Preservation Briefs: The Use of Substitute Materials on Historic Building Exteriors

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The Use of Substitute Materials on Historic Building Exteriors

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U.S. Department of the Interior
National Park Service
Cultural Resources
Heritage Preservation Services

The Secretary of the Interior's *Standards for Rehabilitation* require that "deteriorated architectural features be repaired rather than replaced, wherever possible. In the event that replacement is necessary, the new material should match the material being replaced in composition, design, color, texture, and other visual properties." Substitute materials should be used only on a limited basis and only when they will match the appearance and general properties of the historic material and will not damage the historic resource.

Introduction

When deteriorated, damaged, or lost features of a historic building need repair or replacement, it is almost always best to use historic materials. In limited circumstances substitute materials that imitate historic materials may be used if the appearance and properties of the historic materials can be matched closely and no damage to the remaining historic fabric will result.

Great care must be taken if substitute materials are used on the exteriors of historic buildings. Ultra-violet light, moisture penetration behind joints, and stresses caused by changing temperatures can greatly impair the performance of substitute materials over time. Only after consideration of all options, in consultation with qualified professionals, experienced fabricators and contractors, and development of carefully written specifications should this work be undertaken.

The practice of using substitute materials in architecture is not new, yet it continues to pose practical problems and to raise philosophical questions. On the practical level the inappropriate choice or improper installation of substitute materials can cause a radical change in a building's appearance and can cause extensive physical damage over time. On the more philosophical level, the wholesale use of substitute materials can raise questions concerning the integrity of historic buildings largely comprised of new materials. In both cases the integrity of the historic resource can be destroyed.

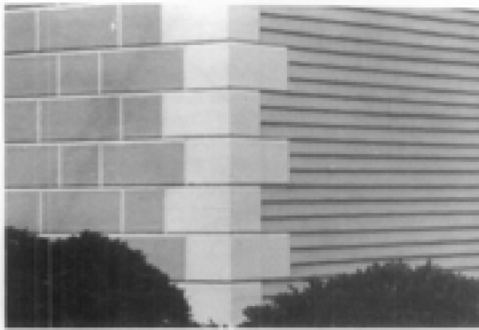
Some preservationists advocate that substitute materials should be avoided in all but the most limited cases. The fact is, however, that substitute materials are being used more frequently than ever in preservation projects, and in many cases with positive results. They can be cost-effective, can permit the accurate visual duplication of historic materials, and last a reasonable time. Growing evidence indicates that with proper planning, careful specifications and supervision, substitute materials can be used successfully in the process of restoring the visual appearance of historic resources.

This Brief provides general guidance on the use of substitute materials on the exteriors of historic buildings. While substitute materials are frequently used on interiors, these applications are not subject to weathering and moisture penetration, and will not be discussed in this Brief. Given the general nature of this publication, specifications for substitute materials are not provided. The guidance provided should not be used in place of consultations with qualified professionals. This Brief includes a discussion of when to use substitute materials, cautions regarding their expected performance, and descriptions of several substitute materials, their advantages and disadvantages. This review of materials is by no means comprehensive, and attitudes and findings will change as technology develops.

Historical Use of Substitute Materials

The tradition of using cheaper and more common materials in imitation of more expensive and less available materials is a long one. George Washington, for example, used wood painted with sand-impregnated paint at Mount Vernon to imitate cut ashlar stone. This technique along with scoring stucco into block patterns was fairly common in colonial America to imitate stone (see illus. 1, 2).

Molded or cast masonry substitutes, such as dry-tamp cast stone and poured concrete, became popular in place of quarried stone during the 19th century. These masonry units were fabricated locally, avoiding



Illus. 1. An early 18th-century technique for imitating carved or quarried stone was the use of sand-impregnated paint applied to wood. The facade stones and quoins are of wood. The Lindens (1754), Washington, D.C. Photo: Sharon C. Park, AIA.

Illus. 2. Stucco has for many centuries represented a number of building materials. Seen here is the ground floor of a Beaux Arts mansion, circa 1900, which represents a finely laid stone foundation wall executed in scored stucco. Photo: Sharon C. Park, AIA.

Illus. 3. Casting concrete to represent quarried stone was a popular late 19th-century technique seen in this circa 1910 mail-order house. While most components were delivered by rail, the foundations and exterior masonry were completed by local craftsmen. Photo: Sharon C. Park, AIA.

Illus. 4. The 19th-century also produced a variety of metal products used in imitation of other materials. In this case, the entire exterior of the Long Island Safety Deposit Company is cast-iron representing stone. Photo: Becket Logan, Friends of Cast Iron Architecture.

expensive quarrying and shipping costs, and were versatile in representing either ornately carved blocks, plain wall stones or rough cut textured surfaces. The end result depended on the type of patterned or textured mold used and was particularly popular in conjunction with mail order houses (see illus. 3). Later, panels of cementitious perma-stone or formstone and less expensive asphalt and sheet metal panels were used to imitate brick or stone.

Metal (cast, stamped, or brake-formed) was used for storefronts, canopies, railings, and other features, such as galvanized metal cornices substituting for wood or stone, stamped metal panels for Spanish clay roofing tiles, and cast-iron column capitals and even entire building fronts in imitation of building stone (see illus. no. 4).

Terra cotta, a molded fired clay product, was itself a substitute material and was very popular in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. It simulated the appearance of intricately carved stonework, which was expensive and time-consuming to produce. Terra cotta could be glazed to imitate a variety of natural stones, from brownstones to limestones, or could be colored for a polychrome effect.

Nineteenth century technology made a variety of materials readily available that not only were able to imitate more expensive materials but were also cheaper to fabricate and easier to use. Throughout the century, imitative materials continued to evolve. For example, ornamental window hoods were originally made of wood or carved stone. In an effort to find a cheaper substitute for carved stone and to speed fabrication time, cast stone, an early form of concrete, or cast-iron hoods often replaced stone. Toward the end of the century, even less expensive sheet metal hoods, imitating stone, also came into widespread use. All of these materials, stone, cast stone, cast-iron, and various pressed metals were in

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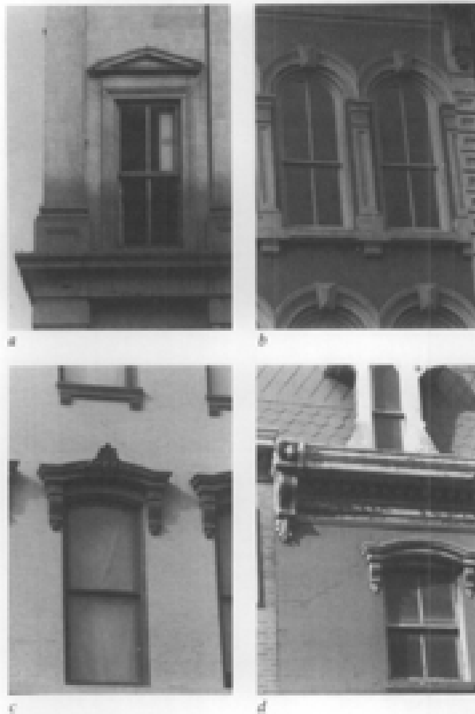


Illus. 5. The four historic examples of various window hoods shown are: (a) stone; (b) cast stone; (c) cast-iron; and (d) sheet metal. The criteria for selecting substitute materials today (availability, quality, delivery dates, cost) are not much different from the past. Photo: Sharon C. Park, AIA.

When to Consider Using Substitute Materials in Preservation Projects

Because the overzealous use of substitute materials can greatly impair the historic character of a historic structure, all preservation options should be explored thoroughly before substitute materials are used. It is important to remember that the purpose of repairing damaged features and of replacing lost and irreparably damaged ones is both to match visually what was there and to cause no further deterioration. For these reasons it is not appropriate to cover up historic materials with synthetic materials that will alter the appearance, proportions and details of a historic building and that will conceal future deterioration (see illus. 6).

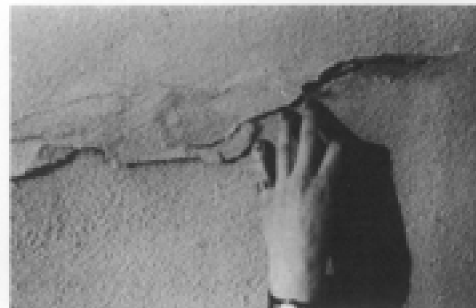
Some materials have been used successfully for the repair of damaged features such as epoxies for wood infilling, cementitious patching for sandstone repairs, or plastic stone for masonry repairs. Repairs are preferable to replacement whether or not the repairs are in kind or with a synthetic substitute material (see illus. 7).

In general, four circumstances warrant the consideration of substitute materials: 1) the unavailability of historic materials; 2) the unavailability of skilled craftsmen; 3) inherent flaws in the original materials; and 4) code-required changes (which in many cases can be extremely destructive of historic resources).

Cost may or may not be a determining factor in considering the use of substitute materials. Depending on the area of the country, the amount of material needed, and the projected life of less durable substitute materials, it may be cheaper in the long run to use the original material, even though it may be harder to find. Due to many early failures of substitute materials, some preservationist are looking abroad to find materials (especially stone) that match the historic materials in an effort to restore historic

production at the same time and were selected on the basis of the availability of materials and local craftsmanship, as well as durability and cost (see illus. 5). The criteria for selection today are not much different.

Many of the materials used historically to imitate other materials are still available. These are often referred to as the traditional materials: wood, cast stone, concrete, terra cotta and cast metals. In the last few decades, however, and partly as a result of the historic preservation movement, new families of synthetic materials, such as fiberglass, acrylic polymers, and epoxy resins, have been developed and are being used as substitute materials in construction. In some respects these newer products (often referred to as high tech materials) show great promise; in others, they are less satisfactory, since they are often difficult to integrate physically with the porous historic materials and may be too new to have established solid performance records.



Illus. 6. Substitute materials should never be considered as a cosmetic cover-up for they can cause great physical damage and can alter the appearance of historic buildings. For example, a fiberglass coating was used at Ranchos de Taos, NM, in place of the historic adobe coating which had deteriorated. The waterproof coating sealed moisture in the walls and caused the spalling shown. It was subsequently removed and the walls were properly repaired with adobe. Photo: Lee H. Nelson, FAIA.

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Illus. 7. Whenever possible, historic materials should be repaired rather than replaced. Epoxy, a synthetic resin, has been used to repair the wood window frame and sill at the Auditors Building (1878) Washington, DC. The cured resin is white in this photo and will be primed and painted. Photo: Lee H. Nelson, FAIA.

Illus. 9. Simple solutions should not be overlooked when materials are no longer available. In the case of the Morse-Libby Mansion (1859), Portland, ME, the deteriorated brownstone porch beam was replaced with a carved wooden beam painted with sand impregnated paint. Photo: Stephen Sewall.

buildings accurately and to avoid many of the uncertainties that come with the use of substitute materials.

