:	33
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Prereq 1 Fundamental Commissioning and Verification		Required
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Prereq 2 Minimum Energy Performance		Required
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Prereq 3 Building-Level Energy Metering		Required
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Prereq 4 Fundamental Refrigerant Management		Required
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Credit 1 Enhanced Commissioning		6
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Credit 2 Optimize Energy Performance		18
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Credit 3 Advanced Energy Metering		1
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Credit 4 Demand Response		2
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Credit 5 Renewable Energy Production		3
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Credit 6 Enhanced Refrigerant Management		1
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Credit 7 Green Power and Carbon Offsets		2

			Materials and Resources	Possible Points: 13
Y		Prereq 1	Storage and Collection of Recyclables	Required
Y		Prereq 2	Construction and Demolition Waste Management Planning	Required
		Credit 1	Building Life-Cycle Impact Reduction	5
		Credit 2	Building Product Disclosure and Optimization — Environmental Product Declarations	2
		Credit 3	Building Product Disclosure and Optimization — Sourcing of Raw Materials	2
		Credit 4	Building Product Disclosure and Optimization — Material Ingredients	2
		Credit 5	Construction and Demolition Waste Management	2
			Indoor Environmental Quality	Possible Points: 16
Y		Prereq 1	Minimum Indoor Air Quality Performance	Required
Y		Prereq 2	Environmental Tobacco Smoke Control	Required
		Credit 1	Enhanced Indoor Air Quality Strategies	2
		Credit 2	Low-Emitting Interiors	3
		Credit 3	Construction Indoor Air Quality Management Plan	1
		Credit 4	Indoor Air Quality Assessment	2
		Credit 5	Thermal Comfort	1
		Credit 6	Interior Lighting	2
		Credit 7	Daylight	3
		Credit 8	Quality Views	1
		Credit 9	Acoustic Performance	1
			Innovation	Possible Points: 6
		Credit 1	Innovation	5
		Credit 2	LEED Accredited Professional	1
			Regional Priority	Possible Points: 4
		Credit 1	Regional Priority: Specific Credit	1
		Credit 2	Regional Priority: Specific Credit	1
		Credit 3	Regional Priority: Specific Credit	1
		Credit 4	Regional Priority: Specific Credit	1
			Total	Possible Points: 110
Certified 40 to 49 points Silver 50 to 59 points Gold 60 to 79 points Platinum 80 to 110				

FIGURE 1.2

The LEED v4 New Construction and Major Renovation Project Checklist. (Courtesy of U.S. Green Building Council.)

approach is used that maximizes opportunities for synergies and innovation.

In the United States, the most widely applied program for building sustainability is the U.S. Green Building Council's *Leadership in Energy and Environmental Design*, or *LEED*[®], rating system. LEED for New Construction and Major Renovation groups sustainability goals into eight broad categories addressing areas such as site selection and development, energy

efficiency, conservation of materials and resources, and others (Figure 1.2). Within each category are mandatory *prerequisites* and optional *credits* that contribute points toward a building's overall rating. During the design and construction process, the achievement of prerequisites and credits is documented and submitted to the Green Building Council, which then makes the certification of the project's LEED compliance after construction

is completed. Depending on the point total achieved, four levels of sustainable performance are recognized, including, in order of increasing performance, Certified, Silver, Gold, and Platinum. The LEED rating system is itself voluntary. It is used when adopted by a private building owner or mandated by a public building agency.

The Green Building Council also provides rating systems for existing buildings, commercial interior

buildouts, building core and shell construction, schools, retail buildings, healthcare facilities, homes, neighborhood developments, building operations and maintenance, and other project types. Through affiliated organizations, LEED is also implemented in Canada and other countries.

The International Living Future Institute's *Living Building Challenge*[™] sets a higher standard for sustainable building. This program aspires to move past making buildings that do less environmental harm to those that do no harm or even improve the natural environment and our well-being. For example, a building constructed and operated to this standard will (when considered on an annualized basis) generate all its own energy from on-site renewable resources, consume no fresh water, and have no greenhouse gas emissions.

The Living Building Challenge contains seven categories, called Petals, including Place, Water, Energy, Health & Happiness, Materials, Equity, and Beauty. Within these are 20 *Imperatives*, such as net zero energy, appropriate sourcing of materials, embodied carbon footprint, and more. There are three certification levels: Living Building Certification meets all imperatives

appropriate to the building type, Petal Certification signifies a lower level of partial compliance, and Zero Energy Certification applies to projects that generate all energy on site without reliance on combustion processes. Certification occurs after a building has been operational for at least one year, when its real-world performance can be assessed. The Living Building Challenge can also be applied to other types of construction and development, such as neighborhoods, landscape and infrastructure projects, and building renovations.

Sustainable Building Materials

Describing Sustainable Materials

Designing sustainable buildings requires access to information about the environmental and health impacts of the materials used in their construction. For example, when selecting a material, the designer might ask: Does its manufacture depend on the extraction of nonrenewable resources, or is it made from recycled or rapidly renewable materials? Is additional energy required to ship this material from a distant location, or can it be obtained from local sources? Does the material contain toxic ingredients or generate unhealthful emissions, or is it free of such health concerns?

Information about building materials and products can come from different sources and take various forms:

- It may be self-reported by the product manufacturer, or it may come from an independent, trusted third party.
- It may take the form of a neutrally expressed, transparent disclosure of material attributes, or it may gauge the merits (or demerits) of such attributes and provide a rating of the material's sustainability.
- It may address a limited scope of concerns, or it may describe the full range of impacts of a material throughout its life cycle from raw materials extraction to end-of-life disposal or repurposing.

The industry-standard *Product Data Sheet (PDS)* is a simple example of manufacturer self-reported information. The PDS provides a description of a product, its material makeup and physical properties, and guidelines for use. It may also include information relevant to sustainability concerns, although this is not its primary purpose. The scope of information provided in a PDS is left entirely to the manufacturer, and the information is not independently verified.

OTHER SUSTAINABLE BUILDING PROGRAMS AND STANDARDS

There are many programs and standards offering alternative pathways to sustainable building construction, suitable to various building types, objectives, and construction markets. For example, the U.S. National Association of Home Builders' National Green Building Standard addresses both single-family and multi-unit residential building types. The International Green Construction Code is a model code that puts green building standards into a legally enforceable format that is useful for municipalities that wish to mandate sustainable construction. CALGreen is the sustainable construction code for the state of California. Green Globes certifies new and existing sustainably designed buildings in the United States and Canada. The Building Research Establishment

Environmental Assessment Method, or BREEAM, does the same for buildings constructed in the United Kingdom and other European countries. The Passive House Standard, implemented in many places around the globe, emphasizes dramatic reductions in the energy consumption of residential and commercial buildings. The International WELL Building Institute's WELL Building Standard certifies building construction with regard to human health and well-being criteria. In addition, professional organizations and government agencies offer programs to support sustainable building, such as the Architecture 2030 Challenge and ASHRAE's Standard for the Design of High-Performance Green Buildings, to name just two.

Environmental labels, also called *ecolabels*, are third-party environmental ratings. An example is the Green Seal Standard GS-11 for Paints and Coatings. Green Seal is an independent organization that develops sustainability standards and certifications. For a paint product to be certified to its standard, the product must meet minimum performance criteria, be free of toxic ingredients, and not exceed content limits on *volatile organic compounds (VOCs)*. (VOCs are air polluting and unhealthy chemical compounds that are released in particularly heavy concentrations from wet-applied products as they dry.) By relying on this certification, the designer can confidently make environmentally responsible choices, without having to perform in-depth investigations of individual products.

Product disclosures are another form of reporting that provide transparent information about material ingredients and manufacturer practices. For example, the International Living Future Institute's Declare label describes a product's origins, its material ingredients, and end-of-life disposal or recycling options. By providing this information in a standardized format, designers can more easily compare the relative attributes of alternative materials or products and make better-informed choices. Like a Product Data Sheet, the Declare label is self-reported by manufacturers, albeit with an option for independent auditing to verify accuracy. Unlike ecolabels, product disclosures do not rate the sustainability of the product—it remains up to the user to interpret the information provided for this purpose.

Environmental Product Declarations (EPDs) describe the full, life-cycle environmental impacts of building materials and products. An example is the Western Red Cedar Lumber Association's Typical Red Cedar Decking Product Declaration. This 10-page document describes this product's material characteristics and

quantifies—in some detail—environmental impacts throughout its life. For example, for every 1 square meter (11 square feet) of decking harvested, milled, trucked to the construction site, installed, maintained through its useful life, and then disposed of at the end of its life, this declaration reports the following:

- 73 MJ (70,000 BTU) of nonrenewable energy consumed
- 6.8 kg (15 pounds) of CO₂ equivalent *global warming potential*
- 86 L (23 gallons) of fresh water consumed

Additional information in the report quantifies materials consumption, smog production, ozone depletion, acidification and eutrophication potential, waste materials generated, and more. Information about the standards to which this information is prepared and independent verification of the results are also included. While this document does not provide an environmental rating, it can be used, for example, in comparing Western red cedar to some other material, such as recycled plastic decking, to assess the relative environmental consequences of choosing one of these materials over the other.

In relative infancy are *Environmental Building Declarations*, or *EBDs*. As life-cycle data become available for the majority of materials and products used in construction, the same type of life-cycle analysis can be applied to whole buildings, allowing the environmental impacts of alternative building designs to be meaningfully compared.

Much of the environmental reporting provided by product manufacturers is developed according to the international series of standards designated *ISO 14020*, which establish guidelines for the development and use of environmental labels and declarations. By relying on information produced to common, accepted standards, designers and builders can have the greatest

confidence in the consistency and relevance of the information provided.

The Material Life Cycle and Embodied Impacts

Preparation of environmental product and building declarations depends on the accounting of the environmental impacts of materials and products throughout their life cycles. This begins with raw materials extraction, continues with manufacture, construction, and use, and finishes at end of life when a material is disposed of or put to a new use. Such a *life-cycle analysis (LCA)*, or *cradle-to-grave analysis*, is one of the most comprehensive methods for quantifying the environmental impacts associated with materials and buildings. Through each life-cycle stage, impacts are tallied: How much fossil fuel, electricity, water, and other materials are consumed? How much solid waste, global warming gasses, and other air and water pollutants are generated? The total of all these impacts describes the *environmental footprint* of the material (Figure 1.3).

The concept of embodied energy also derives from life-cycle analysis. *Embodied energy* is the sum total of energy consumed during a material's life cycle. Because energy consumption frequently correlates with the consumption of nonrenewable resources and the generation of greenhouse gasses, it is easy to assume that materials with lower embodied energy are better for the environment than others with greater embodied energy. However, in making such comparisons, it is important to be sure that the comparison is functionally equivalent. For example, a material with an embodied energy of 10,000 BTU per pound is not necessarily environmentally preferable to another with an embodied energy of 15,000 BTU per pound, if 2 pounds of the prior material are required to accomplish the same purpose as 1 pound of the latter. The types of energy consumed for each material, such as fossil, nuclear, or renewable,

Western Red Cedar Decking Life Cycle

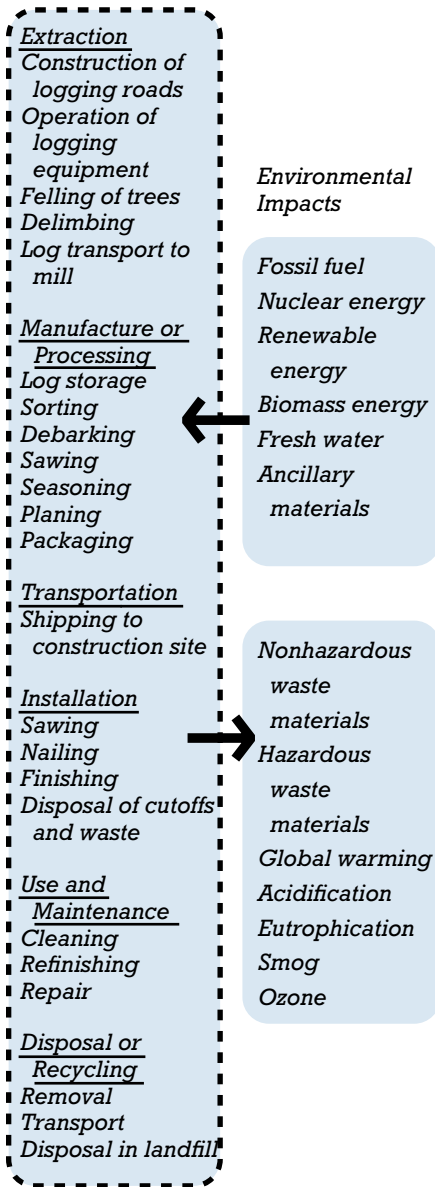


FIGURE 1.3

Life-cycle analysis of Western red cedar decking. The underlined life-cycle stages (Extraction, Manufacture or Processing, etc.) are applicable to any building construction material LCA. The activities listed under each stage here are specific to the example of Western red cedar decking. For other materials, other activities would be listed. The right-hand column lists the types of environmental impacts associated with this material, both resources consumed (such as energy and water) and pollutants and wastes emitted (such as global warming gasses and nonhazardous waste). Though not included here, the LCA also quantifies these impacts so that one material can be readily compared with another.

Though less comprehensive, such analyses can still provide a useful basis for comparison between products. For example, for many materials, the difference in embodied energy between a cradle-to-grave and cradle-to-gate analysis is small, as most of the energy expenditure occurs prior to the material’s installation, use, and eventual disposal.

The concept of embodied effects can also be applied to other measured inputs or outputs from a life-cycle analysis. For example, *embodied water* refers to the fresh water consumed as a consequence of building with a particular material.

While life-cycle analysis represents the most generally comprehensive materials assessment method currently available, it does not necessarily address all impacts arising from the use of a material or product. LCA of wood products, for example, does not capture the loss of biodiversity, decreased water quality, or soil erosion caused by poor forestry practices. In this case, these concerns are better addressed by sustainable forestry certification programs. Or, although global warming potential is quantified in a material environmental product declaration, the ultimate consequences of that effect for ecosystems, wildlife populations, and human well-being are not fully described.

Health Impacts of Building Materials

Much like the sources of information available for the assessment of material environmental impacts, information

useful to understanding the human health-related impacts of materials and products can also be provided in various formats.

Similar to environmental product declarations, *health product declarations (HPDs)* may be prepared by the product manufacturer or an independent agency. The standard for creating HPDs is defined by the HPD Collaborative, an independent organization with representation from many construction industry stakeholders. HPDs provide reliable and consistent information about material ingredients and associated human and environmental health hazards. They list the material contents of the product being reported and indicate associated hazards, such as the presence of persistent bio-accumulative toxic compounds, carcinogens, respiratory irritants, neurotoxins, and more. Like EPDs, HPDs are not a certification or rating tool—that is, they do not, in themselves, assess the healthfulness of a product. They do, however, provide important information in a standard format that can be used to make health-related comparisons.

Other Sustainable Material Attributes

Products with a high *recycled materials content* help to divert waste materials that would otherwise be disposed of in landfills or by incineration. Recycled content can be distinguished as either preconsumer or postconsumer. *Preconsumer recycled materials* originate as byproducts of manufacturing processes. For example, when a glass manufacturer reclaims broken glass

should also be considered, as impacts differ from one energy source to another.

Embodied energy and other life-cycle effects may sometimes be calculated for only a part of the material life cycle. A *cradle-to-gate analysis* begins with materials extraction but extends only as far as when the material leaves the factory, excluding the effects of transportation to the building site, installation, use, maintenance, and disposal or recycling.

during its manufacture and reprocesses this waste into new glass, this is preconsumer recycled waste. *Postconsumer recycled materials* are generated by end users of a material. A gypsum board manufacturer recycling used newsprint into paper facing for its board products is an example of postconsumer recycled waste. When assessing recycled content in the LEED system, preconsumer waste is counted at only half of its weight or cost, while postconsumer waste is counted at its full value.

Bio-based materials are produced by agricultural or animal biological processes. Examples include cornstarch derived from grain and used as an ingredient in the manufacture of gypsum wallboard, or resins made from wood lignin, starch, or other plant proteins used as substitutes for traditional petroleum-derived resins in the manufacture of composite wood products. Bio-based materials are biodegradable or compostable, and carbon-neutral (meaning they have little if any impact on global warming). Their production can contribute to employment in rural areas. And when cultivated and harvested in a sustainable manner, they are a renewable resource that can reduce dependence on irreplaceable fossil fuels. However, the production of bio-based materials occupies arable land and requires fresh water, fertilizer or feedstock, and energy. Determining the potential benefit of a bio-based material requires analysis of the environmental impacts throughout the material's life cycle and comparing those to the impacts of alternative materials.

Some bio-based materials are *rapidly renewable*, that is, they are grown and harvested in a relatively short time span. LEED defines rapidly renewable materials as those harvested within a 10-year or shorter cycle.

Regional, or locally sourced, materials are produced near the construction site. Relying on locally sourced materials reduces energy consumption and emissions associated with

materials transportation. And it contributes to the economic well-being of the community in which the building is being constructed. LEED defines regional materials as those extracted, manufactured, and purchased within 100 miles (160 km) of the construction site.

Materials Assessment Within Sustainable Building Programs

Within LEED, the Living Building Challenge, and other sustainable building programs, material attributes can be evaluated in relation to a range of environmental, health, and social impact considerations.

Energy performance. Appropriate materials choices and design can reduce heat losses through the building enclosure, moderate peak heating and cooling loads, and support passive heating and cooling strategies, all of which can contribute to reductions in building energy use.

