

Structural Feasibility Study of a Medium-Rise Timber Office Building

by

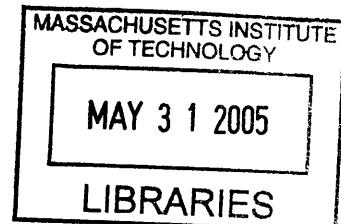
Mohsen Nasr

B.S. Mechanical Engineering  
Yale University, 2004

Submitted to the Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering in Partial  
Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Engineering in Civil and  
Environmental Engineering

at the  
Massachusetts Institute of Technology  
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## **Abstract**

Using timber as a structural material for commercial projects will certainly gain importance and popularity in the coming decades as more focus is placed on reducing environmental effects created by a dependence on steel and concrete in the construction industry. Timber is a clean alternative that despite its historical use is too often overlooked by designers when they are choosing materials for ordinary commercial projects like office buildings. This thesis presents a case for using timber as the primary structural material in a medium-rise office building (up to ten stories), where currently only concrete and steel are normally used.

The study accomplishes this using a custom structural design for a typical office building and exploring the structural issues that presumably prohibit timber from being used more commonly. Such issues are strength capacity, stiffness, material reliability, natural defects, area of required material, fire protection, and constructability. Addressing these issues in terms of building codes and in general comparison to steel and concrete makes up the bulk of the feasibility study. Future work essential to completing the structural case for timber is also identified, and the study concludes that timber is indeed a viable alternative material in typical office building design.

The motivation behind the thesis is one based on obtaining and sharing an introduction to a material that finds little application in traditional engineering education yet will grow to play a large role in the field of structural engineering in the coming age of sustainability-minded design.

**Thesis Supervisor: John Ochsendorf  
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Acknowledgements are in order for Professor Ochsendorf, for guiding this work and sharing his passion, and for Professor Connor, for all of his care and energy spent on his students.

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## Table of Contents

<b>1. Introduction .....</b>	<b>6</b>
<b>2. Timber Design and Innovations .....</b>	<b>8</b>
2.1 Wood as a Natural Product .....	8
2.2 Wood as a Human Product .....	9
2.3 Handling and Treating Wood.....	10
2.4 Summary .....	11
<b>3. Problem Design Decisions .....</b>	<b>12</b>
3.1 Building Layout and Space.....	12
3.2 Shear Walls .....	14
3.3 Floors .....	16
3.4 Timber Connections.....	17
3.5 Foundations.....	19
3.6 Summary .....	19
<b>4. Hand Calculations .....</b>	<b>21</b>
4.1 Structural Design Loads.....	21
4.2 Vertical Members .....	22
4.3 Horizontal Members .....	23
4.4 Shear Walls: Lateral Resistance System.....	24
4.5 Vertical Member Reiterations.....	26
4.6 Floor Systems .....	27
4.7 Office Space Area Reduction.....	28
4.8 Summary .....	29
<b>5. Finite Element Modeling.....</b>	<b>30</b>
5.1 Deflections .....	31
5.2 Member Loading.....	33
5.3 Dynamic Behavior .....	36
5.4 Floor System Modes .....	37
5.5 Summary .....	38
<b>6. Discussion of Findings and Future Work.....</b>	<b>39</b>
6.1 Discussion of Findings.....	39
6.2 Areas for Future Work .....	41
<b>7. Conclusions.....</b>	<b>42</b>
<b>8. References.....</b>	<b>43</b>
<b>9. Appendix.....</b>	<b>45</b>
A. Building Plans and Connection Detail .....	46
B. Column Sizing Without Shear Walls and Beam Sizing .....	49
C. Shear Wall Design .....	53
D. Final Column Sizing Considering Shear Walls .....	57
E. Floor Slab Design.....	63
F. Final Member Sizing Summary .....	64
G. SAP2000 Data Results .....	65
H. SAP2000 Input File – Case of 1.2” Wooden Floors .....	67

## List of Figures

Figure 1 – Glulam bridge (courtesy of APA: The Engineered Wood Association) .....	8
Figure 2 - Building Plan and Profile .....	13
Figure 3 – Initial Column Plan.....	14
Figure 4 - Final Shear Wall Layout.....	16
Figure 5 – Beam to Column Steel Connections (courtesy of Simpson Strong-Tie Co.) ..	17
Figure 6 – Cross-sectional View of Connection with Plywood and Concrete Floor Overlays .....	18
Figure 7 - Beam Layout .....	24
Figure 8 – Final Building Structural Layout .....	27
Figure 9 – SAP2000 Model.....	30
Figure 10 – Deflection under Wind Loading .....	31
Figure 11 – [Left] Model with Floors; [Right] Model without Floors.....	32
Figure 12 – Axial Column Forces: [Left] Under Static Gravity Loads; [Right] Under Wind Loading.....	34
Figure 13 - Shear Wall Stresses Under Wind Loading .....	34
Figure 14 - Deflection of Building with Floors Showing Slight Uplift in Middle.....	35
Figure 15 – [Left] True First Mode, torsion; [Right] Expected First Mode, straight line.	36
Figure 16 – Expected Second Mode, flexure one inflection point.....	37
Figure 17 – [Left] Bending Moments in Floor Joists; [Right] Extruded Slab Elements ..	38
Figure 18 – Proposed Design for a Wooden Structure Building (courtesy of Takenaka Corporation) .....	42

## List of Tables

Table 1 - Initial Design Dead Loads (adapted from Breyer).....	21
Table 2 - Properties of Wood Used (adapted from Breyer) .....	22
Table 3 - Effect of Column Sections on Rentable Floor Area .....	28

## 1. Introduction

Wood symbolizes pre-industrial technologies and craft traditions, while metal represents the industrial age, technical progress, and the primacy of science.

- Eric Schatzberg, *Wings of Wood, Wings of Metal: Culture and Technical Choice in American Airplane Materials, 1914-1915*

Sustainable design has been an important topic in the realm of structural engineering since the beginning of the field of construction. It is self-evident that resources from the earth are not infinite and cannot be extracted, refined, and returned to the soil without a negative effect on natural ecology. The *practice* of sustainable design, however, has mainly been neglected, to the point where strength and serviceability have become the only two aspects of structural design that are considered worth teaching and learning. This, along with a desire to create modernity, has led to the proliferation of application-specific materials, or materials that are commonly considered “fit” for certain functions without challenge from other materials. One field where this occurs is in the materials of airplanes, where aluminum, and now composites, has dominated over wood, the original aeronautical material, for reasons based largely on a “progress ideology of metal,” as Schatzberg argues.<sup>1</sup> Another field, of specific interest here, is commercial building design.

In particular, similar mindset has produced the notion that steel and concrete are the only materials capable of supporting the structures of tall buildings, based on strength and performance considerations. This status quo, however, is mostly perception, for history teaches that countless other materials have supported grand structures for centuries. One only need consider the stone Pont du Gard in France, built by the Romans before the Common Era, or the 220ft tall Yingxian wooden pagoda in China, built in 1056 CE.<sup>2</sup>

This paper proves that from a structural standpoint it is entirely feasible to build a modern office building up to ten stories in height made completely out of timber members. Initial doubts as to why this may be presumably stem from matters of strength or deflection for given vertical and lateral loads. They may stem from thoughts about fire protection, preservation from natural decay, or attack from termites. Some doubts may stem from concerns about construction constraints, connections, or maintenance. They may even stem from considerations for usable office space area.

All of these doubts are addressed, and at least partially discounted, through this feasibility study, which also focuses on avoiding the use of complicated engineered wood

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<sup>1</sup> Schatzberg, Eric. *Wings of Wood, Wings of Metal: Culture and Technical Choice in American Airplane Materials, 1914-1945*. Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1999.

<sup>2</sup> “Yingxian Wooden Pagoda.” Great Wall Travel Service Co., 2002.

<[http://www.greatwalltour.com/greatwall\\_pages/tours/highlight/gt07.htm](http://www.greatwalltour.com/greatwall_pages/tours/highlight/gt07.htm)>. April 21, 2005.

systems like glulam or hybrid material systems, like steel braced shear walls, for instance. Further work needs to be done to fully deal with some of the issues with timber that this study itself raises, such as the disadvantages of creating a lightweight structure and difficulty in obtaining large sections of heavy timber. Other types of reservations, such as ones based on cost, interior and exterior decorating, and psychology, are not addressed in this study but remain important issues that deserve proper attention in the case for or against wood.

The study opens with prefatory material in Chapter 2 intended to elucidate some of the material-related issues with wood that distinguish it from other materials and control certain aspects of a timber building's structural design, such as available member geometries and construction methods. This discussion frames the structural design by accepting timber as a practical choice for a structural material. Chapter 3 describes the assumed structural properties and pieces of the office building that define the specific problem tackled in the design process. This study focuses on the design of load-bearing members, shear walls, floors, connections, and foundations, the details of which are governed both by typical building considerations and timber-specific ones. Chapter 4 works through the hand calculations used for preliminary and final design of the various structural timber elements and evaluates the member sizing results in terms of availability and office space area reduction. Chapter 5 presents the finite element modeling component of the study, which is used to verify hand-based designs and check for building deflection and motion behavior, which occasionally govern the design of building systems rather than strength. This analysis uncovered some areas of concern with the design, such as the potential for overturning, that need to be examined further. In Chapter 6, there is discussion on the general findings and a comparison between hand and computer calculations, which correlate quite well. Possible topics for future work on the subject of applied timber design to office buildings are also suggested. The conclusions of Chapter 7 verify the hypothesis that timber is a viable and important option as a structural material for an office building. Appendices, including structural plans, hand calculations, design summaries, and computer analysis output, are included in this report as reference material.

The intention of the study is to help affect the builders of today to shed some of their negative misconceptions about wood as a structural material, as well as contribute to building a case for wood as a viable, and in some respects structurally better (such as in seismic design), alternative to steel and concrete in many applications. This will undoubtedly produce immense positive effects on the natural resources crisis that the world faces in this age. Indeed, a timber building, even one made from engineered products like glulam or plywood, would contain much less embodied energy than, for instance, a steel building.<sup>3</sup> Finally, it should be noted that the adoption of a new material (if wood can be labeled that) in common office building design may carry with it valuable architectural consequences as well, for another choice of material helps lift the limitation on creativity. So, from structural, environmental, and aesthetic points of view it is worthwhile to explore the possibility of timber for office building design.

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<sup>3</sup> Embodied energy refers to the total amount of mechanical energy that is needed to produce a structure, from the mining phase of the materials to the fabrication of the member connections.

## 2. Timber Design and Innovations



**Figure 1 – Glulam bridge (courtesy of APA: The Engineered Wood Association)**

Timber engineering has come a long way since the ancient uses of wood. In general, today wood is much better understood and its behavior predictable under any given loading situation. Once completely governed by unreliable environmental factors that caused mistrust in designers, now wood is as much a human product as it is a natural one. As discussed below, it can be classified and graded in terms of strength, and it is produced in standard sizes and shapes in the manner that steel is. Innovations like glued-laminated timber (or glulam), plywood, and crafted I-joists have increased the capabilities of wood with regard to elongating allowable spans and enabling the creation of unique forms, like curved beams. Fire protection philosophy has also changed over the years, and today the general practice is to design wooden beams to char for a code-specified length of time without failing. Finally, wood handling and preservation is an important part of timber construction and requires careful attention in a discussion on how to properly use wood for structural applications. Thus, timber design has evolved to address many of the concerns its skeptics have traditionally retained for it as not being a practical tall building material. Being familiar with these innovations forms a platform on which to erect the proposed design for an all-timber building.

### 2.1 Wood as a Natural Product

Wood is a natural material produced directly by the earth. This immediately sets it apart from steel and concrete, which are engineered. Such distinction carries great social overtones: the architect Le Corbusier once said that in order to industrially transform buildings it was essential to replace “heterogeneous and unreliable natural materials [with] homogeneous, artificial materials subject to laboratory tests.”<sup>4</sup> Indeed, wood is prone to natural decay, fungus, and attack from organisms, and its performance is a function of environmental factors like moisture content and tree maturation. Other strength-reducing factors for wood are natural, such as cracks, knots, grain defects, or rings, as well as conversion-based, such as milling techniques, storage conditions, and handling. Wood fabrication, consisting of drying and treating processes, reduces actual

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<sup>4</sup> Schatzberg.

lumber dimensions from those obtained after sawing wood while it is still green, which are referred to as nominal dimensions. Thus, standard lumber sections that are given in nominal dimensions actually contain corresponding smaller dimensions as the result of shrinkage. For example, a 2x4 piece of lumber is not actually 2"x4" in section, but rather 1½" by 3½".<sup>5</sup> In this report, nominal dimensions given in inches are used at all times to indicate member sizes. Finally, wood is an anisotropic material, so its mechanical properties are dependent on its grain orientation. Specifically, a wooden member is much stronger under loading parallel to its grains than perpendicular to them, up to 10 times stronger in the case of compressive loading. Wood also varies according to tree species, climate, and geography.<sup>6</sup>

## 2.2 Wood as a Human Product

As a result of some of these natural eccentricities, much effort has gone into making wood design more uniform and subject to code. Stress grading is a major convention used to provide some uniformity. It is based on properties described above – species, defects, moisture content – and can be done either visually or by mechanical testing. Along with corresponding standardized lumber sections, it allows designers to pick wooden members in much the same manner as W-sections in steel. As for lumber sections, three categories based on thickness are generally designated: boards, less than 2" in nominal thickness; dimensioned lumber, from 2" to 4½" in nominal thickness; and timber, greater than 5" in nominal thickness. Heavy timber refers to pieces of wood with particularly large cross-sectional areas. Structural composite lumber, which refers to glulam, plywood, and I-joists, are also standardized according to available thicknesses, number of laminations, and other common features.<sup>7</sup>

Engineered products themselves have provided a means of making wood more homogeneous and less limited by natural conditions. Glulam and other laminated members inherently contain smaller defected areas because they are built up from smaller sections. They are also less prone to geometry changes and splitting. The result is an overall increase in their stiffness. This accordingly makes longer spans possible. Also achievable are longer lengths, produced through end-jointing, and curved forms, created by altering lamination thicknesses and bending pieces. More efficient use of material is also obtained, since stronger wood can be positioned in areas with higher stresses, like top and bottom fibers in flexural members.

Fire protection is a source of concern when it comes to using wood in structures, since wood begins to char at only 300°F and ignites at 480°F. But it is well known that charring occurs on the outside of timber members first and actually provides an insulating cover for the inner core.<sup>8</sup> Thus, the overall heat and time of fire exposure that a thick member can withstand before failing is greatly increased. This has led to the practice of

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<sup>5</sup> Faherty, Keith F. and Thomas G. Williamson. *Wood Engineering and Construction Handbook*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1989.

<sup>6</sup> Kermani, Abdy. *Structural Timber Design*. Oxford: Blackwell Science Ltd., 1999.

<sup>7</sup> Faherty and Williamson.

<sup>8</sup> Schatzberg.

rating wood for time exposure resistance to fire, the standard usually being one-hour exposure before failure. The result in design is increased cross-sectional areas of wooden members. For normal timber, charred areas can often be removed and untouched cores salvaged and reused in new applications. For glulam, an exposed member can continue to serve its function if its damaged laminations can be disbanded and new laminations installed in their place. Fire retarding chemicals can be detrimental to the performance of timber, especially to the adhesives in glulam, and so, intumescent paint and special stains – on top of moisture-fighting sealants – are used instead to slow fire penetration.<sup>9</sup> Of course, fire protection begins with picking the most suitable design for a particular application. Since office buildings do not exhibit a particularly irregular tendency to catch fire, like a chemical warehouse might, avoiding timber for this application based purely on doubts of fire resistance does not seem reasonable.

### 2.3 Handling and Treating Wood

The handling of timber members is a fragile process that has a great effect on their performance. From the beginning, sawing and milling techniques affect important mechanical properties like grain direction and can cause undue cracking. Cut members must then be handled very carefully and stored in protected areas. They need to be wrapped but well-ventilated when stored, and kept well-drained from water. They should be kept out of the sunlight to prevent discoloration and they should not be scratched or mishandled – when being transported they should be stabilized snuggly, perhaps by multiple forklifts. The drying process altogether is meant to strengthen wood and give it better fastener-holding capacity. This reduces squeaking in nailed floors, for example. Keeping moisture levels in wooden members below 17 to 23% of their total weight also helps prevent adverse geometric effects like shrinkage, creep, and warping, and even decay and insect attack.<sup>10</sup> Preservatives applied in pressure or non-pressure processes are nearly always used to combat moisture, and sometimes to provide protection against attack from organisms.

One main advantage to using wood is that it is relatively light weight – it has a strength to weight ratio comparable to that of steel and larger than that of concrete.<sup>11</sup> Being light weight makes it easy to handle and position by hand or forklift, as opposed to by crane. For the case of a ten-story office building, this fact alone would reduce equipment costs a significant amount and simplify many aspects of construction. Gained time, though, would probably be spent on ensuring proper storage conditions for the wood and treating it.

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<sup>9</sup> "Glulam Product Guide." APA: The Engineered Wood Association, Dec. 2003. <[http://www.apawood.org/glu\\_level\\_b.cfm?content=prd\\_glu\\_main](http://www.apawood.org/glu_level_b.cfm?content=prd_glu_main)>. March 30, 2005.

<sup>10</sup> Kermani.

<sup>11</sup> For 50ksi steel, the strength to weight ratio is  $50*10^3\text{ psi} / 490\text{pcf} = 14,694\text{ft}$ ; for 35ksi steel, it is  $35*10^3\text{ psi} / 490\text{pcf} = 7,143\text{ft}$ ; for 2ksi wood, the ratio is  $2*10^3\text{ psi} / 35\text{pcf} = 8229\text{ft}$ ; for 3ksi wood, it is  $3*10^3\text{ psi} / 35\text{pcf} = 12,342\text{ft}$ . For 5ksi reinforced concrete, the ratio is  $5*10^3\text{ psi} / 150\text{pcf} = 4800\text{ft}$ .

## **2.4 Summary**

Wood is a product of the earth but has undergone significant innovation with the aim of refining its properties and standardizing its use. For all its natural vulnerability to defects and environmental conditions, wood today is quite durable and reliable as a high-performance material. Techniques for fire resistance and proper handling have been improved and guidelines exist to lead designers through formerly complicated structural issues with timber. Without even referring to glulam and similar products, timber by itself has to some extent become an engineered material in the spirit that steel and concrete are. It is indeed a practical choice for the medium-rise office building in question. Thus, repudiations of timber on material-based grounds can be discredited, clearing the path for further study into a possible structural system.

### **3. Problem Design Decisions**

The design of a ten-story office building is regulated by many types of considerations beyond structural ones. In addition to exterior and interior architecture, much of the overall design is a function of the following: accessibility, user friendliness, unobstructed window area, usable floor space, utility systems, and environmental consciousness. The integration of all these parts leads to the best design for an office building and yields superb ideas like doubling elevator cores as shear walls or using trusses to allow the passing through of pipes. The design proposed in this report aims to consider much of these topics of essential details, but in no way does it profess to be more than a structural design to be used in determining whether timber is a practicable alternative to steel and concrete in typical office building design. This seems reasonable, for much of the remaining concerns, made up of issues like aesthetics and utilities, are alleviated by current, common use of timber in successful residential and commercial applications. In other words, there is no need to prove here that timber is a fashionable material suited for an office environment. Therefore, this thesis focuses on addressing the structural issues shaped by prescribed features of the all-timber building, which are: a large amount of clear-span, rentable space; an open-air atrium; a shear wall lateral bracing system; a comfortable floor system; strong, simple connections consisting of steel plates; and efficient, concrete foundations. These specifications govern the preliminary sizing of load-bearing members, design of the shear walls, and detailing of beam to column connections. They are laid out below.