1. The unavailability of the historic material. The most common reason for considering substitute materials is the difficulty in finding a good match for the historic material (particularly a problem for masonry materials where the color and texture are derived from the material itself). This may be due to the actual unavailability of the material or to protracted delivery dates. For example, the local quarry that supplied the sandstone for a building may no longer be in operation. All efforts should be made to locate another quarry that could supply a satisfactory match (see illus. 8). If this approach fails, substitute materials such as dry-tamp cast stone or textured precast concrete may be a suitable substitute if care is taken to ensure that the detail, color and texture of the original stone are matched. In some cases, it may be possible to use a sand-impregnated paint on wood

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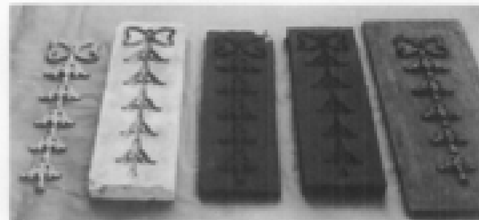
Illus. 8. Even when materials are not locally available, it may be possible and cost effective to find sources elsewhere. For example, the local sandstone was no longer available for the restoration of the New York Shakespeare Festival Public Theater. The deteriorated sandstone window hoods, were replaced with stone from Germany that closely matched the color and texture of the historic sandstone. Photo: John G. Waite.



Illus. 10. The use of substitute materials is not necessarily cheaper or easier than using the original materials. The complex process of fabricating the polyester bronze reproduction pieces of the gilded wood molding for the clockcase at Independence Hall required talented artisans and substantial mold-making time. From left to right is the final molded polyester bronze detail; the plaster casting mold; the positive and negative interim neoprene rubber molds; and the expertly carved wooden master. Photo: Courtesy of Independence National Historical Park.

as a replacement section, achieved using readily available traditional materials, conventional tools and work skills. (see illus. 9). Simple solutions should not be overlooked.

2. The unavailability of historic craft techniques and lack of skilled artisans. These two reasons complicate any preservation or rehabilitation project. This is particularly true for intricate ornamental work, such as carved wood, carved stone, wrought iron, cast iron, or molded terra cotta. However, a number of stone and wood cutters now employ sophisticated carving machines, some even computerized. It is also possible to cast substitute replacement pieces using

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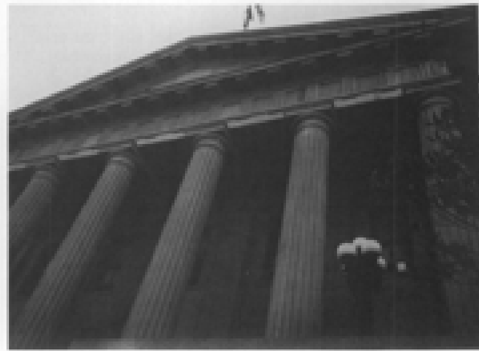
Illus. 11. The unavailability of historic craft techniques is another reason to consider substitute materials. The original first floor cast iron front of the Grand Opera House, Wilmington, DE, was missing; the expeditious reproduction in cast aluminum was possible because artisans working in this medium were available. Photo: John G. Waite.

Illus. 12. Substitute materials may be considered when the original materials have not performed well. For example, early sheet metals used for roofing, such as tinplate, were reasonably durable, but the modern equivalent, terne-coated steel, is subject to corrosion once the thin tin plating is damaged. Terne-coated stainless steel or lead-coated copper (shown here) are now used as substitutes. Photo: John G. Waite.

aluminum, cast stone, fiberglass, polymer concretes, glass fiber reinforced concretes and terra cotta. Mold making and casting takes skill and craftsmen who can undertake this work are available. (see illus. 10, 11). Efforts should always be made, prior to replacement, to seek out artisans who might be able to repair ornamental elements and thereby save the historic features in place.

3. Poor original building materials. Some historic building materials were of inherently poor quality or their modern counterparts are inferior. In addition, some materials were naturally incompatible with other materials on the building, causing staining or galvanic corrosion. Examples of poor quality materials were the very soft sandstones which eroded quickly. An example of poor quality modern replacement material is the tin coated steel roofing which is much less durable than the historic tin or terne iron which is no longer available. In some cases, more durable natural stones or precast concrete might be available as substitutes for the soft stones and modern terne-coated stainless steel or lead-coated copper might produce a more durable yet visually compatible replacement roofing (see illus. 12).

4. Code-related changes. Sometimes referred to as life and safety codes, building codes often require changes to historic buildings. Many cities in earthquake zones, for example, have laws requiring that overhanging masonry parapets and cornices, or freestanding urns or finials be securely reanchoed to new structural frames or be removed completely. In some cases, it may be acceptable to replace these heavy historic elements with light replicas (see illus. 13). In other cases, the extent of historic fabric removed may be so great as to diminish the integrity of the resource. This could affect the significance of the structure and jeopardize National Register status. In addition, removal of repairable historic materials could result in loss of Federal tax credits for rehabilitation. Department of the Interior regulations make



Illus. 13. Code-related changes are of concern in historic preservation projects because the integrity of the historic resource may be irretrievably affected. In the case of the Old San Francisco Mint, the fiberglass cornice was used to bring the building into seismic conformance. The original cornice was deteriorated, and the replacement (1982) was limited to the projecting pediment. The historic stone fascia was retained as were the stone columns. The limited replacement of deteriorated material did not jeopardize the integrity of the building. Photo: Walter M. Sontheimer.

clear that the Secretary of the Interior's Standards for Rehabilitation take precedence over other regulations and codes in determining whether a project is consistent with the historic character of the building undergoing rehabilitation.

Two secondary reasons for considering the use of substitute materials are their lighter weight and for some materials, a reduced need of maintenance. These reasons can become important if there is a

need to keep dead loads to a minimum or if the feature being replaced is relatively inaccessible for routine maintenance.

Cautions and Concerns

In dealing with exterior features and materials, it must be remembered that moisture penetration, ultra-violet degradation, and differing thermal expansion and contraction rates of dissimilar materials make any repair or replacement problematic. To ensure that a repair or replacement will perform well over time, it is critical to understand fully the properties of both the original and the substitute materials, to install replacement materials correctly, to assess their impact on adjacent historic materials, and to have reasonable expectations of future performance.

Many high tech materials are too new to have been tested thoroughly. The differences in vapor permeability between some synthetic materials and the historic materials have in some cases caused unexpected further deterioration. It is therefore difficult to recommend substitute materials if the historic materials are still available. As previously mentioned, consideration should always be given first to using traditional materials and methods of repair or replacement before accepting unproven techniques, materials or applications.

Substitute materials must meet three basic criteria before being considered: they must be compatible with the historic materials in appearance; their physical properties must be similar to those of the historic materials, or be installed in a manner that tolerates differences; and they must meet certain basic performance expectations over an extended period of time.

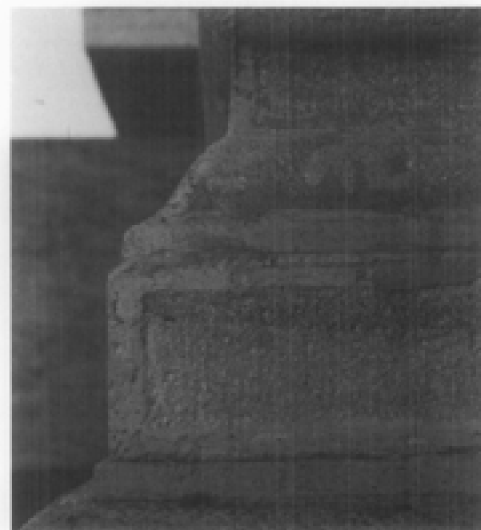
Matching the Appearance of the Historic Materials

In order to provide an appearance that is compatible with the historic material, the new material should match the details and craftsmanship of the original as well as the color, surface texture, surface reflectivity and finish of the original material (see illus. 14). The closer an element is to the viewer, the more closely the material and craftsmanship must match the original.

Matching the color and surface texture of the historic material with a substitute material is normally difficult. To enhance the chances of a good match, it is advisable to clean a portion of the building where new materials are to be used. If pigments are to be added to the substitute material, a specialist should determine the formulation of the mix, the natural aggregates and the types of pigments to be used. As all exposed material is subject to ultra-violet degradation, if possible, samples of the new materials made during the early planning phases should be tested or allowed to weather over several seasons to test for color stability.

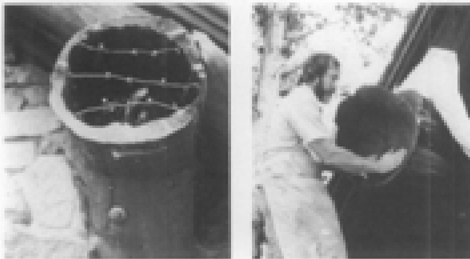
Fabricators should supply a sufficient number of samples to permit on-site comparison of color, texture, detailing, and other critical qualities (see illus. 15, 16). In situations where there are subtle variations in color and texture within the original materials, the

Illus. 14. The visual qualities of the historic feature must be matched when using substitute materials. In this illustration, the lighter weight mineral fiber cement shingles used to replace the deteriorated historic slate roof were detailed to match the color, size, shape and pattern of the original roofing and the historic snow birds were reattached. Photo: Sharon C. Park, AIA.



Illus. 15. Poor quality workmanship can be avoided. In this example, the crudely cast concrete entrance pier (shown) did not match the visual qualities of the remaining historic sandstone (not shown). The aggregate is too large and exposed; the casting is not crisp; the banded tooling edges are not articulated; and the color is too pale. Photo: Sharon C. Park, AIA.

Illus. 16. The good quality substitute materials shown here do match the historic sandstone in color, texture, tooling and surface details. Dry-tamp cast stone was used to match the red sandstone that was no longer available. The reconstructed first floor incorporated both historic and substitute materials. Sufficient molds were made to avoid the problem of detecting the substitutes by their uniformity. Photo: Sharon C. Park, AIA.



Illus. 17. Care must be taken to ensure that the replacement materials will work within a predesigned system. At the Norris Museum, Yellowstone National Park, the 12-inch diameter log rafters, part of an intricate truss system, had rotted at the inner core from the exposed ends back to a depth of 48 inches. The exterior wooden shells remained intact. Fiberglass rods (left photo) and specially formulated structural epoxy were used to fill the cleaned out cores and a cast epoxy wafer end with all the detail of the original wood graining was laminated onto the log end (right photo). This treatment preserved the original feature with a combination of repair and replacement using substitute materials as part of a well thought out system. Photos: Courtesy of Harrison Goodall.

substitute materials should be similarly varied so that they are not conspicuous by their uniformity.

Substitute materials, notably the masonry ones, may be more water-absorbent than the historic material. If this is visually distracting, it may be appropriate to apply a protective vapor-permeable coating on the substitute material. However, these clear coatings tend to alter the reflectivity of the material, must be reapplied periodically, and may trap salts and moisture, which can in turn produce spalling. For these reasons, they are *not* recommended for use on historic materials.

Illus. 18. Substitute materials must be properly installed to allow for expansion, contraction, and structural security. The new balustrade (a polymer concrete modified with glass fibers) at Carnegie Hall, New York City, was installed with steel structural supports to allow window-washing equipment to be suspended securely. In addition, the formulation of this predominantly epoxy material allowed for the natural expansion and contraction within the predesignal joints. Photo: Courtesy of MJM Studios.

Matching the Physical Properties

While substitute materials can closely match the appearance of historic ones, their physical properties may differ greatly. The chemical composition of the material (i.e., presence of acids, alkalines, salts, or metals) should be evaluated to ensure that the replacement materials will be compatible with the historic resource. Special care must therefore be taken to integrate and to anchor the new materials properly (see illus. 17). The thermal expansion and contraction coefficients of each adjacent material must be within tolerable limits. The function of joints must be understood and detailed either to eliminate moisture penetration or to allow vapor permeability. Materials that will cause galvanic corrosion or other chemical reactions must be isolated from one another.