Building and material life-cycle impacts. Adaptive reuse of existing buildings, salvaging materials from existing buildings for use in new ones, and design of new structures for future disassembly and materials repurposing are ways to reduce the demand for new raw materials and reduce the volume of waste going to landfills or incineration.

Life-cycle analysis reveals the fullest range of environmental impacts and embodied attributes of materials used in building construction. As the energy required to operate buildings continues to decrease, embodied energy and global warming potential of materials themselves are becoming a larger share of a building's energy consumption and global warming profile, and increasingly important targets for continued reductions in these measures.

Material and production attributes. Transparently disclosing material ingredients, recycled content,

rapidly renewable or bio-based materials content, and the geographic source of raw materials encourages the selection of products that reduce environmental impacts. The Declare label, previously discussed, is one such example of a materials disclosure. Another is the Cradle to Cradle Products Innovation Institute's Cradle to Cradle Certification, which provides information about material ingredients, reutilization, and environmental impacts.

Unhealthy materials and emissions. Health-related disclosures can identify material ingredients or compounds used in manufacture that are hazardous to humans or the environment. Health Product Declarations provide transparent disclosure, but without rating. The Living Building Challenge *Red List* identifies materials to be excluded from Living Buildings because these materials are severely polluting, bio-accumulating, or harmful to factory workers, construction workers, or building occupants.

Coatings, sealants, adhesives, wood composites, insulation materials, wall and floor coverings, ceiling materials, and furniture are just some of the potential sources of chemical air pollutants that can be harmful to construction workers or building occupants. For wet-applied materials, in which the majority of VOC emissions occur shortly after the product is installed, the chemical VOC content is limited and may be self-reported by the manufacturer or established by third-party certification. For broader, general emissions compliance of materials and products, third-party testing is required by both LEED and the Living Building Challenge.

Responsible industry practices and social impacts. Manufacturers may self-report or provide independently verified information about raw materials extraction, land use, labor practices, community

relations, and manufacturing processes. For example, the Forest Stewardship Council certifies sustainable forestry and timber harvesting operations. The Natural Stone Council's 373 Sustainability Assessment for Natural Dimension Stone does the same for sustainable quarrying and production of stone. The International Living Future Institute's JUST program provides a format for product manufacturers to disclose information about social justice practices, such as supportive employee policies, local community support, and socially responsible activities. LEED also recognizes company efforts to address local or regional social and economic priorities.

The Impact of Sustainable Buildings

Sustainable building practice is producing measurable, positive results in building performance. Post-occupancy evaluations of U.S. buildings constructed to LEED standards show reductions in energy consumption and greenhouse gas emissions in the range of 25 to 35 percent in comparison to national averages. Additional improvements also are seen in such areas as reduced water consumption, lowered operating costs, increased occupant satisfaction, higher property values, and more. Sustainable building also creates new challenges. New or reformulated materials may prove to be less durable than those they replace. Innovative products from unique sources may be difficult to source or more costly. Or inexperience with green building technologies may lead to design or construction errors. Ensuring that sustainable buildings meet their performance expectations is another important challenge. While average performance, as noted above, exceeds that of conventional buildings, it is also true that the performance of individual buildings deviate greatly from these averages.

And, while many green buildings do outperform conventional buildings, a significant number also underperform expectations.

Building commissioning (abbreviated *Cx*) is a process used to ensure that performance expectations are realized in finished buildings. Commissioning begins with the definition of performance objectives at the start of design. As design progresses, these objectives are used to guide decision-making and review progress at interim milestones. Close to the end of construction, actual performance is verified through on-site testing. Finally, operational guidance is provided to ensure that the finished, occupied building will continue to perform as intended. Building commissioning is traditionally associated with the testing and verification of heating, ventilating, and air conditioning systems in new buildings. With sustainable design, the emphasis is on integrated, whole-building performance, addressing a broader range of building systems and objectives. An effective, fully documented commissioning process is a prerequisite to achieving LEED certification. Under the Living Building Challenge, a full year of operational data, showing successful compliance with design and performance objectives, must be collected before Living Building certification is awarded.

THE WORK OF THE DESIGN PROFESSIONAL

A building begins as an idea in someone's mind, a desire for new and ample accommodations for a family, many families, an organization, or an enterprise. For any but the smallest buildings, the next step for the owner of the prospective building is to engage the services of building design professionals. An architect helps to organize the owner's ideas about the new building while various engineering specialists work out concepts and details of foundations, structural

support, and mechanical, electrical, and communications services.

The architect should have construction at least as much at his fingers' ends as a thinker his grammar.

—Le Corbusier, *Towards a New Architecture*, 1927

This team of designers, working with the owner, then develops the scheme for the building in progressively finer degrees of detail. *Drawings*, primarily graphic in content, and *specifications*, mostly written, are produced by the architect/engineer team to describe how the building is to be made and of what. These drawings and specifications, collectively known as the *construction documents*, are submitted to the local government building authorities, where they are checked for conformance with various codes and regulations before a permit is issued to build. A general contractor is selected, who then plans the construction work in detail. Once construction begins, the general contractor oversees the construction process and hires the subcontractors who carry out many portions of the work, while the building inspector, architect, and engineering consultants observe the work at intervals to be sure that it is completed according to plan. Finally, construction is finished, the building is made ready for occupancy, and that original idea—which may have been initiated years earlier—is realized.

Environmental and Land Use Regulations

For many buildings, the first step in the legal approval process may be an environmental impact assessment. Concerns related to both the natural and built environments may be addressed, including, for example, potential impacts on water resources,

natural habitats, protected species, air and water pollution, municipal water and sewer systems, transportation systems, urban open space, community facilities, neighborhood character, and more. Impact assessments identify potentially undesirable outcomes, create opportunities for stakeholder input, and provide a legal framework for proposing mitigating measures. The scope of issues addressed and level of effort required to complete an impact assessment can vary dramatically depending on the size of the project and complexity of the issues involved.

In many locations, buildings must also comply with land use regulations called *zoning ordinances*. These govern the types of activities that may take place on a given piece of land, how much of the land may be covered by buildings, how far buildings must be set back from property lines, how many parking spaces must be provided, how large a total floor area may be constructed, and how tall the buildings may be. In larger cities, zoning ordinances may include fire zones with special fire-protection requirements, neighborhood enterprise districts with economic incentives for new construction or revitalization of existing buildings, or other special conditions.

Building Codes

Local governments also regulate building activity by means of *building codes*. Building codes protect public health and safety by setting minimum standards for construction quality, structural integrity, durability, livability, and especially fire safety.

Most building codes in North America are based on one of several *model codes*, standardized codes that local jurisdictions may adopt for their own use as a simpler alternative to writing their own. In Canada, the *National Building Code of Canada* is published by the Canadian Commission on Building and Fire Codes. It is the basis for most of that country's provincial and municipal building codes.

In the United States, the *International Building Code*® (*IBC*) is the predominant model code. This code is published by the International Code Council, a private, nonprofit organization whose membership consists of local code officials from throughout the country. It is the basis for most U.S. building codes enacted at the state, county, and municipal levels.

Building code-related information in this book is based on the IBC. The IBC begins by defining *occupancies* for buildings as follows:

- A-1 through A-5 Assembly: public theaters, auditoriums, lecture halls, nightclubs, restaurants, houses of worship, libraries, museums, sports arenas, and so on
- B Business: banks, administrative offices, college and university buildings, post offices, banks, professional offices, and the like
- E Educational: schools for grades K through 12 and some types of child day-care facilities
- F-1 and F-2 Factory Industrial: industrial processes using moderate-flammability and noncombustible materials, respectively
- H-1 through H-5 High Hazard: occupancies in which toxic, corrosive, highly flammable, or explosive materials are present
- I-1 through I-4 Institutional: occupancies in which occupants under the care of others may require assistance during a building emergency, such as 24-hour residential care facilities, hospitals, nursing homes, prisons, and some day-care facilities
- M Mercantile: stores, markets, service stations, salesrooms, and other retail and wholesale establishments
- R-1 through R-4 Residential: apartment buildings, dormitories, fraternity and sorority houses, hotels, one- and two-family dwellings, and assisted-living facilities
- S-1 and S-2 Storage: facilities for the storage of moderate- and low-hazard materials, respectively

- U Utility and Miscellaneous: agricultural buildings, carports, greenhouses, sheds, stables, fences, tanks, towers, and other secondary buildings

The IBC's purpose in describing occupancies is to identify different degrees of life-safety hazard in buildings. For example, a hospital, in which patients are bedridden and cannot escape a fire without assistance from others, must be designed to a higher standard of safety than a hotel or motel occupied by able-bodied residents. A large retail mall building, containing large quantities of combustible materials and occupied by many users varying in age and physical capacity, must be designed to a higher standard than a warehouse storing noncombustible materials and occupied by relatively few people who are all familiar with their surroundings. An elementary school requires more protection for its occupants than a university building. A theater, with patrons densely packed in dark spaces, requires more attention to emergency exits than does an ordinary office building.

These occupancy classifications are followed by a set of definitions for *construction types*. At the head of this list is Type I construction, made with highly fire-resistant, noncombustible materials. At the foot of it is Type V construction, which is built from combustible light wood framing—the least fire-resistant of all construction types. In between are Types II, III, and IV, with levels of resistance to fire falling between these two extremes.

With occupancies and construction types defined, the IBC proceeds to match the two, stating which occupancies may be housed in which types of construction, and under what limitations of building height and area. Figure 1.4 is a simplified summary of starting values in the IBC for maximum building height and area per floor for many combinations of occupancy and construction type. Once the values in this table are adjusted according to other provisions of the code, the

Occupancy	Height ^b	Type of Construction								
		Type I		Type II		Type III		Type IV ^a	Type V	
		A	B	A	B	A	B	HT	A	B
		U ^e	160	65	55	65	55	65	50	40
A-1	Stories ^c	U	5	3	2	3	2	3	2	1
	Area ^d	U	U	15,500	8,500	14,000	8,500	15,000	11,500	5,500
A-2	Stories	U	11	3	2	3	2	3	2	1
	Area	U	U	15,500	9,500	14,000	9,500	15,000	11,500	6,000
A-3	Stories	U	11	3	2	3	2	3	2	1
	Area	U	U	15,500	9,500	14,000	9,500	15,000	11,500	6,000
A-4	Stories	U	11	3	2	3	2	3	2	1
	Area	U	U	15,500	9,500	14,000	9,500	15,000	11,500	6,000
A-5	Stories	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U
	Area	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U
B	Stories	U	11	5	3	5	3	5	3	2
	Area	U	U	37,500	23,000	28,500	19,000	36,000	18,000	9,000
E	Stories	U	5	3	2	3	2	3	1	1
	Area	U	U	26,500	14,500	23,500	14,500	25,500	18,500	9,500
F-1	Stories	U	11	4	2	3	2	4	2	1
	Area	U	U	25,000	15,500	19,000	12,000	33,500	14,000	8,500
F-2	Stories	U	11	5	3	4	3	5	3	2
	Area	U	U	37,500	23,000	28,500	18,000	50,500	21,000	13,000
M	Stories	U	11	4	2	4	2	4	3	1
	Area	U	U	21,500	12,500	18,500	12,500	20,500	14,000	9,000
R-1	Stories	U	11	4	4	4	4	4	3	2
	Area	U	U	24,000	16,000	24,000	16,000	20,500	12,000	7,000
R-2	Stories	U	11	4	4	4	4	4	3	2
	Area	U	U	24,000	16,000	24,000	16,000	20,500	12,000	7,000
R-3	Stories	U	11	4	4	4	4	4	3	3
	Area	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U
R-4	Stories	U	11	4	4	4	4	4	3	2
	Area	U	U	24,000	16,000	24,000	16,000	20,500	12,000	7,000
S-1	Stories	U	11	4	2	3	2	4	3	1
	Area	U	48,000	26,000	17,500	26,000	17,500	25,500	14,000	9,000
S-2	Stories	U	11	5	3	4	3	4	4	2
	Area	U	79,000	39,000	26,000	39,000	26,000	38,500	21,000	13,500

^a See this figure's caption for information about new Type IV construction types to appear in the 2021 IBC.
^b Height: Roof height above grade in feet (1ft = 0.3048 m).
^c Stories: Number of stories above grade.
^d Area: Area per floor in square feet (1 sq ft = 0.0920 m²).
^e U: Unlimited.

FIGURE 1.4

Simplified height and area limitations for common occupancies, from the 2018 IBC. In use, these values are further modified according to additional provisions to arrive at the final allowable height and area for any particular building. For the purposes of this book, many of these modifications are simplified or ignored. For information about new Type IV construction types related to tall mass timber buildings that will appear in the 2021 IBC, see Chapter 4.

maximum permitted size for a building of any particular use and type of construction can be determined.

Consider, for example, an office building. Under the IBC, this building is classified as Occupancy B, Business. Reading across the table from left to right, we find immediately that this building may be built to any desired height and area, without limit, using Type I-A construction.

Type I-A construction is defined in the IBC as consisting of only noncombustible structural materials—masonry,

concrete, or steel, for example—and meeting certain requirements for resistance to the heat of fire. On the other hand, wood, being combustible, is (barring a few exceptions) not permitted for use in this construction type. Looking at the upper table in Figure 1.5, reproduced from the IBC, we find under Type I-A construction a listing of the required *fire resistance ratings*, measured in hours, for various parts of our proposed office building. For example, the first table row indicates that the structural frame,

including such elements as columns, beams, and trusses, must be rated at 3 hours. The second row also mandates a 3-hour resistance for *bearing walls*, which serve to carry floors or roofs above. The third row indicates that exterior walls must also comply with the requirements of Table 602, which gives fire resistance rating requirements based on proximity to adjacent buildings or properties. (Table 602 is included in the lower portion of Figure 1.5.) Minimum requirements for interior *nonbearing walls and*

**TABLE 601
FIRE-RESISTANCE RATING REQUIREMENTS FOR BUILDING ELEMENTS (HOURS)**

BUILDING ELEMENT	TYPE I		TYPE II		TYPE III		TYPE IV	TYPE V	
	A	B	A ^d	B	A ^d	B	HT	A ^d	B
Primary structural frame ^g (see Section 202)	3 ^a	2 ^a	1	0	1	0	HT	1	0
Bearing walls									
Exterior ^{f,g}	3	2	1	0	2	2	2	1	0
Interior	3 ^a	2 ^a	1	0	1	0	1/HT	1	0
Nonbearing walls and partitions	See Table 602								
Exterior									
Nonbearing walls and partitions							See		
Interior ^e	0	0	0	0	0	0	Section	0	0
602.4.6									
Floor construction and associated secondary members (see Section 202)	2	2	1	0	1	0	HT	1	0
Roof construction and associated secondary members (see Section 202)	1½ ^b	1 ^{b,c}	1 ^{b,c}	0 ^c	1 ^{b,c}	0	HT	1 ^{b,c}	0

**TABLE 602
FIRE-RESISTANCE RATING REQUIREMENTS FOR EXTERIOR WALLS BASED ON FIRE SEPARATION DISTANCE^{a, e, h}**

FIRE SEPARATION DISTANCE = X (feet)	TYPE OF CONSTRUCTION	OCCUPANCY GROUP H ^f	OCCUPANCY GROUP F-1, M, S-1 ^g	OCCUPANCY GROUP A, B, E, F-2, I, R, S-2 ^g , U ^b
X < 5 ^c	All	3	2	1
5 ≤ X < 10	IA	3	2	1
	Others	2	1	1
10 ≤ X < 30	IA, IB	2	1	1 ^d
	IIB, VB	1	0	0
	Others	1	1	1 ^d
X ≥ 30	All	0	0	0

For SI: 1 foot = 304.8 mm.

FIGURE 1.5

Fire resistance of building elements, excerpted from the IBC. Types I and II construction restrict the building structure to noncombustible materials, that is, steel, concrete, and masonry. Type V construction allows any material, including wood. Types III and IV allow combinations of internal wood structure surrounded by noncombustible exterior walls. Additional provisions have been omitted for simplicity. For information about new Type IV construction types related to tall mass timber buildings that will appear in the 2021 IBC, see Chapter 4.

(Tables 601 and 602 excerpted from the 2012 International Building Code, Copyright 2011. Washington, DC: International Code Council. Reproduced with permission. All rights reserved. www.ICCSAFE.org)

partitions, which carry no loads from above, and for floor and roof construction are defined in the other rows of the table.

Taking a closer look at Tables 601 and 602 in Figure 1.5, we see that Type I-A construction is the least vulnerable to fire: It is constructed of noncombustible structural materials and with the highest fire resistance ratings. Reading across the table, we see other construction types, some with lesser fire resistance ratings and some with fewer restrictions on the use of combustible materials. At the far right of the table, we find Type V-B construction, in which any structural material is permitted, both noncombustible and combustible, and no fire protection is required. These differences are reflected in Figure 1.4, in which the least vulnerable construction type, Type I-A, is permitted the greatest height and area, and other increasingly vulnerable types are limited to progressively lesser heights and areas.