#### **3.1 Building Layout and Space**

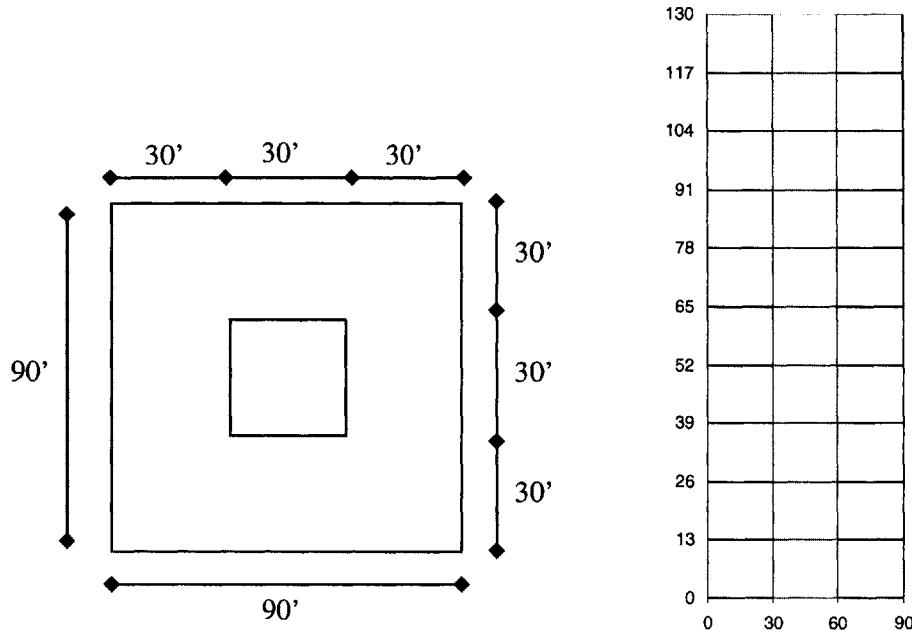
The simplest floor plan is used to clearly illustrate principles of structural performance that are necessary in assessing timber as a viable material to be used in the office building application. It is generally accepted that the width of buildings is regulated by the need to ensure the admission of daylight and ventilation into its inner confines, in addition to architectural consideration for the city block or plot of land on which the building is situated.<sup>12</sup> The use of atriums or open-air corridors is a popular and energy-saving method of bringing in natural light to wider building floor plans, and works well with the sustainability mentality advocated in this study. Thus, the square building plan adopted here makes use of 90ft sides and a square central atrium with 30ft sides, resulting in the furthest point from potential light being just 15ft, which is acceptable. The addition of the atrium creates some structural challenge in that lateral loads must be transmitted across the void somehow or taken up by only one side of the building at a time.

The square shape of the overall layout allows the implementation of a straightforward beam and column design, the simplest structural system that could be chosen for

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<sup>12</sup> Taranath, Bungale S. *Structural Analysis and Design of Tall Buildings*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1988.

this building type. The intention is not to analyze the ideal building, but in reality the *typical* building, so that the substitution of the design produced here is quite easy with realistic office buildings of this scale, which tend to be simple structurally.



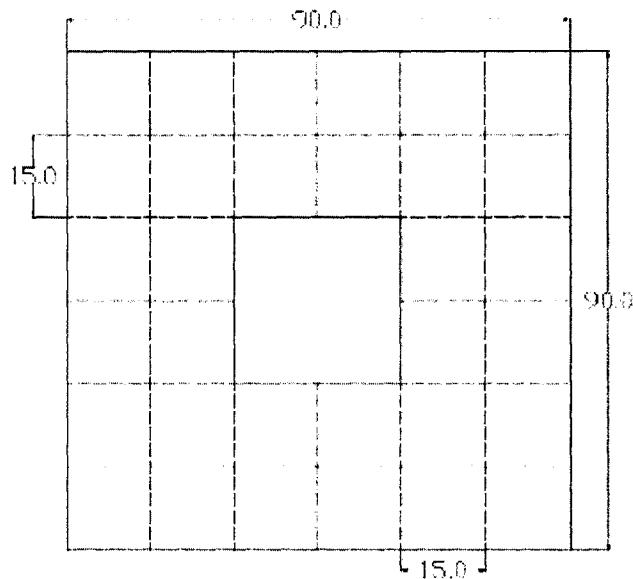
**Figure 2 - Building Plan and Profile**

The ten stories are taken to be 13ft in height each, for an overall building height of 130ft. The story height takes into account floor and ceiling thicknesses, beam depths, utility line clearances, insulation, and any forms of hung ceilings and light fixtures that might be installed in the finished building. This makes initial sizing of columns much more realistic. The settling of dimensions right away enables a guess at the expected dead load of the wooden structure and its façade and roof, and also gives some idea on the amount of available rental space, which is  $7200\text{ft}^2$  per floor, or  $72,000\text{ft}^2$  total.<sup>13</sup> This amount of rentable space decreases with the incorporation of columns into the floor plan. Thus, columns with large cross-sectional areas negatively affect the usefulness of the building. Comparing what size timber columns would be needed to support the building at different elevations with equivalent steel and concrete columns provides a means of assessing the efficiency of timber as a structural material. This is carried through to some extent later.

Initial notions of column placement in the layout are controlled by typical office plans and spans, as well as an idea on how far to stretch timber beams. It has been noted elsewhere that some timber members, like glulam beams, may span great lengths – up to 100ft. However, lengths of this magnitude result in intolerable deflections for an office application unless supported by unreasonably thick members. Also, the initial goal of this

<sup>13</sup> Actually, the true rentable space does not include space allotted to stairwells, elevator shafts, restrooms, and other service areas, but this is common to the design for any material.

feasibility study is to utilize the simplest timber forms possible, perhaps even off-the-shelf, to avoid adding complexity to manufacturing and construction. Thus, uniform spans of 15ft are chosen, based on professional suggestion.<sup>14</sup> This yields a first iteration on the necessary column positioning and sizing, and also governs the design of the shear wall and floor systems.



**Figure 3 – Initial Column Plan**

### 3.2 Shear Walls

The lateral load resisting system of the building is chosen to consist of mainly wooden shear walls, as opposed to only rigid frames, diagonal bracing, or a hybrid system featuring steel, concrete, or masonry. Wooden shear walls, again, are common to residential applications and mostly come in the form of plywood sheathing applied around load-bearing stud frames, with studs commonly placed at least 1ft apart.<sup>15</sup> The plywood panels on either side of the frame act like the web of a beam and take up the horizontal shear, but transmit opposite, vertical reaction forces through the studs. The anchorage system, thus, is integral to the design of a shear wall.<sup>16</sup> Alternatively, a uniquely tailored bracing system composed of thick timber elements could take the place of the plywood-stud setup, but the plywood technology is so well understood and common that it represents the simplest means of resisting lateral loads.

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<sup>14</sup> Carbone, Chris. BensonWood Homes. Telephone interview. March 30, 2005.

<sup>15</sup> Faherty and Williamson.

<sup>16</sup> "Wood-Frame Shear Walls." Washington State University, July 26, 2002.

<<http://timber.ce.wsu.edu/Supplements/ShearWall/deflection.htm>>. April 20, 2005.

In this project, the shear walls (more accurately the studs) are taken to be non-load-bearing and are connected to the columns and beams like partitions. Beams are always in line with shear walls so that their axial loads, taken from the building's lateral loads, can be easily transferred to the walls. In turn, the columns that frame the walls take up the vertical reactions induced by the shear force from lateral loads, one acting in tension and the other in compression. Since all the columns are part of the gravity load bearing system of the building, it is likely that columns exposed to tensile forces by the shear wall would remain in compression. This is akin to the outrigger design philosophy for tall building lateral load systems.<sup>17</sup> The use of columns at the edges of the shear walls also implies that either the shear walls should be 15ft in length to match the beam spans or new columns should be added to the existing configuration to allow shorter shear walls, for purposes of preserving interior hallways. The latter of these options is chosen, based on office space considerations, resulting in some smaller beam spans and additional columns.<sup>18</sup>

The positioning of the shear walls is extremely important in minimizing inter-story drift in the building. The core system common to tall buildings is not entirely transferable to this building due to its atrium. Shear walls, too, are traditionally integrated with elevator shafts and stairwells, which are usually clustered in the middle of buildings where the atrium now lies. Thus, in this design the placement of these services around the atrium is important and should not detract from the intended purpose of the atrium to introduce light. Also, the shear walls should not only be positioned around the atrium but also interspersed in the interior and exterior walls, so that edges of the building do not displace more than the center.

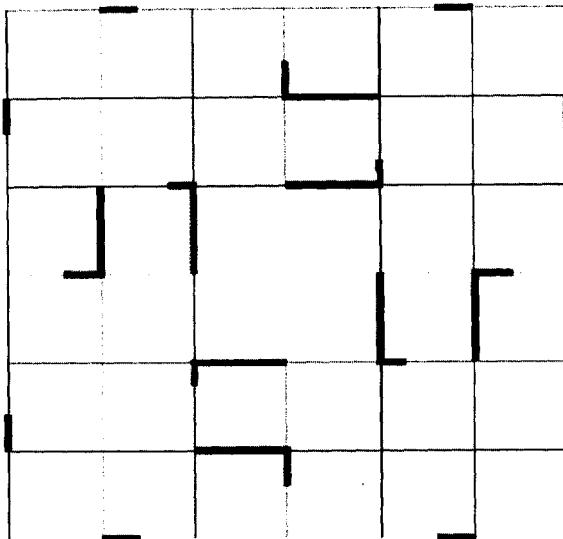
Finally, there is the concept of a building's center of stiffness that controls shear wall layout. The principle is that the location of the center of stiffness of a building around its vertical axis should coincide with the location of its center of mass; otherwise, torsional moment may be created around the building's axis and an uncomfortable twisting motion will mark the behavior of the building under lateral excitation. Indeed, this twisting is commonly the most noticeable and nauseating response a building can impart on its occupants.<sup>19</sup> To avoid this, symmetry exists as much as possible in the final design, as shown in the figure below.

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<sup>17</sup> Taranath.

<sup>18</sup> The appendix presents column sizing for both the cases considering these additional columns and not considering them, since the overall process was iterative. Final sizing is given in Appendix D.

<sup>19</sup> Wakabayashi, Minoru. *Design of Earthquake-Resistant Buildings*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1986.



**Figure 4 - Final Shear Wall Layout**

### 3.3 Floors

Wooden floor systems are common to residential applications and have been well researched by those hoping to find the optimal distribution of joists and spans to minimize deflections, vibrations, and even sound transmission through floors.<sup>20</sup> Hybrid floor systems are also heavily investigated in aim of producing longer spans and more durable floors. In the design of this ten-story office building, a 1½" lightweight concrete overlay is used on all floors, thereby providing a protective inter-story layer to halt the spread of fire between floors. This concrete layer also serves to absorb vibrations and allows easier installation of floor covering. It may also function as a flexural component with shear capacity, or as a diaphragm to transmit lateral forces to the shear walls. However, this design aims to use timber to the fullest potential, and the concrete is not expected to provide any structural support. Instead, it is assumed that the timber beams will transmit the lateral forces to the shear walls, in addition to transmitting their flexural loads to the columns.

Another aspect of floor design that deserves mention is the area between the top and bottom covering. This is where the insulation and sound-proofing material used to minimize sound transmission is installed. Springs and dampers may also be utilized to reduce vibrations, though good workmanship during fabrication is paramount in minimizing vibrations and squeaks.<sup>21</sup> As for duct work and utilities, these lines may be hung from the floor joists and covered from view by bottom sheathing. Since truss members are not used for the main beams in this building, conduits must pass above the timber beams within the floors (or beneath the beams, which is not preferred).

<sup>20</sup> Walk, Michael. "New Impact-Sound-Proof Wooden Floor Slabs." Bauphysik, ETH-Zurich, 2003. <<http://www.bph.hbt.arch.ethz.ch/contents/subfolder/research/disswalk.html>>. April 20, 2005.

<sup>21</sup> Faherty and Williamson.

### 3.4 Timber Connections

Joints and connections in timber can be complicated and difficult to successfully design, and this in itself can discourage the use of timber in a building application. But connection details and attention to them are vital to any project using any material, and timber perhaps more than any other material, due to its age of use, has been experimented with the most and undergone the most variety. From the nail-less pegs of the architecture of Greene and Greene at the turn of the century to the steel connectors of Simpson Strong-Tie Company today, timber joints have shown excellent performance for many years.<sup>22</sup> What are of interest to this study are primary connections – column to column, beam to column, and column to foundation – and whether these connections need to be significantly moment-resistant.

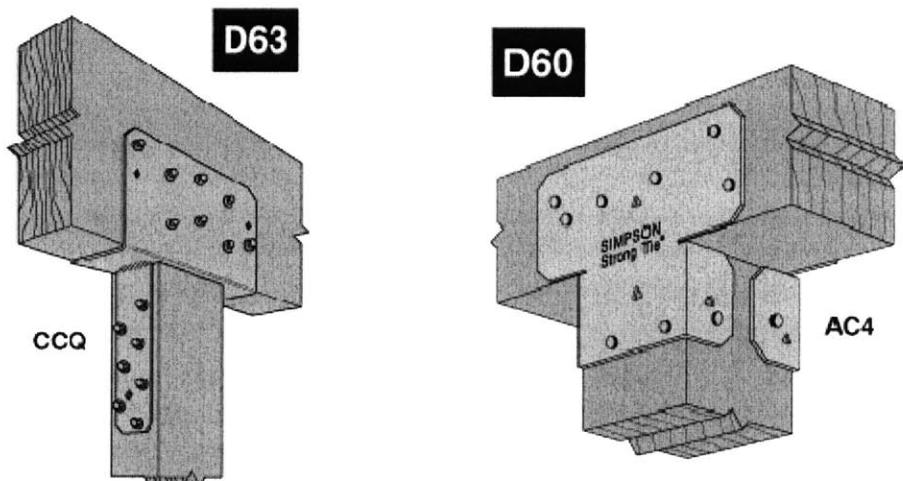


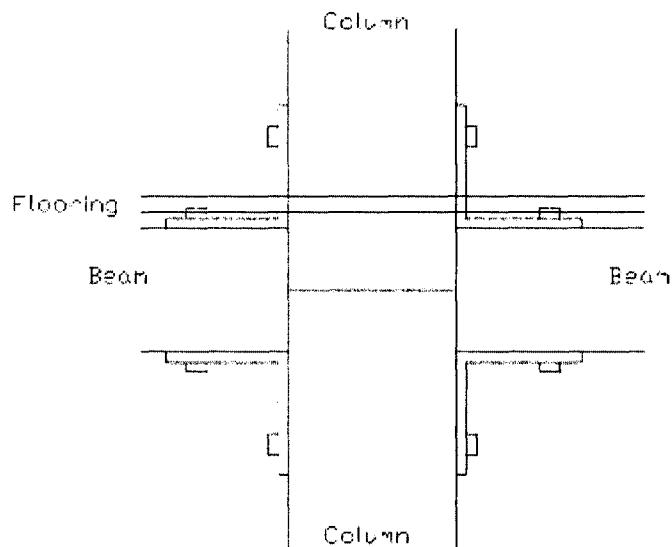
Figure 5 – Beam to Column Steel Connections (courtesy of Simpson Strong-Tie Co.)

In terms of column to column connections, the main source of difficulty centers on the question of whether the columns should be made continuous through floors. In this design, the 13ft columns are designed to rest on one another and the beams are hung from the side of the columns, with the floor slabs resting on the tops of the beams. This allows the column ends to directly transfer the column loads, which takes advantage of the parallel grain orientation in the wood, since wood is stronger in compression in that direction than the perpendicular one, as mentioned earlier. An alternative would be to rest the top column on the beams and transfer loads through them to the bottom column. This would require stronger connection details, however, since column loads would be transferred perpendicularly to the beam grains, which would make the beams more prone to crushing.

The beams are attached to the column sides with bolted, thin-gauge steel plates. This connection has two advantages. First, the beams themselves help confine the column

<sup>22</sup> Simpson Strong-Tie Co., Inc. 2005. <<http://www.simpsonstrongtie.com>>. April 22, 2005.

connection, especially in the case of interior joints, where four beams are connected at the same point. Second, hanging the beams creates more of a shear connection rather than moment connection. As will be seen later, this is preferred so as to prevent the columns from taking bending moments, which would significantly diminish their strength.<sup>23</sup> As for the column ends, there are at least two considerations worth relating to this design. For one, the column ends may not require significant dowel and epoxy connection if there is enough confining effect from the beams, which is advantageous. Secondly, using glulam columns with vertical laminations would determine the end-jointing technique directly, since adding length to glulam is primary to its appeal and purpose. One method of joining glulam laminations together is through finger-jointing, where the very end tip of a lamination is cut into fingers (using a special knife) that fit into mating fingers at the end of a neighboring lamination.<sup>24</sup> Thus, the 13ft column pieces form continuous vertical lines but are not rigidly connected at splices.



**Figure 6 – Cross-sectional View of Connection with Plywood and Concrete Floor Overlays**

Bolts, in general, may cause splitting in wood, especially if it is too dry. It is thus preferable to pre-drill holes. Bolts are favored over nails because of their higher shear strength and withdrawal resistance, which is especially important under lateral and seismic loading.<sup>25</sup> More creative solutions for attaching the beams to the columns could include using non-steel parts like rope or leather ties or intricate nailing schemes. However, such non-standardized parts make assembly complicated and may not provide reliable performance. Needless to say, all-timber connections would require significant

<sup>23</sup> Additional moment resistance and ductility in the steel plate connections could be gained by using toothed-rings or spiked plates (see Faherty and Williamson). Until the shear wall capacity is explored, it is not entirely obvious how significant moment connections or rigid frames are to the structural system.

<sup>24</sup> “Glulam Product Guide.”

<sup>25</sup> Kermani.

design work and careful construction, which is beyond the scope of this work. However, such connections do exist and could be utilized.

It should be noted that in this design, beam to beam connections do not in fact occur. Instead, the beams – which may be 15, 11, 9, 6, or 4ft in length, depending on their proximity to shear walls (see Figure 4) – span between columns, with their ends attached to column sides. The result is a discontinuous beam system with no need for moment-splicing. An alternative could be to pass continuous beams through the joints and position beam splices at low-stress points. This would result in a less clean setup and would require further analysis, with the benefit being less eccentric loading on the columns and stronger connections.

### 3.5 Foundations

Column to foundation connections raise the question of what form the substructure of the office will take given the timber design. At first glance, it is apparent that the timber structure would weigh less than a corresponding steel or concrete building, indicating a need for a less massive footing. Still, a reinforced concrete foundation might be required to counteract any soil uplift (due to hydrostatic pressure, for instance), due to the high efficiency of concrete in this application. For completeness, one could consider a timber foundation comprised of wooden planks. However, this setup would be inefficient, due to the required weight needed to hold down the hydrostatic soil pressure, and fragile, due to the effects of moisture and organism attack on wood.

Given a concrete footing, then, the design needs to account for the interface between the load-bearing timber columns and the concrete slabs they rest on. Such a connection is also quite standard and commonly done with bolted steel plates connecting the faces of the timber column directly to the top face of the concrete. Alternatively, the columns could be tied to floor boards instead, and these boards, in turn, anchored to the concrete face. This may alleviate some crushing in the timber as it rests on the hard concrete.

### 3.6 Summary

The building specimen for this feasibility study is kept as simple as possible so that the main points of design may be illuminated. The use of a square layout with an atrium defines the 15ft spans that the horizontal load-bearing members will need to be designed for, and the building's height stipulates that the vertical members will need to reach a height of 13ft and undergo combined loading without buckling. The layout also gives a value for the amount of available interior space, which the final-sized, timber columns must not diminish too much compared to corresponding steel or concrete columns. The placement of beams and columns additionally defines the locations of shear walls for the lateral load resisting system, which is also kept simple and symmetric, partially out of concern for proper positioning of the building's center of stiffness. Shear walls are chosen to be plywood-based and to act as only horizontally-loaded elements.

Accordingly, columns will have to be designed to take up the vertical reactions of the shear walls from lateral loads. Beams, too, must be designed for axial loads derived from the lateral loads as they are transferred to the shear walls. Floors are made up of a complicated series of joists, insulation, and vibration damping components, which all affect the structural design of the system. In this study, only the load-bearing elements of the floor system will be concentrated on any further. The detailing of connections and foundations, too, can derive from deeper design considerations and take on many forms. Here, the connections and footings are kept simple and standard, based on tested and proven technology using materials other than wood. This allows more focus to be placed on the designing of structural members, which is done first by hand and then validated through a finite-element analysis.