To ensure proper attachment, surface preparation is critical. Deteriorated underlying material must be cleaned out. Non-corrosive anchoring devices or fasteners that are designed to carry the new material and to withstand wind, snow and other destructive elements should be used (see illus. 18). Properly chosen fasteners allow attached materials to expand and contract at their own rates. Caulking, flexible sealants or expansion joints between the historic material and the substitute material can absorb slight differences of movement. Since physical failures often result from poor anchorage or improper installation techniques, a structural engineer should be a member of any team undertaking major repairs.

Some of the new high tech materials such as epoxies and polymers are much stronger than historic materials and generally impermeable to moisture. These differences can cause serious problems unless the new materials are modified to match the expansion and contraction properties of adjacent historic materials more closely, or unless the new materials

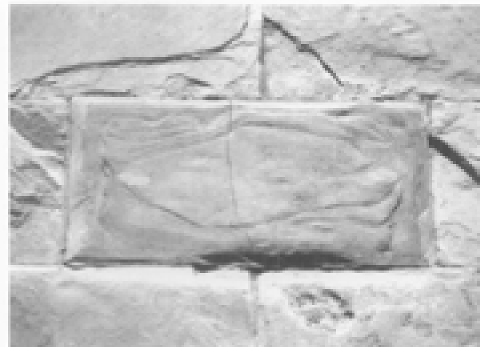
are isolated from the historic ones altogether. When stronger or vapor impermeable new materials are used alongside historic ones, stresses from trapped moisture or differing expansion and contraction rates generally hasten deterioration of the weaker historic material. For this reason, a conservative approach to repair or replacement is recommended, one that uses more pliant materials rather than high-strength ones (see illus. 19). Since it is almost impossible for substitute materials to match the properties of historic materials perfectly, the new system incorporating new and historic materials should be designed so that if material failures occur, they occur within the new material rather than the historic material.

Performance Expectations

While a substitute material may appear to be acceptable at the time of installation, both its appearance and its performance may deteriorate rapidly. Some materials are so new that industry standards are not available, thus making it difficult to specify quality control in fabrication, or to predict maintenance requirements and long term performance. Where possible, projects involving substitute materials in similar circumstances should be examined. Material specifications outlining stability of color and texture; compressive or tensile strengths if appropriate; the acceptable range of thermal coefficients, and the durability of coatings and finishes should be included in the contract documents. Without these written documents, the owner may be left with little recourse if failure occurs (see illus. 20, 21).

The tight controls necessary to ensure long-term performance extend beyond having written performance standards and selecting materials that have a successful track record. It is important to select qualified fabricators and installers who know what they are doing and who can follow up if repairs are necessary. Installers and contractors unfamiliar with specific substitute materials and how they function in your local environmental conditions should be avoided.

The surfaces of substitute materials may need special care once installed. For example, chemical residues or mold release agents should be removed completely prior to installation, since they attract pollutants and cause the replacement materials to appear dirtier than the adjacent historic materials. Furthermore, substitute materials may require more frequent cleaning, special cleaning products and protection from impact by hanging window-cleaning scaffolding. Finally, it is critical that the substitute materials be identified as part of the historical record of the building so that proper care and maintenance of all the building materials continue to ensure the life of the historic resource.



Illus. 19. When the physical properties are not matched, particularly thermal expansion and contraction properties, great damage can occur. In this case, an extremely rigid epoxy replacement unit was installed in a historic masonry wall. Because the epoxy was not modified with fillers, it did not expand or contract systematically with the natural stones in the wall surrounding it. Pressure built up resulting in a vertical crack at the center of the unit, and spalled edges to every historic stone that was adjacent to the rigid unit. Photo: Walter M. Sontheimer.

Illus. 20. Long-term performance can be affected by where the substitute material is located. In this case, fiberglass was used as part of a storefront at street level. Due to the brittle nature of the material and the frequency of impact likely to occur at this location, an unsightly chip has resulted. Photo: Sharon C. Park, AIA.

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Illus. 21. Change of color over time is one of the greatest problems of synthetic substitute materials used outdoors. Ultra-violet light can cause materials to change color over time; some will lighten and others will darken. In this photograph, the synthetic patching material to the sandstone banding to the left of the window has aged to a darker color. Photos: Sharon C. Park, AIA.

Illus. 22. A fiber reinforced polymer (fiberglass) cornice and precast concrete elements replaced deteriorated features on the 19th-century exterior. Photo: Sharon C. Park, AIA.

Choosing an Appropriate Substitute Material

Once all reasonable options for repair or replacement in kind have been exhausted, the choice among a wide variety of substitute materials currently on the market must be made (see illus. 22). The charts at the end of this Brief describe a number of such materials, many of them in the family of modified concretes which are gaining greater use. The charts do not include wood, stamped metal, mineral fiber cement shingles and some other traditional imitative materials, since their properties and performance are better known. Nor do the charts include vinyls or molded urethanes which are sometimes used as cosmetic claddings or as substitutes for wooden millwork. Because millwork is still readily available, it should be replaced in kind.

The charts describe the properties and uses of several materials finding greater use in historic preservation projects, and outline advantages and disadvantages of each. It should not be read as an endorsement of any of these materials, but serves as a reminder that numerous materials must be studied carefully before selecting the appropriate treatment. Included are three predominantly masonry materials (cast stone, precast concrete, and glass fiber reinforced concrete); two predominantly resinous materials (epoxy and glass fiber reinforced polymers also known as fiberglass), and cast aluminum which has been used as a substitute for various metals and woods.

Summary

Substitute materials—those products used to imitate historic materials—should be used only after all other options for repair and replacement in kind have been ruled out. Because there are so many unknowns regarding the long-term performance of substitute materials, their use should not be considered without a thorough investigation into the proposed materials, the fabricator, the installer, the availability of specifications, and the use of that material in a similar situation in a similar environment.

Substitute materials are normally used when the historic materials or craftsmanship are no longer available, if the original materials are of a poor quality or are causing damage to adjacent materials, or if there are specific code requirements that preclude the use of historic materials. Use of these materials should be limited, since replacement of historic materials on a large scale may jeopardize the integrity of a historic resource. Every means of repairing deteriorating historic materials or replacing them with identical materials should be examined *before* turning to substitute materials.

The importance of matching the appearance and physical properties of historic materials and, thus, of finding a successful long-term solution cannot be overstated. The successful solutions illustrated in this Brief were from historic preservation projects involving professional teams of architects, engineers, fabricators, and other specialists. Cost was not necessarily a factor, and all agreed that whenever possible, the historic materials should be used. When substitute materials were selected, the solutions were often expensive and were reached only after careful consideration of all options, and with the assistance of expert professionals.

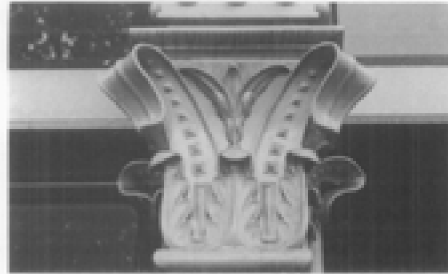
FOLLOWING ARE DESCRIPTIONS OF VARIOUS SUBSTITUTE MATERIALS

PROs and CONs of VARIOUS SUBSTITUTE MATERIALS

Cast Aluminum

Material: Cast aluminum is a molten aluminum alloy cast in permanent (metal) molds or one-time sand molds which must be adjusted for shrinkage during the curing process. Color is from paint applied to primed aluminum or from a factory finished coating. Small sections can be bolted together to achieve intricate or sculptural details. Unit castings are also available for items such as column plinth blocks.

Application: Cast aluminum can be a substitute for cast-iron or other decorative elements. This would include grillwork, roof crestings, cornices, ornamental spandrels, storefront elements, columns, capitals, and column bases and plinth blocks. If not self-supporting, elements are generally screwed or bolted to a structural frame. As a result of galvanic corrosion problems with dissimilar metals, joint details are very important.



Close-up detail showing the crisp casting in aluminum of this 19th-century replica column and capital for a storefront. Photo: Sharon C. Park, AIA.

Advantages:
- light weight (1/2 of cast-iron)
- corrosion-resistant, non-combustible
- intricate castings possible
- easily assembled, good delivery time
- can be prepared for a variety of colors
- long life, durable, less brittle than cast iron

Disadvantages:
- lower structural strength than cast-iron
- difficult to prevent galvanic corrosion with other metals
- greater expansion and contraction than cast-iron; requires gaskets or caulked joints
- difficult to keep paint on aluminum

Checklist:
- Can existing be repaired or replaced in-kind?
- How is cast aluminum to be attached?
- Have full-size details been developed for each piece to be cast?
- How are expansion joints detailed?
- Will there be a galvanic corrosion problem?
- Have factory finishes been protected during installation?
- Are fabricators/installers experienced?

The new cast aluminum storefront replaced the lost 19th-century cast-iron original. Photo: Sharon C. Park, AIA.

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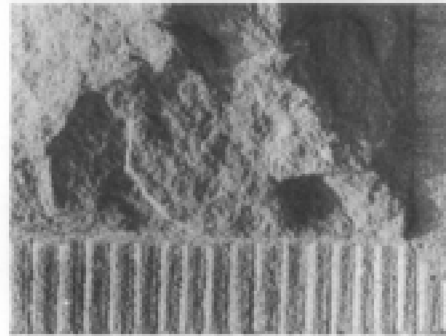
PROs and CONs of VARIOUS SUBSTITUTE MATERIALS

Cast Stone *(dry-tamped)*:

Material: Cast stone is an almost-dry cement, lime and aggregate mixture which is dry-tamped into a mold to produce a dense stone-like unit. Confusion arises in the building industry as many refer to high quality precast concrete as cast stone. In fact, while it is a form of precast concrete, the dry-tamp fabrication method produces an outer surface ressembling a stone surface. The inner core can be either dry-tamped or poured full of concrete. Reinforcing bars and anchorage devices can be installed during fabrication.

Application: Cast stone is often the most visually similar material as a replacement for unveined deteriorated stone, such as brownstone or sandstone, or terra cotta in imitation of stone. It is used both for surface wall stones and for ornamental features such as window and door surrounds, voussoirs, brackets and hoods. Rubber-like molds can be taken of good stones on site or made up at the factory from shop drawings.



Dry-tamped cast stone can reproduce the sandy texture of some natural stones. Photo: Sharon C. Park, AIA.

Advantages:
- replicates stone texture with good molds (which can come from extant stone) and fabrication
- expansion/contraction similar to stone
- minimal shrinkage of material
- anchors and reinforcing bars can be built in
- material is fire-rated
- range of color available
- vapor permeable

Disadvantages:
- heavy units may require additional anchorage
- color can fade in sunlight
- may be more absorbent than natural stone
- replacement stones are obvious if too few models and molds are made

Checklist:
- Are the original or similar materials available?
- How are units to be installed and anchored?
- Have performance standards been developed to ensure color stability?
- Have large samples been delivered to site for color, finish and absorption testing?
- Has mortar been matched to adjacent historic mortar to achieve a good color/tooling match?
- Are fabricators/installers experienced?

Glass Fiber Reinforced Concretes (GFRC)

Material: Glass fiber reinforced concretes are lightweight concrete compounds modified with additives and reinforced with glass fibers. They are generally fabricated as thin shelled panels and applied to a separate structural frame or anchorage system. The GFRC is most commonly sprayed into forms although it can be poured. The glass must be alkaline resistant to avoid deteriorating effects caused by the cement mix. The color is derived from the natural aggregates and if necessary a small percentage of added pigments.