Once fire resistance rating requirements for the major parts of a building have been determined, the design of these parts can proceed, using building assemblies meeting these requirements. Tabulated fire resistance ratings for building materials and assemblies come from a variety of sources, including the IBC itself, as well as from catalogs and handbooks issued by building material manufacturers, construction trade associations, and organizations

concerned with fire protection of buildings. In each case, the ratings are derived from large-scale laboratory tests carried out in accordance

with an accepted standard protocol to ensure uniformity of results. (The most important of such tests, ASTM E119, is described more fully in Chapter 22

FIGURE 1.6
Fire resistance ratings for a steel floor structure (top) and column (bottom), taken from the Underwriters Laboratories' *Fire Resistance Directory*. In the floor assembly, the terms "restrained" and "unrestrained" refer to whether or not the floor is connected to its supporting structure in such a way that it is, or is not, prevented from expanding longitudinally when subjected to the heat of a fire.
(Reprinted with permission of Underwriters Laboratories Inc.)



Design No. A814
 Restrained Assembly Rating—3 Hr.
 Unrestrained Assembly Rating—3 Hr.
 Unrestrained Beam Rating—3 Hr.

Beam—W 12 × 27, min size.

1. **Sand-Gravel Concrete**—150 pcf unit weight 4000 pcf compressive strength.
2. **Steel Floor and Form Units***—Non-composite 3 in. deep galv units. All 24 in. wide, 18/18 MSG min cellular units. Welded to supports 12 in. O.C. Adjacent units button-punched or welded 36 in. O.C. at joints.
3. **Cover Plate**—No. 16 MSG galv steel.
4. **Welds**—12 in. O.C.
5. **Fiber Sprayed***—Applied to wetted steel surfaces which are free of dirt, oil or loose scale by spraying with water to the final thickness shown above. The use of adhesive and sealer and the tamping of fiber are optional. The min and density of the finished fiber should be 11 pcf and the specified fiber thicknesses require a min fiber density of 11 pcf. For areas where the fiber density is between 8 and 11 pcf, the fiber thickness shall be increased in accordance with the following formula:

$$\text{Thickness, in.} = \frac{(11) (\text{Design Thickness, in.})}{\text{Actual Fiber Density, pcf.}}$$
 Fiber density shall not be less than 8 pcf. For method of density determination refer to General Information Section.

*Bearing the UL Classification Marking.

Design No. X511
 Rating—3 Hr.

1. **Steel Studs**—1½ in. wide with leg dimensions of 1-5/16 and 1-7/16 in. with a ¼-in. folded flange in legs, fabricated from 25 MSG galv steel, ¾ by 1¼-in. rectangular cutouts punched 8 and 16 in. from the ends. Steel stud cut ½ in. less in length than assembly height.
2. **Wallboard, Gypsum***—½ in. thick, three layers.
3. **Screws**—1 in. long, self-drilling, self-tapping steel screws, spaced vertically 24 in. O.C.
4. **Screws**—1½ in. long, self-drilling, self-tapping steel screws, spaced vertically 24 in. O.C., except on the outer layer of wallboard on the flange, which are spaced 12 in. O.C.
5. **Screws**—2¼ in. long, self-drilling, self-tapping steel screws, spaced vertically 12 in. O.C.
6. **Tie Wire**—One strand of 18 SWG soft steel wire placed at the upper one-third point, used to secure the second layers of wallboard only.
7. **Corner Beads**—No. 28 MSG galv steel, 1¼ in. legs or 27 MSG uncoated steel, 1½ in. legs,

of this book.) Figure 1.6 shows examples of how such ratings are commonly presented.

In general, when determining the level of fire resistance required for a building, the greater the degree of fire resistance, the higher the cost. Most frequently, therefore, buildings are designed to the lowest level of resistance permitted by the building code. Our hypothetical office building could be built using Type I-A construction, but does it really have to be constructed to this high standard?

Let us suppose that the owner desires a three-story building with 30,000 square feet per floor. Reading across the table in Figure 1.4, we can see that in addition to Type I-A construction, the building can be of Type I-B construction, which permits a building of 11 stories and unlimited floor area; or of Type II-A construction, which permits a building of 5 stories and 37,500 square feet per floor. But it cannot be of Type II-B construction, which allows a building of only three stories and 23,000 square feet per floor. It can also be built of Type IV-HT construction but not of Type III or Type V.

Other factors also come into play in these determinations. If a building is protected throughout by a fully automatic sprinkler system for suppression of fire, the tabulated area per floor may, in many cases, be tripled for a multistory building or quadrupled for a single-story building. The rationale for this permitted

increase is the added safety to life and property provided by such a system. A one-story increase in allowable height is also granted under most circumstances if such a sprinkler system is installed. If the three-story, 30,000-square-foot office building that we have been considering is provided with such a sprinkler system, a bit of arithmetic will show that it can be built of any construction type shown in Figure 1.4 except Type V.

If more than a quarter of the building's perimeter walls face public ways or open spaces accessible to fire-fighting equipment, an additional increase of up to 75 percent in allowable area is granted in accordance with another formula. Furthermore, if a building is divided by fire walls having the fire resistance ratings specified in another table (Figure 1.7), each divided portion may be considered a separate building for purposes of computing its allowable area, which effectively permits the creation of a building many times larger than Figure 1.4 would, at first glance, indicate. (For the sake of simplicity, additional considerations in determining the allowable building height and area in the IBC have been omitted from these examples.)

The IBC also establishes standards for natural light; ventilation; *means of egress* (exiting during building emergencies); structural design; construction of floors, walls, and ceilings; chimney construction; fire-protection systems; accessibility for disabled persons; and many other

important aspects of building design. In addition to the IBC, the International Code Council also publishes the *International Residential Code for One- and Two-Family Dwellings (IRC)*, a simplified model code addressing the construction of detached one- and two-family homes and townhouses of limited size. Within any particular building agency, these codes may be adopted directly in their model form. Or, as is more common, they may be adopted with amendments, adjusting the code to suit the needs of that jurisdiction while still retaining its overall structure and intent.

The building code is not the only code with which a new building must comply. Energy codes establish standards of energy efficiency for buildings, affecting a designer's choices of windows, heating and cooling systems, and many aspects of the construction of a building's enclosing walls and roofs. Because of the significant environmental impacts associated with building energy consumption, the development of more stringent energy codes that require buildings to consume less energy is one of the important contributors to improving building sustainability.

Health codes regulate aspects of design and operation related to sanitation in public facilities such as swimming pools, food-service operations, schools, or healthcare facilities. Fire codes regulate the operation and maintenance of buildings to ensure that egress pathways, fire-protection systems, emergency power, and other

FIGURE 1.7

Fire resistance requirements for fire walls, according to the IBC. For more information about fire walls, see Chapter 23.

(Table 706.4 excerpted from the 2012 International Building Code, Copyright 2011. Washington, DC: International Code Council. Reproduced with permission. All rights reserved. www.ICCSAFE.org)

GROUP	FIRE-RESISTANCE RATING (hours)
A, B, E, H-4, I, R-1, R-2, U	3 ^a
F-1, H-3 ^b , H-5, M, S-1	3
H-1, H-2	4 ^b
F-2, S-2, R-3, R-4	2

a. In Type II or V construction, walls shall be permitted to have a 2-hour fire-resistance rating.
b. For Group H-1, H-2 or H-3 buildings, also see Sections 415.6 and 415.7.

life-safety systems are properly maintained. Electrical and mechanical codes regulate the design and installation of building electrical, plumbing, and heating and cooling systems. Some of these codes may be locally written, but, like the building codes discussed earlier, most are based on national models. In fact, an important task in the early design of any major building is determining what agencies have jurisdiction over the project and what codes and regulations apply.

Other Constraints

Other types of legal restrictions must also be observed in the design and construction of buildings. Along with the accessibility provisions of the IBC, the *Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA)* makes accessibility to public buildings a civil right of all Americans, and the *Fair Housing Act* does the same for much multifamily housing. Together, these *equal access standards* regulate the design of entrances, stairs, doorways, elevators, toilet facilities, public areas, living spaces, and other parts of many buildings to ensure that they are usable by members of the population with special access needs. The U.S. *Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA)* controls the design of workplaces to minimize hazards to the health and safety of workers. OSHA sets safety standards under which a building must be constructed and also has an important role in the design of industrial and commercial buildings.

Fire insurance companies exert a major influence on construction standards. Through their testing and certification organizations (Underwriters Laboratories and Factory Mutual, for example) and the rates they charge for building-insurance coverage, these companies offer financial incentives to building owners to build hazard-resistant construction. Federal labor agencies, building contractor associations, and construction labor

unions have standards, both formal and informal, that affect the ways in which buildings are built. Contractors have particular types of equipment, certain kinds of skills, and customary ways of going about things. All of these affect a building design in myriad ways and must be appropriately considered by building designers.

Construction Standards and Information Resources

The tasks of the architect and the engineer would be much more difficult to carry out without the support of dozens of standards-setting agencies, trade associations, professional organizations, and other groups that produce and disseminate information on materials and methods of construction, some of the most important of which are discussed in the following sections.

Standards-Setting Agencies

ASTM International is a private organization that establishes specifications for materials and methods of construction accepted as standards throughout the United States. Numerical references to ASTM standards—for example, ASTM C150 for portland cement, used in making concrete—are found throughout building codes and construction specifications, where they are used as a precise shorthand for describing the quality of materials or the requirements of their installation. Throughout this book, references to ASTM standards are provided for the major building materials presented. In Canada, corresponding standards are set by the *Canadian Standards Association (CSA)*. The *International Organization for Standardization (ISO)*, an organization with more than 160 member countries, performs a similar role internationally.

The *American National Standards Institute (ANSI)* is another private organization that certifies North American standards for a broad range of products, such as exterior windows and mechanical components

of buildings. Government agencies, most notably the U.S. Department of Commerce's *National Institute of Science and Technology (NIST)* and the National Research Council Canada's *Institute for Research in Construction (NRC-IRC)*, also sponsor research and establish standards for building products and systems.

Construction Trade and Professional Associations

Design professionals, building materials manufacturers, and construction trade groups have formed a large number of organizations that work to develop technical standards and disseminate information related to their respective fields of interest. The Construction Specifications Institute, whose MasterFormat™ standard is described in the following section, is one example. This organization is composed both of independent building professionals, such as architects and engineers, and of industry members. The Western Wood Products Association, to choose an example from among hundreds of *trade associations*, is made up of producers of lumber and wood products. It carries out research programs on wood products, establishes uniform standards of product quality, certifies mills and products that conform to its standards, and publishes authoritative technical literature concerning the use of lumber and related products. Associations with a similar range of activities exist for virtually every material and product used in building. All of them publish technical data relating to their fields of interest, and many of these publications are indispensable references for the architect or engineer. In some cases, the standards published by these organizations are even incorporated by reference into the building codes, making them, in effect, legal requirements. Selected publications from professional and trade associations are identified in the references listed at the end of each chapter in this book. The reader is encouraged to obtain

and explore these publications and others available from these various organizations.

MasterFormat and Other Systems of Organizing Building Information

The *Construction Specifications Institute (CSI)* of the United States, and its Canadian counterpart, *Construction Specifications Canada (CSC)*, have evolved over a period of many years a comprehensive outline called *MasterFormat* for organizing information about construction materials and systems. This format is used for the written construction specifications for the vast majority of large building construction projects in these two countries. It is frequently used to organize construction cost data, and it forms the basis on which most trade associations' and manufacturers' technical literature is cataloged. In some cases, *MasterFormat* is used to cross-reference materials information on construction drawings as well.

MasterFormat is organized into 50 primary *specification divisions* intended to cover the broadest possible range of construction materials and buildings systems. The portions of *MasterFormat* relevant to the types of construction discussed in this book are as follows:

Procurement and Contracting Requirements Group

Division 00—Procurement and Contracting Requirements

Specifications Group

General Requirements Subgroup

Division 01—General Requirements

Facility Construction Subgroup

Division 02—Existing Conditions

Division 03—Concrete

Division 04—Masonry

Division 05—Metals

Division 06—Wood, Plastics, and Composites

Division 07—Thermal and Moisture Protection

Division 08—Openings

Division 09—Finishes

Division 10—Specialties

Division 11—Equipment

Division 12—Furnishings

Division 13—Special Construction

Division 14—Conveying Equipment

Facilities Services Subgroup

Division 21—Fire Suppression

Division 22—Plumbing

Division 23—Heating, Ventilating, and Air Conditioning (HVAC)

Division 25—Integrated Automation

Division 26—Electrical

Division 27—Communications

Division 28—Electronic Safety and Security

Site and Infrastructure Subgroup

Division 31—Earthwork

Division 32—Exterior Improvements

Division 33—Utilities

These broadly defined divisions are further subdivided into *sections*, each describing a discrete scope of work often provided by a single construction trade or subcontractor. Individual sections are identified by six-digit codes, in which the first two digits correspond to the division number and the remaining four digits identify subcategories and individual units within the division. Within Division 05—Metals, for example, some commonly referenced sections are:

Section 05 12 00—Structural Steel Framing

Section 05 21 00—Steel Joist Framing

Section 05 31 00—Steel Decking

Section 05 40 00—Cold-Formed Metal Framing

Section 05 50 00—Metal Fabrications

Every chapter in this book gives *MasterFormat* designations for the information it presents to help familiarize the reader with this system, and to provide guidance on where to look in construction specifications and other technical resources for further information.

MasterFormat organizes building systems information primarily according to work product, that is, the work of discrete building trades. This makes it especially well suited for use during the construction phase of building. For example, Section 06 10 00—Rough Carpentry specifies the materials and work of rough carpenters who erect a wood light frame building structure. However, finish carpentry, such as the installation of interior doors and trim, occurs later during construction, requires different materials, and is performed by different workers with different skills and tools. So it is specified separately in Section 06 20 00—Finish Carpentry. Defining each of these aspects of the work separately allows the architect to describe the work accurately and the contractor to efficiently manage the work's execution.

The *UniFormat*TM standard organizes building systems information into functional groupings. For example, *UniFormat* defines eight Level 1 categories:

- A Substructure
- B Shell
- C Interiors
- D Services
- E Equipment and Furnishings
- F Special Construction and Demolition
- G Building Sitework
- Z General

Where greater definition is required, these categories are subdivided into so-called Level 2 classes,

Level 3 and 4 subclasses, and even Level 5 or higher-numbered sub-subclasses, each describing more finely divided aspects of a system or assembly. For example, wood floor joist framing can fall under any of the following UniFormat descriptions:

- Level 1: B Shell
- Level 2: B10 Superstructure
- Level 3: B1010 Floor Construction
- Level 4: B1010.10 Floor Structural Frame
- Level 5: B1010.10.WF Wood Floor Framing
- Etc.

UniFormat provides a more systems-based view of construction in comparison to MasterFormat and is most useful where a broader, more flexible description of building information is needed. This includes, for example, description of building systems and assemblies during project definition and early design, or the performance specification of building systems, such as discussed later in this chapter for design/build project delivery. UniFormat is also well suited to organizing construction data in computer-aided design and building information modeling systems, which naturally tend to aggregate information into functional groupings. (Building information modeling is discussed at greater length later in this chapter.)

The *OmniClass™ Construction Classification System* is an overarching scheme that attempts to incorporate multiple existing building information organizational systems, including MasterFormat, UniFormat, and others, into one system. OmniClass consists of 15 *Tables*, some of which include:

- Table 13: Spaces by Function
- Table 21: Elements
- Table 22: Work Results
- Table 23: Products
- Table 31: Phases

- Table 32: Services
- Table 35: Tools
- Table 41: Materials
- Table 49: Properties

For example, Table 13—Spaces by Function merges a number of existing systems for the management of information about rooms and spaces within buildings, useful to building owners and facilities managers. Table 21—Elements is based on UniFormat, and Table 22—Work Results is based on MasterFormat. OmniClass is an open standard that is described broadly by its authors as “a strategy for classifying the built environment.” It is based on an international standard for organizing construction information, ISO 120006-2, and it continues to undergo active development.

The increasing attention given to organizational systems like UniFormat and OmniClass reflects the building industry’s need to manage increasingly complex sets of data and efficiently share that data between disciplines, across diverse information technology platforms, and throughout the full building life cycle, from conception to extended occupancy.

THE WORK OF THE CONSTRUCTION PROFESSIONAL

Providing Construction Services

An owner wishing to construct a building hopes to achieve a finished project that functions as intended, meets expectations for quality, costs as little as possible, and is completed on a predictable schedule. A contractor offering its construction services hopes to produce quality building, earn a profit, and complete the project in a timely fashion. Yet, the process of building itself is fraught with uncertainty: It is subject

to the vagaries of the labor market, commodity prices, and the weather; despite the best planning efforts, unanticipated conditions arise, delays occur, and mistakes are made; not infrequently, requirements change over the course of the project; and the pressures of schedule and cost inevitably minimize the margin for miscalculation. In this high-stakes environment, the relationship between the owner and contractor must be structured to share reasonably between them the potential rewards and risks.

Construction Project Delivery Methods

In traditional *design/bid/build* project delivery (Figure 1.8, *left*), the owner first hires a team of architects and engineers to perform design services, leading to the creation of construction documents that comprehensively describe the facility to be built. Next, construction firms are invited to bid on the project. Each bidding firm reviews the construction documents and proposes a cost to construct the facility. The owner evaluates the submitted proposals and awards the construction contract to the bidder deemed most suitable. This selection may be based on bid price alone, or other factors related to bidders’ qualifications may also be considered. The construction documents then become part of the construction contract, and the selected firm proceeds with the work. On all but small projects, this firm acts as the *general contractor*, coordinating and overseeing the construction process but frequently relying on smaller, more specialized *subcontractors* to perform significant portions or even all of the work itself. During construction, the design team continues to provide services to the owner, helping to ensure that the facility is built according to the requirements of the documents as well as answering questions related to the design, changes to the work, verification of payments to the contractor, and similar matters.