## 4. Hand Calculations

The feasibility study is highly structural in nature and requires both careful hand calculations and supplementary finite-element modeling. The hand methods described in this section begin with certain assumptions that must be updated after successive iterations of design to finalize acceptable member sizes and geometries. Some of these assumptions were highlighted earlier and include beam spans, column heights, and story height, among others. Also essential from the start is a clear definition of structural design loads to be dealt with in the design process, and so, these are presented below. With these requirements it is straightforward to size vertical and horizontal members, and then to look at the shear walls and floor systems. Beyond strength-based concerns, issues with deflection govern many pieces of the system, including spans and shear wall performance, and these issues in particular can be checked with computer software to obtain adequate confidence in the design.

### 4.1 Structural Design Loads

The adopted design load methodology is LRFD, with the following relationships governing the design:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Strength} &= 1.2 * \text{Dead} + 1.6 * \text{Live}, \text{ and} \\ &= 1.2 * \text{Dead} + 0.5 * \text{Live} + 1.3 * \text{Wind}\end{aligned}$$

An initial floor dead load value of 42psf and roof load value of 17psf were taken from Breyer to initiate member sizing.<sup>26</sup> These values are itemized as follows:

<i>Floor</i>	<i>psf</i>
1½" thick concrete floor slab	12.5
1⅛" thick plywood flooring surface	3.4
½" thick ceiling drywall & supports	3.2
Framing	2.5
Partition & façade	20
Estimated TOTAL	42.0
<i>Roof</i>	
5-ply roofing	6.5
Re-roofing	2.5
½" thick plywood	1.5
Framing	3.2
Tile ceiling & insulation	2.5
Estimated TOTAL	17.0

Table 1 - Initial Design Dead Loads (adapted from Breyer)

<sup>26</sup> Breyer, Donald E. *Design of Wood Structures*, 2<sup>nd</sup> Edition. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1988.

The roof load is taken by every column on every floor, but only by the beams on the top floor.

A live load value of 80psf was taken into account according to common building code for office spaces, and a wind load of 30psf was chosen to be applied uniformly across one face of the building for wind analysis.<sup>27</sup> Other environmental loads like snow and rain were neglected for simplicity.

Seismic excitation was virtually non-existent in the design process beyond some computer-initiated analysis, since seismic concerns run beyond the scope of this work. Still, it should be noted that it is expected that a timber building would perform very well under earthquake loading due its material ductility and light weight, which places its natural period below the dangerous range of seismic excitation, which is on the order of a few seconds.<sup>28</sup> Indeed, the fundamental period of a structure is approximately given by  $\sqrt{(\text{mass}/\text{stiffness})}$ . The lower mass of wood should give a lower period for a constant stiffness compared to steel and concrete. However, assuming a constant stiffness is not entirely correct, since wood is inherently less stiff than either of those materials, with a Young's modulus value taken to be just 1700ksi in this report. Of course, member cross-sectional areas and moments of inertia will be larger for wood due to its smaller strength, which increases stiffness values. Thus, it is reasonable to believe that the timber structure would contain a relatively low natural period.

## 4.2 Vertical Members

The final plan, with the majority of beam spans being 15ft and shear walls placed strategically throughout the floor layout, results in a total of 64 columns, each meant to take equal share of the floor and live loads and the loads flowing down from above. This means that the columns on the top floor may generally be smaller than the columns on the first floor, and for the purposes of design only the first floor columns are focused on here, though final dimensions are given for the top columns for reference. Axial loads yield initial cross-sectional area requirements for given properties of wood, taken in this study to be as follows:<sup>29</sup>

Species:	<u>Douglas Fir</u>	
Allowable Strength in Compression	2	ksi
Allowable Strength in Bending	2	ksi
Modulus of Elasticity	1700	ksi
Modulus of Rigidity	90	ksi
Density	35	pcf

Table 2 - Properties of Wood Used (adapted from Breyer)

<sup>27</sup> *Uniform Building Code*. Whittier, CA: International Conference of Building Officials, 1994.

<sup>28</sup> Wakabayashi.

<sup>29</sup> Breyer.

The buckling check is of utmost importance, as none of the columns may be considered “short” due to their 13ft heights.<sup>30</sup> In general, this does not affect the total cross-sectional area of the members as much as it does the dimensions, since the smallest side lengths for the rectangular columns are used in the slenderness ratio terms to find the allowable stresses on the members (see Appendix B). Also essential is a combined loading analysis, for the columns may at times be eccentrically loaded or subjected to bending moment. During the design it was seen that eccentricities in axial load greatly decreased the amount of compressive load the columns could support, and lateral loads at the tops of columns should ultimately be kept small – under 15kips. This can be ensured by avoiding moment connections between beams and columns.

Iterations on column design are carried through once more precise column, beam, floor, and shear wall dimensions are determined, though it is true that the original dead load value of 42psf assumed at the beginning accounts for most of the structural framing system. The shear walls in particular determine to a large extent the final sizing of columns, since they create reaction forces that are transferred to the columns in opposite axial directions. In other words, lateral loads are ultimately taken up by the columns, and depending on the orientation of the loads some columns may take more load than others. But neglecting shear walls and increased loads due to the weights of beam and shear wall members, it is found that 12"x14" nominal columns should support the loads on the first floor, with 6"x10" columns necessary for the tenth floor (see Appendix B). These large column sizes, at 13ft in length, are available as heavy timber pieces, though using glulam or built-up sections could also be considered.<sup>31</sup>

#### 4.3 Horizontal Members

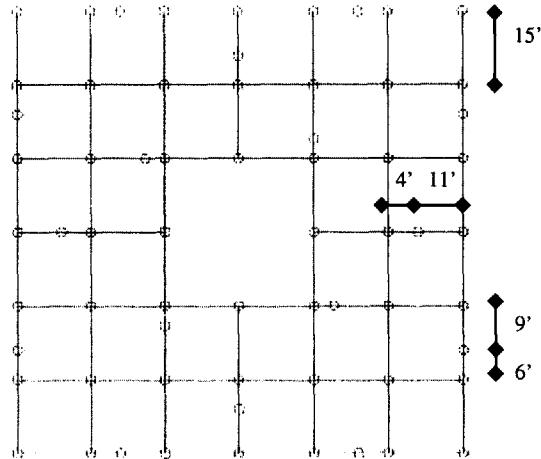
The main beams may be up to 15ft in length, with some beams measuring only 4, 6, 9, or 11ft at shear wall bay locations. The beams transfer all of the floor loads and live loads to the columns, and in addition carry lateral loads axially to the shear walls. They are thus under combined loading. Strength-based design using tributary area for the case of 90 total 15ft beams yields relatively small cross-sectional areas that are quickly deemed unacceptable by deflection considerations. In this study, acceptable deflections are taken as 1/240 of the span for total load and 1/360 for live load only.<sup>32</sup> The shorter span beams are not considered here since they are not limiting factors of design, though it may be mentioned that due to visual considerations for the ceiling, uniform beam areas may be preferred in the structure.

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<sup>30</sup> Faherty and Williamson.

<sup>31</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>32</sup> *Ibid.*



**Figure 7 - Beam Layout**

Deflection analysis was carried through assuming simply-supported spans. The governing variable for constant modulus of elasticity is the moment of inertia, based on a rectangular cross-section for the purposes of this study. It should be noted, however, that engineered timber I-joist systems could be considered for the design of these main beams, with their efficiency deriving from their cross-sectional geometry but their drawback being their energy-intensive fabrication and cost. Glulam, too, is an obvious choice, and corresponding lamination details are given for the sawn lumber nominal dimensions. For tenth floor beams that are required to support additional roof loads, the beams are designed to be 8"x14" nominally, neglecting axial load, with the larger dimension representing the depth of the beam. A corresponding glulam section could be fabricated from an 8 $\frac{3}{4}$ " wide section consisting of eight 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ " horizontal laminations, for a depth of only 12". All beams in other stories also need to be 8"x14" in nominal size. However, these sizes change when combined axial loads are taken into account based on the design lateral loads (see Appendix B). In this case, combined stress criteria using an axial load of 46kips dictates that all beams be 8"x18" in nominal section. These are the final beam dimensions taken in this study.

#### 4.4 Shear Walls: Lateral Resistance System

Shear wall design is controlled by the amount of deflection allowed in the story, given by  $h/200$ , where  $h$  is 13ft. Thus, the fundamental concept of design is stiffness and the controlling factor is inter-story drift. Shear walls provide stiffness with four mechanisms – bending, shear, nail deformation, and anchorage slippage. The overall effect is given by:

$$\Delta = (8*V*h^3) / (E*A*b) + (V*h) / (G*t) + 0.75*h*e_n + h/b*d_a < 0.78"$$

where  $V$  is the shear per unit length at the top of the wall,  $h$  is the height of the wall,  $A$  is the cross-sectional area of the boundary columns, and  $b$  is the width of the wall. The

modulus values are known. The quantities of  $e_n$  and  $d_a$  represent the nail deformation and deflection due to anchorage slippage, respectively, and are given by code, albeit not very clearly.<sup>33</sup> Here it is assumed that  $e_n$  is 0.05 and  $d_a$  is 0.10", which are conservative estimates based on the material used (Structural I plywood) and the spacing between nails joining the sheathing to the stud assembly (assumed to be 6").<sup>34</sup>

Determining which walls take what amount of shear poses an interesting question in the design process. The first thought is that it would be desirable for the largest shear walls to be clustered in the center of the building and be thick enough to take the majority of shear created from lateral loads. Specifically, this was done by summing up the entire lateral load on a floor – 45,630lb, also used as the maximum axial load in the beams<sup>35</sup> – and dividing it by the total length of shear wall absorbing the force. For the walls surrounding the atrium, which in any direction consist of one large 15ft long wall and one smaller 4ft wall, the two walls act together and also in unison with the walls on the opposite of the atrium in taking load, so the total length of shear wall is 38ft. This assumption was made and yielded a required thickness value of 0.76" (see Appendix C). This means that for all four of the core walls acting in the direction of lateral loading, the total thickness of plywood around the stud assembly should be 0.76", which may be achieved using one sheet of ½" plywood on each side of the assembly.

The second design assumption was that each outer bay, or line of beams not on the atrium perimeter, should take 1/7 of the amount of lateral load on any given face of the building, based on tributary area. This value is 6,519lb and was divided by the total length of shear wall in a given bay. There are three types of outer-bay shear wall systems in the building – the exterior system, consisting of two 6ft walls per line; the interior middle system, consisting of one 6ft wall on either side of the atrium along the center lines of the building; and the inner system, consisting of one 15ft wall per line. The first two systems share wall thicknesses of 0.55" (made from two 3/8" thick plywood sheets), while the latter needs only 0.35" (two ¼" thick sheets) of wall thickness (see Appendix C).

These thicknesses, it can be shown with the computer, work well in the building system, but a final buckling check needs to be completed to ensure proper sizing (see Appendix C). Indeed, the shear acting on the walls acts as a compressive force, with the slenderness ratio of the wall being proportional to its width and thickness. Simple Euler buckling analysis shows that the thicknesses must be updated to account for this buckling. In particular, the core shear walls are increased to 1¾" thickness (made from four ½" thick plywood sheets), and the inner walls are increased to 1½" thickness (two ¾" thick sheets). The exterior and interior middle walls are only slightly updated to 0.73" thickness (still two 3/8" thick sheets) because their length, only 6ft, is sufficiently small to negate buckling. A second buckling check, taking the entire shear over a 1ft wide strip across the plywood face with fixed ends, as opposed to the entire 13ft height, informs that the stud assembly has an important role in breaking up the length of the wall to prevent buckling. Though the calculation shows that only one stud needs to be used to divide the wall lengths in half, the final design calls for studs placed every 1ft to ensure low values

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<sup>33</sup> Uniform Building Code.

<sup>34</sup> Faherty and Williamson.

<sup>35</sup> Using the factored wind load and surface area of the building:  $1.3 * (30\text{psf}) * (13\text{ft}) * (90\text{ft}) = 45,630\text{lb}$ .

for nail slippage. Yet another method of checking buckling in the shear walls may utilize a braced frame analogy, which relates the stresses in the shear walls to equivalent areas of diagonal bracing systems through stiffness values. These diagonal members may in turn be checked for buckling for calculated axial loads. This was done using known relations and did not add new light to the previous computation (see Appendix C).<sup>36</sup>

#### 4.5 Vertical Member Reiterations

The shear walls give reaction forces and contain overturning moments that must be resisted by the columns, which are axially loaded from the main beams. The overturning moment is given by the product of the total shear acting on a wall and the height of the wall. The tensile and compressive reactions are given by this moment divided by the length of the shear wall. Also, in the proposed design some shear walls share the same columns, so these columns must take additional reaction loads, as well as the weight of the shear walls themselves. The result is that for the largest shear walls, columns must take about 18kips of additional load and are thus increased to 14"x16" nominal sections on the first floor (see Appendix D). Some shear walls may contain columns of different cross-sectional areas, such as in the case of a 6ft wall abutting a 15ft wall. Generally, the 6ft walls require only 8"x8" end columns on the first floor to carry ordinary vertical loads and the lateral load reactions. There are also 14"x14" columns at the ends of "inner" shear walls (see Appendix D). The final column layout, seen in terms of shear wall lengths and placement, is shown in Figure 8.

The uneven distribution of column sizes makes the design efficient. Larger columns are clustered around the core and smaller columns tend to be found toward the outside. The largest columns on the first floor are designed to take over 300kips of axial load and have the capacity to take around 15kips of lateral point load at their tops. This number is much less than the 46kips designed to be taken by the beams and transferred to the shear walls. This is not contradictory, though, because the shear walls ultimately take this force and it does not appear as a moment on the columns. As a final note, elevator shaft and stairwell loads are intended to be taken by the large core columns, but some of the dynamic effects of these structures were not explored and may actually necessitate the use of other load-bearing materials instead of timber.

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<sup>36</sup> Smith, Bryan Stafford and Alex Coull. *Tall Building Structures: Analysis and Design*. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1991.

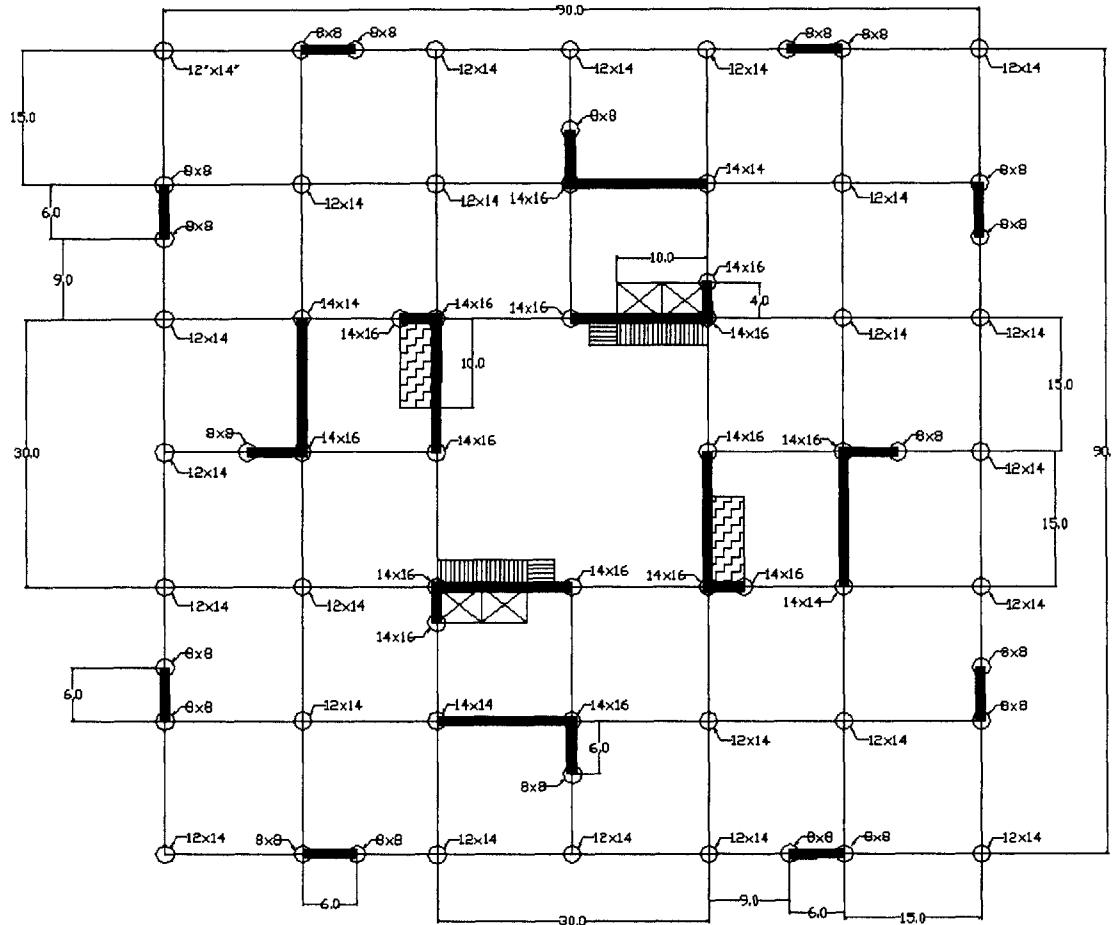


Figure 8 – Final Building Structural Layout

#### 4.6 Floor Systems

Calculations for the floor joists were carried through assuming fully loaded, square slabs of 15ft sides (see Appendix E). Joists with 2"x12" nominal sections were chosen instead of engineered I-joists to keep the design simple. Such joists may be spaced every 12" and aligned in only one direction to satisfy strength requirements. However, deflection and vibration rule the design of floors, and it was seen that 15ft joist spans would create excessive deflection – on the order of 6" instead of the required 0.75". To solve the problem, cross-girders are installed to shorten the effective lengths of the joists and increase the overall rigidity of the floor. The joists pass over these girders, since they cannot pass through them. The number of girders needed depends on whether they are intended to take load from the joists, which should be the case to increase the overall efficiency of the floor system. The final design calls for only two cross-girders with 2"x12" section placed at 5ft intervals, though more thorough floor design may

reveal a more efficient system. In fact, equally numbered joists and girders, creating a two-way, square network, would perhaps be the most efficient system.

In practice, the plywood covering and concrete overlay also act to increase the rigidity of the structure. This is particularly important in looking at the floor slabs as diaphragms to aid in the transmission of lateral loads to shear walls. The higher stiffness value also helps to put the natural frequency of the floors above human perception levels. This implies, too, that bottom sheathing serves a role in generating stiffness, specifically by restraining torsion in the joists.<sup>37</sup> Including these different stiffness terms is difficult to accomplish in hand analysis, but it should be kept in mind that the proposed design is for a typical office building, which demands much less stringent vibration standards than, for example, a laboratory or medical building. In other words, looking at timber for certain other building applications entails consideration for additional aspects of design, of which dynamic control is but one example.

#### 4.7 Office Space Area Reduction

As pointed out earlier, a useful measure of the effectiveness of using timber framing in the proposed design is the perceived change in usable office floor space as compared to cases for other common materials. For the final column configuration outlined above, there is less than a 1% change in first floor area for the case of timber. This percentage is so small that it does not actually need to be compared quantitatively with percentages for steel and concrete design, which will be slightly less than the timber percentage due to higher modulus and strength values. The point is to check for excessive area loss, and this has clearly been proven to not be a result of the timber design.

Column Section	Number	Area (in <sup>2</sup> )	Total (ft <sup>2</sup> )
12x14	24	168	28.00
8x8	20	64	8.89
14x14	4	196	5.44
14x16	16	224	24.89
Total	64		67.22 ft <sup>2</sup>
Original Office Space Total (first floor)		7200.00	ft <sup>2</sup>
Net Space		7132.78	ft <sup>2</sup>
Percent Change		0.93%	

Table 3 - Effect of Column Sections on Rentable Floor Area

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<sup>37</sup> Faherty and Williamson.