Application: Glass fiber reinforced concretes are used in place of features originally made of stone, terra cotta, metal or wood, such as cornices, projecting window and door trims, brackets, finials, or wall murals. As a molded product it can be produced in long sections of repetitive designs or as sculptural elements. Because of its low shrinkage, it can be produced from molds taken directly from the building. It is installed with a separate non-corrosive anchorage system. As a predominantly cementitious material, it is vapor permeable.

This glass fiber reinforced concrete sculptural wall panel will replace the seriously damaged resin and plaster original. A finely textured surface was achieved by spraying the GFRC mix into molds that were created from the historic panel and resculpted based on historic photographs. Photo: Courtesy of MJM Studios.

Advantages:
- lightweight, easily installed
- good molding ability, crisp detail possible
- weather resistant
- can be left uncoated or else painted
- little shrinkage during fabrication
- molds made directly from historic features
- cements generally breathable
- material is fire-rated

Disadvantages:
- non-loadbearing use only
- generally requires separate anchorage system
- large panels must be reinforced
- color additives may fade with sunlight
- joints must be properly detailed
- may have different absorption rate than adjacent historic material

Checklist:
- Are the original materials and craftsmanship still available?
- Have samples been inspected on the site to ensure detail/texture match?
- Has anchorage system been properly designed?
- Have performance standards been developed?
- Are fabricators/installers experienced?

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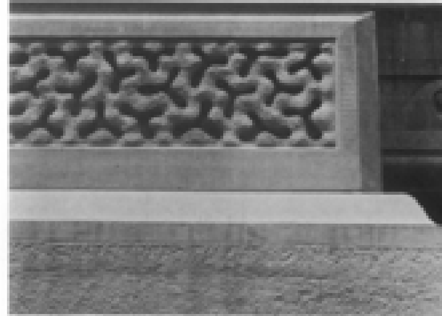
Preservation Briefs: The Use of Substitute Materials on Historic Building Exteriors

PROs and CONs of VARIOUS SUBSTITUTE MATERIALS

Precast Concrete

Material: Precast concrete is a wet mix of cement and aggregate poured into molds to create masonry units. Molds can be made from existing good surfaces on the building. Color is generally integral to the mix as a natural coloration of the sand or aggregate, or as a small percentage of pigment. To avoid unsightly air bubbles that result from the natural curing process, great care must be taken in the initial and long-term vibration of the mix. Because of its weight it is generally used to reproduce individual units of masonry and not thin shell panels.

Application: Precast concrete is generally used in place of masonry materials such as stone or terra cotta. It is used both for flat wall surfaces and for textured or ornamental elements. This includes wall stones, window and door surrounds, stair treads, paving pieces, parapets, urns, balusters and other decorative elements. It differs from cast stone in that the surface is more dependent on the textured mold than the hand tamping method of fabrication.



Textured molds can produce a variety of high quality carved, quarried, and tooled surfaces in concrete. Photo: Sharon C. Park, AIA.

Advantages:
- easily fabricated, takes shape well
- rubber molds can be made from building stones
- minimal shrinkage of material
- can be load bearing or anchorage can be cast in
- expansion/contraction similar to stone
- material is fire-rated
- range of color and aggregate available
- vapor permeable

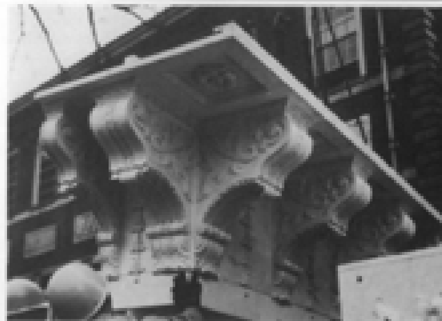
Disadvantages:
- may be more moisture absorbent than stone although coatings may be applied
- color fades in sunlight
- heavy units may require additional anchorage
- small air bubbles may disfigure units
- replacement stones are conspicuous if too few models and molds are made

Checklist:
- Is the historic material still available?
- What are the structural/anchorage requirements?
- Have samples been matched for color/texture/absorption?
- Have shop drawings been made for each shape?
- Are there performance standards?
- Has mortar been matched to adjacent historic mortar to achieve good color/tooling match?
- Are fabricators/installers experienced?

Fiber Reinforced Polymers—
Known as Fiberglass

Material: Fiberglass is the most well known of the FRP products generally produced as a thin rigid laminate shell formed by pouring a polyester or epoxy resin gel-coat into a mold. When tack-free, layers of chopped glass or glass fabric are added along with additional resins. Reinforcing rods and struts can be added if necessary; the gel coat can be pigmented or painted.

Application: Fiberglass, a non load-bearing material attached to a separate structural frame, is frequently used as a replacement where a lightweight element is needed or an inaccessible location makes frequent maintenance of historic materials difficult. Its good molding ability and versatility to represent stone, wood, metal and terra cotta make it an alternative to ornate or carved building elements such as column capitals, bases, spandrel panels, beltcourses, balustrades, window hoods or parapets. Its ability to reproduce bright colors is a great advantage.



A fiberglass cornice for the reconstruction of an 18th-century wooden clockcase is being lifted in pre-fabricated sections. The level of detail is intricate and of high quality. Photo: Courtesy of Independence National Historical Park.

Advantages:
- lightweight, long spans available with a separate structural frame
- high ratio of strength to weight
- good molding ability
- integral color with exposed high quality pigmented gel-coat or takes paint well
- easily installed, can be cut, patched, sanded
- non-corrosive, rot-resistant

Disadvantages:
- requires separate anchorage system
- combustible (fire retardants can be added); fragile to impact.
- high co-efficient of expansion and contraction requires frequently placed expansion joints
- ultra-violet sensitive unless surface is coated or pigments are in gel-coat
- vapor impermeability may require ventilation detail

Checklist:
- Can original materials be saved/used?
- Have expansion joints been designed to avoid unsightly appearance?
- Are there standards for color stability/durability?
- Have shop drawings been made for each piece?
- Have samples been matched for color and texture?
- Are fabricators/installers experienced?
- Do codes restrict use of FRP?

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PROs and CONs of VARIOUS SUBSTITUTE MATERIALS

Epoxies *(Epoxy Concretes, Polymer Concretes)*:

Material: Epoxy is a resinous two-part thermo-setting material used as a consolidant, an adhesive, a patching compound, and as a molding resin. It can repair damaged material or recreate lost features. The resins which are poured into molds are usually mixed with fillers such as sand, or glass spheres, to lighten the mix and modify their expansion/contraction properties. When mixed with aggregates, such as sand or stone chips, they are often called epoxy concrete or polymer concrete, which is a misnomer as there are no cementitious materials contained within the mix. Epoxies are vapor impermeable, which makes detailing of the new elements extremely important so as to avoid trapping moisture behind the replacement material. It can be used with wood, stone, terra cotta, and various metals.

Application: Epoxy is one of the most versatile of the new materials. It can be used to bind together broken fragments of terra cotta; to build up or infill missing sections of ornamental metal; or to cast missing elements of wooden ornaments. Small cast elements can be attached to existing materials or entire new features can be cast. The resins are poured into molds and due to the rapid setting of the material and the need to avoid cracking, the molded units are generally small or hollow inside. Multiple molds can be combined for larger elements. With special rods, the epoxies can be structurally reinforced. Examples of epoxy replacement pieces include: finials, sculptural details, small column capitals, and medallions.

This replica column capital was made using epoxy resins poured into a mold taken from the building. The historic wooden column shaft was repaired during the restoration. Photo: Courtesy Dell Corporation.

Advantages:
- can be used for repair/replacement
- lightweight, easily installed
- good casting ability; molds can be taken from building
- material can be sanded and carved.
- color and ultra-violet screening can be added; takes paint well
- durable, rot and fungus resistant

Disadvantages:
- materials are flammable and generate heat as they cure and may be toxic when burned
- toxic materials require special protection for operator and adequate ventilation while curing
- material may be subject to ultra-violet deterioration unless coated or filters added
- rigidity of material often must be modified with fillers to match expansion coefficients
- vapor impermeable

Checklist:
- Are historic materials available for molds, or for splicing-in as a repair option?
- Has the epoxy resin been formulated within the expansion/contraction coefficients of adjacent materials?
- Have samples been matched for color/finish?
- Are fabricators/installers experienced?
- Is there a sound sub-strate of material to avoid deterioration behind new material?
- Are there performance standards?

Columns were repaired and a capital was replaced in epoxy on this 19th-century 2-story porch. Photo: Dell Corporation

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Further Reading: Substitute Materials

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This publication has been prepared pursuant to Section 101(h) of the National Historic Preservation Act, as amended, which directs the Secretary of the Interior to develop and make available information concerning historic properties. The guidance provided in this Brief will also assist property owners in complying with the requirements of the Internal Revenue Code of 1986.

Preservation Briefs: 16 has been developed under the technical editorship of Lee H. Nelson, FAIA, Chief, Preservation Assistance Division, National Park Service, U.S. Department of the Interior, P.O. Box 37127, Washington, D.C. 20013-7127. Comments on the usefulness of this information are welcome and can be sent to Mr. Nelson at the above address.

Cover photograph: Independence Hall, Philadelphia, PA; the 1972 installation of a combination wood and fiberglass clockcase duplicating the lost 18th century original. Photo: Courtesy of Independence National Historical Park.

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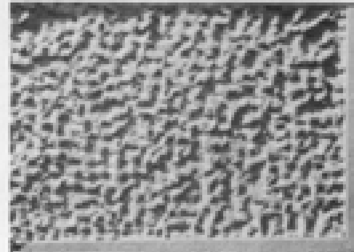
Preservation Briefs: Identifying the Visual Aspects of Historic Buildings as an Aid to Preserving their Character

17 PRESERVATION BRIEFS



Architectural Character: Identifying the Visual Aspects of Historic Buildings as an Aid to Preserving Their Character

Lee H. Nelson, FAIA

U.S. Department of the Interior
National Park Service
Cultural Resources
Heritage Preservation Services

The Secretary of the Interior's "Standards for Historic Preservation Projects" embody two important goals: 1) the preservation of historic materials and, 2) the preservation of a building's distinguishing character. Every old building is unique, with its own identity and its own distinctive character. Character refers to all those visual aspects and physical features that comprise the appearance of every historic building. Character-defining elements include the overall shape of the building, its materials, craftsmanship, decorative details, interior spaces and features, as well as the various aspects of its site and environment.

The purpose of this Brief is to help the owner or the architect identify those features or elements that give the building its *visual character* and that should be taken into account in order to preserve them to the maximum extent possible.

There are different ways of understanding old buildings. They can be seen as examples of specific building types, which are usually related to a building's function, such as schools, courthouses or churches. Buildings can be studied as examples of using specific materials such as concrete, wood, steel, or limestone. They can also be considered as examples of an historical period, which is often related to a specific architectural style, such as Gothic Revival farmhouses, one-story bungalows, or Art Deco apartment buildings.

There are many other facets of an historic building besides its functional type, its materials or construction or style that contribute to its historic qualities or significance. Some of these qualities are feelings conveyed by the sense of time and place or in buildings associated with events or people. A complete understanding of any property may require documentary research about its style, construction, function, its furnishings or contents; knowledge about the original builder, owners, and later occupants; and knowledge about the evolutionary history of the building. Even though buildings may be of historic, rather than architectural significance, it is their tangible elements that embody its significance for association with specific events or persons and it is those *tangible elements* both on the exterior and interior that should be preserved.

Therefore, the approach taken in this Brief is limited to identifying those visual and tangible aspects of the historic building. While this may aid in the planning process for carrying out any ongoing or new use or restoration of the building, this approach is not a substitute for developing an understanding about the significance of an historic building and the district in which it is located.