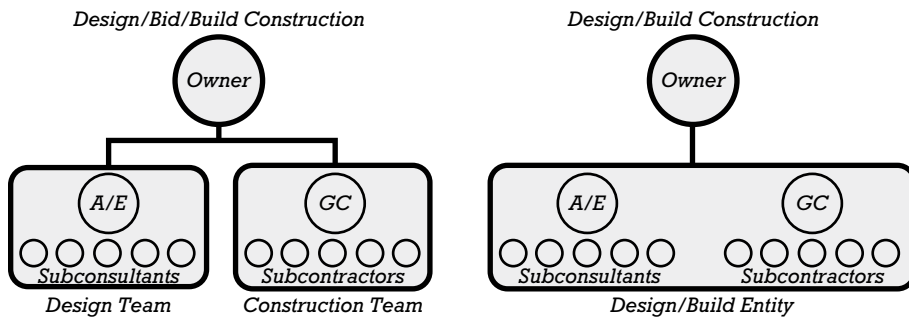


FIGURE 1.8
In design/bid/build project delivery (left), the owner contracts separately with the architect/engineer (A/E) design team and the construction general contractor (GC). In a design/build project (right), the owner contracts with a single organizational entity that provides both design and construction services.

Among the advantages of design/bid/build project delivery are its easy-to-understand organizational scheme, well-established legal precedents, and relative simplicity of management. The direct relationship between the owner and the design team ensures that the owner retains control over the design and provides a healthy set of checks and balances during the construction process. With design work completed before the project is bid, the owner starts construction with a well-defined scope of work and a high degree of confidence regarding the construction schedule and costs.

In design/bid/build project delivery, the owner contracts with two entities, and design and construction responsibilities remain divided between these two throughout the project. In design/build project delivery, one entity assumes responsibility for both design and construction (Figure 1.8, right). A design/build project begins with the owner developing a conceptual design or

program that describes the functional or performance requirements of the proposed facility but does not detail its form or how it is to be constructed. Next, using this conceptual information, a design/build organization is selected to complete the design and construction of the project. Selection of the designer/builder may be based on a competitive bid process similar to that for design/bid/build projects, on negotiation and evaluation of an organization's qualifications for the proposed work, or on some combination of these. Design/build organizations themselves can take a variety of forms: a single firm encompassing both design and construction expertise; a construction management firm that subcontracts with a separate design firm to provide those services; or a joint venture between two firms, one specializing in construction and the other in design. Regardless of the internal structure of the design/build organization, the owner contracts with this single entity throughout the remainder of the project, and this

entity assumes responsibility for all design and construction services.

Design/build project delivery gives the owner a single source of accountability for all aspects of the project. It also places the designers and constructors in a closer working relationship, introducing construction expertise into the design phases of a project and allowing the earliest possible consideration of constructability, cost control, construction scheduling, and similar matters. This delivery method also readily accommodates fast track construction, a scheduling technique for reducing construction time that is described later in this chapter.

Other delivery methods are possible: An owner may contract separately with a design team and a construction manager (CM) (Figure 1.9). As in design/build construction, the construction manager participates in the project prior to the onset of construction, introducing construction expertise during the design stage. Construction management project

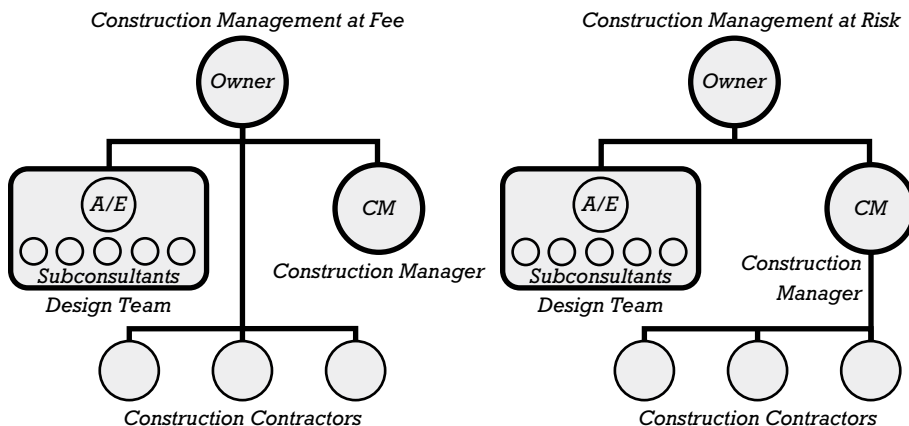


FIGURE 1.9
In its traditional role, a construction manager (CM) at fee (left) provides project management services to the owner and assists the owner in contracting directly for construction services with one or more construction entities. A CM at fee is not directly responsible for the construction work itself. A CM at risk (right) acts more like a general contractor and takes on greater responsibility for construction quality, schedule, and costs. In either case, the A/E design team also contracts separately with the owner.

delivery can take a variety of forms and is frequently associated with especially large or complex projects. In *turnkey* construction, an owner contracts with a single entity that provides not only design and construction services, but financing for the project as well. Or design and construction can be undertaken by a *single-purpose entity*, of which the owner, architect, and contractor are all joint members. Aspects of these and other project delivery methods can also be intermixed, allowing many possible organizational schemes for the delivery of design and construction services that are suitable to a variety of owner requirements and project circumstances.

Paying for Construction Services

With *fixed-fee*, or *lump-sum*, compensation, the general contractor or other construction entity is paid a fixed dollar amount to complete the construction of a project regardless of that entity's actual costs to perform the work. With this compensation method, the owner begins construction with a known, fixed cost and assumes minimal risk for unanticipated cost increases. In contrast, the construction contractor assumes most of the risk of unforeseen costs, but also stands to gain from potential savings. Fixed-fee compensation is most suitable to projects where the scope of the construction work is well defined when the construction fee is set, as is the case, for example, with design/bid/build construction.

With *cost plus a fee* compensation, the owner agrees to pay the construction entity for the actual costs of construction—whatever they may turn out to be—plus an additional amount to account for overhead and profit. In this case, the construction contractor is shielded from most cost uncertainty, and it is the owner who assumes most of the risk of added costs and stands to gain the most from potential savings. Cost plus a fee compensation is most often used with projects for which the scope

of construction work is not fully known at the time compensation is established, a circumstance most frequently associated with construction management or design/build contracts.

Cost plus a fee compensation may also include a *guaranteed maximum price* (GMAX or GMP). In this case, there is a maximum fee that the owner may be required to pay. While the contractor's compensation remains under the guaranteed amount, compensation is made in the same manner as with a standard cost plus a fee contract. However, once the compensation reaches the guaranteed maximum, the owner is no longer required to make additional payments and the contractor assumes responsibility for all additional costs. This compensation method retains some of the scope and price flexibility of cost plus a fee compensation while also establishing a limit on the owner's cost risk.

Incentive provisions in owner/contractor agreements can be used to more closely align owner and contractor interests. For example, in simple cost plus a fee construction, there may be an incentive for a contractor to add costs to a project, as these added costs will generate added fees. To eliminate such a counterproductive incentive, a bonus fee or profit-sharing provision can provide for some portion of construction cost savings to be returned to the contractor. In this way, the contractor and owner jointly share in the benefits of reduced construction cost. Bonuses and penalties for savings or overruns in costs and schedules can be part of any type of construction contract.

Surety bonds are another form of legal instrument used to manage financial risks of construction, most frequently with publicly financed or very large projects. The purpose of a surety bond is to protect an owner from the risks of default, such as bankruptcy, by the construction

contractor. For a fixed fee, a third party (surety) promises to complete the contractual obligations of the contractor if that contractor should for any reason fail to do so. Most commonly, two separate bonds are issued, one for each of the general contractor's principal obligations: a *performance bond* to assure completion of the construction and a *payment bond* to assure full payment to suppliers and subcontractors.

With competitive bidding and fixed-fee compensation, the owner is assured of competitive pricing for construction services and the contractor assumes most of the risk for unanticipated costs. With a negotiated contract and simple cost plus a fee compensation, the risks of non-competitive pricing and unanticipated costs are shifted more toward the owner. By adjusting project delivery and compensation methods, these and other construction-related risks can be allocated in varying degrees between the two parties to best suit the requirements of any particular project.

Sequential versus Fast Track Construction

In *sequential construction* (Figure 1.10), each major phase in the design and construction of a building is completed before the next phase begins, and construction does not start until all design work has been completed. Sequential construction can take place under any of the project delivery methods described previously. It is frequently associated with design/bid/build construction, where the separation of design and construction phases fits naturally with the contractual separation between design and construction service providers.

Phased construction, also called *fast track construction*, aims to reduce the time required to complete a project by overlapping the design and construction of various project parts (Figure 1.10). By allowing construction to start sooner and by

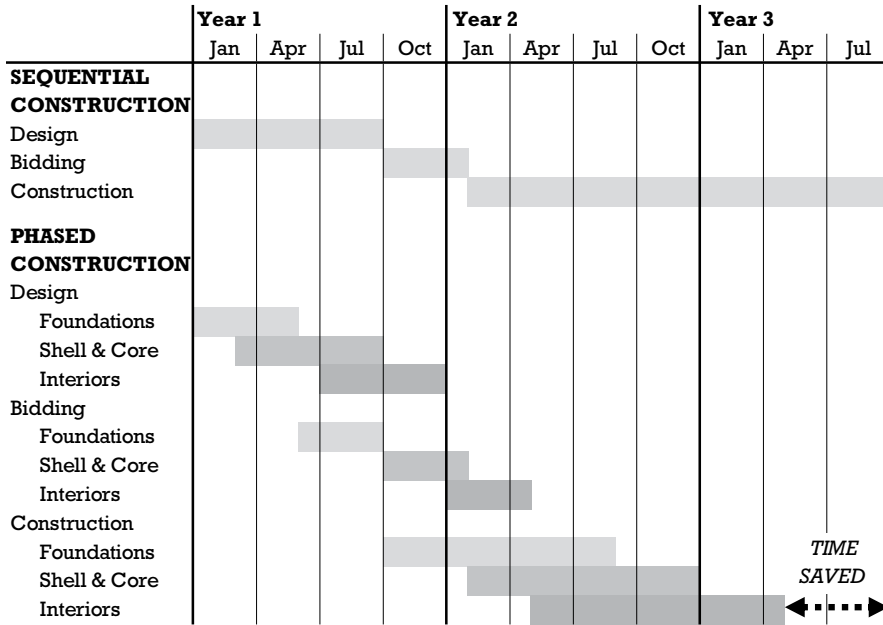


FIGURE 1.10
 In sequential construction, construction does not begin until design is complete.
 In phased construction, design and construction activities overlap, with the goal of reducing the overall time required to complete a project.

extending above the highest floor levels). This work is followed by construction of the surrounding floor structures, which rely, in part, on the previously completed cores for support. Attachment of the exterior skin can follow only after the floor plates are securely in place. As the building skin is installed and floor areas become protected from the weather, further operations, such as the roughing in of mechanical and electrical systems, and eventually, the installation of finishes and other elements, can proceed in turn. This simple example illustrates considerations that apply to virtually every aspect of building construction and at every scale from a building’s largest systems to its smallest details: Successful construction requires a detailed understanding of the tasks required and their interdependencies in time and space.

The construction project schedule is used to analyze and represent

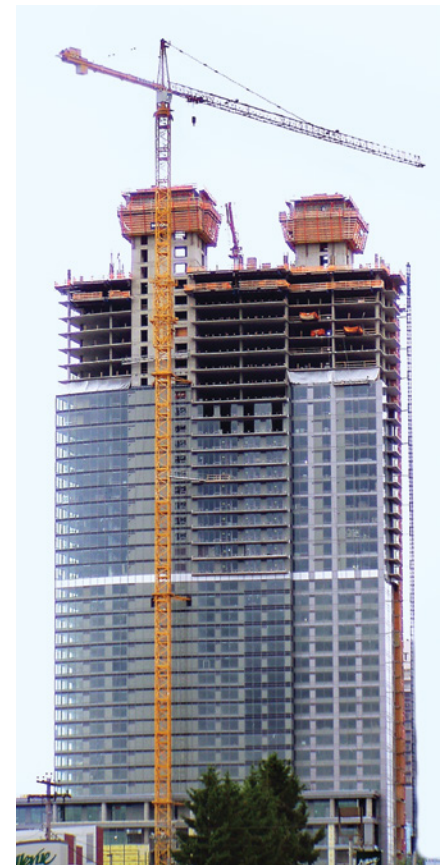
overlapping the work of design and construction, phased construction can reduce the total time required to complete a project. However, phased construction also introduces its own risks. Because construction on some parts of the project begins before all design is complete, an overall cost for the project cannot be established until a significant portion of construction is underway. Phased construction also introduces more complexity into the design process and increases the potential for design errors (for example, if foundation design does not adequately anticipate the requirements of the not yet fully engineered structure above). Phased construction can be applied to any construction delivery method discussed earlier. It is frequently associated with design/build and construction management project delivery methods, where the early participation of the construction entity provides resources that are helpful in managing the coordination of overlapping design and construction activities.

Construction Scheduling

Constructing a building of any significant size is a complex endeavor, requiring the combined efforts of countless participants and the coordination of myriad tasks. Managing this process requires an in-depth understanding of the work required, of the ways in which different aspects of the work depend upon each other, and of the constraints on the sequence in which the work must be performed.

Figure 1.11 captures one moment in the construction of a tall building. The process is led by the construction of the building’s central, stabilizing core structures (in the photograph, the pair of concrete tower-like structures

FIGURE 1.11
 In this photo, the construction sequence of a tall building is readily apparent: A pair of concrete core structures leads the construction, followed by concrete columns and floor plates and, finally, the enclosing curtain wall. (Photo by Joseph Iano.)



construction tasks, their relationships, and the sequence in which they must be performed. Development of the schedule is a fundamental part of construction project planning, and regular updating of the schedule throughout the life of the project is essential to its successful management. In a *Gantt* (or *bar*) *chart*, a series of horizontal bars represents the duration of various tasks or groups of tasks that make up the project. Gantt charts provide an easy-to-understand representation of construction tasks and their relationships in time. They can be used to provide an overall picture of a project schedule, with only a project's major phases represented (Figure 1.10), or they can be expanded to represent a larger number of more narrowly defined tasks at greater levels of project detail (Figure 1.12).

The *critical path* of a project is the sequence of activities that determines the least amount of time in which a project can be completed. For example, the construction of a building's primary structural system is commonly on the critical path of a project schedule. If any of the activities on which the completion of this system depends—such as design, shop drawing production and review, component fabrication, materials delivery, or erection on site—are delayed, then the final completion date of the project will be extended. In contrast, other systems not on the critical path have more flexibility in their scheduling, called *float*, and delays (within limits) in their execution will not necessarily affect the overall project schedule.

The *critical path method* (CPM) is a technique for analyzing collections of

activities and optimizing the project schedule to minimize the duration and cost of a project. This requires a detailed breakdown of the work involved in a project and the identification of dependencies among the parts (Figure 1.13). This information is combined with considerations of cost and resources available to perform the work, and then analyzed, usually with the assistance of computer software, to identify optimal scenarios for scheduling and worker and resource allocation. Once the critical path of a project has been established, the elements on this path are likely to receive a high degree of scrutiny during the life of the project, as delays in any of these steps will have a direct impact on the overall project schedule.

Projects of different sizes and degrees of complexity, and even

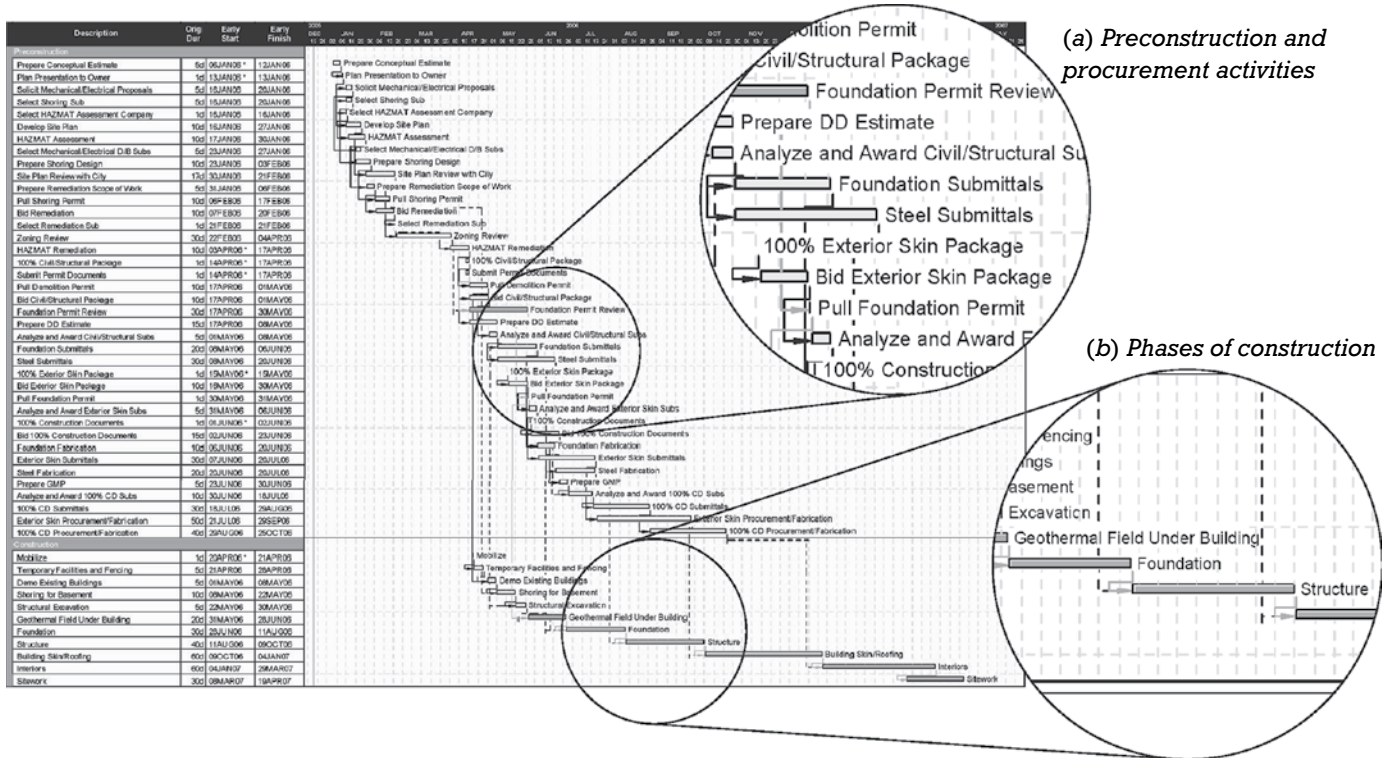


FIGURE 1.12

In a Gantt chart, varying levels of detail can be represented. In this example, roughly the top three-quarters of the chart is devoted to a breakdown of preconstruction and procurement activities, such as bidding portions of the work to subtrades, preparing cost estimates, and making submittals to the architect (a). Construction activities, represented more broadly, appear in the bottom portion (b).