#### 4.8 Summary

The hand calculations have produced complete dimensioning and detailing for the columns, beams, shear walls, and floor slabs (see Appendix F for a design summary). These designs are based on prescribed loading conditions that were refined to account for the changing dead loads of the structural members as they underwent iterations.

Ignoring seismic loading conditions, vertical load-bearing members on the first floor were sized to four different sections, depending on their support for shear wall reaction forces. The controlling factor for most of the design was buckling, and the columns generally do not possess much flexural capacity. The largest columns, which are found around the core of the building, measure 14"x16" nominally and are designed to take most of the lateral load the building might be subjected to. The other nominal column sizes are 14"x14", 8"x8" and 12"x14", the last of which represents typical, non-shear wall supporting columns. These large column areas, it was found, do not significantly detract from the available floor space area in the office layout. Also, as large as these sections are, such sizes are found in standard timber tables, indicating that the availability of these columns is not a limiting factor of design.<sup>38</sup>

Beam sizes are generally smaller. They do not vary between floors 1 through 10 or among the different spans created by the shear wall lengths, for purposes of consistency. The constant nominal size is 8"x18, even for the tenth floor beams that support additional roof loads. These sizes result mainly from deflection criteria and combined loading analyses, as opposed to simple flexural strength requirements. Indeed, the beams satisfy the L/360 deflection limit and are capable of taking 46kips of axial load – the entire possible wind load on a building face – to be transferred to the shear walls.

Shear walls are designed to take up the factored wind load without causing more than 0.78" of inter-story drift. The typical shear wall system is taken from residential design and consists of plywood sheathing stretched across an assembly of non-load-bearing stud beams spaced at 1ft intervals. A buckling check on the initial shear wall design indicated that plywood thicknesses needed to be slightly larger than originally anticipated. The final design calls for four ½" thick plywood sheets at each shear wall around the core, two ¾" thick sheets at inner walls, and two 3/8" thick sheets at the exterior and interior middle walls.

The floor system consists of 2"x12" nominal joists spaced at 12" apart and laid out in one direction across the 15'x15' slab cutouts. To increase the rigidity of the floor, two cross-girders of the same dimension, spaced at 5ft apart and attached to the bottoms of the joists, are used. More efficient floor systems operating in two directions could be implemented as well. All floor loads are transferred directly to the main beams as uniformly distributed loading.

The hand calculations do not reveal impractical or unreasonable member sizes and at this point suggest that strength issues should not restrict the use of timber in the design application under discussion. Though the designs are not completely detailed – for instance, column sizes for all the floors are not worked out – they can be used in a finite element model to test for deflections and other non-strength issues that may affect the success of the design.

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<sup>38</sup> Faherty and Williamson.

## 5. Finite Element Modeling

The next step in the feasibility study is to check the member sizing from the hand calculations and look at the dynamic behavior of the building system with a finite element program. Using the SAP2000 software, the whole 130ft tall building, complete with shear walls and actual dimensioned wooden elements, was subjected to gravity and lateral loads and tested for deflections, loading path, and mode shape behavior. Iterations were carried through by releasing the member connections, varying the thicknesses of the shear walls, and removing the floor slabs to discover the roles each of these plays in affecting the building's performance. In general, the computer results show a successful building design in terms of inter-story drift, axial loads, moment distribution, and torsion. However, the results also raise some issues with regard to overturning, stability, and possible column overloading. These matters are discussed here. Output data values may be found in Appendix G.

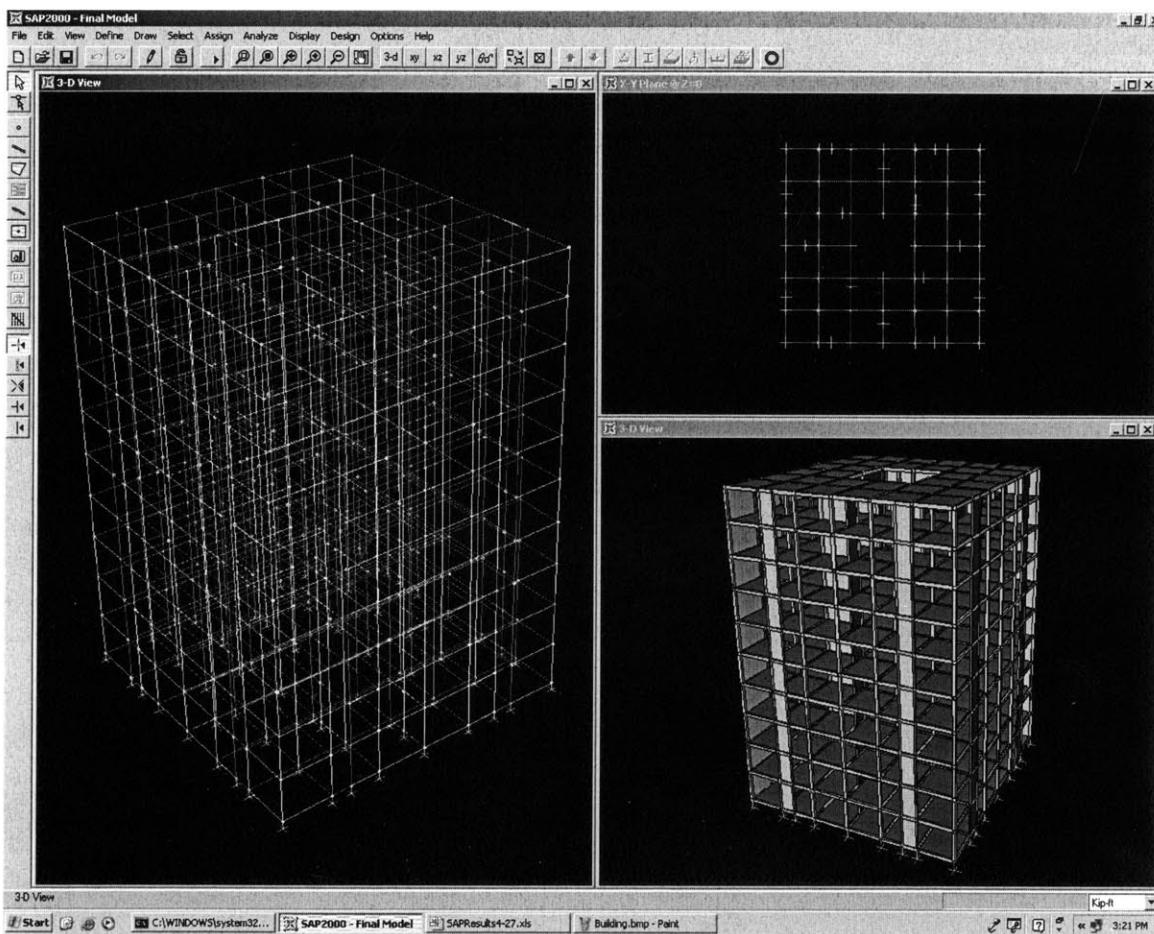
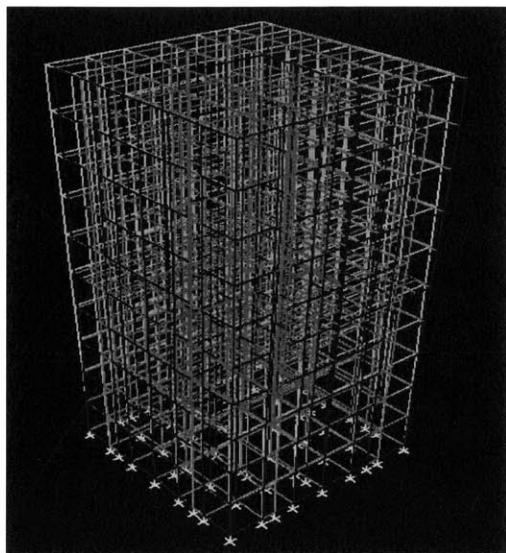


Figure 9 – SAP2000 Model

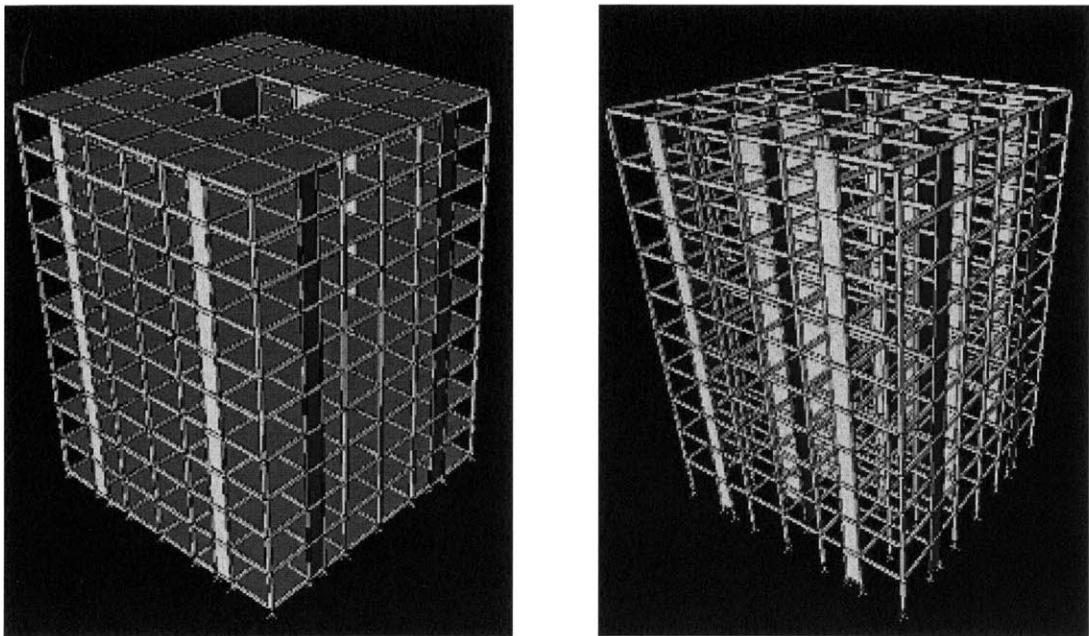
## 5.1 Deflections

The default computer setting defines the joints between members in the model as moment-resisting connections. This type of connection significantly reduces the amount of deflection in the building, with the adverse effect being the transfer of bending moment to the columns. So, to more accurately model the system, the column frames were all released from their connections, effectively turning their joints into shear connections.



**Figure 10 – Deflection under Wind Loading**

The first computer analysis included the floor slabs, modeled initially as 12" thick wooden shells. Coupled with the shear walls, these slabs kept story deflections well within reasonable limits. Separate cases were analyzed for 1.2" thick wooden shells and without slabs altogether to test for the stiffness contribution of the floors to the overall building performance, since the timber frame design was not intended to rely on the floor slabs for shear transfer. The 12" thick shell thickness case gave deflections of 1.40" at the top of the building and 0.16" between stories in the direction of the applied, factored 30psf wind loading, while the 1.2" thick case gave slightly larger deflections values, namely, 2.77" at the top and 0.28" between stories. These values satisfy the allowable deflection criteria: at the top,  $H/200 = 7.8"$ , and for inter-story drift,  $h/200 = 0.78"$ . The case with no floors (only frames) also satisfied the deflection criteria, with the maximum deflection at the top limited to 2.84" and the drift to just 0.32". This result shows that in reality, depending on their thickness, the slabs would act as diaphragms to transfer shear to the shear walls, though it is not necessary to depend on them for this purpose, since the beams are adequately designed with this capability. Thus, the floors do stiffen the structure and need to be considered to correctly predict building behavior.



**Figure 11 – [Left] Model with Floors; [Right] Model without Floors**

Further iteration to check the performance of the wooden-frame structure was run on the model for various shear wall designs. First, the case of no shear walls was analyzed to gain an idea of the importance of the walls in supporting lateral loads. What was found in this case was that even with the existence of moment-resisting connections the deflections in the building could not be contained within acceptable limits, the deflections being on the order of several feet. On the other hand, it was seen that the use of concrete in the shear walls for the assigned thicknesses yielded better deflection performance – up to 20% better for maximum deflection and 30% for drift. Finally, the case for using only core shear walls resulted in excessive total deflection at the building edges, with an increase of about 70% from the normal case (see Appendix G). This indicates again the importance of using shear walls in all bays of the building, especially if moment connections are not used.

Also of interest is the computer generated values for torsion around the building axis, given the consideration paid to the positioning of the shear walls in order to correctly locate the center of twist of the building. As it turns out, the torsion is not completely eliminated in the building, since there is some displacement at points in the building in both the directions parallel and perpendicular to the applied loading. The angle of twist is about  $0.106^\circ$  for both the cases of floors and no floors. The existence of twist, though not very large in magnitude, hints at unevenness in the column, wall, and slab layout, which may be rectified with more precise modeling but is beyond the point of concern here. The analysis illustrates that keeping the layout symmetrical is a way of minimizing deflections.

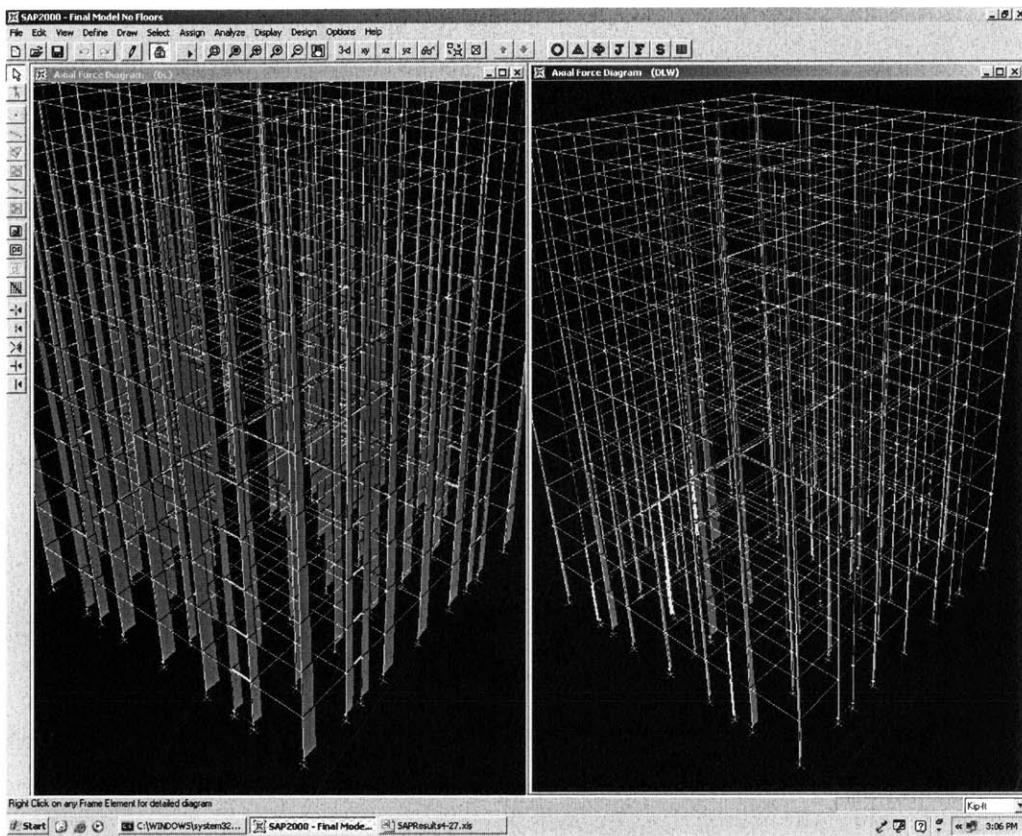
## 5.2 Member Loading

For the control scenario (with shear walls and 1.2" thick floors), the axial loads in the columns remained within allowable stress limits for the cases considering wind loading and not considering wind, though some columns showed tensile action. Success is measured by comparing the computer generated axial forces to the anticipated compressive loads for which the columns were sized, which were 330kips for the 14"x16" columns, 300kips for the 14"x14" columns, and 280kips for the generic 12"x14" floor columns. In the scenario for the absence of shear walls for wind loading conditions, though, it was determined that some columns were subjected to disproportionately large compressive load, in some instances over 400kips for the largest columns. Others exhibited undue tensile forces. This hints at the possibility that in the program the shear walls take some of the vertical load instead of passing it completely to the columns.

This was tested by running a case considering all the shear walls except those on the first floor and looking at the axial forces in the first floor columns. It was seen that, indeed, there was a jump in the load in the columns between the second and first floors, suggesting that the shear walls in the upper floors were taking vertical load. Also, the first floor columns exhibited maximum compressive loads of only 250kips and tensile loads of 3kips. This does not match with the static load case ignoring wind, where the first floor columns take their limit of over 300kips of compression. Thus, the wind loading activates the shear walls as vertical load-bearing elements and affects the vertical loading distribution in the building significantly.

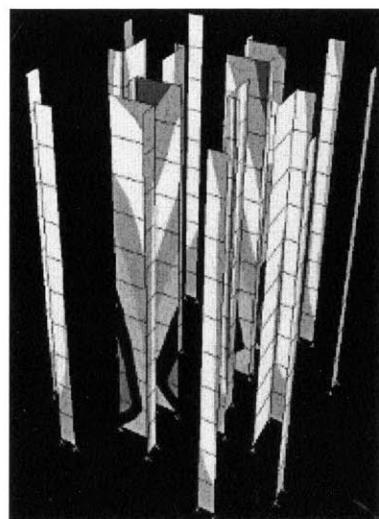
The fact that some columns take enormous amounts of compressive load while others take very little load stems from the directionality of the wind loading, which effectively turns the entire building into a shear wall. The result is that the front columns undergo tension and the rear columns undergo compression. The existence of interior shear walls moderates this effect by controlling tensile and compressive forces and distributing them to the properly supported columns. The computer model shows this quite well – columns under tension are always attached to shear walls and balanced by their partner columns under compression. Additionally, however, the model shows that under wind the gravity and live loads also get redistributed to interior columns. This creates abnormally large compressive loads in certain columns and even fully tensile loads in others attached to shear walls. The shear walls also complicate the stress distribution by absorbing some of the compression and tension, which is not meant to be the case.

The figures below illustrate the axial force distribution under the cases of non-wind loading and wind loading. The color distribution represents the magnitude of compression and tension in the columns and shear walls. In the first figure, the right-hand image contains light-colored infill at some shear wall columns, illustrating the tensile effect exhibited during wind loading. The left-hand image shows, for no wind loading, uniform axial force distribution in the columns, increasing in compressive magnitude from higher floors to lower floors. The right-hand image shows certain columns functioning at above their stress capacities and other columns working below theirs.



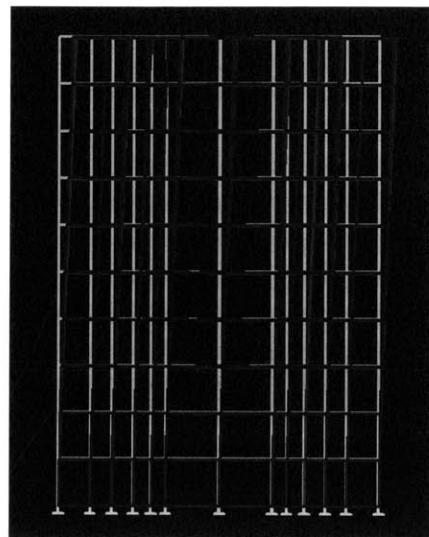
**Figure 12 – Axial Column Forces: [Left] Under Static Gravity Loads; [Right] Under Wind Loading**

The bottom figure shows positive stress gradients in the shear walls changing to negative in the direction of the wind loading, indicating that the walls are being subjected to overturning.



**Figure 13 - Shear Wall Stresses Under Wind Loading**

The situation implies that there is some overall uplift in parts or the building, since otherwise the dead load of the building alone should be enough to keep columns in compression. In fact, this uplift is verified by the fact that there is some small, positive vertical deflection at the top of the building at certain column locations, but only in the case considering floor slabs. That only this case displays such effect is explained by the higher stiffness of the building provided by the floors, since the added rigidity makes the building behave increasingly like a bending beam rather than a shear beam building. This may indicate that the building is in fact too stiff, as a result of large member sections, and requires more mass to offset undesirable effects.