If the various materials, features and spaces that give a building its visual character are not recognized and preserved, then essential aspects of its character may be damaged in the process of change.

A building's character can be irreversibly damaged or changed in many ways, for example, by inappropriate repointing of the brickwork, by removal of a distinctive side porch, by changes to the window sash, by changes to the setting around the building, by changes to the major room arrangements, by the introduction of an atrium, by painting previously unpainted woodwork, etc.

A Three-Step Process to Identify A Building's Visual Character

This Brief outlines a three-step approach that can be used by anyone to identify those materials, features and spaces that contribute to the visual character of a building. This approach involves first examining the building from afar to understand its overall setting and architectural context; then moving up very close to appreciate its materials and the craftsmanship and surface finishes evident in these materials; and then going into and through the building to perceive those spaces, rooms and details that comprise its interior visual character.

Step 1: Identify the Overall Visual Aspects

Identifying the overall visual character of a building is nothing more than looking at its distinguishing physical aspects without focusing on its details. The major contributors to a building's overall character are embodied

Preservation Briefs: Identifying the Visual Aspects of Historic Buildings as an Aid to Preserving their Character

in the general aspects of its *setting*; the *shape* of the building; its *roof* and roof features, such as chimneys or cupolas; the various *projections* on the building, such as porches or bay windows; the *recesses* or voids in a building, such as open galleries, arcades, or recessed balconies; the *openings* for windows and doorways; and finally the various exterior *materials* that contribute to the building's character. Step one involves looking at the building from a distance to understand the character of its site and setting, and it involves walking around the building where that is possible. Some buildings will have one or more sides that are more important than the others because they are more highly visible. This does not mean that the rear of the building is of no value whatever but it simply means that it is less important to the overall character. On the other hand, the rear may have an interesting back porch or offer a private garden space or some other aspect that may contribute to the visual character. Such a general approach to looking at the building and site will provide a better understanding of its overall character without having to resort to an infinitely long checklist of its possible features and details. Regardless of whether a building is complicated or relatively plain, it is these broad categories that contribute to an understanding of the overall character rather than the specifics of architectural features such as moldings and their profiles.

Step 2: Identify the Visual Character at Close Range

Step two involves looking at the building at close range or arm's length, where it is possible to see all the surface qualities of the materials, such as their *color* and *texture*, or surface evidence of craftsmanship or age. In some instances, the visual character is the result of the juxtaposition of materials that are contrastingly different in their color and texture. The surface qualities of the materials may be important because they impart the very sense of craftsmanship and age that distinguishes historic buildings from other buildings. Furthermore, many of these close up qualities can be easily damaged or obscured by work that affects those surfaces. Examples of this could include painting previously unpainted masonry, rotary disk sanding of smooth wood siding to remove paint, abrasive cleaning of tooled stonework, or repointing reddish mortar joints with gray portland cement.

There is an almost infinite variety of surface materials, textures and finishes that are part of a building's character which are fragile and easily lost.

Step 3: Identify the Visual Character of the Interior Spaces, Features and Finishes

Perceiving the character of interior spaces can be somewhat more difficult than dealing with the exterior. In part, this is because so much of the exterior can be seen at one time and it is possible to grasp its essential character rather quickly. To understand the interior character, it is necessary to move through the spaces one at a time. While it is not difficult to perceive the character of one individual room, it becomes more difficult to deal with spaces that are interconnected and interrelated. Sometimes, as in office buildings, it is the vestibules or lobbies or corridors that are important to the interior character of the building. With other groups of buildings the visual qualities of the interior are related to the plan of the building, as in a church with its axial plan creating a narrow tunnel-like space which obviously has a different character than an open space like a sports pavilion. Thus the shape of the space may be an essential part of its character. With some buildings it is possible to perceive that there is a visual linkage in a sequence of spaces, as in a hotel, from the lobby to the grand staircase to the ballroom. Closing off the openings between those spaces would change the character from visually linked spaces to a series of closed spaces. For example, in a house that has a front and back parlor linked with an open archway, the two rooms are perceived together, and this visual relationship is part of the character of the building. To close off the open archway would change the character of such a residence.

The importance of interior features and finishes to the character of the building should not be overlooked. In relatively simple rooms, the primary visual aspects may be in features such as fireplace mantels, lighting fixtures or wooden floors. In some rooms, the absolute plainness is the character-defining aspect of the interior. So-called secondary spaces also may be important in their own way, from the standpoint of history or because of the family activities that occurred in those rooms. Such secondary spaces, while perhaps historically significant, are not usually perceived as important to the *visual* character of the building. Thus we do not take them into account in the visual understanding of the building.

Conclusion

Using this three-step approach, it is possible to conduct a walk through and identify all those elements and features that help define the visual character of the building. In most cases, there are a number of aspects about the exterior and interior that are important to the character of an historic building. The visual emphasis of this brief will make it possible to ascertain those things that should be preserved because their loss or alteration would diminish or destroy aspects of the historic character whether on the outside, or on the inside of the building.

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Preservation Briefs: Identifying the Visual Aspects of Historic Buildings as an Aid to Preserving their Character

Overall Visual Character: Shape

The shape of a building can be an important aspect of its overall visual character. The building illustrated here, for example, has a distinctive horizontal box-like shape with the middle portion of the box projecting up an extra story. This building has other visual aspects that help define its overall character, including the pattern of vertical bands of windows, the decorative horizontal bands which separate the base of the building from the upper floors, the dark brown color of the brick, the large arched entranceway, and the castle-like tower behind the building.

Overall Visual Character: Shape

It should not be assumed that only large or unusual buildings have a shape that is distinctive or identifiable. The front wall of this modest commercial building has a simple three-part shape that is the controlling aspect of its overall visual character. It consists of a large center bay with a two story opening that combines the storefront and the windows above. The upward projecting parapet and the decorative stonework also relate to and emphasize its shape. The flanking narrow bays enframe the side windows and the small iron balconies, and the main entrance doorway into the store. Any changes to the center portion of this three-part shape, could drastically affect the visual character of this building. Photo by Emogene A. Bevitt

Overall Visual Character: Openings

Window and door openings can be important to the overall visual character of historic buildings. This view shows only part of a much larger building, but the windows clearly help define its character, partly because of their shape and rhythm: the upper floor windows are grouped in a 4,3,4,1,4 rhythm, and the lower floor windows are arranged in a regular 1,1,1,.... rhythm. The individual windows are tall, narrow and arched, and they are accented by the different colored arched heads, which are connected where there are multiple windows so that the color contrast is a part of its character. If additional windows were inserted in the gap of the upper floors, the character would be much changed, as it would if the window heads were painted to match the color of the brick walls. Photo by Susan I. Dynes

Overall Visual Character: Openings

The opening illustrated here dominates the visual character of this building because of its size, shape, location, materials, and craftsmanship. Because of its relation to the generous staircase, this opening places a strong emphasis on the principal entry to the building. Enclosing this arcade-like entry with glass, for example, would materially and visually change the character of the building. Photo by Lee H. Nelson.

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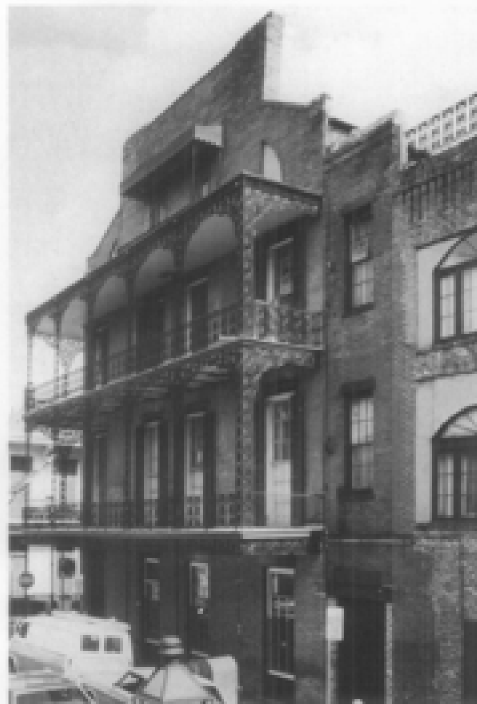
Preservation Briefs: Identifying the Visual Aspects of Historic Buildings as an Aid to Preserving their Character

Overall Visual Character: Roof and Related Features

This building has a number of character-defining aspects which include the windows and the decorative stonework, but certainly the roof and its related features are visually important to its overall visual character. The roof is not only highly visible, it has elaborate stone dormers, and it also has decorative metalwork and slatework. The red and black slates of differing sizes and shapes are laid in patterns that extend around the roof of this large and freestanding building. Any changes to this patterned slatework, or to the other roofing details would damage the visual character of the building. Photo by Laurie R. Hammel

Overall Visual Character: Roof and Related Features

On this building, the most important visual aspects of its character are the roof and its related features such as the dormers and chimneys. The roof is important to the visual character because its steepness makes it highly visible, and its prominence is reinforced by the patterned tinwork, the six dormers and the two chimneys. Changes to the roof or its features, such as removal or alterations to the dormers, for example, would certainly change the character of this building. This does not discount the importance of its other aspects, such as the porch, the windows, the brickwork, or its setting; but the roof is clearly crucial to understanding the overall visual character of this building as seen from a distance. Photo by Lee H. Nelson



Overall Visual Character: Projections

A projecting porch or balcony can be very important to the overall visual character of almost any building and to the district in which it is located. Despite the size of this building (3 1/2 stories), and its distinctive roofline profile, and despite the importance of the very large window openings, the lacy wrap-around iron balcony is singularly important to the visual character of this building. It would seriously affect the character to remove the balcony, to enclose it, or to replace it with a balcony lacking the same degree of detail of the original material. Photo by Baird M. Smith

Preservation Briefs: Identifying the Visual Aspects of Historic Buildings as an Aid to Preserving their Character

Overall Visual Character: Projections

Since these are row houses, any evaluation of their visual exterior character is necessarily limited to the front and rear walls; and while there are a number of things competing for attention in the front, it is the half round projecting bays with their conical roofs that contribute most prominently to the visual character. Their removal would be a devastating loss to the overall character, but even if preserved, the character could be easily damaged by changes to their color (as seen in the left bay which has been painted a dark color), or changes to their windows, or changes to their tile roofs. Though these houses have other fine features that contribute to the visual character and are worthy of preservation, these half-round bays demonstrate the importance of projecting features on an already rich and complex facade. Because of the repetitive nature of these projecting bays on adjacent row houses, along with the buildings' size, scale, openings, and materials, they also contribute to the overall visual character of the streetscape in the historic district. Any evaluation of the visual character of such a building should take into account the context of this building within the district. Photo by Lee H. Nelson

Overall Visual Character: Projections

Many buildings have projecting features such as porches, bay windows, or overhanging roofs, that help define their overall visual character. This projecting porch because of its size and shape, and because it copies the pitch and material of the main roof, is an important contributor to the visual character of this simple farmhouse. The removal or alteration of this porch would drastically alter the character of this building. If the porch were enclosed with wood or glass, or if gingerbread brackets were added to the porch columns, if the tin roof was replaced with asphalt, or if the porch railing was opened to admit a center stairway, the overall visual character could be seriously damaged. Although this projecting porch is an important feature, almost any other change to this house, such as changes to the window pattern, or changes to the main roof, or changes to the setting, would also change its visual character. Photo by Hugh C. Miller