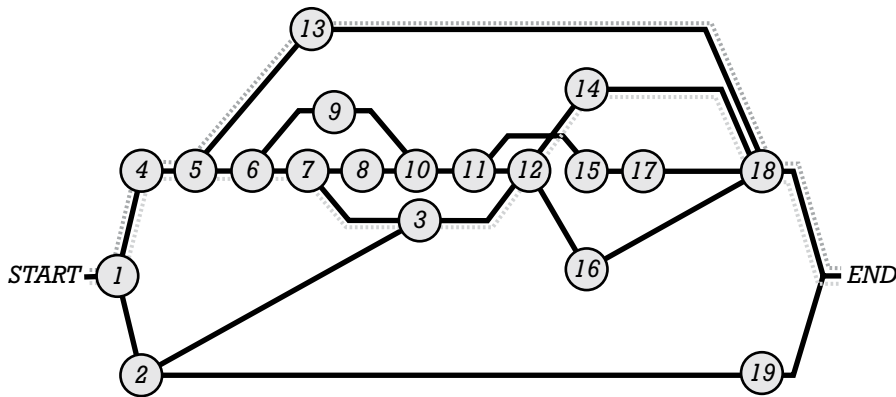


FIGURE 1.13

The critical path method depends on a detailed analysis of work tasks and their relationships to generate an optimal construction schedule. Shown here is a schematic network diagram representing task dependencies. For example, task 6 cannot begin until tasks 1, 4, and 5 are completed, and tasks 7 and 9 cannot begin until task 6 is finished. The dashed lines on the diagram trace two of many possible paths from the start to the end of the diagram. To determine the critical path for this collection of tasks, all such paths must be identified and the time required to complete each one calculated. The path requiring the most time to complete is the critical path, that is, the sequence of activities that determines the least time in which the collection of tasks as a whole can be completed.

different phases of planning and work within a single project, require schedules that differ in their degree of definition and level of detail. AACE International, an organization dedicated to promoting effective cost management practices, provides a useful system for defining different types of construction schedules. The degree of project definition in a schedule is described by five *schedule classes*. For example, a Class 5 schedule provides the least project definition and is appropriate to early conceptual work. A Class 3 schedule relies on a medium degree of definition and is suitable, for example, to project budgeting during design phases. A Class 1 schedule provides the highest degree of project definition, such as that needed for project bidding and costing.

Similarly, *schedule levels* define the amount of detail provided within the construction schedule. For example, a Level 1 schedule may be represented as a simple Gantt chart, outlining major project components and

their duration. This type of schedule is appropriate for high-level description of a project overall, but is not sufficient for monitoring and controlling project processes. A Level 3 schedule, such as a comprehensive CPM schedule, provides much more detail and can perform as an effective project management tool. Level 4 schedules provide an even finer degree of detail and are used to describe segments of an overall schedule. *Rolling* (or *look-ahead*) *schedules*, in which day-to-day processes extending a limited number of weeks or months into the future are described, are examples of Level 4 schedules.

Managing Construction

Once a construction project is underway, the general contractor assumes responsibility for day-to-day oversight of the construction site, management of trades and suppliers, and communications between the construction team and other major parties, such as the owner and the architect. On

projects of any significant size, this may include responsibility for filing construction permits, securing the project site, providing temporary power and water, setting up office trailers and other support facilities, providing insurance coverage for the work in progress, managing personnel on site, maintaining a safe work environment, stockpiling materials, performing testing and quality control, providing site surveying and engineering, arranging for cranes and other construction machinery, providing temporary structures and weather protection, disposing or recycling of construction waste, soliciting the work of subcontractors and coordinating their efforts, submitting product samples and technical information to the design team for review, maintaining accurate records of the construction as it proceeds, monitoring costs and schedules, managing changes to the work, protecting completed work, and more.

TRENDS IN THE DELIVERY OF DESIGN AND CONSTRUCTION SERVICES

Fostering Collaboration

The design and construction industry continues to test innovative organizational structures and project delivery methods in which designers, builders, and owners assume less adversarial and less compartmentalized roles. Such approaches share characteristics such as:

- Contractual relationships and working arrangements that foster collaboration between primary project participants—the designer, owner, and builder
- Early involvement of all parties, including participation of the construction entity during the design phases of a project
- Shared risk and reward

- Bond, payment or performance. *See* Surety bond
- Braced core, 421
- Braced frame, 409, 419–421
heavy timber and mass timber, 127, 138
precast concrete, 588
- Brake metal, 485
- Brass, 486
- Brazing, 485
- BREEAM. *See* Building Research Establishment Environmental Assessment Method (BREEAM)
- Brick flooring and paving, 302, 388, 872–873
- Brick masonry, 304–318. *See also* Cladding, masonry and concrete; Masonry construction; Mortar
ASTM classification of bricks, 302
bonds, 305–307
brickwork terminology, 304
comparative material properties, 370, 390
dimensioning, modular, 300, 307, 310
firebrick, 266–267, 302, 315
firing of bricks, 298–300
fly ash bricks, 296, 300
hollow bricks, 302, 303, 318
laying bricks, 304–311
molding of bricks, 297–298
mortar joints, 310–311
appearance, 306
naming, 304
preliminary design, 372
reinforced (RBM), 318–319
sizes and shapes of bricks, 300–301
solid bricks, 302
spanning openings, 312–317
sustainability, 296
weathering regions, 303
- Bridging, 166, 168, 172
- Bronze, 486
- Buckling restrained bracing, 421, 446
- Building codes, 13–18
and foundations, 75
and glass, 721–723
and heavy timber and mass timber, 128–130
and interior finishes, 813–816
and interior walls, 822–823
and light gauge steel, 482
and masonry, 389
and precast concrete, 611
and steel frame, 459
and roofing, 691
and sitecast concrete, 575
and wood light frame, 202–204
- Building enclosure, 622–644
foundations, 65–72
and sustainability, 629
wood light frame construction, 253–264
- Building felt, 212–213, 632
- Building information model (BIM), 26
- Building-integrated photovoltaic (BIPV), 690
- Building Research Establishment Environmental Assessment Method (BREEAM), 8
- Building separation joint, 382–385, 809
finish covers, 816, 817
roofing system, 652, 665
- Building wrap, 632, 636
air permeance, 637
vapor permeance, 640
- Built-up roof (BUR), 657–660, 668
- C**
- Cabinets, 271–274
- CAC. *See* Ceiling attenuation class (CAC)
- CAD. *See* Computer-aided design (CAD)
- Caissons. *See* Foundations, caissons
- CALGreen, 8
- California Department of Public Health (CDPH) Standard Method, 816
- Camber, 427
in precast concrete frame, 586, 588, 591
in sitecast concrete frame, 523–524
in steel frame, 427–428
- Carbon cycle, 82
- Carbon dioxide
and buildings, 4
and cement, 500–501
and mortar, 293, 294
and wood, 82
- Carbon fiber reinforcing, 592, 771
- Carbon neutral materials, 11
- Carbon sequestration, wood, 82
- Carpentry
finish, 237, 240, 265–282
rough, 166
- Carpet and carpet tile, 880–881
and noise transmission through floors, 867
sustainability, 866
- Castellated beam, 447–448
- Cast iron, 398, 485
history, 397–398
- Cavity drainage material. *See* Mortar deflection material
- Cavity wall, 364–365, 632
drainage and flashings, 376–378
insulation, 291
invention of, 291
and masonry construction, 342, 364–366, 368–369, 372–374
and masonry curtain wall, 760–765
- CDHP Standard Method. *See* California Department of Public Health Standard Method (CDPH Standard Method)
- Ceilings, 856–865
acoustical, 856–858, 860–864
with exposed structural and mechanical components, 856, 857–858
fire-resistance rated, 865
gypsum board and plaster, 858–859
interstitial, 865
suspended, 858–865
sustainability, 866
tightly attached, 858
- Ceiling attenuation class (CAC), 857
- Cellular raceway, 810, 868
- Cellular steel decking, 437–438, 810, 868–869
- Cellulose
in asphalt shingles, 672
in building and roofing felts, 212, 657
in flooring underlayment, 867
insulation, 254, 263, 637, 654
in trees, 80
in wood products, 96
- Cement, 496–499
blended hydraulic, 293, 295, 502
hydraulic and nonhydraulic, 294, 502
masonry, 293, 295
mortar, 293, 295
sustainability, 500–501
- Ceramic tile. *See also* Quarry tile
finish flooring, 872–874
precast concrete cladding facing, 771
slip resistance, 867
sustainability, 866
wall facing, 848–849
wood light frame construction
interiors, 282–284
- Charring fire protection, 131–132
- Chimney, 246–247, 266, 320
framed openings for, 166, 191
- Chromium, 487
in chemical wood preservative, 107
in stainless steel, 402, 458, 485–486
- Cladding. *See also* Siding
adjusting to movement, 623–624, 626
drained, 229–230, 630–634
rainscreen, 229, 632
vented, 230, 632
ventilated, 230, 632
- Cladding, masonry and concrete
artificial stone, 237, 760–765
brick, 236, 237, 778–781
exterior insulation and finish system, 375, 378, 774–776
glass-fiber-reinforced concrete, 773–774
precast concrete, 771–773
prefabricated brick panels, 766
stone, 339, 342, 364, 767–770
stucco, 233, 236
- Cladding, mass timber, 142
- Cladding, metal and glass
curtain wall, 791–799, 801
design process, 801
double-skin facades, 800
metal panel, 801–803
sloped glazing, 800
storefront, 791–795
sustainability, 789
window wall, 791–796
- Clay tile roofing, 324, 671, 673, 678, 691
- CLSM. *See* Controlled low-strength material (CLSM)
- CLT. *See* Cross-laminated timber (CLT)
- CM. *See* Construction manager
- Coating systems, architectural, 226
- Codes, building. *See* Building codes
- Coefficient of friction, 867

- Cold-formed metal framing. *See* Light gauge steel frame construction
- Cold-worked
 aluminum, 486, 784
 light gauge steel, 468, 469, 484
 steel, 408
- Composite masonry walls, 364
- Composite structural members
 metal decking and concrete, 437–439, 478
 precast and sitecast concrete, 525, 587, 607, 609
 steel and concrete beams, 437, 440
 steel and concrete columns, 457
 wood and concrete floors, 138, 143
- Composition shingles. *See* Asphalt shingles
- Computer-aided design (CAD), 20
- Concrete, 497
 admixtures, 502–503
 aggregates, 497, 500–502
 cement, 497–499
 comparative structural properties, 509
 consolidation, 505, 543
 cracking, 506, 509, 516, 520, 522–523, 537, 538–540, 543, 566
 creep, 382, 522, 524
 curing, 497, 505–507, 537–539
 cutting, 568–569
 fastening to, 596–597
 finish flooring, 871
 formwork, 507–508
 handling and placing, 505
 history, 496–497
 hot and cold weather placement, 506–507
 innovations in, 527–529
 light transmitting, 529
 mixes, 503–505
 posttensioning, 523–527
 prestressing, 522–527
 pretensioning, 523
 pumping, 504–506
 reinforcing, 508–522
 fibrous, 520
 segregation, 505
 self-consolidating, 505
 slump test, 504, 541
 strength, 503–505
 supplementary cementitious materials, 500, 501, 502, 539
 sustainability, 500–501
 test cylinder, 504–505, 541
 ultra-high performance concrete, 503, 527, 528, 771
 water, 497, 500–501, 502
 water-cement ratio, 503, 539
- Concrete blocks. *See* Concrete masonry
- Concrete masonry, 348. *See also* Cladding, masonry and concrete; Masonry construction; Mortar
 ASTM classification of concrete masonry units, 348–349
 autoclaved aerated concrete (AAC), 358–359
 curing, 348
 decorative units, 354, 356, 357
 dimensioning, modular, 350
 dry-stacked, 354
 economy of, 356
 laying, 350–354
 manufacture of units, 348–350
 mortar joints, 350
 reinforcing, 354–355
 sizes and shapes of units, 348–350
 structural glazed facing tiles, 358
 structural terra cotta, 358
 surface bonded, 354
 sustainability, 343
 weights, 348–350
- Concrete, precast, 584. *See also* Concrete assembly concepts, 588–589
 beams and girders, 586–588
 and building codes, 611
 carbon fiber reinforcing, 592
 columns, 586, 593
 composite precast/sitecast construction, 607, 609
 construction process, 621
 curtain wall panels, 771–772
 joining elements, 595–608
 lateral force resistance, 588
 manufacture, 589–595
 preliminary design, 587
 prestressing, 592
 reinforcing, 592
 shear wall, 588
 posttensioned, 598
 slabs, 586
 sustainability, 610
 transportation, 584
 wall panels, 586, 588, 595
- Concrete, sitecast, 534. *See also* Concrete; Insulating concrete forms
 architectural finishes, 564–567
 and building codes, 575
 climbing formwork, 557, 572, 573, 575
 columns, 519, 521, 544–545
 economical design, 572, 575
 floor and roof systems, one-way, 545–555
 floor and roof systems, two-way, 555–560
 flying formwork, 572, 573
 form ties, 540–543, 544
 formwork costs, 572
 ganged forms, 543, 572
 innovations, 572–574
 lift-slab construction, 574, 575
 longer spans, 570–571
 posttensioned, 523–527, 561–562
 preliminary design, 574
 reshoring, 547, 549, 557
 selecting a framing system, 555, 559
 shotcrete, 564
 slab on grade, 535–540
 slip forming, 575
 tilt-up, 562, 578
 walls, 540–543
- Condensation, 638
 and air barriers, 262, 623, 638
 and aluminum extrusions, 788, 794, 797
 and basement walls, 161
 and continuous insulation, 526, 641, 768
 and curtain walls, 623
 and durable wood construction, 107
 and exterior wall design, 107, 256
 and glazing, 623, 707, 743
 and light gauge steel frame construction, 481–482
 and roofs, 217–219, 652
 and sloped glazing, 800
 and vapor retarders, 261, 262, 623, 639, 640
 and windows, 732, 737, 742, 752
 and wood shingles, 671
- Condensing surface, 641
- Construction documents, 12, 20
- Construction manager (CM), 21
- Construction project delivery, 20–22
- Construction type, 13–17
 mass timber (Types IV-A, -B, -C), 130
- Continuous beam, 516, 518, 519, 595, 601
- Continuous insulation, 161, 256, 258–259, 469, 481, 635–636
- Contraction joint. *See* Control joint
- Control joint (contraction joint), 382–383, 385
 concrete slab on grade, 537–539
 concrete wall, 543
 GFRC, 773
 gypsum wallboard, 842
 masonry, 349, 386
 plaster, 831–832, 834
 precast concrete toppings, 606
 terrazzo, 875
- Controlled low-strength material (CLSM), 65, 74
- Cool color, 656, 685
- Copper, 486, 678
 sheet metal thickness, 684
- Corbel
 masonry, 312–313, 320, 323
 precast concrete, 593, 601–603, 605, 613
- Core structure, 23, 419, 420, 457, 576
- Corner boards and trim, wood, 228, 233, 235, 237–238
- Corrosion, corrosion protection
 of architectural metals, 484–487, 679
 of concrete reinforcing steel, 500, 502–503, 508, 511, 512
 of flashings, 220, 340, 378
 galvanic, 684, 686–687
 with paints and coatings, 225, 227
 of structural steel alloys, 399, 402
 of wood fasteners and connectors, 107, 109–113, 137
- Cost plus a fee compensation, 22
- Counterflashing. *See* Flashing, counterflashing
- CPM. *See* Critical path method
- Cradle-to-gate analysis, cradle-to-grave analysis. *See* Life cycle analysis
- Cranes, 432–433, 628
- Critical path, critical path method, 24, 25
- Critical radiant flux exposure, 815
- Cross-laminated timber (CLT), 97–98, 129, 138
 construction, 139–143
 sustainability, 129
- Cruck frame, 127
- Curtain wall. *See* Cladding, metal and glass
- Cutoff wall, 45, 49
- Cutting concrete, stone, and masonry, 568–569