**Figure 14 - Deflection of Building with Floors Showing Slight Uplift in Middle**

The flow of forces, in general, should take the largest loads to the stiffest areas of the building, preventing the over-loading of columns and avoiding the use of shear walls as vertical members. However, bending action may preclude this from happening, creating an over-loaded situation ripe for column failure and unanticipated shear wall buckling. This possibility should be explored with more in-depth analysis of lateral loading conditions. For instance, wind loading at the corner of the building may lead to additional column over-loading. In fact, this case was run in the modeling process and showed reduced total deflections – 2.20” at the top and 0.23” for inter-story drift – and even more unique axial force distribution.

As for the beams, the amount of bending moment and axial load given in the computer analysis falls within the range expected in the hand calculations. The maximum bending moment recorded in the uniformly 8”x18” beams was 34k-ft, leading to a bending stress of 0.84ksi, under the 2ksi limit of the chosen wood. The maximum axial load in the beams was found to be 23kips, well under the capacity load of 46kips. So, the beams do not seem to be the weak link or source of failure in the structure as much as the columns seem to be.

### 5.3 Dynamic Behavior

The building was examined in terms of its mode shapes to gain additional insight into the performance of the timber structure under variable loadings. It was found that, as predicted, the natural period of the building is slightly less than the value that would be expected for corresponding steel or concrete buildings. The first mode, in fact, is torsional and occurs at 0.66sec for the case including 1.2" floors, at 0.80sec for the 12" floor case, and at 0.60sec for the case excluding floors. The expected first mode – straight line deflection, or the fundamental mode – occurs at 0.63sec, 0.79, and 0.56sec for the three cases, respectively, all periods less than the 1sec or so mark expected for steel or concrete.<sup>39</sup> The 12" floors case shows much higher periods not because the floors provide noticeably more stiffness than the other cases – indeed, that would drive the period down. In fact, the extra thickness does not affect the amount of stiffness contribution from the floor much, since as discussed earlier the deflection values for the two thickness cases are similar. Rather, the extra thickness increases the amount of mass of the building, which increases the modal periods.

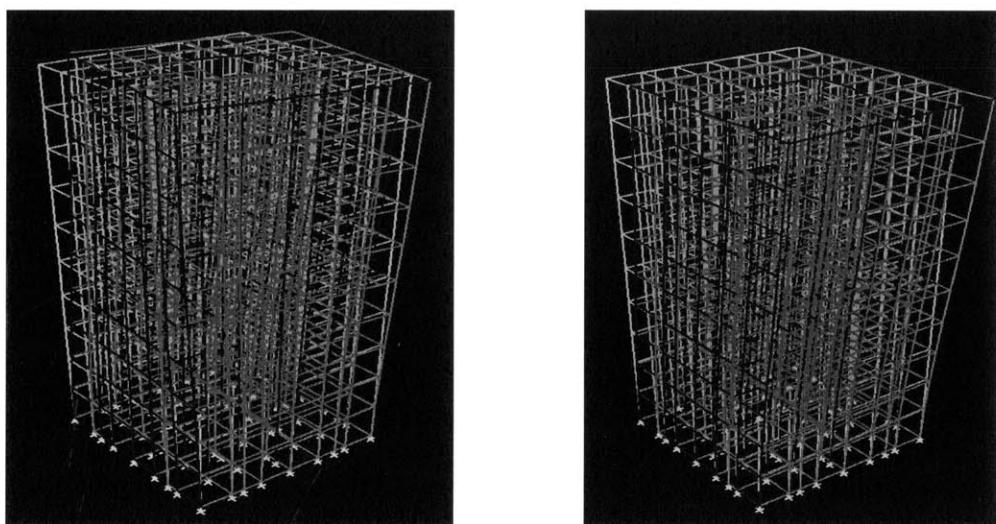
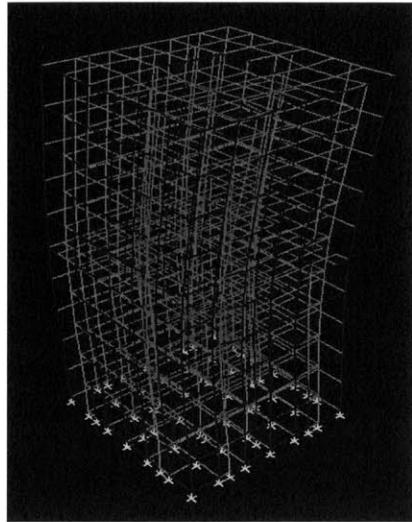


Figure 15 – [Left] True First Mode, torsion; [Right] Expected First Mode, straight line

Additional torsional modes also exist in the structure before one finds the expected second mode of the building – flexure with one inflection point. For the case including the stiff, 1.2" thick floor slabs, this mode is identified as the fifth mode in the building and occurs at 0.15sec. For the case of no floors, this mode is number eleven and occurs at 0.16sec. For this case, a number of stretching and wave motion modes exist due to the absence of stiffening diaphragm action. Additional cases were examined to illustrate basic concepts. For example, the case of no shear walls resulted in a very high

<sup>39</sup> It is a rule of thumb that the fundamental mode of a steel or concrete building is approximately one-tenth of the number of stories of the building. In the case of this ten-story building, that yields  $T = 1\text{sec}$ .

fundamental period of 10.31sec with no torsion, which can be explained by the very low stiffness value for this case.



**Figure 16 – Expected Second Mode, flexure one inflection point**

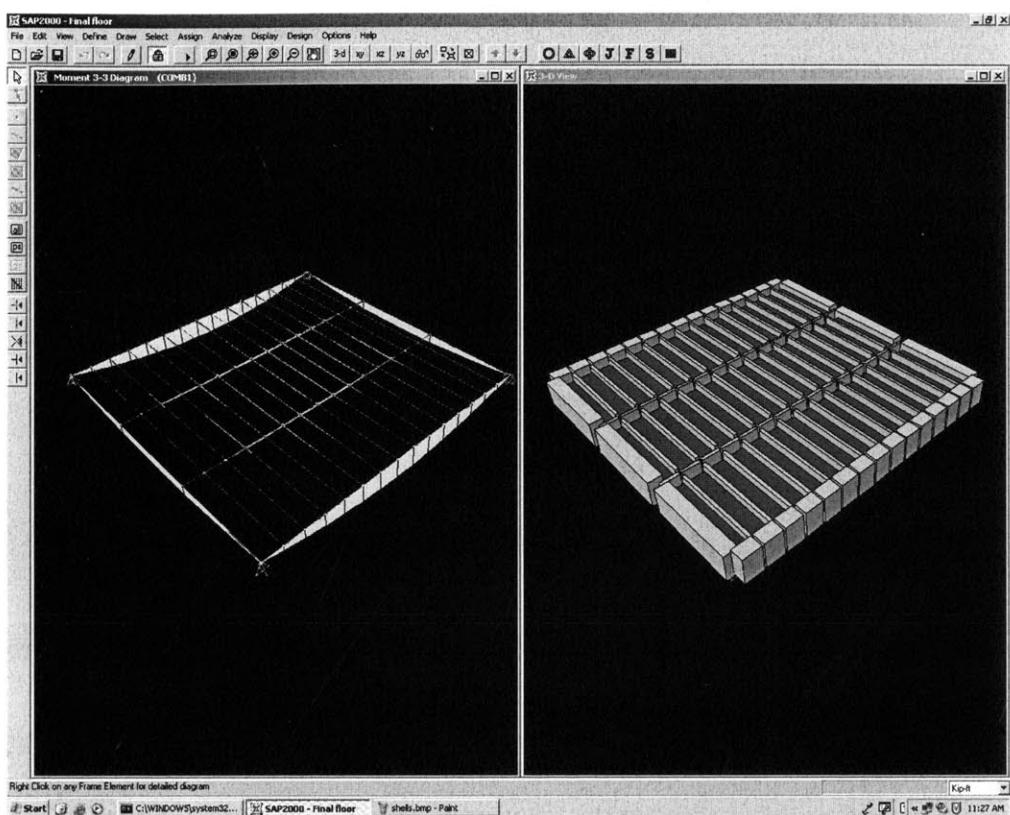
The simple implications of these results are that the light weight timber creates a structure with very small modal periods, which decreases the chances of the building hitting resonance under environmental loads but may lead to undesirable ringing. Indeed, the low natural period is advantageous for areas that are affected by frequent winds and earthquakes. At the same time, though, the lack of mass may affect the damping characteristics of the structure, requiring structural damping devices to maintain human comfort levels.

#### **5.4 Floor System Modes**

Some computer analysis on the generalized floor system draws attention to certain aspects of design that are necessary to completing the feasibility study. Accurate modeling of the floor system is complex due to the indeterminacy of the system and the multiple layers of structure, but relevant conclusions can be drawn from a simple model utilizing roller supports at two corners and hinge supports at the other two. For instance, bending moments in the main beams are as expected – about 34k-ft (see Appendix B) – for the case of using a network of 2"x12" joists spaced at 12" across the 15ft sides and two cross-girders spaced at 3ft. The maximum deflection is 0.5", which is below the L/240 limit of 0.75". Also, the fundamental mode of this floor falls below 0.039sec, corresponding to a natural frequency of 26Hz, which is well out of the likely range of human stepping, which tops out around 4Hz.<sup>40</sup> Thus, the floor as designed is stiff enough

<sup>40</sup> Allen, D.E. and G. Pernica. "Control of Floor Vibration." National Research Council of Canada, December 1998. <[http://irc.nrc-cnrc.gc.ca/pubs/ctus/22\\_e.html](http://irc.nrc-cnrc.gc.ca/pubs/ctus/22_e.html)>. April 30, 2005.

to meet deflection and vibration criteria, though the floor is actually even stiffer due to the end connections and existence of plywood and concrete layers.



**Figure 17 – [Left] Bending Moments in Floor Joists; [Right] Extruded Slab Elements**

## 5.5 Summary

The finite element analysis for the control case of 1.2" thick wooden floors and the prescribed shear walls produced results that confirmed some aspects of the hand calculations, including the role of shear walls, but pointed to other sources of concern. The maximum building deflection was recorded to be just 2.7", with 0.26" inter-story drift and 0.106° of twist. These numbers can be driven downward by using thicker floors, thereby creating diaphragm action to stiffen the structure. However, after examining the axial loads on the columns in the model and noticing that zones of tension exist alongside zones of compression, it was determined that the building may possibly be too stiff and require more mass to counteract bending effects. That the building is relatively stiff was further indicated by the low fundamental period of the structure – only 0.63sec. So, questions surround the stiffness issue and load path. Finally, it was shown through the computer model that the floor system, as proposed, is sufficiently stiff itself for the purposes of this design, with small deflection and a high natural frequency out of the range of human stepping. In all, the computer analysis has served an extremely useful role in the study.

## **6. Discussion of Findings and Future Work**

The feasibility study is verified by three parts – a discussion on the material aspects of wood, hand calculations, and computer modeling analysis. The material-based issues provide the framework and setting for the hand design of the building in timber. All of the deflection-based criteria used for the hand-methods of design were confirmed with the computer model – maximum building deflection, inter-story drift, and beam deflection. One exception may be the torsion of the building about its vertical axis, which is not a core point of design but part of the study nevertheless. Not all of the strength-based criteria were as satisfactorily confirmed, particularly the load-bearing actions of the columns and shear walls. Indeed, the vulnerability of the building to bending about its base, resulting in uplift motion and net tensile forces in columns, may outline a basic flaw in the system that requires further exploration – namely, the weight of the structure as a negative attribute. The underlying limitation for using timber in the proposed design is motion control, not material unreliability or strength.

### **6.1 Discussion of Findings**

As outlined at the beginning of this report, timber is an engineered material that is well understood and properly outfitted to be thrust into new types of applications where its potential might be fully realized. It should not be neglected for fears of natural defects, environmental weaknesses, awkward workability, or even fire resistance. With proper care, handling, and treating, wood can be a very useful, easy-to-use, and advantageous material in diverse applications.

Once this was established at the outset, the study was able to be pressed forward and applied to a specific building layout with a series of structural stipulations. Columns were fixed to be 13ft in height and beams to be 15ft in length. Shear walls were positioned in column bays and arranged symmetrically to keep the building's center of stiffness on top of its center of mass. Floor systems were taken from common applications and contain relatively straight-forward joist and girder strength designs, yet more complicated issues revolve around their sound and vibration control. Similarly, the steel plate connections and concrete foundations were adopted from current standard practice.

The sizing of the timber members was accurately done based on specified design loads and given properties for Douglas fir wood. The results from hand calculations and computer modeling show that the ten-story building could be constructed from relatively standard timber shapes and sizes and without affecting any aspect of normal office space setting. The sectional sizes of the slender columns range from 8"x8" to 14"x16" nominal size, depending on their proximity to shear walls. Of course, 14"x16" timber sections are on the large end of timber sizes, but such sizes are obtainable from heavy timber pieces or built-up sections of smaller timber or lumber pieces (even glulam).<sup>41</sup> Also, these

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<sup>41</sup> Faherty and Williamson.

dimensions are not sufficiently large to affect the area of usable office space in any considerable way.

Clear spans of up to 15ft are achieved rather simply and in the same manner as steel or concrete design, with 8"x18" nominal beams being the singular size. This size, as with the columns, also implies the use of heavy timber or glulam sections, as opposed to simple lumber boards. Connections between beams and columns, it was decided, must be shear-transferring only, so that large moments are not placed on the columns. Floor systems were designed with 2"x12" nominal joists placed at 12" spacing and two 2"x12" nominal cross-girders intended to add stiffness. The computer model indicated that this design was adequately stiff to avoid dynamic problems with pedestrian use, exhibiting a natural frequency of 26Hz.

The shear walls constitute a lateral load-resisting system designed to keep lateral deflections minimal. The walls consist of plywood sheathing attached to a stud assembly with stud beams placed at 1ft spacing. The strongest shear walls, designed to take the bulk of the lateral loads without buckling, are located at the core of the building and consist of four ½" thick plywood sheets each. Secondary shear walls are located in other areas to ensure that drift does not occur at the edges of the building. The finite element model verified that deflections in the building are significantly reduced through the incorporation of shear walls, and also diaphragms, into the structural system. For the proper design case, modeled using 1.2" thick wooden floors, inter-story drift is minimized to just 0.26" for the given shear wall design.

The shear walls were not meant to carry any vertical loads, but in the computer model it was interpreted that this might actually occur, obscuring the load path. Indeed, the finite element analysis showed that tensile forces might fully develop in some columns, leaving other columns to take too much compression or the shear walls themselves to take vertical loads. It seems, then, that as the result of using only timber, the building may be both too light and too stiff, leaving it vulnerable to overturning action, represented by the appearance of tensile forces on the first floor of the building. Indeed, the fundamental period of the building is just 0.63sec, which makes it well suited for seismic or other low-frequency cyclical loading applications. This is not an uncommon problem, however, and countless methods exist that may be used to address this overturning issue. An outrigger system, for instance, composed of a hat truss at the top of the building, would be well-suited for this design to help in transferring lateral loads from one side of the building to the other, thereby disrupting overturning and muffling axial tensile effects in the columns.

It was mentioned that damping may also be an issue with the design as a result of the light weight, with the building requiring an imposed higher damping coefficient in order to offset ringing and vibrations under loading and unloading cycles. The option of installing damping devices may thus be worth exploring as a way of maintaining precise motion control. This would entail deeper levels of dynamic analysis and further research into the vibration characteristics of wood. The ultimate word on the design here is that the building is effectively very stiff, as a result of the shear walls, floors, and light weight-to-dimensions ratio. Thus, it would perform very well under lateral loading but may require added damping effects. This can be compared to corresponding steel and concrete designs, which are quite heavy but gain their stiffness from their material properties.

Ultimately, these materials experience the same overturning problem showcased in this timber design.

## 6.2 Areas for Future Work

Future work on the structural front would inevitably involve more attention to the dynamic properties of the building, which is as much a function of the geographic location of the building as it is of its inherent behavior. Specifically, such work would address the overturning issue and obscured load path of the proposed structural system, with some investigation into the redundancy of the system, which was not covered enough here. Also, a time history study of the building under cyclical loading at periods around the fundamental and higher periods of the building would be essential to a full understanding of the possibility of using timber in this project application. One aspect of possible research would be to investigate the integration of other materials into the timber structure to create the most efficient lateral load-resisting design. An example could be the use of concrete or even composites in plywood shear walls, which might mitigate buckling or overturning concerns, especially if the walls are heavy and strong enough to be load-bearing as well.

Along the same lines, studies on human comfort and perception issues with the dynamic response of the timber building would also shed more light on the effectiveness of using wood in an office space environment. Finally, much more work needs to be done on the topic of transferring known construction methods for wooden frame residential applications to the medium-rise office building application laid forth here. Indeed, installation, connections, detailing, and wood treating are all topics integral to the success of timber building that have been refined for quite a while as applied to low-rise residential units. Building higher, however, presents new challenges for moving pieces and building elements on top of one another that have not been practiced much to the scale implied in this feasibility study, at least recently.

The main areas for future work that would complete the structural feasibility study for the ten-story timber office building can thus be classified as such:

- Guarding against overturning
- Time history behavior
- Use of hybrid materials
- Human response
- Applicability of current residential construction methods

Still, this feasibility study represents a starting point to the process of studying timber as an alternative structural material. It has answered many questions with regard to practicality, strength, deflection, and constructability. It has also raised important questions with regard to weight-to-stiffness ratio and stability. Relevant work would build on the concepts set forth here and continue in the same spirit of initiative, efficiency, and imagination.

## 7. Conclusions

This feasibility study has shown that structurally a ten-story office building can be constructed entirely out of timber, using only trace amounts of concrete and steel for the floor slabs, foundations, and connections. It has not attempted to explore the many other issues that limit the proliferation of this kind of structure. Such issues, like fire control, functionality, and cost, deserve great attention and are currently being researched across the globe. Still, the study has shown that wood is a suitable material for large building applications and exhibits considerable strength properties. Deflections can be controlled and kept well within allowable limits, while the high stiffness of the timber system gives it some advantages for environmental cyclical loading as well as disadvantages in terms of overturning.

Increasingly, designers are tapping into the potential of wood as a structural material in many applications formerly reserved for steel and concrete. This is the result of greater environmental awareness and an overwhelming sense of monotony with the same materials. Certain countries have taken the lead with promoting wood specifically for its role as a clean, alternative material – Sweden, New Zealand, and Japan, to name a few.<sup>42</sup> What currently stands in the way of wood having a significant impact on the corporate architecture world is the absence of new, breakthrough timber projects that receive the kind of attention paid to works by the most important modern architects and engineers. The existence of such projects would lead to greater understanding of and trust in wood for this kind of office application, which in turn would win timber a larger place in the code books, where it is currently restricted to the low-rise residential sector.<sup>43</sup> This study has aimed to set a precedent in this path by proposing a design that may at this moment cause incredulity but may eventually describe the standard.



**Figure 18 – Proposed Design for a Wooden Structure Building (courtesy of Takenaka Corporation)**

<sup>42</sup> “Multi-Storey Timber Frame: TF 2000.” Brick Development Association, 2005. <<http://www.brick.org.uk/innovation/Innovation.htm>>. April 20, 2005.

<sup>43</sup> *Uniform Building Code*.