Overall Visual Character: Trim

If one were to analyze the overall shape or form of this building, it would be seen that it is a gable-roofed house with dormers and a wrap-around porch. It is similar to many other houses of the period. It is the wooden trim on the eaves and around the porch that gives this building its own identify and its special visual character. Although such wooden trim is vulnerable to the elements, and must be kept painted to prevent deterioration; the loss of this trim would seriously damage the overall visual character of this building, and its loss would obliterate much of the close-up visual character so dependent upon craftsmanship for the moldings, carvings, and the see-through jigsaw work. Photo by Hugh C. Miller

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Preservation Briefs: Identifying the Visual Aspects of Historic Buildings as an Aid to Preserving their Character

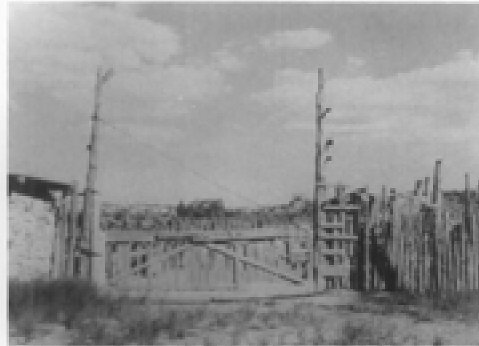
Overall Visual Character: Setting

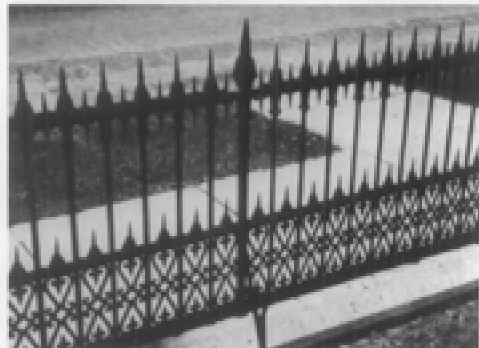
In the process of identifying the overall visual character, the aspect of setting should not be overlooked. Obviously, the setting of urban row houses differs from that of a mansion with a designed landscape. However, there are many instances where the relationship between the building and its place on the streetscape, or its place in the rural environment, in other words its setting, may be an important contributor to its overall character.

In this instance, the corner tower and the arched entryway are important contributors to the visual character of the building itself, but there is also a relationship between the building and the two converging streets that is also an important aspect of this historic building. The curb, sidewalk, fence, and the yard interrelate with each other to establish a setting that is essential to the overall visual character of the historic property. Removing these elements or replacing them with a driveway or parking court would destroy an important visual aspect. Photo by Lee H. Nelson

Overall Visual Character: Setting

Even architecturally modest buildings frequently will have a setting that contributes to their overall character. In this very urban district, set-backs are the exception, so that the small front yard is something of a luxury, and it is important to the overall character because of its design and materials, which include the iron fence along the sidewalk, the curved walk leading to the porch, and the various plantings. In a district where parking spaces are in great demand, such front yards are sometimes converted to off-street parking, but in this instance, that would essentially destroy its setting and would drastically change the visual character of this historic property. Photo by Lee H. Nelson





Overall Visual Character: Setting

Among the various visual aspects relating to the setting of an historic property are such site features as gardens, walks, fences, etc. This can include their design and materials. There is a dramatic difference in the visual character between these two fence constructions—one utilizing found materials with no particular regard to their uniformity of size or placement, and the other being a product of the machine age utilizing cast iron components assembled into a pattern of precision and regularity. If the corral fence were to be repaired or replaced with lumberyard materials its character would be dramatically compromised. The rhythm and regularity of the cast iron fence is so important to its visual character that its character could be altered by accidental damage or vandalism, if some of the fence top spikes were broken off thus interrupting the rhythm or pattern. Photos by Lee H. Nelson

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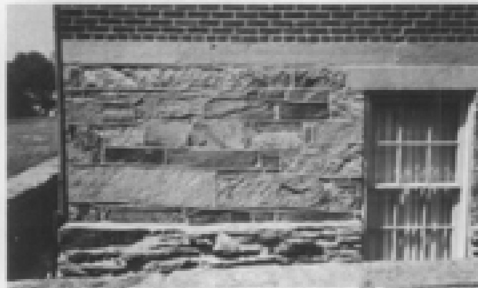
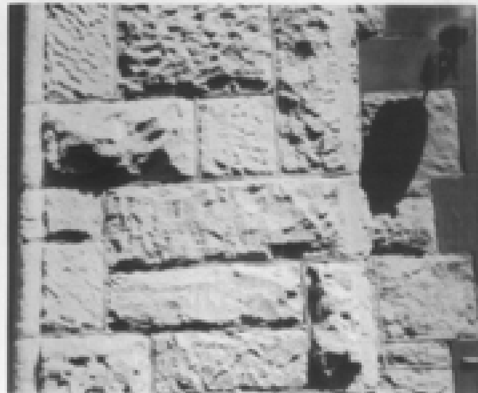


Arm's Length Visual Character: Materials

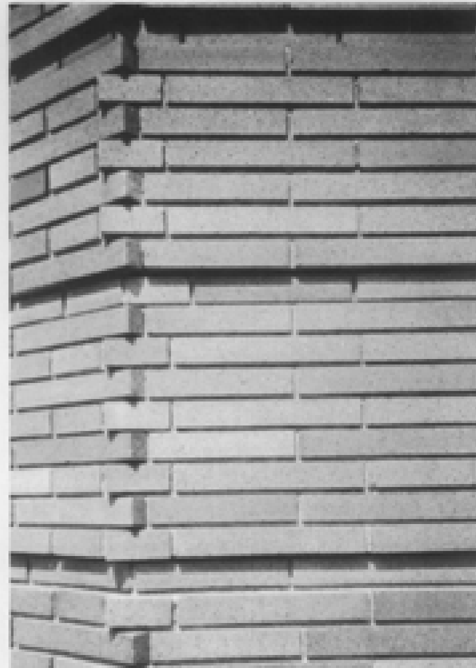
At arm's length, the visual character is most often determined by the surface qualities of the materials and craftsmanship; and while these aspects are often inextricably related, the original choice of materials often plays the dominant role in establishing the close-range character because of the color, texture, or shape of the materials.

In this instance, the variety and arrangement of the materials is important in defining the visual character, starting with the large pieces of broken stone which form the projecting base for the building walls, then changing to a wall of roughly rectangular stones which vary in size, color, and texture, all with accentuated, projecting beads of mortar, then there is a rather precise and narrow band of cut and dressed stones with minimal mortar joints, and finally, the main building walls are composed of bricks, rather uniform in color, with fairly generous mortar joints. It is the juxtaposition and variety of these materials (and of course, the craftsmanship) that is very important to the visual character. Changing the raised mortar joints, for example, would drastically alter the character at arm's length. *Photo by Lee H. Nelson*



Arm's Length Visual Character: Craft Details

There are many instances where craft details dominate the arm's length visual character. As seen here, the craft details are especially noticeable because the stones are all of a uniform color, and they are all squared off, but their surfaces were worked with differing tools and techniques to create a great variety of textures, resulting in a tour-de-force of craft details. This texture is very important at close range. It was a deliberately contrived surface that is an important contributor to the visual character of this building. *Photo by Lee H. Nelson*



Arm's Length Visual Character: Craft Details

The arm's length visual character of this building is a combination of the materials and the craft details. Most of the exterior walls of this building consist of early 20th century Roman brick, precisely made, unusually long bricks, in varying shades of yellow-brown, with a noticeable surface spotting of dark iron pyrites. While this brick is an important contributor to the visual character, the related craft details are perhaps more important, and they consist of: unusually precise coursing of the bricks, almost as though they were laid up using a surveyor's level; a row of recessed bricks every ninth course, creating a shadow pattern on the wall; deeply recessed mortar joints, creating a secondary pattern of shadows; and a toothed effect where the bricks overlap each other at the corner of the building. The cumulative effect of this artisanry is important to the arm's length visual character, and it is evident that it would be difficult to match if it were damaged, and the effect could be easily damaged through insensitive treatments such as painting the brickwork or by careless repointing. *Photo by Lee H. Nelson*

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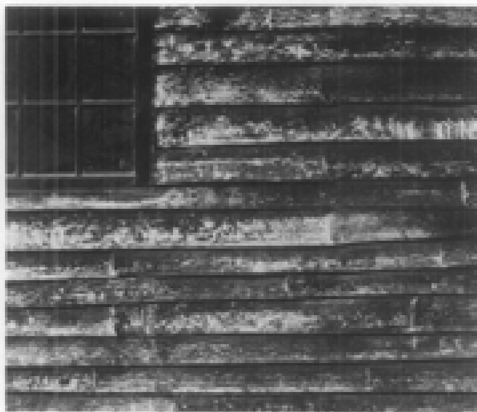

Arm's Length Visual Character: Craft Details

On some buildings, there are subtle aspects of visual character that cannot be perceived from a distance. This is especially true of certain craft details that can be seen only at close range. On this building, it is easily understood that the narrow, unpainted, and weathered clapboards are an important aspect of its overall visual character; but at close range there are a number of subtle but very important craft details that contribute to the handmade quality of this building, and which clearly differentiate it from a building with machine sawn clapboards. The clapboards seen here were split by hand and the bottom edges were not dressed, so that the boards vary in width and thickness, and thus they give a very uneven shadow pattern. Because they were split from oak that is unpainted, there are occasional wavy rays in the wood that stand against the grain. Also noticeable is the fact that the boards are of relatively short lengths, and that they have feather-edged ends that overlap each other, a detail that is very different from butted joints. The occasional large nail heads and the differential silver-gray weathering add to the random quality of the clapboards. All of these qualities contribute to the arm's length visual character. Photo by Lee H. Nelson

Arm's Length Visual Character: Craft Details

While hand-split clapboards are distinctive visual elements in their own way, machine-sawn and painted wood siding is equally important to the overall visual character in most other instances. At arm's length, however, the machine sawn siding may not be so distinctive; but there might be other details that add visual character to the wooden building, such as the details of wooden trim and louvered shutters around the windows (as seen here), or similar surface textures on other buildings, such as the saw marks on wall shingles, the joints in leaded glass, decorative tinwork on a rain conductor box, the rough surface of pebble-dash stuccowork, or the pebbly surface of exposed aggregate concrete. Such surfaces can only be seen at arm's length and they add to the visual character of a historic building. Photo by Hugh C. Miller

Interior Visual Character: Individually Important Spaces

In assessing the interior visual character of any historic building, it is necessary to ask whether there are spaces that are important to the character of this particular building, whether the building is architecturally rich or modest, or even if it is a simple or utilitarian structure.

The character of the individually important space which is illustrated here is a combination of its size, the twin curving staircases, the massive columns and curving vaulted ceilings, in addition to the quality of the materials in the floor and in the stairs. If the ceiling were to be lowered to provide space for heating ducts, or if the stairways were to be enclosed for code reasons, the shape and character of this space would be damaged, even if there was no permanent physical damage. Such changes can easily destroy the visual character of an individually important interior space. Thus, it is important that the visual aspects of a building's interior character be recognized before planning any changes or alterations. Photo by National Portrait Gallery

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Interior Visual Character: Related Spaces

Many buildings have interior spaces that are visually or physically related so that, as you move through them, they are perceived not as separate spaces, but as a sequence of related spaces that are important in defining the interior character of the building. The example which is illustrated here consists of three spaces that are visually linked to each other.

The first of these spaces is the vestibule which is of a generous size and unusual in its own right, but more important, it visually relates to the second space which is the main stairhall.