D

d. *See* Penny

Dampproofing, 66

foundation, 65–66, 71, 156, 162
masonry cavity wall, 365

DCOF. *See* Dynamic coefficient of friction (DCOF)

Dead load, 34

Decking

concrete, precast, 622–624
concrete, sitecast, 439
cross laminated timber, 129, 138, 148
heavy timber, 129, 138, 144, 148
metal, 401, 408, 437–440
metal, vented, 654
plastic lumber, 102
roof, 106, 651–652
wood, exterior, 107–108, 240–241
wood-plastic composite, 101, 241

Declare materials disclosure, 9, 11

Deflection track, 823–824, 844, 845

Densities of building materials, 93, 339,
349, 370, 884

Design/bid/build project delivery,
20–22

Design/build project delivery, 20–23, 26

Dewatering, 49–50

Dew point temperature, 638–639, 641

Diamond cutting tools, 334, 568

Diffusion, water vapor, 217, 261, 623,
638–641, 707

Dissimilar metals and galvanic series, 113,
684, 686–687

DLT. *See* Dowel-laminated timber (DLT)

Domes

brick, 316–317, 323
concrete, 497, 570, 571, 574
heavy timber, 146
steel, 452

Door frames

hollow metal, 748–749, 836, 845
wood, 222, 223, 270, 271

Doors, 745, 747

acoustic, 753
egress and accessible, 751
exterior residential, installation,
222–223

fiberglass, 750

fire, 750–751

hardware, 751

installation, 222–223, 751

interior residential, 265, 269–271

safety considerations, 752

steel, 748–750

structural performance, 752

sustainability, 745

thermal performance, 752–753

wood, 747–748

Dowel-laminated timber (DLT), 99

in mass timber construction, 141

Downspout, 214–215, 651, 664

Draftstopping, 815–816

Drainage, foundation, 65–66, 68, 156,
158, 160, 161

Drained cladding, 229–230, 630–632

aluminum and glass framing
system, 794–795

EIFS, 775

masonry cavity wall, 365

masonry veneer cladding, 236–237, 365, 762

metal panel, 803

precast concrete curtain wall, 771

stone curtain wall, 767

stucco, 236

wood siding, 229

Drip, 629, 631, 632

Drywall. *See* Gypsum board

Dynamic coefficient of friction (DCOF), 867

E

Earth materials, 35–40

for building foundations, 38–39

cohesive, 37, 40

drainage characteristics, 37

frictional, 36, 37

grading, 37–38

loadbearing capacity, 38

particle size, 35–36

properties, 35–38

stability, 35, 38–39

subsurface exploration and testing,
39–40

Unified Soil Classification System, 35, 36

Earth reinforcing, 72

EBD. *See* Environmental building declaration

Ecolabel, 9

Efflorescence, 295, 387

Egress system, building, 17, 751, 815

EIFS. *See* Exterior insulation and finish
system (EIFS)

Electrical wiring, 246, 808, 810

in cellular decking, 437

in floors, 868–870

in heavy timber construction, 139

in light gauge steel framing, 476, 482, 845

in light wood framing, 164, 205,
251, 253, 284

in masonry and concrete wall

construction, 378, 848

in mass timber construction, 141, 142

metals used for, 486

Embodied carbon, 8

Embodied energy, 9–11

Embodied water, 10

EMC. *See* Equilibrium moisture content (EMC)

Encapsulation fire protection, 130–132

Energy efficiency, 4–5, 622–623

and air leakage, 623

and building enclosure, 629

and concrete thermal mass, 500

and doors and windows, 745

and energy codes, 17

and foundations, 53, 70–71, 160–161, 163

and glass, 700, 721

and light gauge steel frame

construction, 469

and masonry thermal mass, 296, 343

and roofing, 656

and sustainability, 7–8

and thermal insulation, 70

and ventilation, 263

and windows, 745

and wood light framing, 262

Energy recovery ventilator, 263

Engineered lumber. *See* Lumber,

structural composite

Environmental building declaration
(EBD), 9, 129

Environmental labels, 9

Environmental product declaration (EPD),
9–10

aluminum window, 745

architectural flat glass, 700

carpet tile, 866

concrete, 500

concrete masonry, 343

corrugated steel roof and floor deck, 458

fly ash brick, 296

glazed curtain wall, 789

gypsum board, 826

insulation, 262

limestone cladding, 343

PVC roof membrane, 656–657

softwood lumber, 84

steel studs and track, 469

structural concrete, precast, 610

structural steel, 458

suspended ceiling systems, 866

vinyl tile, 866

wood door, 745

Equilibrium moisture content (EMC), 86,
88

Ethylene tetrafluoroethylene (ETFE), 454,
700, 711, 740

Excavation, 42–49

in up-down construction, 62, 64–65

in wood light frame construction,
156–159

Excavation support, 42–49, 54

Expanded metal lath, 821, 825, 829, 830,
831, 833, 836

Expansion joint, 382–385. *See also*

Isolation joint

concrete slab on grade, 539

low-slope roof, 665

masonry veneer cladding, 760–764

masonry wall, 376, 380–381

metal and glass curtain wall, 795–796

plaster, 832

Expansion of materials, thermal

coefficients, 884

masonry materials, 380

window framing materials, 738

Exterior finishes. *See* Cladding; Paints and
coatings; Siding

Exterior insulation and finish system (EIFS),
375, 378, 774–776

Exterior walls

building code requirements, 15

keeping water out, 629–634

loadbearing and curtain wall, 627–628

Extrusions, aluminum, 737, 785–787

F

- Fabric structures, 454–456
- Fast track construction. *See* Phased construction
- Fiberboard, 103. *See also* Wood panels
cellulosic, 106, 654
insulating sheathing, 106
medium-density (MDF), 103
sheathing, 185
- Fiberglass reinforced plastic (FRP), 750.
See also glass-fiber-reinforced plastic
- Field impact isolation class (FIIC), 813
- Field sound transmission class (FSTC), 812
- FIIC. *See* Field impact isolation class (FIIC)
- Fill, earth, 39, 72, 74
controlled low-strength material, 65, 74
engineered, 50
- Finger jointed lumber. *See* Lumber,
finger jointed
- Finish carpentry, 19, 88, 265–281
exterior, 125, 237–238
- Fire area, 813, 822
- Fire barrier. *See* Fire-rated walls and partitions
- Fireblocking, 139, 153–154, 815, 876
- Fire compartmentation, 813
- Fire damper, 813, 865
- Fire door, 704, 750–751, 822
- Fire partition. *See* Fire-rated walls and
partitions
- Fireplace, 266–268, 282, 315
brick, 302
- Fireproofing, 442–447, 458, 575, 611, 858. *See also*
Spray-applied fire-resistive materials
- Fire-rated walls and partitions, 15, 813, 822–823
fire barriers, 822
fire partitions, 822
fire walls, 17, 203, 389, 822
shaft walls, 808, 822, 847
smoke barriers and partitions, 823
- Fire resistance rating, 15–17. *See also* Fire-rated
walls and partitions
of the building enclosure, 625, 628
of brick and concrete masonry, 389
of doors, 750
of glass, 704
of gypsum board and plaster partitions, 836,
837, 844, 847
of interior walls, ceilings, and floors, 813–814
of large wood members, 131, 142
of light gauge steel framing, 482
of precast concrete, 611
of roofs, 652, 654
of sitecast concrete, 575
of structural steel, 16
of wood light frame dwelling separations, 203
- Fire-retardant treatments, 109
- Firestopping, 813–814, 817, 837, 844, 869
- Fire safing, 765, 768, 799, 814
- Fire wall. *See* Fire-rated walls and partitions
- Fixed-fee compensation. *See* Lump-sum
compensation
interior finish material, 814–815
roof covering, 691
- Flammability, criteria for interior finish
surfaces, 814–815
- Flashing
coping, 377, 666, 667, 799
counterflashing, 369
EIFS, 776
end dam, 369
head, 221, 223
heavy timber protection, 136, 137
and keeping water out, 629, 632, 634
masonry and concrete curtain wall, 760,
762–763, 765, 771, 779, 780
masonry wall, 320, 340, 342, 365, 368–369,
376–378
material types, 340, 342, 378, 485, 486, 744
roofing, low-slope, 651, 662–668
roofing, steep, 213, 214, 676
sill, 220, 221–223, 369
window and door, 221–223, 735, 744, 745
Z-, 231
- Flat glass, 698–700
- Flat seam sheet metal roofing, 678, 682
- Flooring. *See also* Decking
acoustic criteria, 812–813, 867
electrical resistivity, 868
fire criteria, 813, 815
functions of, 867–870
preparation for, 282–283, 870
radiant heated, 246, 252, 282
raised access, 810, 868–870, 881
sequence of installation, 23, 103, 470
slip resistance, 867–868
sustainability, 866
thickness, 870
- Fluid-applied flooring, 880–881
- Fluid-applied membrane roofing, 662
- Fly ash, 74
in brick, 296, 300
in concrete, 501, 502, 539
in concrete masonry, 343
in controlled low-strength material, 74
- Flying formwork, 572, 573
- Folded plate, concrete, 570
- Footings, 50–52. *See also* Foundations
concrete column, 544
concrete wall, 540–541
for light wood framing, 156, 158–161
pressure-injected (compaction grouted), 61
retaining wall, 74
shallow frost-protected, 53
- Forest management, 81, 82
- Formaldehyde, 115
and indoor environmental quality, 816
and insulation products, 263
and plastic composites, 740
ultra-low-emitting formaldehyde, 85, 811
and wood product adhesives, 115
and wood product emissions, 85, 115, 811, 866
- Foundations, 34–35, 50. *See also* Footings;
Insulation, thermal, in foundations
and building codes, 75
caissons, 53–56
deep, 53–61
designing, 75
loads, 34
mat or raft, 53
permanent wood, 164
piles, 56–61
radon and soil gas control, 70–72
requirements, 34–35
seismic base isolation, 61, 63
settlement, 34–35, 38, 40, 74, 384, 626, 808
shallow, 50–53
spread, 50–53
sustainability, 41
underpinning, 61–64
up-down construction, 62, 64–65
waterproofing and drainage, 65–69,
156, 158–159
wood light frame, 156–164
- Framed wood panel, 117
- Framing square, 189, 191, 192, 194, 195
- Free water
concrete, 537, 654
wood, 86
- Freeze-thaw weathering, 302, 303, 310, 339,
500, 502, 625, 762, 850
- Frost-protected footings, shallow, 53
- FRP. *See* Fiberglass reinforced plastic (FRP)
- FSTC. *See* field sound transmission
class (FSTC)
- Fungi, 86, 106
- Furring, 229, 378, 379, 468, 470, 823, 825
- G**
- Gabion, 72
- Gable vent, 217–218
- Galvanic series for metals, 686–687
- Galvanized steel, 484, 486–487, 686–687
- Gantt chart, 24, 25
- General contractor, 12, 20–22, 25
- Geotextiles, 72
in green roofing, 689
- GFRC. *See* Glass-fiber-reinforced
concrete (GFRC)
- GFRP. *See* Glass-fiber-reinforced plastic (GFRP)
- Glass. *See also* Glazing
acoustic, 753
annealed, 699
antireflective, 711
art, 711
blown, 696–697
and building codes, 721, 723
chemically-strengthened, 711
chromogenic (property-changing), 711
colored, 711
crown, 696
cylinder, 696
damage weighted transmittance (T_{dw}), 704
double-strength, 700
drawn, 697
electrochromic (switchable), 711
and energy, 721, 723
and fading damage protection, 704
fire-rated, 704
flat, 698
float, 697–698
fritted, 704
hazardous locations, 703
heat-strengthened, 701

heat-treated, 699–701
 history and manufacturing, 696–698
 ingredients, 699
 insulating, 707–709
 laminated, 702
 leaded, 721
 lehr, 698
 light, lite, 698
 light to solar gain ratio (LSG), 705
 low-emissivity (low-e), 708–709
 mirror, 711
 patterned, 711
 photochromic, 711
 photovoltaic, 711
 plate, 697
 polyvinyl butyral (PVB) interlayer, 702
 punty, 696
 quenching, 699
 radiation-shielding, 711
 reflective coated, 706
 safety, 703–704
 security, 755
 self-cleaning, 711
 silkscreened, 711
 single-strength, 700
 solar heat gain coefficient (SHGC), 705, 708
 spandrel, 704
 stained, 711
 for structural use, 709–710
 surface number, 709
 sustainability, 700
 tempered, fully tempered, 699–701
 thermochromic, 711
 thicknesses, 699–700
 tinted, 704
 U-factor, 707–708
 vacuum-insulated, 707
 visible light transmittance (VT), 704, 708

Glass blocks, 358

Glass-fiber-reinforced concrete (GFRC), 520, 773–774

Glass-fiber-reinforced plastic (GFRP), 738.
See also fiberglass reinforced plastic

Glass-fiber reinforcing, 738

Glazier, 698

Glazing, 712. *See also* Glass
 acoustic, 753
 bite, 713
 butt-joint, 713–714
 double, 707–708
 edge spacer, 707
 fire-rated, 704, 751
 large lights, 712–713
 plastic, 711
 safety, 703–704
 single, 707, 708
 sloped, 800
 small lites, 712
 suspended, 714, 719
 triple, 707, 708

Global warming potential, 9–11. *See also*
 Environmental product declaration
 wood, 82–83, 84

Glue-laminated wood, 96–97, 138, 144, 148

GMAX. *See* Guaranteed maximum price (GMAX)

GMP. *See* Guaranteed maximum price (GMP)

Grade beam, 52, 57, 59

Grade D building paper, 212

Grading, earth work, 39

Grading, lumber, 91–92

Grading, soil particle size, 36–38

Grain, wood, 80–83
 flat, 85
 vertical, 85, 87

Granite building stone, 330, 332, 333, 335–337, 339, 341, 346, 347, 359, 370, 380, 388

Green building, 5. *See also* Sustainability

Green roofs, 688–689
 sustainability, 656

Groundwater, 34, 39, 40, 42, 75

Grouting, reinforced masonry, 318, 354, 355, 364

Guaranteed maximum price (GMP), 22

Gutters, 214–216, 651, 664

Gypsum, 827–828
 in portland cement, 498, 499
 sustainability, 826

Gypsum board, 264–265, 837, 840
 as an air barrier, 262–264, 636–638
 exterior sheathing, 476, 479, 632
 finishing, 265, 840–844
 finish levels, 844
 installing, 840–844
 interior finish in wood light frame
 construction, 245, 264–265
 lath, 831, 833, 834, 836
 manufacture, 837
 partitions, 837, 840–847
 resistance to fire, 131, 132, 827–828
 roofing boards, 652, 661
 sustainability, 826
 trim accessories, 842
 types, 840
 vapor permeance, 640
 veneer plaster base, 831, 833, 834

Gypsum plaster, 264, 827–828, 834, 836, 837, 838–839

Gypsum underlayment. *See* Underlayment, flooring, self-leveling

H

Hardboard, 106. *See also* Wood panels

Hardwoods, and softwoods, 80–82

HDO plywood. *See* Plywood, high-density overlay

Head flashing. *See* Flashing, head

Health product declaration (HPD), 10, 11

Heating, ventilation, and air conditioning (HVAC), 808
 forced air, 250
 hydronic, 172, 246, 251, 252
 radiant, 246, 252

Heat recovery ventilator, 263

Heat treatment
 aluminum, 486, 784–785
 glass, 699–701
 metal, 484
 steel, 402, 410, 484

Heavy timber frame construction, 126, 127, 130
 accommodating building services, 139
 anchoring beams to walls, 133
 and building codes, 128–130
 as fire-resistive type IV construction, 128–129
 floor and roof decks, 138
 historical evolution, 126–128
 lateral stability, 139
 longer spans in, 144–147
 with masonry wall construction, 372
 minimum member sizes, 129
 partition framing, 138
 preliminary design, 148
 sustainability, 129
 in type V construction, 129, 130
 with wood-concrete composite
 construction, 143
 and wood shrinkage, 134, 135

Height and area limitations, building code, 13–17

Helical pile, 60

High-density overlay plywood. *See* Plywood, high-density overlay

High-performance concrete (HPC), 503

Hold-down, 183, 184

Hose stream test, 813

Housewrap, 212–213, 262
 vapor permeance, 640

HPD. *See* Health product declaration (HPD)

Humidity, relative, 638, 639, 641
 and wood moisture content, 86, 94

HVAC. *See* Heating, ventilation, and air conditioning (HVAC)

Hydrated lime. *See* Lime, hydrated

I

IAQ. *See* Indoor air quality (IAQ)

Ice barrier, ice and water shield. *See* Roofing, steep, ice barrier

Ice dam. *See* Roofing, steep, ice dam

ICF. *See* Insulating concrete forms (ICF)

I-joint, 101, 166, 167, 169, 172–174, 188, 196, 202
 preliminary design, 202

Impact isolation class (IIC), 812–813

Incentive provision, 22

Incised wood, 107, 108

Indoor air quality (IAQ)
 and air leakage, 623, 629, 636
 and carpet and resilient flooring, 880
 and formaldehyde, 115
 and interior finishes, 811, 816
 and interior sealant joints, 644
 and paints and other coatings, 224, 240

Indoor environmental quality, 816. *See also*
 Indoor air quality

Insulating concrete forms (ICF), 164, 563–564, 575

Insulation, acoustic. *See* Acoustic insulation

Insulation, thermal. *See also* Exterior insulation and finish system (EIFS); Insulating concrete forms
 in the building enclosure, 623, 629, 634–636, 641