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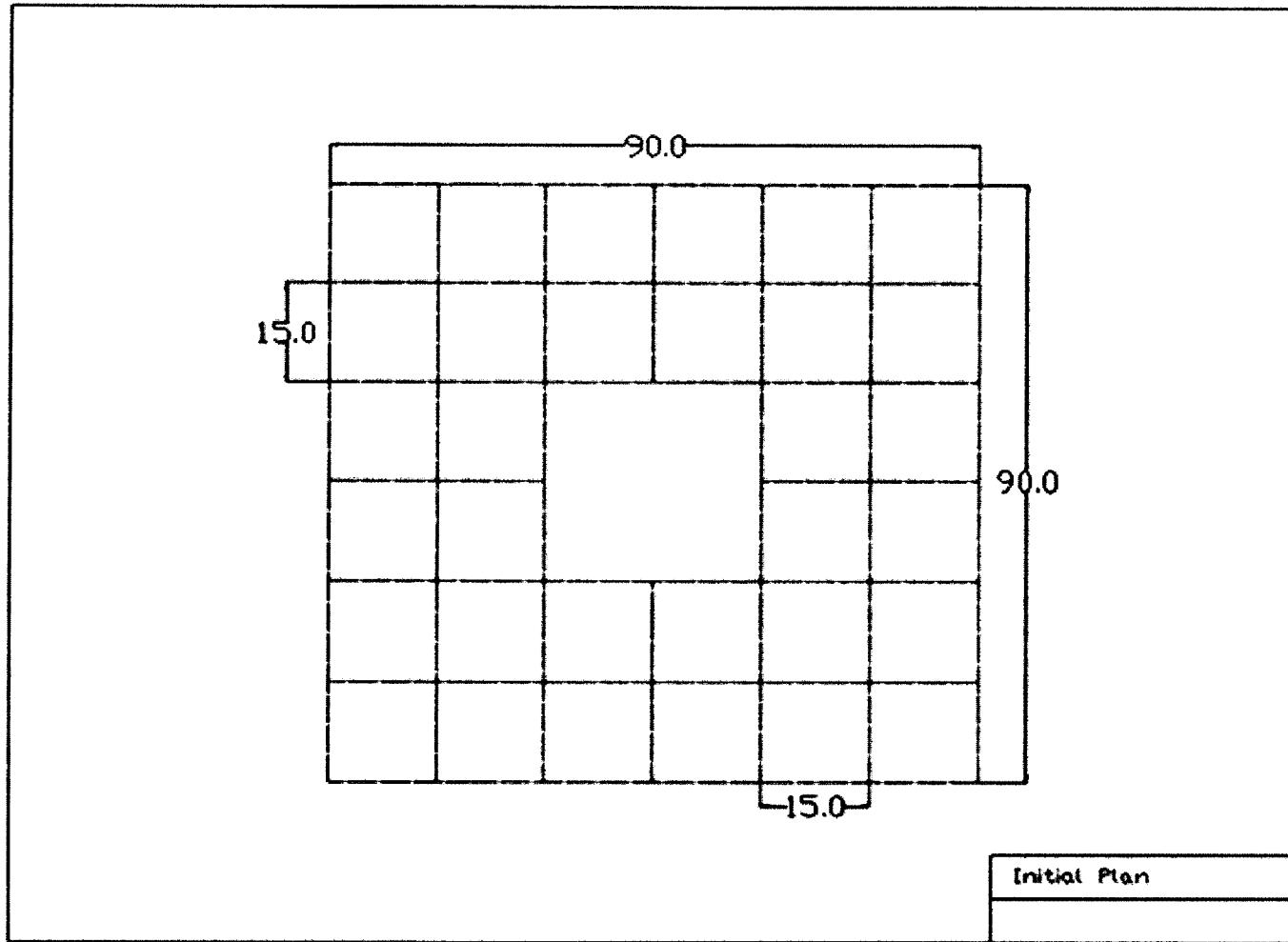
*Interviews:*

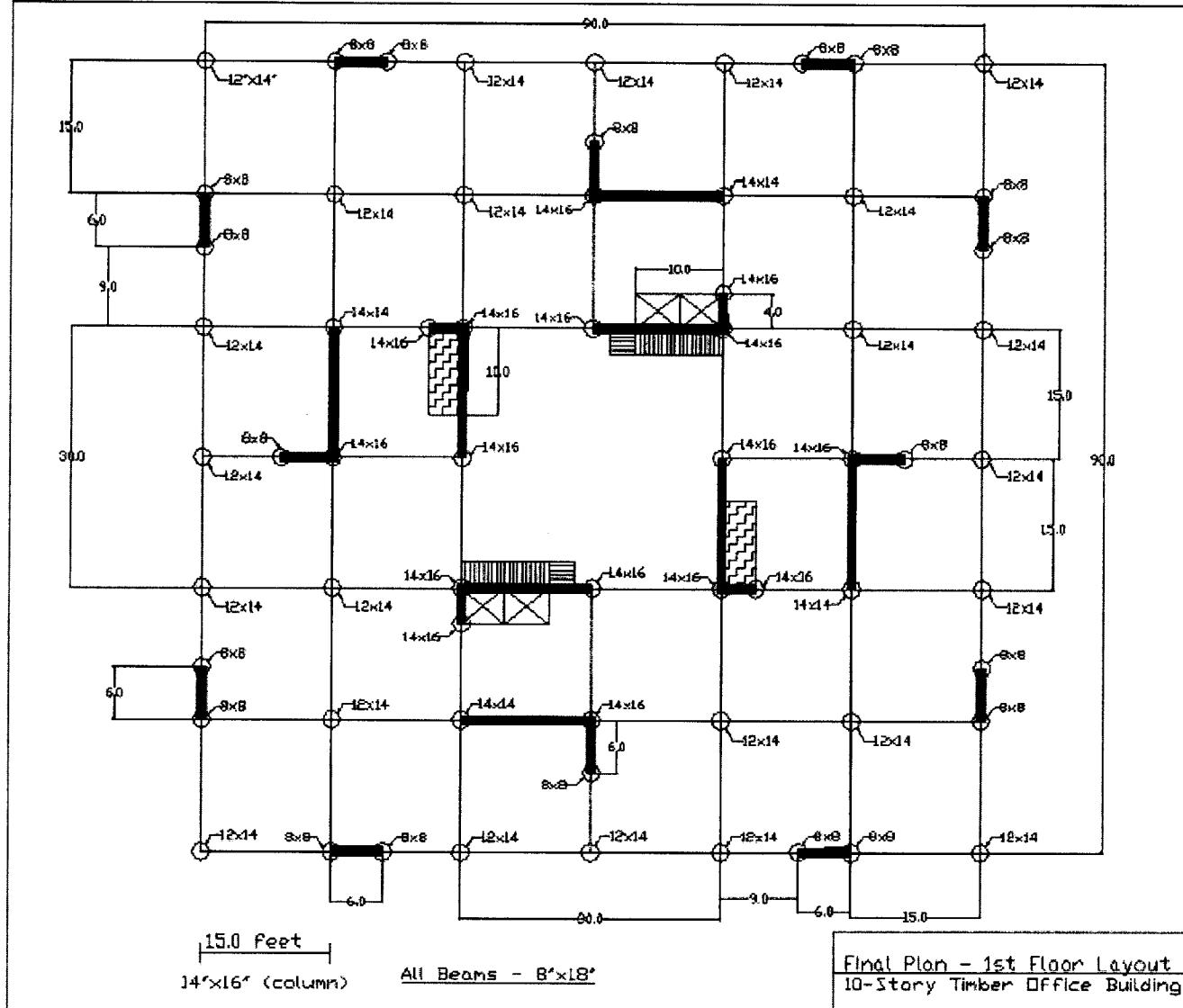
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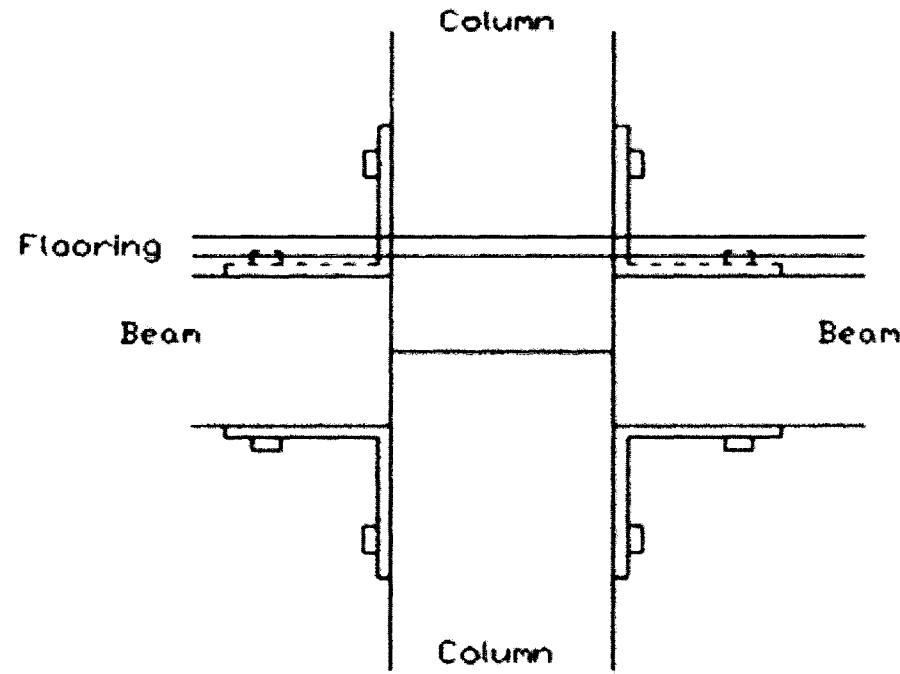
## **9. Appendix**

- A. Building Plans and Connection Detail**
- B. Column Sizing Without Shear Walls and Beam Sizing**
- C. Shear Wall Design**
- D. Final Column Sizing Considering Shear Walls**
- E. Floor Slab Design**
- F. Final Member Sizing Summary**
- G. SAP2000 Data Results**
- H. SAP2000 Input File – Case of 1.2” Wooden Floors**

#### A. Building Plans and Connection Detail







Cross-Sectional View of Typical  
Beam to Column Connection  
10-Story Timber Office  
Building Study

## B. Column Sizing Without Shear Walls and Beam Sizing

### Loads Values Considering Preliminary Beam and Column Designs

LOADS - Iterated with Beam and Column Dead Loads		
<i>Live</i>		
Office Floor	80 psf	
<i>Lateral</i>		
Wind	30 psf	
<i>Dead</i>		
15' Beams	(from Breyer, Ex. 2.1)	
No. of beams	20.964 plf	
Total Load	56	
Office Space Area	15848.78 lb	
Beams - Dist. Load	6804 ft^2	
13' Columns	2.33 psf	
Average No. of Columns	32.144 plf	
Total Load	24 total columns - 48, but sizes should decrease for increasing stories	
Office Space Area	15429.12 lb	
Columns - Dist. Load	6804 ft^2	
Floor	2.27 psf	
Roof		(includes: lightweight concrete covering 1.5in thick at 100lb/ft^3, 1-1/8in plywood, partitions, and walls)
	42 psf	
	17 psf	(includes roofing, re-roofing, ceiling, insulation, etc.)
	63.60 psf	
No roof	46.60 psf	
LRFD	=	1.2*wD+1.6wL
		Floor Only -> LRFD - 1.2D+1.6L
	=	183.92 psf
		Floor and Roof (10th Floor) -> LRFD
	=	204.32 psf

## Column Design – Final Non-Shear Wall Column Dimensions

Number of Floors		Office Floor Space		Window Space per Floor		Floor Load		Ultimate Stress of Wood	
n	10	Total per floor	7200 ft^2	Total per floor	4680 ft^2	Floors 1-9	183.92 psf 204.32 psf	Fc E	2 ksi 1700 ksi
Without top floor	9					Floor 10			
h	13 ft								

**Plan 3 - Final Columns (no Shear Walls):**

24	exterior columns
8	interior columns around atrium
16	floor columns
<u>48</u>	Total columns

Span = 15 ft

Tributary Area per Column = 150 ft^2

Axial Force on 1st Floor Column = 278934.58 lb  
278.93 kips

### AXIAL STRESS ANALYSIS

Necessary cross-sectional area:

139.47 in^2  
0.97 ft^2

side= 11.81 in  
0.98 ft

Axial Force on 10th Floor Column = 30647.46 lb  
30.65 kips

Necessary cross-sectional area:

15.32 in^2  
0.11 ft^2

side= 3.91 in  
0.33 ft

> Net Floor Space:  
1st floor Reduction = 51.75 ft^2  
10th floor Reduction = 7193.58 ft^2

Choose 12"x14" (A=155.250in^2, S=349.313in^3, I=2357.859in^4)  
Douglas fir standard dressed size (bxd)  
A 1.0781 ft^2  
b 0.96 ft  
d 1.13 ft  
weight 35pcf  
32.144 pcf

> Net Window Space:  
1st floor Reduction = 351.00 ft^2  
10th floor Reduction = 4578.22 ft^2

### Corresponding Glulam Dimensions:

Use one 10.75in width sections  
Use depth of 13.5in, needs nine 1.5in laminations  
Total Area = 145.1 in^2  
Douglas Fir 35.3 lb/ft

### BUCKLING ANALYSIS (assuming PIN ends), 1st Floor Column, 12x14

length	h	13 ft
length-eff	Le	13 ft
dimension	d	0.96 ft

And for Floor 10:

Choose 4"x6" (A=19.250in^2, S=17.646in^3, I=48.526in^4)

Slenderness ratio	Le/d	13.57 > 11, so the column is not "short"
Intermediate factor	K	19.56 (from Faherty and Williamson, eq. 3.2, K = 0.671(E/Fc)^0.5)

Douglas fir standard dressed size (bxd)

A	0.1337 ft^2
b	0.29 ft
d	0.46 ft
weight	35pcf 4.679 pcf

Since Le/d is less than K, the column is "intermediate".

Euler Stress Fc 1.85 ksi <<Fc = Fc \* (1-1/3(Le/d/K)^4)

Actual Stress fc 1.80 ksi GOOD

### COMBINED LOADING ANALYSIS (eccentric loading), 1st Floor Column, 12x14

eccentricity	e	2.00 ft
dimension	d	0.96 ft

### BUCKLING ANALYSIS (assuming PIN ends), 10th Floor Column, 4x6

Bending Stress	F'b	2.00 ksi
For Le/d>K	J	0.30 (from J = (Le/d-11)/(K-11))
	Max J	1.00

Slenderness ratio	Le/d	44.57 > 11, so the column is not "short"
Intermediate factor	K	19.56 (from Faherty and Williamson, eq. 3.2)

Table 3.2 (Faherty and Williamson):

Allowable Axial Stress fc >> fc/Fc + (fc(6+1.5J)(e/d))/(F'b-J\*fc) < 1  
solving,

$$1.00 \quad \max f_c = 0.11 \text{ ksi}$$

Axial Load 15.78 kips

< If there is an eccentricity of 2 ft, then the column above can take only 15 kips.

CHOOSE 12x14 for 1st Floor

Since Le/d is more than K, the column is "long".

Euler Stress	Fc	0.26 ksi
Actual Stress	fc	1.59 ksi N.G.

Using 6x10

A	0.36 ft^2
d	0.458333333 ft
Fc	0.63 ksi
fc	0.59 ksi

GOOD

## Initial Beam Design

Number of Floors		Office Floor Space					
n	10						
Without top floor							
h							
	13 ft	Total per floor	7200 ft^2				
<b>Plan 3 - Main Beams:</b>							
Spans =	15 ft						
Main Beams:	80 Total main beams						
15' Beams:							
Tributary area per beam =	90 ft^2						
<b>1st Floor &gt;</b>							
Load per Beam:							
Beam length = L =	15 ft						
Load on Beam =	16.55 kips						
w = Wd + WI =	1.10 k/ft						
WI =	0.77 k/ft						
Expected Moment = wL^2/8 =	31.04						
<b>DEFLECTION ANALYSIS</b>							
L/240 - total load	0.75 in						
I-min	985.85 in^4						
	<<I = 5w(L^4)/(384*E*delta)						
L/360 - live load	0.50 in						
I-min	1029.18 in^4						
Necessary cross-sectional area:							
Table A.2 (Faherty and Williamson):	Choose 8"x14" (S=227.813in^3, I=1537.734in^4)						
	Douglas fir	standard dressed size (bxd)					
	35pcf						
	24.809 plf						
<b>Glulam Design:</b>							
Table A.5 (Faherty and Williamson):							
Use 8.75in wide section>>>							
No. of 1.5in laminations	8						
depth d	12						
I, in^4	1200						
weight, douglas fir, lb/ft^3	25.5						
<b>10th Floor &gt;</b>							
Load per Beam:							
Beam length = L =	15 ft						
Load on Beam =	18.39 kips						
w = Wd + WI =	1.23 k/ft						
WI =	0.77 k/ft						
<b>DEFLECTION ANALYSIS</b>							
L/240 - total load	0.75 in						
I-min	1095.20 in^4						
	<<I = 5w(L^4)/(384*E*delta)						
L/300 - live load	0.60 in						
I-min	857.65 in^4						
Necessary cross-sectional area:							
Table A.2 (Faherty and Williamson):	Choose 8"x14" (S=227.813in^3, I=1537.734in^4)						
	Douglas fir	standard dressed size (bxd)					
	35pcf						
	24.809 plf						
<b>Glulam Design:</b>							
Table A.5 (Faherty and Williamson):							
Use 8.75in wide section>>>							
No. of 1.5in laminations	8						
depth d	12						
I, in^4	1200						
weight, douglas fir, lb/ft^3	25.5						

## Final Beam Design – Iterated for Axial Load from Wind Loading

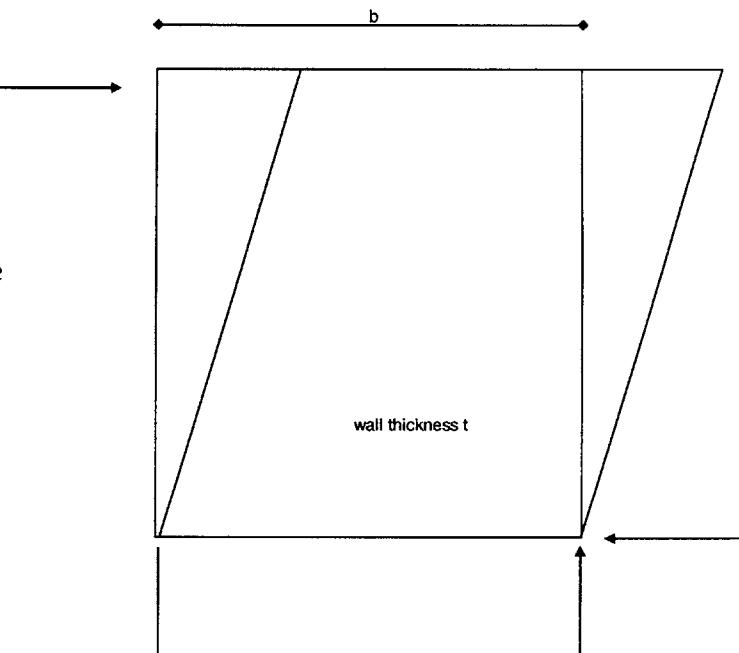
Re-examining Beams for Combined Loading						
<b>Beams:</b> Are actually beam-columns - subjected to both floor loads and lateral loads						
1st floor:	L b d I S w P	15 ft 8 in 14 in 1537.7 in^4 227.81 in^3 1.1585 k/ft 45.63 kips	10th floor:	L b d I S w P	15 ft 8 in 14 in 1537.7 in^4 227.81 in^3 1.1585 k/ft 45.63 kips	
	fb fc	1.7163 ksi 0.4074 ksi		fb fc	1.7163 ksi 0.4074 ksi	
COMBINED LOADING ANALYSIS:						
Pin Ends:						
Le d Le/d K E Fc J max J	15 ft 0.6667 ft 22.5 $19.563 = 0.671 * (E/Fc)^{0.5}$ 1700 ksi 2 ksi $1.343 = ((Le/d) - 1) / (K - 1)$ 1					
F'c F'b	1.0074 ksi 2.1 ksi					
criteria	1 > $fc/Fc + fb / (F'b - J*fc)$ 1.4184 N.G.					
Try:	L b d I S w P	15 ft 8 in 18 in 3349.6 in^4 382.81 in^3 1.1585 k/ft 54 kips	10th floor:	L b d I S w P	15 ft 8 in 18 in 3349.6 in^4 382.81 in^3 1.1585 k/ft 54 kips	
	fb fc	1.0213 ksi 0.375 ksi		fb fc	1.0213 ksi 0.375 ksi	
	Le d Le/d K E Fc J max J	15 ft 0.8333 ft 18 $19.563 = 0.671 * (E/Fc)^{0.5}$ 1700 ksi 2 ksi $0.8175 = ((Le/d) - 1) / (K - 1)$ 1		<b>&lt;&lt; NEW BEAM DIMENSIONS:</b> 1st Floor: b 8 in 28.255 lb/ft d 18 in I 3349.6 in^4 S 382.81 in^3  10th Floor: b 8 in 31.901 lb/ft d 18 in I 3349.6 in^4 S 382.81 in^3		
F'c F'b	1.5741 ksi 2.1 ksi					
criteria	1 > $fc/Fc + fb / (F'b - J*fc)$ 0.8303 O.K.					
	criteria 1 > $fc/Fc + fb / (F'b - J*fc)$ 0.8303 O.K.					