The hallway is the circulation artery for the building, and leads both horizontally and vertically to other rooms and spaces, but especially to the open and inviting stairway.

The stairway is the third part of this sequence of related spaces, and it provides continuing access to the upper floors.

These related spaces are very important in defining the interior character of this building. Almost any change to these spaces, such as installing doors between the vestibule and the hallway, or enclosing the stair would seriously impact their character and the way that character is perceived. Top photo by Mel Chamowitz, others by John Tennant

Interior Visual Character: Interior Features

Interior features are three-dimensional building elements or architectural details that are an integral part of the building as opposed to furniture. Interior features are often important in defining the character of an individual room or space. In some instances, an interior feature, like a large and ornamental open stairway may dominate the visual character of an entire building. In other instances, a modest iron stairway (like the one illustrated here) may be an important interior feature, and its preservation would be crucial to preserving the interior character of the building. Such features can also include the obvious things like fireplace mantles, plaster ceiling medallions, or panelling, but they also extend to features like hardware, lighting fixtures, bank tellers cages, decorative elevator doors, etc. Photo by David W. Look

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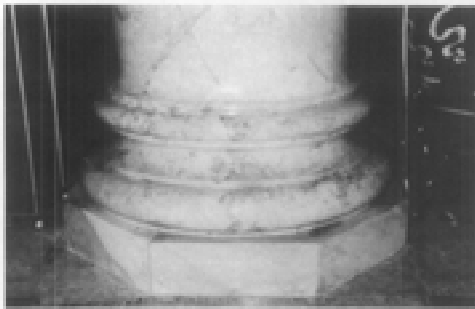
Interior Visual Character: Interior Features

Modern heating or cooling devices usually add little to the interior character of a building; but historically, radiators, for instance, may have contributed to the interior character by virtue of their size or shape, or because of their specially designed bases, piping, and decorative grillage or enclosures. Sometimes they were painted with several colors to highlight their integral, cast-in details. In more recent times, it has been common to overpaint and conceal such distinctive aspects of earlier heating and plumbing devices, so that we seldom have the opportunity to realize how important they can be in defining the character of interior rooms and spaces. For that reason, it is important to identify their character-defining potential, and consider their preservation, retention, or restoration. Photo by David W. Look



Interior Visual Character: Surface Materials and Finishes

When identifying the visual character of historic interior spaces one should not overlook the importance of those materials and finishes that comprise the surfaces of walls, floors and ceilings. The surfaces may have evidence of either hand-craft or machine-made products that are important contributors to the visual character, including patterned or inlaid designs in the wood flooring, decorative painting practices such as stenciling, imitation marble or wood grain, wallpapering, tinwork, tile floors, etc.

The example illustrated here involves a combination of real marble at the base of the column, imitation marble patterns on the plaster surface of the column (a practice called scagliola), and a tile floor surface that uses small mosaic tiles arranged to form geometric designs in several different colors. While such decorative materials and finishes may be important in defining the interior visual character of this particular building, it should be remembered that in much more modest buildings, the plainness of surface materials and finishes may be an essential aspect of their historic character. Photo by Lee H. Nelson

Fragility of A Building's Visual Character

Some aspects of a building's visual character are fragile and are easily lost. This is true of brickwork, for example, which can be irreversibly damaged with inappropriate cleaning techniques or by insensitive repointing practices. At least two factors are important contributors to the visual character of brickwork, namely the brick itself and the craftsmanship. Between these, there are many more aspects worth noting, such as color range of bricks, size and shape variations, texture, bonding patterns, together with the many variable qualities of the mortar joints, such as color, width of joint and tooling. These qualities could be easily damaged by painting the brick, by raking out the joint with power tools, or repointing with a joint that is too wide. As seen here during the process of repointing, the visual character of this front wall is being dramatically changed from a wall where the bricks predominate, to a wall that is visually dominated by the mortar joints. Photo by Lee H. Nelson

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The Architectural Character Checklist/Questionnaire

Lee H. Nelson, FAIA
National Park Service

This checklist can be taken to the building and used to identify those aspects that give the building and setting its essential visual qualities and character. This checklist consists of a series of questions that are designed to help in identifying those things that contribute to a building's character. The use of this checklist involves the three-step process of looking for: 1) the overall visual aspects, 2) the visual character at close range, and 3) the visual character of interior spaces, features and finishes.

Because this is a process to identify architectural character, it does not address those intangible qualities that give a property or building or its contents its historic significance, instead this checklist is organized on the assumption that historic significance is embodied in those *tangible* aspects that include the building's setting, its form and fabric.

Step One

1. Shape

What is there about the form or shape of the building that gives the building its identity? Is the shape distinctive in relation to the neighboring buildings? Is it simply a low, squat box, or is it a tall, narrow building with a corner tower? Is the shape highly consistent with its neighbors? Is the shape so complicated because of wings, or ells, or differences in height, that its complexity is important to its character? Conversely, is the shape so simple or plain that adding a feature like a porch would change that character? Does the shape convey its historic function as in smoke stacks or silos?

Notes on the Shape or Form of the Building:

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2. Roof and Roof Features

Does the roof shape or its steep (or shallow) slope contribute to the building's character? Does the fact that the roof is highly visible (or not visible at all) contribute to the architectural identity of the building? Are certain roof features important to the profile of the building against the sky or its background, such as cupolas, multiple chimneys, dormers, cresting, or weathervanes? Are the roofing materials or their colors or their patterns (such as patterned slates) more noticeable than the shape or slope of the roof?

Notes on the Roof and Roof Features:

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3. Openings

Is there a rhythm or pattern to the arrangement of windows or other openings in the walls; like the rhythm of windows in a factory building, or a three-part window in the front bay of a house; or is there a noticeable relationship between the width of the window openings and the wall space between the window openings? Are there distinctive openings, like a large arched entranceway, or decorative window lintels that accentuate the importance of the window openings, or unusually shaped windows, or patterned window sash, like small panes of glass in the windows or doors, that are important to the character? Is the plainness of the window openings such that adding shutters or gingerbread trim would radically change its character? Is there a hierarchy of facades that make the front windows more important than the side windows? What about those walls where the absence of windows establishes its own character?

Notes on the Openings:

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4. Projections

Are there parts of the building that are character-defining because they project from the walls of the building like porches, cornices, bay windows, or balconies? Are there turrets, or widely overhanging eaves, projecting pediments or chimneys?

Notes on the Projections:

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5. Trim and Secondary Features

Does the trim around the windows or doors contribute to the character of the building? Is there other trim on the walls or around the projections that, because of its decoration or color or patterning contributes to the character of the building? Are there secondary features such as shutters, decorative gables, railings, or exterior wall panels?

Notes on the Trim and Secondary Features:

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6. Materials

Do the materials or combination of materials contribute to the overall character of the building as seen from a distance because of their color or patterning, such as broken faced stone, scalloped wall shingling, rounded rock foundation walls, boards and battens, or textured stucco?

Notes on the Materials:

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7. Setting

What are the aspects of the setting that are important to the visual character? For example, is the alignment of buildings along a city street and their relationship to the sidewalk the essential aspect of its setting? Or, conversely, is the essential character dependent upon the tree plantings and out buildings which surround the farmhouse? Is the front yard important to the setting of the modest house? Is the specific site important to the setting such as being on a hilltop, along a river, or, is the building placed on the site in such a way to enhance its setting? Is there a special relationship to the adjoining streets and other buildings? Is there a view? Is there fencing, planting, terracing, walkways or any other landscape aspects that contribute to the setting?

Notes on the Setting:

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Step Two

8. Materials at Close Range

Are there one or more materials that have an inherent texture that contributes to the close range character, such as stucco, exposed aggregate concrete, or brick textured with vertical grooves? Or materials with inherent colors such as smooth orange-colored brick with dark spots of iron pyrites, or prominently veined stone, or green serpentine stone? Are there combinations of materials, used in juxtaposition, such as several different kinds of stone, combinations of stone and brick, dressed stones for window lintels used in conjunction with rough stones for the wall? Has the choice of materials or the combinations of materials contributed to the character?

Notes on the Materials at Close Range:

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9. Craft Details

Is there high quality brickwork with narrow mortar joints? Is there hand-tooled or patterned stonework? Do the walls exhibit carefully struck vertical mortar joints and recessed horizontal joints? Is the wall shinglework laid up in patterns or does it retain evidence of the circular saw marks or can the grain of the wood be seen through the semi-transparent stain? Are there hand split or hand-dressed clapboards, or machine smooth beveled siding, or wood rusticated to look like stone, or Art Deco zigzag designs executed in stucco?

Almost any evidence of craft details, whether handmade or machinemade, will contribute to the character of a building because it is a manifestation of the materials, of the times in which the work was done, and of the tools and processes that were used. It further reflects the effects of time, of maintenance (and/or neglect) that the building has received over the years. All of these aspects are a part of the surface qualities that are seen only at close range.

Notes on the Craft Details:

Step Three

10. Individual Spaces

Are there individual rooms or spaces that are important to this building because of their size, height, proportion, configuration, or function, like the center hallway in a house, or the bank lobby, or the school auditorium, or the ballroom in a hotel, or a courtroom in a county courthouse?

Notes on the Individual Spaces:

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11. Related Spaces and Sequences of Spaces

Are there adjoining rooms that are visually and physically related with large doorways or open archways so that they are perceived as related rooms as opposed to separate rooms? Is there an important sequence of spaces that are related to each other, such as the sequence from the entry way to the lobby to the stairway and to the upper balcony as in a theatre; or the sequence in a residence from the entry vestibule to the hallway to the front parlor, and on through the sliding doors to the back parlor; or the sequence in an office building from the entry vestibule to the lobby to the bank of elevators?

Notes on the Related Spaces and Sequences of Spaces:

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12. Interior Features

Are there interior features that help define the character of the building, such as fireplace mantels, stairways and balustrades, arched openings, interior shutters, inglenooks, cornices, ceiling medallions, light fixtures, balconies, doors, windows, hardware, wainscotting, panelling, trim, church pews, courtroom bars, teller cages, waiting room benches?

Notes on the Interior Features:

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13. Surface Finishes and Materials

Are there surface finishes and materials that can affect the design, the color or the texture of the interior? Are there materials and finishes or craft practices that contribute to the interior character, such as wooden parquet floors, checkerboard marble floors, pressed metal ceilings, fine hardwoods, grained doors or marblized surfaces, or polychrome painted surfaces, or stencilling, or wallpaper that is important to the historic character? Are there surface finishes and materials that, because of their plainness, are imparting the essential character of the interior such as hard or bright, shiny wall surfaces of plaster or glass or metal?

Notes on the Surface Finishes and Materials:

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14. Exposed Structure

Are there spaces where the exposed structural elements define the interior character such as the exposed posts, beams, and trusses in a church or train shed or factory? Are there rooms with decorative ceiling beams (non-structural) in bungalows, or exposed vigas in adobe buildings?

Notes on the Exposed Structure:

This concludes the three-step process of identifying the visual aspects of historic buildings and is intended as an aid in preserving their character and other distinguishing qualities. It is not intended as a means of understanding the significance of historical properties or districts, nor of the events or people associated with them. That can only be done through other kinds of research and investigation.