- comparative material properties, 254, 654
 continuous, 256, 258, 259, 635–636, 641
 in foundations
 large buildings, 70–71
 small buildings, 160–161, 163
 in light gauge steel framing, 469, 481
 in masonry and concrete cladding,
 760–763, 764–765, 766–768,
 770, 771
 in masonry wall construction, 367,
 372–375, 378–379
 in metal cladding, 632–633, 803
 in precast concrete, 588, 595
 in roofing, low-slope, 651, 652–654,
 655, 656, 689
 in roofing, steep, 216–219, 259
 in tilt-up concrete, 562
 in wood light framing, 253–260
 Integrated project delivery (IPD), 26
 Interior finishes. *See also* Ceilings; Interior walls
 and partitions
 fire criteria, 813–816
 relationship to mechanical and electrical
 services, 246, 808–810, 816
 selection criteria, 811–817
 sustainability, 810
 trends in, 817–818
 in wood light framing, 264–284
 Interior walls and partitions. *See also* Fire-rated
 walls and partitions
 facings, 848–850
 fire criteria, 813–814, 822–823
 framing, 823–825
 gypsum board, 837–847
 masonry, 848
 plaster, 827–837
 Interlayer, laminated glass, 702, 704, 710
 Intermediate seismic force resisting system.
 See Seismic force resisting system
 International Building Code (IBC), 13–17
 International green construction code, 8
 International residential code (IRC), 17
 Intumescent coatings, 109, 225, 444, 447
 IPD. *See* Integrated project delivery
 IRC. *See* International Residential Code
 Iron. *See* Cast iron; Wrought iron
 Iron ore, 396, 398, 400, 458, 484
 Isolation joint, 382, 383
 concrete slab on grade, 535, 536, 539
 concrete wall, 543
 masonry wall, 380
 ISO 14020 standards, 9
- J**
- Joints in buildings, 382–385. *See also* Building
 separation joint; Control joint;
 Expansion joint; Isolation joint
 and keeping water out, 630–634
 sealing, 641–644
 Joist, wood, 153, 155, 166–169, 171–172,
 187–188, 190, 192–193, 202.
 See also I-joist
 JUST materials disclosure, 12
- L**
- Laminated strand lumber (LSL), 100, 101
 Laminated veneer lumber (LVL), 95, 97, 100,
 101, 147, 173, 736
 Lateral force resisting system (LFRS), 142,
 182, 409, 419–421, 463. *See also* Lateral
 stability, building
 Lateral stability, building. *See also* Lateral
 force resisting system, Seismic force
 resisting system
 and foundations, 34
 in heavy timber construction, 138, 139
 in light gauge steel frame construction,
 473
 in masonry wall construction, 365
 in mass timber construction, 142
 in precast concrete framing systems, 588
 in sitecast concrete construction, 555, 559
 in steel frame construction, 419–421
 in wood light frame construction, 181–186
 Lath, 827, 831
 expanded metal, 820, 821, 825, 829, 830–831,
 833, 834, 836, 837, 849, 859
 gypsum, 831, 833, 834, 836
 for stucco and artificial stone, 236, 237
 veneer plaster base, 831, 833, 834, 836
 LCA. *See* Life cycle analysis (LCA)
 Leads for masonry walls, 307–309, 351–353
 Lean construction, 26
 LEED, 6–8, 11, 12, 85, 226, 240, 263, 685, 731,
 812. *See also* Sustainability
 Lewis, 335, 341
 LFRS. *See* Lateral force resisting system
 Life cycle analysis (LCA), 9–10, 11
 Lift-slab construction, 574, 575
 Light gauge steel frame construction, 468.
 See also Ceilings, suspended
 advantages and disadvantages, 482
 and building codes, 482
 concept, 468–470
 finishes for, 482
 framing, backup for cladding or veneer,
 479–480, 483, 764–765, 773, 803
 framing, partition, 823–825
 framing, structural, 470–479
 insulating, 481–482, 635–636
 preliminary design, 481
 standard shapes and sizes, 468–470
 sustainability, 469
 thicknesses of members, 469
 Lime, 293
 in autoclaved aerated concrete, 358–359
 in cement, 497
 in glass, 699
 in gypsum plaster, 827–828, 838
 hydrated, 293
 in mortar, 290, 293–295, 343
 in portland cement plaster, 827, 828–829
 slaked, 293
 and steel production, 399, 400
 Limestone
 building stone, 291, 330, 332, 333, 339, 340,
 342, 343, 370, 380, 768, 770, 850
 in the manufacture of lime, 290, 293
 in portland cement, 496, 497, 501
 in steel production, 398–400
 sustainability, 343, 458, 501
 Linoleum, 878, 879
 sustainability, 866
 Lintel, 312, 354, 408
 brick masonry, 289, 312, 313, 321, 369, 373
 concrete masonry, 349, 354–355, 369, 373
 fireplace, 267
 Liquefaction. *See* Soil liquefaction
 Liquid limit, of soil, 36, 37, 40
 Live load, 34
 Living building challenge, 5, 8, 11, 12, 85, 240,
 263, 657, 661, 741, 816
 Locally sourced (regional) materials, 11, 263,
 296, 343, 458, 588, 810
 LSL. *See* Laminated strand lumber
 Lumber, plastic, 102, 109, 741
 Lumber, 84. *See also* Wood
 defects, 90–91
 dimensions, 93–94
 finger jointed, 96, 97, 98, 101
 grading, 91–92
 sawing, 84–86
 seasoning, 86–89
 structural properties, 93
 surfacing, 89
 Lumber, structural composite, 98, 100, 115
 in heavy timber and mass timber
 construction, 126, 129, 145
 in windows and doors, 745
 in wood light frame construction, 167,
 169, 176, 177, 178. *See also* I-joists;
 Laminated strand lumber (LSL);
 Laminated veneer lumber (LVL);
 Parallel strand lumber (PSL)
 Lump-sum compensation, 22
 LVL. *See* Laminated veneer lumber
- M**
- Magnesium, 487, 501, 687, 784
 Mantels, 277, 282
 Manufactured home, 117, 118
 Marble building stone, 291, 330, 332, 333, 335,
 339, 340, 370, 380, 850, 871, 873
 Masonry construction. *See also* Brick
 masonry; Concrete masonry; Mortar;
 Stone masonry
 acoustic properties, 389
 and building codes, 372, 389
 cavity walls, 364–370, 373, 374, 376–378,
 632, 760–765
 cold-and hot-weather construction,
 295, 387
 comparative material properties, 339, 349,
 370, 380, 389, 390
 composite walls, 364, 366, 368
 efflorescence, 295, 387
 expansion and contraction, 380, 382,
 624–625, 762
 fire resistance, 350, 389
 in fire-resistive heavy timber construction,
 128, 129, 132–133, 372

- flashing and drainage, 368–370, 376–378
 history, 290–293
 insulation, thermal, 367, 373–375, 378–379
 joint reinforcing, 354, 366, 367, 373, 374, 380
 joints in wall construction, 380–386
 loadbearing walls, 318–319, 331, 364, 365, 368, 371, 372, 373–375
 moisture resistance, 387
 paving, 388, 872, 873
 preliminary design, 372
 reinforced walls, 365–368
 spanning systems, 372–375
 ties, 364, 365–367
 uniqueness, 389
 unreinforced walls, 318, 319, 320, 359, 365, 390
- Mass plywood panel, 98
- Mass timber, 126
 and building codes, 130
 construction, 140–143
 fire-resistance, 130–132, 142
 sustainability, 129
- Mass wall, 630
- MasterFormat, 18–20
- MDF. *See* Fiberboard, medium-density
- MDO. *See* Plywood, medium-density overlay
- Means of egress, building, 17
- Mechanical and electrical services, 246–253, 808–810
 within ceilings, 810, 858, 862
 exposed, 139, 816, 857–858
 within floors, 868–870
- Mechanically stabilized earth, 72
- Medium-density fiberboard (MDF).
See Fiberboard, medium-density
- Medium-density overlay plywood (MDO).
See Plywood, medium-density overlay
- Membrane fire protection, 445, 858, 865
- Metal decking. *See* Steel frame construction, metal decking
- Metal heat treatment
 annealing, 484
 quenching, 402, 484
 tempering, 402, 484
- Metal lath. *See* Expanded metal lath
- Metals in architecture, 484–487
See also dissimilar metals and galvanic series
- Metric unit conversions, 885
- Mill construction, 128, 132, 133, 372
- Millwork and finish carpentry,
 245, 265–282
 exterior, 237–238
- Minimum critical radiant flux exposure,
 815
- Modified bitumen membrane roofing,
 658–660
- Modular construction, 117–118, 121–123
 sustainability, 156
- Moisture barrier. *See* Water resistive barrier (WRB)
- Moisture content
 earth materials, 35–38, 74
 interior finish carpentry, 265
 wood, 86–89, 106
- Moldings
 exterior, 237
 fiberboard, 103
 interior, 272, 277, 279, 876
 plaster, 838, 839
- Moment-resisting frame, 419, 421, 555, 588
- Mortar, 293
 admixtures, 295
 ASTM types, 294, 295
 cement-lime, 293, 295
 cement types for, 293
 hydration, 294–295
 ingredients, 293–294
 joint deterioration, 387
 joint repointing, 387
 joint thickness and profiles, 310, 315
 joint tooling, 310, 311
 lime, 294
 mixes, 294
 tuckpointing, 387
- Mortar deflection material, 365, 370, 763
- Movement joint. *See* Joints in buildings
- Mud slab, 65, 68
- N**
- NAF. *See* No added formaldehyde (NAF)
- Nails, 109–111
 for chemically-treated wood, 107, 110
 and development of light wood frame construction, 153
 exterior siding, 109, 228, 230, 231
 finish carpentry, 109, 270–272
 standard nailing for platform frame construction, 170–171
- Nail flanged window, 222, 744
- Nail-laminated timber (NLT), 99
 in mass timber construction, 126, 138, 141
- National Building Code of Canada, 13, 130, 262, 753
- National Green Building Standard, 8
- Needling, 63
- NLT. *See* Nail-laminated timber (NLT)
- No added formaldehyde (NAF), 85, 115
- Noise reduction coefficient (NRC), 812, 856
- NRC. *See* Noise reduction coefficient (NRC)
- O**
- Occupancy, building code, 13, 14, 822
- Occupational Safety and Health Act (OSHA), 18
- OITC. *See* Outdoor-indoor transmission class (OITC)
- Omniclass, 20
- Open-web steel joists (OWSJs), 401, 408–409, 435, 460, 857
- Optimum value engineering. *See* Advanced framing techniques
- Ordinary construction, 363, 372
- Ordinary seismic force resisting system.
See Seismic force resisting system
- Oriented strand board (OSB), 101, 103, 105, 106, 115, 117. *See also* Wood panels
- air permeance, 637
 fireblocking, 815
 vapor permeance, 640
 in wood light frame construction, 156
- Oriented strand lumber (OSL), 100, 736
- OSB. *See* Oriented strand board (OSB)
- OSHA. *See* Occupational Safety and Health Act
- OSL. *See* Oriented strand lumber (OSL)
- Our Common Future, 4, 5
- Outdoor-indoor transmission class (OITC), 625, 753
- P**
- Paints and coatings, 224–227
 sustainability of, 240
- Panelized construction, 117
- Parallel strand lumber (PSL), 100, 143, 177
- Parapet coping, 667
- Parapet flashing. *See* Flashing, parapet
- Particleboard, 103, 115, 185, 282, 740, 815, 879, 185. *See also* Wood panels
- Partitions. *See also* Interior finishes
 demountable, 846
 fire criteria, 15, 16, 813, 814, 822–823
 framing, 823–825
 gypsum board, 837–847
 masonry, 848
 plaster, 827–837
- Passive house standard, 8, 257
- Payment bond, 22
- Penny (d), 109–110
- Performance bond, 22
- Perimeter insulation, 70, 71
- Permeable unit paving, 388
- Phased (fast track) construction, 21, 22–23
- Phenol-formaldehyde, 115, 263
- Piles. *See* Foundations, piles
- Pill test, 815
- Pitch (sound), 812
- Plainsawn lumber, 84–87, 89
- Plainsliced veneer, 95
- Plaster and plastering. *See also* Lath
 ground, 825, 831, 832, 834, 837
 gypsum, 264, 443, 827–829, 834, 836–839, 851
 on gypsum lath, 833, 834, 836, 837
 history, 827
 on masonry, 825, 827, 833, 834–835, 848
 on metal lath, 821, 829, 833–834, 836, 837, 851
 ornament, 838–839
 portland cement (stucco), 233, 236–237, 828–829, 834
 resistance to fire, 827–828, 834, 837
 textures, 827, 829, 834, 837, 838
 trim accessories, 831–833, 834, 836, 837
 veneer, 265, 831, 833–837
- Plastic glazing, 711, 752
- Plastic limit, of soil, 40
- Plastic lumber, 102, 109. *See also* Wood plastic composite (WPC)
- Plastics in building construction,
 739–741

- Platform framing, 153, 154–156, 164–199, 204, 205. *See also* Wood light frame construction
- Plumbing
commercial, 808–810
residential, 246–249
- Plywood, 103. *See also* Wood panels
Exposure I, 105, 106, 115
Exterior, 105
hardwood, 106, 115, 265
high-density overlay (HDO), 105
medium-density overlay (MDO), 103
production, 103–105
veneer grades, 105
- PMR. *See* Protected membrane roof (PMR)
- Pneumatic structure, 454
- Poke-through fittings, 868, 869, 905
- Polyvinyl butyral (PVB), 702, 710, 754, 906
- Porous unit paving. *See* Permeable unit paving
- Portland cement, 293, 496. *See also* Cement
- Portland cement plaster. *See* Stucco
- Postconsumer recycling. *See* recycling, postconsumer
- Powder coating, 225, 790
- Pozzolan, 502
- Precast concrete. *See* Concrete, precast
- Preconsumer recycling. *See* recycling, preconsumer
- Prefabrication
aluminum and glass framing, 791, 793
brick panel cladding, 766
exterior wall panels, 628
factory-built housing, 117–118
mass timber components, 96–99
modular construction, 121–123
shear panels, 186
steel components, 426–428
steel, light gauge, components, 470, 473
stone panel cladding, 769
wood panels, 117, 201
wood trusses, 115, 201, 202
- Preservative treated wood, 72, 97, 107–108, 164, 166, 168, 171, 229. *See also* Wood treatments
- Pressure-equalized design, 630, 631, 634
in cladding joints, 771
in curtain walls, 794
in glazing, 713
in masonry walls, 378
- Pressure-treated wood, 107–109
- Prestress, concrete, 497, 522–527
- Product data sheet (PDS), 8, 9
- Protected membrane roof (PMR), 652, 653, 655, 656, 658, 688
- Protection board, 68, 71, 158
- PSL. *See* Parallel strand lumber (PSL)
- PVB. *See* Polyvinyl butyral (PVB)
- Q**
- Quarry tile, 315, 537, 872, 874
- Quartersawn lumber, 85, 91
- Quartersliced veneer, 83, 95
- Quartz building stone, 332
- Quicklime, 293
- Quoins, 322
- R**
- Radiant heat barriers, 260–261, 636
- Radon gas, 41, 70–72, 156
Rafter, wood, 153, 155, 190–196, 202
- Rainscreen cladding. *See* Drained cladding
- Rammed aggregate pier, 45, 61, 62
- Rapidly renewable materials, 8, 11, 101, 102, 263, 810, 866
- RBM. *See* Brick masonry, reinforced
- Recycling, 10, 11, 810
of aluminum, 789
of brick masonry materials, 296
closed-loop, 866
of concrete materials, 500, 529
of floor and ceiling products, 866
of glass and plastic glazing, 700
of gypsum board, 826
in insulation products, 254, 262, 263
of large wood members, 84, 129
in paint, 240
of plastics, 741
in plastic lumber, 102
preconsumer, 10–11
postconsumer, 11
of roofing materials, 656, 657
of steel scrap, 399, 458, 469
of stone and concrete masonry materials, 363
of windows and doors, 745
in wood and fiberboard panel products, 102, 106
in wood-plastic composites, 101
- Regional materials. *See* Locally sourced materials
- Relative humidity. *See* Humidity, relative
- Resilient flooring, 103, 282, 283, 285, 538, 741, 867, 878–879, 880
sustainability, 656, 566
- Retaining walls, 72–75, 240, 318, 355
- Ridge beam, 190, 471
- Ridge board, 154, 155, 170, 190–193, 473
- Riftsliced veneer, 95
- Rivet, 485. *See also* Timber rivet connectors
structural steel, 409
- Rock anchors, 48, 49, 72
- Roll roofing, 672
- Roofing. *See also* Roofing, low-slope; Roofing, steep
and building codes, 691
and the building enclosure, 622
cool, 656, 660, 661, 684–685
fire criteria, 691
green, 656, 688–689
and keeping water out, 629
and photovoltaic systems, 690–691
sustainability, 656–657
- Roofing felt, 212, 217, 220, 656–658
air permeance, 637
- Roofing, low-slope, 651
air barrier, 654–656
ballast, 652–653, 658, 660
decks, 651–652
details, 662–668
drainage, 662–668
insulation, 652–654
membranes for, 657–662
minimum slope, 651
ponding, 652
structural metal panel, 669–670
traffic decks, 662
vapor retarders, 653, 655–657
ventilation, 652, 653
- Roofing, steep, 213, 671
architectural sheet metal, 678–684
decks, 672
eaves and rakes, 213–214
gutters and downspouts, 214, 215
ice barrier (ice and water shield), 213, 217, 218, 220, 671, 674
ice dam, 215–218, 671, 674
minimum slopes, 671
shingles, 220, 671–677
skip sheathing, 671
underlayment, 212
unventilated, 218–219
ventilated, 216–218
- Room fire growth contribution, 815
- RSI-value, 253, 634. *See also* R-value
conversion to U.S. customary units, 885
- Rubberized underlayment. *See* Roofing, steep, ice barrier
- Rubber, synthetic, 739, 740
- Rubble stone masonry, 333, 339–341
- R-value, 253, 634
of example wood framed walls, 258–259, 635
of glazing units, 708
of insulating materials, 254, 634
of example light gauge metal framed walls, 636
of rigid roofing insulation materials, 654
- S**
- SAA. *See* Sound absorption average (SAA)
- Safing. *See* Fire safing
- SCOF. *See* Static coefficient of friction (SCOF)
- Screw slots and screw ports, 785, 787, 797
- Screws, wood and lag, 111, 112
- Scupper, 132, 663, 664
- Sealants and sealant joints, 642–644
in exterior wood light frame construction, 238
- Secant wall, 47
- Seismic base isolation, 61, 63
- Seismic force resisting system (SFRS), 421.
See also Lateral force resisting system;
Lateral stability, building
and heavy timber construction, 137, 139
and structural steel welds, 413