## C. Shear Wall Design

### Plywood Shear Wall Sizing: Core

Plywood Shear Walls: Core		
Strength-Based Design		
Height of Floors, $h$	13	ft
Total Building Height, $H$	130	ft
Building Side Dimension	90	ft
Factored Lateral Load due to Wind	39	psf
Wind Load (Vertically Distributed Load)	3510	plf
Total Load on Floor due to Wind (Point Load), $P$	45630	lb
Total Length of Shear Wall in X- or Y-Direction, $b$	38	ft
Height of Shear Walls	13	ft
Total Shear Face Area	494	ft <sup>2</sup>
Wall thicknesses, $t$	t	ft
Total Shear Stress on Walls Distributed, $V$	$P / (b \cdot t)$	psf
	1200.79	plf
Table 8.7 (Faherty and Williamson): Use Structural I plywood grade, 3/8in thick Minimum nail penetration in framing, 1.25in, and 6d nail size Nail spacing at 6in		
Story-Drift Considerations		
Allowable Inter-Story Drift	$h/200$	ft
=	0.78	in
Total Building Displacement	$H/200$	ft
	7.8	in
UBC Code, Volume 3		
$\delta = 12((\theta^*V^*h^3) / (E^*A^*b)) + (V^*h) / (G^*t) + 0.75^*h^*e-n + h/b^*d-a < 0.78^*$		
Max. Shear due to design loads at top of wall	$V = P/b$	lb/ft
Area of boundary element cross section	$A$	in <sup>2</sup>
Wall height	$h$	ft
Wall width	$b$	ft
Deflection due to anchorage details	$d-a$	0.10 Educated guess
Modulus of rigidity of plywood	$G$	lb/in <sup>2</sup>
Effective thickness of plywood for shear	$t$	in
Nail deformation	$e-n$	?
Young's Modulus	$E$	psi
	0.05 (from Table 8.2)	
	1700000.00	
<input type="text" value="t-min"/> in	<input type="text" value="0.76"/>	<<Requires 3 sheets of 3/8" plywood >> Would rather use even number of sheets >> Choose 4 sheets of 1/4" plywood

## Plywood Shear Wall Sizing – Interior and Exterior

Plywood Shear Walls: Exteriors																																																		
Strength-Based Design																																																		
Height of Floors, h	13.00	ft																																																
Total Building Height, H	130.00	ft																																																
Building Side Dimension	90.00	ft																																																
Factored Lateral Load due to Wind	39.00	psf																																																
Wind Load (Vertically Distributed Load)	501.43	plf																																																
Total Load on Floor due to Wind (Point Load), P	6518.57	lb																																																
Total Length of Shear Wall in X- or Y-Direction, b	15.00	ft																																																
Height of Shear Walls	13.00	ft																																																
Total Shear Face Area	195.00	ft^2																																																
Wall thicknesses, t	t	ft																																																
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UBC Code, Volume 3:																																																		
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<table style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <thead> <tr> <th style="text-align: left;"></th> <th style="text-align: center;">15ft Bays</th> <th style="text-align: center;">12ft Bays</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>Max. Shear due to design loads at top of wall</td> <td>V = P/b</td> <td>lb/ft</td> <td>434.57</td> <td>543.21</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Area of boundary element cross section</td> <td>A</td> <td>in^2</td> <td>132.20 (Column Size - 12x12)</td> <td>132.20</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Wall height</td> <td>h</td> <td>ft</td> <td>13.00</td> <td>13.00</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Wall width</td> <td>b</td> <td>ft</td> <td>15.00</td> <td>12.00</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Deflection due to anchorage details</td> <td>d-a</td> <td></td> <td>0.10 Educated guess</td> <td>0.10</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Modulus of rigidity of plywood</td> <td>G</td> <td>lb/in^2</td> <td>90000.00 (UBC Table 23-2-J)</td> <td>90000.00</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Effective thickness of plywood for shear</td> <td>t</td> <td>in</td> <td>?</td> <td>?</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Nail deformation</td> <td>e-n</td> <td>in</td> <td>0.05 (from Table 8.2)</td> <td>0.05</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Young's Modulus</td> <td>E</td> <td>psi</td> <td>1700000.00</td> <td>1700000.00</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>				15ft Bays	12ft Bays	Max. Shear due to design loads at top of wall	V = P/b	lb/ft	434.57	543.21	Area of boundary element cross section	A	in^2	132.20 (Column Size - 12x12)	132.20	Wall height	h	ft	13.00	13.00	Wall width	b	ft	15.00	12.00	Deflection due to anchorage details	d-a		0.10 Educated guess	0.10	Modulus of rigidity of plywood	G	lb/in^2	90000.00 (UBC Table 23-2-J)	90000.00	Effective thickness of plywood for shear	t	in	?	?	Nail deformation	e-n	in	0.05 (from Table 8.2)	0.05	Young's Modulus	E	psi	1700000.00	1700000.00
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## Plywood Shear Wall Buckling Check

### Shear Wall Buckling

Assuming Pin Ends, Whole Section, Entire Length:

	15ft	12ft	38ft	E, ksi	1700
t, in	1.50	0.73	1.75		
Longest Wall Width, ft	15	6	15		
Le for pinned ends	15	6	15		
V, Shear per length, lb/ft	434.57	543.21	600.39		
S, Total Shear at Top, lb	6518.57	3259.29	9005.92		
Le/d	120.00	98.63	102.86		
F'c = 0.3E/(L/d)^2, ksi	0.04	0.05	0.05		
h, height, ft	13	13	13		
A, area, ft^2	1.63	0.79	1.90		
Q, allowable shear, lb	8287.50	5970.33	13160.24		

### Necessary t, in (by iteration)

	1.5	0.73	1.75

Assuming Fixed Ends, 1ft Section, Necessary Length as cut by studs:

	15ft	12ft	38ft	E, ksi	1700
t, in	1.50	0.73	1.75		
Longest Wall Width, ft	7.5	3	7.5 <<Necessary length as provided by stud placement		
Le for fixed ends	3.75	1.5	3.75		
V, Shear per length, lb/ft	434.57	543.21	600.39		
S, Total Shear at Top, lb	6518.57	3259.29	9005.92		
Le/d	30.00	24.66	25.71		
F'c = 0.3E/(L/d)^2, ksi	0.57	0.84	0.77		
h, height, ft	1	1	1 <<1ft section as opposed to entire 13ft section		
A, area, ft^2	0.13	0.06	0.15		
Q, allowable shear, lb	10200.00	7348.10	16197.22		

### Desired t, in (by iteration)

	1.5	0.73	1.75

### Braced Frame Analogy

Each chord takes the angle of the shear

Angle = atan ( h / w)	0.71	1.14	0.71 radians
Axial Comp = Tens chord	4313.00	3888.82	5958.75 lbs
diagonal length	19.85	14.32	19.85 ft

Smith & Coull:

$$A-d = t^2 w^*(.25+B) / (\sin(\text{angle}))^{.3}, \text{ where } B = (h^2/(16w^2(1+\text{poisson})))$$

Area of brace analogy	1.90	0.23	2.22 ft^2
Square side	16.56	5.75	17.89 in

Euler Buckling critical load =  $\pi^2 E I / (L^2)$ , for pinned ends  
 1852925.3 51721.8114 2522037.16 lbs

OK

## Shear Wall Chord Reaction Forces

Shearwall Reactions						
Summary -						
Max. Shear due to design loads at top of wall	V = P/b	lb/ft	<u>15ft</u> 434.57		<u>12ft</u> 543.21	<u>38ft</u> 1200.79
Area of boundary element cross section	A	in^2	132.20	(Column Size - 12x12 nominal)	132.20	132.20
Wall height	h	ft	13		13	13
Wall width	b	ft	15		12	38
Deflection due to anchorage details	d-a	in	0.10	Educated guess	0.10	0.10
Modulus of rigidity of plywood	G	lb/in^2	90000.00	(UBC Table 23-2-J)	90000.00	90000.00
Effective thickness of plywood for shear	t	in	?		?	?
Nail deformation	e-n	in	0.05	(from Table 8.2)	0.05	0.05
Young's Modulus	E	psi	1700000		1700000	1700000
	t-min	in	1.50		0.73	1.75
Density of wood	rho	lb/in^3	0.017			
Weight of Shear Wall	w-p	lb	716.04	lb	278.78 lb	2116.30 lb
Overturning Moment:						
for b>>	M = V * b * h					
	84741.43	lb-ft			84741.43 lb-ft	593190.00 lb-ft
Chord Forces:						
T = C = M / b = V * h						
	5649.43 lb				7061.79 lb	15610.26 lb
	5.65 kips				7.06 kips	15.61 kips
Adding weight of Shear Walls and Reactions:	6.37 kips				7.34 kips	17.73 kips
<< These vertical loads are transferred to columns and shear walls						
Number of supporting columns:	2				2	6
Number Shared with another s.w.:	1 (with 12ft s.w.)			0 or 2	(with 15ft s.w.)	4 (with 38ft s.w.)
Extra Load Per Column:	3.18 kips				3.67 kips	2.95 kips
Extra Load per Shared Column:	6.85 kips				6.85 kips	5.91 kips

## D. Final Column Sizing Considering Shear Walls

### Column Design – Considering Shear Wall Forces

	Number of Floors n Without top floor	Office Floor Space Total per floor h ft	Window Space per Floor Total per floor	Floor Load Floors 1-9 Floor 10	Ultimate Stress of Wood psf E 2 ksi 1700 ksi	
Plan 4:						
24 exterior columns			Span =	15 ft		
8 interior columns around atrium						
16 floor columns						
<u>48 Total columns</u>						
Tributary Area per Column =	150 ft^2					
Shared, 38ft Shearwall Columns:			Shared, 15ft-12ft Shearwall Columns:		Unshared, Shearwall Columns, GENERAL:	
Number Extra Load	4 5.91 kips		Number Extra Load	2 6.85 kips	Largest Extra Load	3.67 kips
Axial Force on 1st Floor Column =	332114.26 lb 332.11 kips		Axial Force on 1st Floor Column =	340611.72 lb 340.61 kips	Axial Force:	311967.12 lb 311.97 kips
AXIAL STRESS ANALYSIS			AXIAL STRESS ANALYSIS		Area Need	155.98 in^2 1.08 ft^2
Necessary cross-sectional area:	166.06 in^2 1.15 ft^2		Necessary cross-sectional area:	170.31 in^2 1.18 ft^2		
side=	12.89 in 1.07 ft		side=	13.05 in 1.09 ft	side=	12.49 in 1.04 ft
Choose 14"x20" (A=263.250in^2, S=855.563in^3, I=8341.734in^4) Douglas fir standard dressed size (bxd)			Choose 10"x22" (A=204.250in^2, S=731.896in^3, I=7867.879in^4) Douglas fir standard dressed size (bxd)		Choose 14"x14" (A=182.250in^2, S=410.063in^3, I=2767.922in^4) Douglas fir standard dressed size (bxd)	
A 1.83 ft^2			A 1.42 ft^2		A 1.27 ft^2	
side: b 1.125 ft			side: b 0.79 ft		side: b 1.13 ft	
d 1.63 ft			d 1.79 ft		d 1.13 ft	
> weight 35.00pcf 63.98 plf			weight 35.00pcf 49.64 plf		weight 35.00pcf 44.30 plf	
Choose 10"x22" (A=204.250in^2, S=731.896in^3, I=7867.879in^4) Douglas fir standard dressed size (bxd)			Choose 14"x16" (A=209.250in^2, S=540.563in^3, I=4189.359in^4) Douglas fir standard dressed size (bxd)			
A 1.42 ft^2			A 1.45 ft^2			
side: b 0.79 ft			side: b 1.125 ft			
d 1.79 ft			d 1.29 ft			
> weight 35.00pcf 49.64 plf			weight 35.00pcf 50.86 plf			
Corresponding Glulam Dimensions:			Corresponding Glulam Dimensions:			
Use one 10.75in width section			Use one 10.75in width section			
Use depth of 27in, needs eighteen 1.5in laminations			Use depth of 18in, needs twelve 1.5in laminations			
Total Area: 290.3 in^2			Total Area = 193.5 in^2			
Douglas F 70.5 lb/ft			Douglas Fir 47 lb/ft			
> Net Floor Space:	7112.25 ft^2		Net Floor Space:	7131.92 ft^2		
1st floor Reduction = 87.75 ft^2			1st floor Reduction = 68.08 ft^2			
> Net Window Space:	4329.00 ft^2		Net Window Space:	4433.00 ft^2		
1st floor Reduction = 351.00 ft^2			1st floor Reduction = 247.00 ft^2			

**continued**

BUCKLING ANALYSIS (assuming PIN ends), 1st Floor Column, using 14x20					BUCKLING ANALYSIS (assuming PIN ends), 1st Floor Column, using 10x22				
length	h	13	ft		length	h	13	ft	
length-eff	Le	13	ft		length-eff	Le	13	ft	
dimension	d	1.125	ft		dimension	d	0.79166667	ft	
Slenderness ratio	Le/d	11.56	> 11, so the column is not "short"		Slenderness ratio	Le/d	16.42	> 11, so the column is not "short"	
Intermediate factor	K	19.56	(from Faherty and Williamson, eq. 3.2, K = 0.671(E/Fc)^0.5)		Intermediate factor	K	19.56	(from Faherty and Williamson, eq. 3.2, K = 0.671(E/Fc)^0.5)	
Since Le/d is less than K, the column is "intermediate"									
Euler Stress	F'c	1.92	ksi	<<F'c = Fc * (1-1/3(Le/d/K))	Euler Stress	F'c	1.67	ksi	
Actual Stress	fc	1.26	ksi	GOOD	Actual Stress	fc	1.67	ksi	N.G.
Using 14x16 >>									
COMBINED LOADING ANALYSIS (eccentric loading), 1st Floor Column, using 14x20					Euler Actual 1.92 1.63 GOOD				
eccentricity	e	2	ft		eccentricity	e	2	ft	
dimension	d	1.125	ft		dimension	d	1.125	ft	
Bending Stress	F'b	2	ksi		Bending Stress	F'b	2	ksi	
For Le/d<K	J	0.06	(from J = (Le/d-11)/(K-11) )		For Le/d<K	J	0.06	(from J = (Le/d-11)/(K-11) )	
Max J	1				Max J	1			
Table 3.2 (Faherty and Williamson):					Table 3.2 (Faherty and Williamson):				
Allowable Axial Stress	fc	>>	fc/F'c+(fc(6+1.5J)*e/d)/(F'b-J*fc)<1	solving,	Allowable Axial Stress	fc	>>	fc/F'c+(fc(6+1.5J)*e/d)/(F'b-J*fc)<1	solving,
		1.00	max fc = 0.1675 ksi				1	max fc = 0.16749 ksi	
			Axial Load 27.812 kips					Axial Load 28.5241 kips	
< If there is an eccentricity of 2 ft, then the column above can take only 28 kips									
< If there is an eccentricity of 2 ft, then the column above can take only 29 kips									
COMBINED LOADING ANALYSIS (Over-Turning Moment loading), 1st Floor Column					COMBINED LOADING ANALYSIS (Over-Turning Moment loading), 1st Floor Column, using 14x16				
Axial Load	f	332.11	kips		Axial Load	f	340.61	kips	
Area	A	263.25	in^2		Area	A	209.25	in^2	
Axial Stress	fc	1.26	ksi		Axial Stress	fc	1.63	ksi	
Height	h	13	ft		Height	h	13	ft	
dimension	d	1.125	ft		dimension	d	1.125	ft	
Section Modulus	S	855.56	in^3		Section Modulus	S	855.56	in^3	
Bending Strength	F'b	2.00	ksi		Bending Strength	F'b	2.00	ksi	
For Le/d<K	J	0.06	(from J = (Le/d-11)/(K-11) )		For Le/d<K	J	0.06	(from J = (Le/d-11)/(K-11) )	
Max J	1.00				Max J	1.00			
Table 3.2 (Faherty and Williamson):					Table 3.2 (Faherty and Williamson):				
Allowable Axial Stress	fc	>>	fc/F'c+fb/(F'b-J*fc)<1	solving,	Allowable Axial Stress	fc	>>	fc/F'c+fb/(F'b-J*fc)<1	solving,
		0.98	max fb = 0.63 ksi				0.97	max fb = 0.24 ksi	
			Lateral Point Load 41.21 kips					Lateral Point Load 15.49 kips	
< Maximum amount of lateral load the largest column can take at its top									
< Maximum amount of lateral load the largest column can take at its top									

## Addition of End Columns to All Shear Walls

(Only after a point was it realized that each shear wall needs two end columns. This results in the need for smaller column areas where before one column held the load that in the end actually two should hold.)

### PLAN 5: Adding Columns to Shear Wall Ends

Shear Walls need to be supported at both sides with a column to take their vertical reactions.

#### Shear Walls:

Height	13 ft
Exterior:	8 total
Length per wall	6 ft
Length per side	12 ft
Plywood Thickness	0.73 in
Columns per side	4

>> There used to be only 2 columns, each being 14"x16", compared to the 12"x12" non-shear wall exterior columns  
Now there are twice as many columns, so the dimensions for each can be half of the original dimension:

$$\begin{array}{lll} 7 \times 8 \text{ columns} \\ \text{CHOOSE} \rightarrow 8 \times & b & 8 \text{ in} \\ & d & 8 \text{ in} \end{array}$$

>> There used to be 6 15ft span beams along each exterior side  
Now there will be 4 15ft spans, 2 9ft spans, and 2 6ft spans over the shear walls  
Preserve beam sections - 8"x16" for first floor - for all beams

#### Interior Middle "Lines":

Length per wall	6 ft
Length per "line"	12 ft
Plywood Thickness	0.73 in
Columns per line	4

>> There used to be only 2 columns, each being 14"x16" due to their shared loads with the 15ft shear walls.  
The non-shear wall floor columns are only 12"x12".  
Now there are twice as many columns, so the dimensions for each can be half of the original dimension:  
But one is shared with an "inner" shear wall and must stay 14"x16". So, for the other:

$$\begin{array}{lll} 7 \times 8 \text{ columns} \\ \text{CHOOSE} \rightarrow 8 \times & b & 8 \text{ in} \\ & d & 8 \text{ in} \end{array}$$

>> There used to be 4 15ft span beams along each line  
Now there will be 2 15ft spans, 2 9ft spans, and 2 6ft spans over the shear walls

#### Inner:

Length per wall	15 ft
Length per side	15 ft
Plywood Thickness	1.5 in
Columns per side	2

>> There used to be only 2 columns, one being 14"x16" due to its shared load with the 12ft shear walls, and the other 14"x14".  
There is no change now in the number of supporting columns, so no dimensions change.

#### Core "Double-Lines":

Length per wall	15 ft
OR	4 ft
Length per "line"	38 ft
Plywood Thickness	1.75 in
Columns per line	8

>> There used to be only 6 columns, each being 14"x20" due to their shared or non-shared loads with the 38ft shear walls.  
Now there is an extra column per line.