- Seismic fuse, 421
- Self-adhering flashing. *See* Flashing, self-adhered
- Self-leveling underlayment. *See* Underlayment, flooring, poured gypsum or portland cement
- Sequential construction, 22, 23
- Sequestered carbon, 82–84
- SFRM. *See* Spray-applied fire-resistive materials (SFRM)
- SFRS. *See* Seismic force resisting system
- Shaft walls. *See* Fire-rated walls and partitions
- Shear block, 785, 787, 797, 798
- Shear core, 420, 421
- Shear walls
 - in heavy timber construction, 139
 - in mass timber construction, 142
 - in precast concrete construction, 588, 598, 599
 - in steel frame construction, 419–421
 - in wood light frame construction, 165, 181–183, 185, 186
- Sheeting, sheet piling, 42–44, 49
 - bracing of, 47
- Sheet metal. *See* Metals in architecture
- Sheet metal flashing. *See* Flashing
- Sheet metal roofing. *See* Architectural sheet metal roofing
- Shotcrete, 43, 44, 47, 564
- Siding
 - artificial stone, 237
 - fiber-cement panel, 237
 - masonry veneer, 236–237
 - metal and plastic, 232–233, 235
 - plywood, 105, 106, 231
 - rainscreen, 229, 230
 - shingle, 231–234
 - stucco, 233–236
- Sill flashing. *See* flashing, sill
- Sill pan, 220, 222, 744
- Sill seal, 168, 171, 264
- Single-ply membrane roofing, 220, 656, 657, 660–662
- Single-purpose entity, 22, 26
- SIP. *See* Structural insulated panel (SIP)
- Slab on grade, concrete, 51, 52, 535
 - casting, 535–540
 - insulation, 70, 71, 161
 - joints, 535–539
- Slaked lime. *See* Lime, slaked
- Slate building stone, 332, 850, 871, 873
- Slate roofing, 657, 672, 673, 677
- Slip resistance of floors, 867–868
- Slip track. *See* deflection track
- Slope support. *See* Excavation support
- Slump test, 504, 541
- Slurry wall, 45–47, 49, 54, 64
- Smelting, 398, 784, 789
- Smoke barriers and smoke partitions. *See* Fire-rated walls and partitions
- Smoke-developed rating, 814
 - Smoke seal, 765, 768, 771, 799
- Soffit vent, 217, 218
- Softwoods, and hardwoods, 80–81
- Soil gas, 41, 70–72, 156
- Soil liquefaction, 36, 38, 40, 44, 61
- Soil mixing, 44–46, 49, 72
- Soil nailing, 48, 72
- Soils. *See* Earth materials
- Soil testing, 39–40, 75
- Soldering, 222, 485, 678, 682
- Soldier beams and lagging, 42–44
- Sound absorption average (SAA), 812, 856
- Sound attenuation blanket. *See* Acoustic insulation
- Sound pitch, 812
- Sound transmission class (STC), 812–813
 - of the building enclosure, 625
 - of doors and windows, 753
 - of gypsum board partitions, 844, 847
 - of masonry walls, 389
 - of plaster partitions, 814, 836, 837
- Space frame
 - concrete, 570
 - steel, 449, 451
- Special seismic force resisting system. *See* Seismic force resisting system
- Specifications, 12, 19
- Split-ring connector, 112, 113, 133, 135, 137, 140, 144, 145
- Spray-applied fire-resistive materials (SFRM), 443–446
- Stack effect, 636, 637
- SSP. *See* Stressed-skin panel (SSP)
- Staggered truss, 441, 449
- Stainless steel, 402, 485–486
- Stains, 225, 227
- Stair
 - concrete
 - cast in place, 567
 - precast, 612, 614–616
 - enclosure, fire-rated, 750, 813, 847
 - finishes, fire criteria, 815
 - glass, 694, 695, 702, 710
 - opening
 - steel framed, 426
 - wood framed, 166, 172, 189
 - proportioning, 280–281
 - steel, 408
 - terminology, 275–277
 - wood, 273, 275–278
- Standard for the Design of High-Performance Green Buildings, 8
- Standing seam sheet metal roofing, 678–681
- Static coefficient of friction (SCOF), 867
- Steel, 398–409. *See also* steel frame construction
 - alloys, 402, 485
 - cast steel, 408
 - cold-worked steel, 408, 484
 - steelmaking, 398–402
- Steel frame construction. *See also* Open-web steel joists
 - arches, 449–452
 - architectural structural steel, 440, 442
 - bolts, 410–411
 - and the building codes, 459
 - castellated beam, 447, 448
 - comparative structural properties, 459
 - composite construction, 408, 437–440
 - concrete decks, 439
 - connections, beam-to-column, 415–418, 421–424
 - connections, column, 421, 425, 430
 - erector, 428–437
 - fabricator, 426–428
 - fire protection, 442–447
 - framing plan, 426
 - history, 396–398
 - lateral stability, 419–421
 - metal decking, 437–440
 - plate girders, 447
 - preliminary design, 401
 - rigid frames, 449
 - rivets, 409
 - roof decking, 437–440
 - shear and moment connections, 415, 421
 - space frame, 449, 451
 - structural shapes, 402–408
 - sustainability, 458
 - tensile structures, 452–453
 - trusses, 447–451
 - trusses, staggered, 441, 449
 - uniqueness, 459
 - welding, 411–415, 418, 422–425, 427, 428–431, 435, 437
- Steel studs, 468–470, 481, 823–824. *See also* Light gauge steel frame construction
- Steiner tunnel test, 814, 815
- Stone cladding. *See* Cladding, masonry and concrete, stone
- Stone flooring, 871, 873
- Stone masonry, 330. *See also* Cladding, masonry and concrete, stone
 - anchoring, 342, 364, 365
 - comparative physical properties of stone, 339
 - mortar joints, 339–340
 - quarrying and milling of stone, 332–335
 - sealant joints, 340
 - selecting stone for buildings, 335
 - stonework, 335–342
 - sustainability, 343
 - types of building stone, 330–332
- Stone wall facing, 332, 850
- Stressed-skin panel (SSP), 117
- Stripping. *See* Flashing, low-slope roofing, strip
- Structural composite lumber. *See* Lumber, structural composite
- Structural insulated panel (SIP), 117
- Structural panel metal roofing, 669–670
- Structure borne sound, 812, 867
- Stucco, 223, 236, 237, 359, 382, 387, 828–829, 834
- Stud, wood, 153–156, 176–181, 202
- Subcontractor, 4, 12, 19, 20, 21
- Substructure, 19, 38, 40, 43, 46, 49, 50, 52–54, 62, 65, 66, 72, 74, 75, 622, 912
- Subsurface exploration, 39–40, 75
- Superinsulation, 257
- Superstructure, 50, 52, 54
- Surety bond, 22
- Surface number. *See* Glass, surface number
- Sustainability, sustainable development, 4–5

T

Tangent wall, 47, 65
 Tensile structures, 34, 452, 454, 456, 720
 Termination bar, 67, 666
 Terra cotta, 323, 346, 358, 364, 627, 855
 Terrazzo, 343, 359, 537, 815, 817, 818, 871, 875–876
 Thatch (roofing), 650, 651
 Thermal break
 aluminum window extrusion, 737, 743, 788–789
 curtain wall, glass, 795, 797
 exterior wall furring, 142, 803
 in insulating glass unit spacers, 707
 in light gauge steel frame construction, 458
 sloped glazing, 800
 steel and bronze window, 742, 743
 steel shelf angle, 762
 Thermal bridging, 635
 in concrete masonry, 379
 in EIFS, 774
 and energy performance, 629
 in exterior wall furring, 632
 in light gauge steel construction, 469, 481, 482, 635–636
 in masonry veneer curtain wall, 762, 765
 in metal roofing, 670
 in wood light frame construction, 161, 200, 256–260
 Thermal conduction, 253, 623, 634
 Thermal convection, 623, 800. *See also* Stack effect
 Thermal expansion of materials. *See* Expansion of materials, thermal coefficients
 Thermal insulation. *See* Insulation, thermal
 Thermal mass
 and brick masonry, 296
 and concrete construction, 500
 and masonry wall construction, 378
 and stone and concrete masonry, 343
 Thermal radiation, 636
 in wood light frame construction, 260
 Thermal resistance. *See* R-value
 Thermoplastic materials, 771, 739–741
 roof membranes, 656, 660, 661, 662
 Thermosetting materials, 739–741
 in metal composite material panels, 802
 powder coatings, 484, 790
 single-ply roof membranes, 656, 660–663
 Tile. *See* Ceramic tile; quarry tile
 Tilt-up construction. *See* Concrete, sitecast, tilt-up
 Timber frame construction. *See* Heavy timber frame construction
 Timber rivet connector, 112, 137
 Tin, 484–487, 679, 698
 Titanium, 487, 678, 679, 698, 801, 802
 Toothed-plate connectors, 109, 113, 115, 116
 Traffic coating, 880
 Travertine building stone, 332, 342
 Trees, 80–83
 and carbon, 83
 and environmentally certified wood, 81

Trusses. *See also* open-web steel joists
 heavy timber, 137, 145, 148
 light gauge steel, 473, 477–479
 sitecast concrete, 570
 steel, structural, 401, 441, 447, 449–451
 wood light frame, 115–116, 173, 201, 202
 Tube structure, 420, 421, 463
 Tuckpointing, mortar joint, 387
 Turnkey construction, 22

U

U-factor
 glazing, 707, 708
 window, 743, 752, 753
 UHPC. *See* Ultra-high performance concrete (UHPC)
 Ultra-high performance concrete (UHPC), 503, 527, 528, 771
 Underfloor services, 868–870
 Underlayment, flooring. *See also* Acoustic underlayment
 cement panel, 874
 poured gypsum or portland cement, 282, 283, 870
 wood and fiberboard panel, 103, 105, 106, 188, 282, 870, 876, 878–880
 Underlayment, roofing. *See* Roofing, steep, ice barrier; Roofing, steep, underlayment
 Underpinning, 61–64, 75
 Uniformat, 19, 20
 Unit conversions, 885
 Up-down construction, 62, 64–65
 Urea-formaldehyde, 115, 866

V

Vacuum-insulated glazing, 707
 Vacuum insulation board, 634, 654
 Vapor barrier, 261, 639, 707, 737. *See also* vapor retarder
 Vapor diffusion, 261, 623, 638–641
 Vapor diffusion port, 217
 Vapor permeability, vapor permeance, 261, 262, 639, 640
 Vapor retarder, 639–641
 Class I, II, and III, 261, 639
 with concrete slab on grade, 66, 71, 156, 158, 160, 161, 535, 536
 crawlspace, 160
 and deterioration of paints and coatings, 226
 and durable construction, 107
 in low-slope roofing, 651, 655–657
 in steep roofing, 671
 with wood flooring, 876
 in wood light frame construction, 255, 261–262
 Vault
 brick masonry, 315–317, 324
 concrete, 570
 gypsum board, 856, 858
 heavy timber, 146

historic masonry and concrete, 291, 292, 396
 horizontal thrust, 34
 plaster, 856
 stone masonry, 345
 structural steel, 452
 Veneer plaster, 265, 833–836
 Veneer, wood, 83, 95, 106, 265
 Vented cladding, 230, 632
 Ventilated cladding, 230, 632
 Vent spacers (roof), 214, 216, 217, 255, 256
 Volatile organic compound (VOC, 9, 11)
 and ceiling and floor finishes, 880, 881
 and insulation materials, 263
 and interior finishes, 811, 816, 826
 and joint sealants, 644
 in paints and coatings, 9, 224, 240
 in roofing materials, 657

W

Water-cement ratio (w-c ratio), 503, 539
 Waterproofing, foundation, 65–69, 156, 158, 160–163, 630
 Water repellents, masonry, 387
 integral, 295, 356, 387
 Water-resistive barrier (WRB), 212–213, 262, 632, 638
 Waterstop, 68–69
 Water table, 39, 49, 58, 67, 72, 75, 106, 622
 Water vapor. *See also* Humidity, relative; Vapor diffusion
 and air leakage, 623, 638
 and the building enclosure, 623, 638–639
 and drained (rainscreen) cladding, 229
 and exterior insulation, 641
 and ice lenses, 51
 and masonry exterior coatings, 387
 and paints and coatings, 226
 and unventilated roofs, 218, 219
 and vapor retarders, 261
 and ventilated roofs, 652
 and water-resistive barrier, 213
 Weather barrier. *See* Water-resistive barrier (WRB)
 Weeps (weep holes)
 EIFS, 775
 glazing system, 712, 713, 715, 794, 795, 797
 masonry wall, 236, 342, 365, 369, 370, 373, 374, 376–378, 387, 632, 760, 763, 765, 771
 retaining wall, 72
 Welded wire reinforcement (WWR), 511–512
 in concrete decking, 375, 437, 440, 551, 558
 in concrete slab on grade, 158, 535, 536
 in precast concrete, 590, 591, 592, 595, 607
 Welding
 architectural metals, 485
 structural steel, 411–414
 WELL building standard, 8, 240, 263, 816
 Wind-borne debris, and window impact resistance, 753–755

- Wind load, 34, 454, 457, 468, 623, 624, 651, 710, 712, 713, 718, 752, 763, 764, 798, 801
- Windows, 222, 732
- acoustic, 753
 - aluminum frame, 737
 - blast resistance, 755
 - energy performance, 745
 - flashings, 220–222, 744
 - glass-fiber-reinforced plastic frame, 738
 - glazing, 743
 - impact resistance, 753–755
 - installation, 222, 744
 - muntins, 743
 - plastic frame, 738
 - safety considerations, 752
 - steel and bronze frame, 742
 - structural performance, 752
 - sustainability, 745
 - thermal expansion of frame materials, comparative, 738
 - thermal performance, 743, 745, 752–753
 - types, 732–736
 - wood frame, 736
- Window-washing, 735, 738
- Wood, 80. *See also* Lumber; Plastic lumber; Trees; Veneer, wood; Wood panels; Wood-plastic composite; Wood treatments
- adhesives, 113–115
 - biodeterioration, 106–107
 - and carbon, 82–83
 - environmentally certified, 81–82
 - fasteners, 109–114
 - naturally durable, 108–109
 - rot, 106
 - sustainability, 84–85
- Wood flooring, 115, 282, 876–878
- Wood light frame construction, 152
- balloon frame, 153, 154, 372
 - and the building codes, 202–204
 - floor framing, 171–175, 185–188
 - foundations, 156–164
 - framing for increased thermal efficiency, 199, 257, 260
 - framing for optimal lumber usage, 199–201
 - framing, general concepts, 154–156
 - history, 153–154
 - lateral force resistance, 178, 181–186
 - nailing, 170
 - platform frame, 153–156
 - prefabrication, 201–202
 - preliminary design, 202
 - roof framing, 190–198
 - subflooring, 154, 156, 173, 175, 188
 - sustainability, 156
 - uniqueness, 204–207
 - wall framing, 176–181, 185–189
- Wood panels, 102
- adhesives, 105, 106, 115
 - bond classification, 106
 - composite, 103, 105
 - Exposure 1, 150, 106, 115
 - Exterior, 106, 115
 - and formaldehyde, 115
 - nonveneered, 103, 105
 - performance category, 105
 - prefabricated, 117
 - specifying, 105–106
 - structural, 103
 - underlayment, 103, 105, 106, 188, 282, 870, 872, 876, 878–880
- Wood-plastic composite (WPC), 101, 109, 240
- Wood shakes, 218, 220, 231, 657, 671, 672, 691
- Wood shingles, 220, 231–235, 237, 239, 320, 657, 671, 672, 691
- Wood treatments
- acetylated wood, 108
 - fire-retardant treated wood, 109, 129, 691, 822
 - glass infused wood, 108
 - preservative-treated wood, 72, 97, 107–108, 164, 166, 168, 171, 229
 - thermally modified wood, 108
- WRB. *See* Water-resistive barrier
- Wrought iron, 396, 398, 485
- WWR. *See* Welded wire reinforcement (WWR)
- Wythe, masonry, 304
- Z**
- Z-flashing. *See* Flashing, Z-
 - Zinc, 484, 486, 487
 - Zoning ordinances, 13