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{Total extra load per column:} & 2,6661 \text{ kips} \\ \text{Maximum shared extra load per column:} & 5,3322 \text{ kips} \\ \text{Required Area:} & 177,6 \text{ in}^2 \end{array}$$

So, the size can be downgraded to 14"x16", based on combined loading considerations:

$$\text{Area} \quad 209,25 \text{ in}^2$$

All columns in the core layout will be 14"x16"

>> For a whole line, there used to be 6 15ft span beams along each line  
Now there will be 5 15ft spans, 1 11ft spans, and 1 4ft span over the short shear wall

#### Floor Slabs:

Span, both directions	15 ft <sup>2</sup>
Square Area	225 ft <sup>2</sup>
Lightweight Concrete Overlay	1.5 in
Plywood Surface	1.13 in
Joists (2x12):	14 >>USE 2x12s
Spacing	12 in
Girders (2x12):	1, at least >>USE 2x12s

## Shear Wall Chord Reaction Forces Considering Added Columns

Shearwall Reactions						
Summary -						
Max. Shear due to design loads at top of wall	V = P/b	lb/ft	<b>15ft</b> 434.57		<b>12ft</b> 543.21	<b>38ft</b> 1200.79
Area of boundary element cross section	A	in^2	132.20	(Column Size - 12x12 nominal)	132.20	132.20
Wall height	h	ft	13.00		13.00	13.00
Wall width	b	ft	15.00		12.00	38.00
Deflection due to anchorage details	d-a	in	0.10	Educated guess	0.10	0.10
Modulus of rigidity of plywood	G	lb/in^2	90000.00	(UBC Table 23-2-J)	90000.00	90000.00
Effective thickness of plywood for shear	t	in	?		?	?
Nail deformation	e-n	in	0.05	(from Table 8.2)	0.05	0.05
Young's Modulus	E	psi	1700000		1700000	1700000
	t-min	in	1.50		0.73	1.75
Density of wood	rho	lb/in^3	0.017			
Weight of Shear Wall	w-p	lb	716.04	lb	278.78 lb	2116.30 lb
Overturning Moment:						
for b>>	M = V * b * h					
	84741.43	lb-ft			84741.43 lb-ft	593190.00 lb-ft
Chord Forces:						
T = C = M / b = V * h						
	5649.43 lb				7061.79 lb	15610.26 lb
	5.65 kips				7.06 kips	15.61 kips
Adding weight of Shear Walls and Reactions:			6.37 kips		7.34 kips	17.73 kips
<< These vertical loads are transferred to columns and shear walls						
Number of supporting columns:	2			4		8
Number Shared with another s.w.:	1 (with 12ft s.w.)			0 or 2	(with 15ft s.w.)	4 (with 38ft s.w.)
Extra Load Per Column:	3.18 kips			1.84 kips		2.22 kips
Extra Load per Shared Column:	5.02 kips			5.02 kips		4.43 kips



continued

BUCKLING ANALYSIS (assuming PIN ends), 1st Floor Column, using 14x20						BUCKLING ANALYSIS (assuming PIN ends), 1st Floor Column, using 10x22					
length	h	13	ft			length	h	13	ft		
length-eff	Le	13	ft			length-eff	Le	13	ft		
dimension	d	1.125	ft			dimension	d	0.791666667	ft		
Slenderness ratio	Le/d	11.56	> 11, so the column is not "short"			Slenderness ratio	Le/d	16.42	> 11, so the column is not "short"		
Intermediate factor	K	19.56	(from Faherty and Williamson, eq. 3.2, K = 0.671(E/Fc)^0.5)			Intermediate factor	K	19.56	(from Faherty and Williamson, eq. 3.2, K = 0.671(E/Fc)^0.5)		
			Since Le/d is less than K, the column is "intermediate"								
Euler Stress	F'c	1.92	ksi	<<F'c = Fc * (1-1/(Le/d/K))^4		Euler Stress	F'c	1.67	ksi		
Actual Stress	fc	1.21	ksi	GOOD		Actual Stress	fc	1.59	ksi	N.G.	
COMBINED LOADING ANALYSIS (eccentric loading), 1st Floor Column, using 14x20						Using 14x16 >>					
eccentricity	e	2	ft			Euler		1.92			
dimension	d	1.125	ft			Actual		1.55			
Bending Stress	F'b	2	ksi								
For Le/d<K	J	0.06	(from J = (Le/d-11)/(K-11))								
	Max J	1									
Table 3.2 (Faherty and Williamson):											
Allowable Axial Stress	fc	>>	fc/F'c+(fc(6+1.5J)*e/d)/(F'b-J*fc)<1								
			solving,								
	1.000000507		max fc = 0.167487541 ksi								
			Axial Load 26.69913324 kips								
			< If there is an eccentricity of 2 ft, then the column above can take only 28 kips								
COMBINED LOADING ANALYSIS (Over-Turning Moment loading), 1st Floor Column						COMBINED LOADING ANALYSIS (Over-Turning Moment loading), 1st Floor Column, using 14x16					
Axial Load	f	318.82	kips			Axial Load	f	324.10	kips		
Area	A	263.25	in^2			Area	A	209.25	in^2		
Axial Stress	fc	1.21	ksi			Axial Stress	fc	1.55	ksi		
Height	h	13	ft			Height	h	13	ft		
dimension	d	1.125	ft			dimension	d	1.125	ft		
Section Modulus	S	855.56	in^3			Section Modulus	S	855.56	in^3		
Bending Strength	F'b	2.00	ksi			Bending Strength	F'b	2.00	ksi		
For Le/d<K	J	0.06	(from J = (Le/d-11)/(K-11))			For Le/d<K	J	0.06	(from J = (Le/d-11)/(K-11))		
	Max J	1.00									
Table 3.2 (Faherty and Williamson):											
Allowable Axial Stress	fc	>>	fc/F'c+fb/(F'b-J*fc)<1								
			solving,								
	0.96		max fb = 0.63 ksi								
			Lateral Point Load 41.21 kips								
			< Maximum amount of lateral load the largest column can take at its top								
Table 3.2 (Faherty and Williamson):						Table 3.2 (Faherty and Williamson):					
Allowable Axial Stress	fc	>>	fc/F'c+fb/(F'b-J*fc)<1			Allowable Axial Stress	fc	>>	fc/F'c+fb/(F'b-J*fc)<1		
			solving,								
	0.93		max fb = 0.24 ksi								
			Lateral Point Load 15.49 kips								
			< Maximum amount of lateral load the largest column can take at its top								

## E. Floor Slab Design

FLOORS:					
Side A	15 ft				
Side B	15 ft	8 ft	<< Maximum length of slab span to meet deflection requirement, discovered below		
Area	225 ft^2		>		
wD	42 psf		> This can be achieved by using cross-girders (cross-joists) in the floor system		
wL	80 psf		> Also, reduces total amount of load per joist		
w, factored	178.4 psf		> Effect is a larger number of load-carrying joists		
Joists:					
b	2 in		<< Can adjust thickness of joists		
d	12 in				
Spacing	12 in		<< Can adjust spacing		
Number	14				
w, joist	191.143 plf				
Bending Moment Stress	5375.89 lb-ft 1343.97 psi	<< I = 1/12*b*d^3 I, Full Slab 87480000			
E, wood	1700 ksi				
I, wood joists	4032 in^4		<< Can be optimized with I-joists		
E, concrete	3600 ksi				
t, concrete slab	1.5 in				
I, concrete slab	50.625 in^4				
E, eff	2650 ksi				
Deflection	6.49129 in	<<deflct = w*L^4/(384EI)			
L/240, total load	0.75 in				
ITERATION: With Cross-Girders		ITERATION: With One Cross-Girder			
Side A	15 ft		Side A	15 ft	
Side B	15 ft	8 ft	Side B	15 ft	8 ft
Area	225 ft^2		Area	225 ft^2	
wD	42 psf		wD	42 psf	
wL	80 psf		wL	80 psf	
w, factored	178.4 psf		w, factored	178.4 psf	
Joists and Girders:				Joists and Girders:	
b	2 in		b	2 in	
d	12 in		d	12 in	
Spacing	12 in		Spacing	12 in	
Number	28	<<< Same number of cross-girders as main joists = 14	Joists and Girders:	14	
w, joist	95.5714 plf		Girders	1	<<< Only one cross-girder -
Span Length	1 ft		w, joist	191.14 plf	takes no load, only provides
E, wood	1700 ksi		Span Length	7.5 ft	
I, wood joists	8064 in^4	<<< Should be different	E, wood	1700 ksi	
E, concrete	3600 ksi		I, wood joists	4032 in^4	<<< Should be different
t, concrete slab	1.5 in		E, concrete	3600 ksi	
I, concrete slab	50.625 in^4		t, concrete slab	1.5 in	
E, eff	2650 ksi		I, concrete slab	50.625 in^4	
Deflection	6.5E-05 in	<<deflct = w*L^4/(384EI)	E, eff	2650 ksi	
L/240, total load	0.75 in		Deflection	0.4057 in	<<deflct = w*L^4/(384EI)
			L/240, total load	0.75 in	

## F. Final Member Sizing Summary

• Building Dimensions		
▪ Floors	-	n = 10
▪ Height of floors	-	h = 13ft
▪ Total building height	-	H = 130ft
▪ Building length	-	90ft
▪ Building width	-	90ft
▪ Atrium length	-	30ft
▪ Atrium width	-	30ft
• Columns		
▪ Number per floor	-	64
▪ Exterior	-	32
▪ Non-shear wall	-	24
○ 1 <sup>st</sup> Floor Size	-	12"x14" nominal
○ 10 <sup>th</sup> Floor Size	-	6"x10" nominal
▪ Small shear wall columns	-	20
○ 1 <sup>st</sup> Floor Size	-	8"x8" nominal
▪ Medium s.w. columns	-	4
○ 1 <sup>st</sup> Floor Size	-	14"x14" nominal
▪ Large s.w. columns	-	16
○ 1 <sup>st</sup> Floor Size	-	14"x16" nominal
• Beams		
▪ Number of 15ft spans	-	64
▪ Number of 11ft spans	-	4
▪ Number of 9ft spans	-	12
▪ Number of 6ft spans	-	12
▪ Number of 4ft spans	-	4
▪ 1 <sup>st</sup> Floor Size	-	8"x18" nominal
▪ 10 <sup>th</sup> Floor Size	-	8"x18" nominal
• Shear Walls		
▪ Available panel size	-	4'x8'
▪ Number of Exterior, 6ft	-	8
○ Needed thickness per wall	-	0.73"
○ Available	-	0.75" (with two 3/8" sheets)
○ Number of panels needed	-	2
▪ Interior middle lines, 6ft	-	4
○ Needed	-	0.73"
○ Available	-	0.75" (with two 3/8" sheets)
○ Panels needed	-	2
▪ Inner, 15ft	-	4
○ Needed	-	1.5"
○ Available	-	1.5" (with two 3/4" sheets)
○ Panels needed	-	3 or 4
▪ Core, 15ft	-	4
○ Needed	-	1.75"
○ Available	-	2.0" (with four 1/2" sheets)
○ Panels needed	-	3 or 4
▪ Core, 4ft	-	4
○ Needed	-	1.75"
○ Available	-	2.0" (with four 1/2" sheets)
○ Panels needed	-	2
• Floors		
▪ Span, in both directions	-	15ft
▪ Concrete overlay thickness	-	1.5"
▪ Plywood thickness	-	1.125"
▪ Joists	-	14
○ Spacing	-	12"
○ Size	-	2"x12" nominal
▪ Cross-girders	-	2, at least
○ Spacing	-	5'
○ Size	-	2"x12"

## G. SAP2000 Data Results

Regular Wind						
With released columns, not beams, 1' floors						
max (ft)	0.11708	-0.01978	-0.0196	1.40496	-0.23736	-0.2352 (in)
other side	0.08337	0.01385	-0.01406 torsion	1.00044	0.1662	-0.16872
3rd story	0.03118	-0.00275	-0.0098	0.37416	-0.033	-0.1176
2nd story	0.01776	-0.00126	-0.0069	0.21312	-0.01512	-0.0828
Drift	0.01342	-0.00149	-0.0029	0.16104	-0.01788	-0.0348
beam moment	28.79					
Column Tension	31.09	frame 223				
column compression	172.59	frame 215	14x14			
Modes						
1	0.8027 torsion			8	0.2083 wiggle inflection point	
2	0.7876 straight line			7	0.1206 wiggle	
3	0.6838 torsion			8	0.1116 second inflection point	
4	0.2343 wiggle			9	0.1087 third inflection point	
5	0.2239 inflection point			10	0.0971 flex	
Regular Wind						
With released columns, not beams, 0.1' floors = CONTROL CASE						
max (ft)	0.23078	-0.05158	-0.01125	2.76936	-0.61898	-0.135 (in)
other side	0.19678	-0.00761	-0.00777 torsion	2.36136	-0.09132	-0.09324
3rd story	0.0499	-0.0092	-0.00558	0.5988	-0.1104	-0.06696
2nd story	0.0266	-0.00462	-0.00393	0.3192	-0.05544	-0.04716
Drift	0.0233	-0.00458	-0.00165	0.2796	-0.05496	-0.0198
beam moment	36.91					
Column Tension	141.39	frame 223				
column compression	204.46	frame 215	14x14			
Modes						
1	0.8629 torsion			6	0.1349 wiggle inflection point	
2	0.6318 straight line			7	0.0765 wiggle	
3	0.4848 torsion			8	0.0699 second inflection point	
4	0.1632 wiggle			9	0.0661 third inflection point	
5	0.1515 inflection point			10	0.0597 flex	
Max. Moment in Beam	34 kips-ft		<< Criteria = M*y/l < 2ksi		1.195313	GOOD
Max. Axial in Beam	23 kips-ft		<< Expected = 54 kips			GOOD
Regular Wind						
With released columns, not beams, No floors						
max	0.2364	-0.00836	-0.00437	2.8368	-0.10032	-0.05244 (in)
other side	0.23186	-0.00466	-0.000331	2.78232	-0.05592	-0.003966
3rd story	0.05574	-0.00148	-0.00225	0.66888	-0.01776	-0.027
2nd story	0.02894	-0.000693	-0.00159	0.34728	-0.008317	-0.01908
Drift	0.0268	-0.000787	-0.00066	0.3216	-0.009443	-0.00792
beam moment	34.1					
Column Tension	141.16	223	14x16			
column compression	206.39	215	14x14			
Modes						
1	0.5957 torsion			5	0.2608 wave	
2	0.5649 straight line			6	0.2465 wave	
3	0.4692 torsion			7	0.1958 double wave	
4	0.363 stretch			11	0.1635 inflection point	
No Wind						
12x14 section	158.29	kips, compression max				
8x8	94.13					
14x16	307.14					
14x14	261.3					

<b>Core Shear Walls Only</b>							
max	0.38381	-0.00578	-0.01093		4.60572	-0.06936	-0.13116 (in)
3rd story	0.07949	-0.00098	-0.00532		0.95388	-0.01177	-0.06384
2nd story	0.04258	-0.00054	-0.00373		0.51096	-0.00653	-0.04476
Drift	0.03691	-0.00044	-0.00159		0.44292	-0.00524	-0.01908
beam moment	52.8						
Column Tension	272.98						
column compression	348.98						
Modes							
1	1.1378			5	0.2038		
2	0.8646						
<b>No Shear Walls</b>							
max	50.18363	0.03664	-0.01095		602.2036	0.43968	-0.1314 (in)
3rd story	19.29212	0.01679	-0.00539		231.5054	0.20148	-0.06468
2nd story	10.0729	0.00723	-0.00382		120.8748	0.08676	-0.04584
Drift	9.21922	0.00956	-0.00157		110.6306	0.11472	-0.01884
beam moment	357.65	975					
Column Tension	307.34	202 12x14					
column compression	421.06	201 14x16					
Modes							
1	10.3144 straight line			3	3.4514 inflection point		
2	9.6352 torsion						
<b>No Shear Walls in 1st Floor</b>							
column compression	252.71	254	14x16				
<b>Concrete Shear Walls</b>							
max	0.18466	-0.01704	-0.01004		2.21592	-0.20448	-0.12048 (in)
3rd story	0.03478	-0.00218	-0.00497		0.41736	-0.02616	-0.05964
2nd story	0.01791	-0.00095	-0.0035		0.21492	-0.01145	-0.042
Drift	0.01687	-0.00123	-0.00147		0.20244	-0.01471	-0.01764
beam moment	26.44						
Modes							
1	0.7168 torsion			5	0.1548 inflection point		
2	0.6944 straight line						
<b>Corner Wind</b>							
With released columns, not beams, 0.1 floors							
max	0.1853	0.08828	-0.01137		2.2236	1.05936	-0.13644 (in)
3rd story	0.04127	0.02323	-0.00568		0.49524	0.27876	-0.06816
2nd story	0.02238	0.01306	-0.00401		0.26856	0.15672	-0.04812
Drift	0.01889	0.01017	-0.00167		0.22668	0.12204	-0.02004
beam moment	25.61						
Column Tension	120.46	frame 223 14x16					
column compression	162.1	frame 218 14x16					
<b>Redundant Case</b>							
Axial Forces							
frame Before After							
case 1	243	113.33	161.97 kips				
	240	120.81	0 (12x12, 1st floor, middle, opposite to wind)				
	222	117.43	164.12				
case 2	256	98.98	103.22				
	237	90	93.05				
	251	90.88	0 (14x16, inner column, but not core)				
	252	198.55	214.67				
	236	251.62	253.07				





















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ADD=672 UZ=-.08          ADD=82 UX=.03           ADD=383 UX=.03
ADD=673 UZ=-.08          ADD=83 UX=.03           ADD=384 UY=-.03
ADD=674 UZ=-.08          ADD=84 UX=.03           ADD=389 UY=-.03
ADD=675 UZ=-.08          ADD=85 UX=.03           ADD=443 UX=.03
ADD=676 UZ=-.08          ADD=86 UX=.03           ADD=444 UX=.03
ADD=677 UZ=-.08          ADD=94 UX=.03           ADD=499 UX=.03
ADD=678 UZ=-.08          ADD=105 UX=.03          ADD=500 UX=.03
ADD=679 UZ=-.08          ADD=106 UY=-.03          ADD=501 UX=.03
ADD=680 UZ=-.08          ADD=111 UY=-.03          ADD=502 UX=.03
ADD=681 UZ=-.08          ADD=155 UX=.03           ADD=510 UX=.03
ADD=682 UZ=-.08          ADD=156 UX=.03           ADD=515 UX=.03
ADD=683 UZ=-.08          ADD=157 UX=.03           ADD=516 UX=.03
ADD=684 UZ=-.08          ADD=158 UX=.03           ADD=521 UY=-.03
ADD=685 UZ=-.08          ADD=159 UX=.03           ADD=565 UX=.03
ADD=686 UZ=-.08          ADD=160 UX=.03           ADD=566 UX=.03
ADD=687 UZ=-.08          ADD=168 UX=.03           ADD=567 UX=.03
ADD=688 UZ=-.08          ADD=173 UX=.03           ADD=568 UX=.03
ADD=689 UZ=-.08          ADD=174 UY=-.03          ADD=569 UX=.03
ADD=690 UZ=-.08          ADD=179 UY=-.03          ADD=570 UX=.03
ADD=691 UZ=-.08          ADD=223 UX=.03           ADD=578 UX=.03
ADD=692 UZ=-.08          ADD=224 UX=.03           ADD=583 UX=.03
ADD=693 UZ=-.08          ADD=225 UX=.03           ADD=584 UY=-.03
ADD=694 UZ=-.08          ADD=226 UX=.03           ADD=589 UY=-.03
ADD=695 UZ=-.08          ADD=227 UX=.03           ADD=633 UX=.03
ADD=696 UZ=-.08          ADD=228 UX=.03           ADD=634 UX=.03

                                         MODE
                                         TYPE=EIGEN N=10
                                         TOL=.00001

                                         COMBO
                                         NAME=DLW
                                         LOAD=DEAD SF=1.2
                                         LOAD=LIVE SF=.5
                                         LOAD=WIND SF=1.3
                                         NAME=DW
                                         LOAD=DEAD SF=.9
                                         LOAD=WIND SF=1.3
                                         NAME=DL
                                         LOAD=DEAD SF=1.2
                                         LOAD=LIVE SF=1.6

                                         OUTPUT
                                         ; No Output Requested

                                         END
                                         MATERIAL STEEL FY 5184
                                         MATERIAL CONC
                                         FYREBAR 8640 FYSHEAR
                                         5760 FC 576 FC SHEAR 576
                                         STATICLOAD DEAD TYPE
                                         DEAD
                                         STATICLOAD LIVE TYPE
                                         LIVE
                                         STATICLOAD WIND TYPE
                                         WIND
                                         END SUPPLEMENTAL DATA

```