This Preservation Brief was originally developed as a slide talk/methodology in 1982 to discuss the use of the Secretary of the Interior's Standards for Rehabilitation in relation to preserving historic character; and it was amplified and modified in succeeding years to help guide preservation decisionmaking, initially for maintenance personnel in the National Park Service. A number of people contributed to the evolution of the ideas presented here. Special thanks go to Emogene Bevitt and Gary Hume, primarily for the many and frequent discussions relating to this approach in its evolutionary stages; to Mark Fram, Ontario Heritage Foundation, Toronto, for suggesting several additions to the Checklist; and more recently, to my co-workers, both in Washington and in our regional offices, especially Ward Jandl, Sara Blumenthal, Charles Fisher, Sharon Park, AIA, Jean Travers, Camille Martone, Susan Dynes, Michael Auer, Anne Grimmer, Kay Weeks, Betsy Chittenden, Patrick Andrus, Carol Shull, Hugh Miller, FAIA, Jerry Rogers, Paul Alley, David Look, AIA, Margaret Pepin-Donat, Bonnie Halda, Keith Everett, Thomas Keohan, the Preservation Services Division, Mid-Atlantic Region, and several reviewers in state preservation offices, especially Ann Haaker, Illinois; and Stan Graves, AIA, Texas; for providing very critical and constructive review of the manuscript.

This publication has been prepared pursuant to the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, as amended. Comments on the usefulness of this information are welcomed and can be sent to Mr. Nelson, Preservation Assistance Division, National Park Service, U.S. Department of the Interior, P.O. Box 37127, Washington, D.C. 20013-7127. This publication is not copyrighted and can be reproduced without penalty. Normal procedures for credit to the author and the National Park Service are appreciated.

Preservation Briefs: Rehabilitating Interiors in Historic Buildings

18 PRESERVATION BRIEFS

Rehabilitating Interiors in Historic Buildings

Identifying and Preserving Character-defining Elements

H. Ward Jandl

U.S. Department of the Interior
National Park Service
Cultural Resources
Heritage Preservation Services

A floor plan, the arrangement of spaces, and features and applied finishes may be individually or collectively important in defining the historic character of the building and the purpose for which it was constructed. Thus, their identification, retention, protection, and repair should be given prime consideration in every preservation project. Caution should be exercised in developing plans that would radically change character-defining spaces or that would obscure, damage or destroy interior features or finishes.

While the exterior of a building may be its most prominent visible aspect, or its "public face," its interior can be even more important in conveying the building's history and development over time. Rehabilitation within the context of the Secretary of the Interior's Standards for Rehabilitation calls for the preservation of exterior *and* interior portions or features of the building that are significant to its historic, architectural and cultural values.

Interior components worthy of preservation may include the building's **plan** (sequence of spaces and circulation patterns), the building's **spaces** (rooms and volumes), individual architectural **features**, and the various **finishes** and **materials** that make up the walls, floors, and ceilings. A theater auditorium or sequences of rooms such as double parlors or a lobby leading to a stairway that ascends to a mezzanine may comprise a building's most important spaces. Individual rooms may contain notable features such as plaster cornices, millwork, parquet wood floors, and hardware. Paints, wall coverings, and finishing techniques such as graining, may provide color, texture, and patterns which add to a building's unique character.

Virtually all rehabilitations of historic buildings involve some degree of interior alteration, even if the buildings are to be used for their original purpose. Interior rehabilitation proposals may range from preservation of existing features and spaces to total reconfigurations. In some cases, depending on the building, restoration may be warranted to preserve historic character adequately; in other cases, extensive alterations may be perfectly acceptable.

This Preservation Brief has been developed to assist building owners and architects in identifying and evaluating those elements of a building's interior that contribute to its historic character and in planning for the preservation of those elements in the process of *rehabilitation*. The guidance applies to all building types and styles, from 18th century churches to 20th century office buildings. The Brief does not attempt to provide specific advice on preservation techniques and treatments, given the vast range of buildings, but rather suggests general preservation approaches to guide construction work.

Identifying and Evaluating the Importance of Interior Elements Prior to Rehabilitation

Before determining what uses might be appropriate and before drawing up plans, a thorough professional assessment should be undertaken to identify those tangible architectural components that, prior to rehabilitation, convey the building's sense of time and place—that is , its "historic character." Such an assessment, accomplished by walking through and taking account of each element that makes up the interior, can help ensure that a truly compatible use for the building, one that requires minimal alteration to the building, is selected.

Researching The Building's History

A review of the building's history will reveal why and when the building achieved significance or how it contributes to the significance of the district. This information helps to evaluate whether a particular rehabilitation treatment will be appropriate to the building and whether it will preserve those tangible components of the building that convey its significance for association with specific events or persons along with its architectural importance. In this regard, National Register files may prove useful in explaining why and for what period of time the

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building is significant. In some cases research may show that later alterations are significant to the building; in other cases, the alterations may be without historical or architectural merit, and may be removed in the rehabilitation.

Identifying Interior Elements

Interiors of buildings can be seen as a series of primary and secondary spaces. The goal of the assessment is to identify which elements contribute to the building's character and which do not. Sometimes it will be the sequence and flow of spaces, and not just the individual rooms themselves, that contribute to the building's character. This is particularly evident in buildings that have strong central axes or those that are consciously asymmetrical in design. In other cases, it may be the size or shape of the space that is distinctive. The importance of some interiors may not be readily apparent based on a visual inspection; sometimes rooms that do not appear to be architecturally distinguished are associated with important persons and events that occurred within the building.

Primary spaces, are found in all buildings, both monumental and modest. Examples may include foyers, corridors, elevator lobbies, assembly rooms, stairhalls, and parlors. Often they are the places in the building that the public uses and sees; sometimes they are the most architecturally detailed spaces in the building, carefully proportioned and finished with costly materials. They may be functionally and architecturally related to the building's external appearance. In a simpler building, a primary space may be distinguishable only by its location, size, proportions, or use. Primary spaces are always important to the character of the building and should be preserved.

Secondary spaces are generally more utilitarian in appearance and size than primary spaces. They may include areas and rooms that service the building, such as bathrooms, and kitchens. Examples of secondary spaces in a commercial or office structure may include storerooms, service corridors, and in some cases, the offices themselves. Secondary spaces tend to be of less importance to the building and may accept greater change in the course of work without compromising the building's historic character.

Spaces are often designed to interrelate both visually and functionally. The **sequence of spaces**, such as vestibule-hall-parlor or foyer-lobby-stair-auditorium or stairhall-corridor-classroom, can define and express the building's historic function and unique character. Important sequences of spaces should be identified and retained in the rehabilitation project.

Floor plans may also be distinctive and characteristic of a style of architecture or a region. Examples include Greek Revival and shotgun houses. Floor plans may also reflect social, educational, and medical theories of the period. Many 19th century psychiatric institutions, for example, had plans based on the ideas of Thomas Kirkbride, a Philadelphia doctor who authored a book on asylum design.

In addition to evaluating the relative importance of the various spaces, the assessment should identify architectural **features** and **finishes** that are part of the

Figure 1. This architect-designed interior reflects early 20th century American taste: the checkerboard tile floor, wood wainscot, coffered ceiling, and open staircase are richly detailed and crafted by hand. Not only are the individual architectural features worthy of preservation, but the planned sequence of spaces—entry hall, stairs, stair landings, and loggia—imparts a grandeur that is characteristic of high style residences of this period. This interior is of Greystone, Los Angeles, California. Photography for HABS by Jack E. Boucher

Figure 2. The interiors of mills and industrial buildings frequently are open, unadorned spaces with exposed structural elements. While the new uses to which this space could be put are many—retail, residential, or office—the generous floor-to-ceiling height and exposed truss system are important character-defining features and should be retained in the process of rehabilitation.

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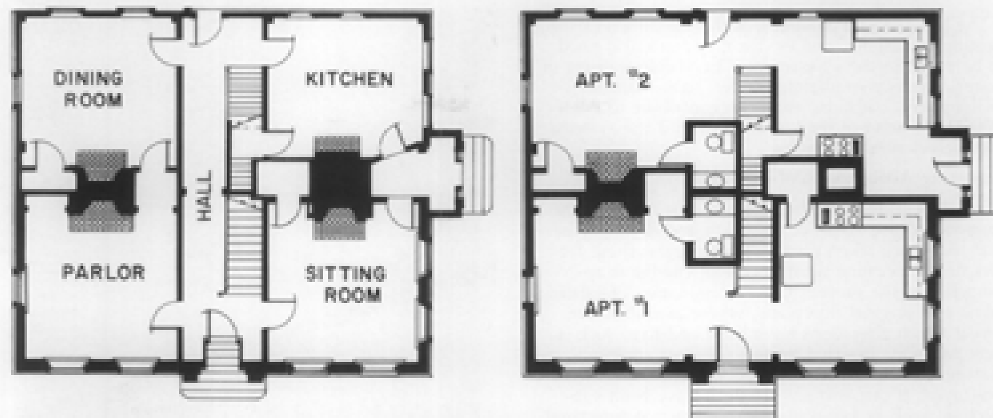

Figure 3. The floor plan at left is characteristic of many 19th century Greek Revival houses, with large rooms flanking a central hall. In the process of rehabilitation, the plan (at right) was drastically altered to accommodate two duplex apartments. The open stair was replaced with one that is enclosed, two fireplaces were eliminated, and Greek Revival trim around windows and doors was removed. The symmetry of the rooms themselves was destroyed with the insertion of bathrooms and kitchens. Few vestiges of the 19th century interior survived the rehabilitation. Drawing by Neal A. Vogel

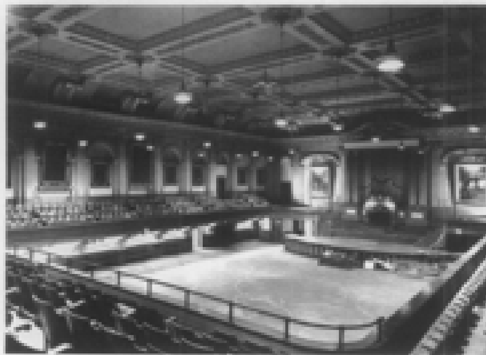

Figure 4. Many institutional buildings possess distinctive spaces or floor plans that are important in conveying the significance of the property. Finding new compatible uses for these buildings and preserving the buildings' historic character can be a difficult, if not impossible, task. One such case is Mechanics Hall in Worcester, Massachusetts, constructed between 1855 and 1857. This grand hall, which occupies the entire third floor of the building, could not be subdivided without destroying the integrity of the space.

Figure 5. The interior of a simply detailed worker's house of the 19th century may be as important historically as the richly ornamented interior seen in figure 1. Although the interior of this house has not been properly maintained, the wide baseboards, flat window trim, and four-panel door are characteristic of workers' housing during this period and deserve retention during rehabilitation.

interior's history and character. Marble or wood wainscoting in corridors, elevator cabs, crown molding, baseboards, mantels, ceiling medallions, window and door trim, tile and parquet floors, and staircases are among those features that can be found in historic buildings. Architectural finishes of note may include grained woodwork, marbleized columns, and plastered walls. Those features that are characteristic of the building's style and period of construction should, again, be retained in the rehabilitation.

Features and finishes, even if machine-made and not exhibiting particularly fine craftsmanship, may be character-defining; these would include pressed metal ceilings and millwork around windows and doors. The interior of a plain, simple detailed worker's house of the 19th century may be as important historically as a richly ornamented, high-style townhouse of the same period. Both resources, if equally intact, convey important information about the early inhabitants and deserve the same careful attention to detail in the preservation process.

The location and condition of the building's existing heating, plumbing, and electrical systems also need to be noted in the assessment. The visible features of historic systems—radiators, grilles, light fixtures, switchplates, bathtubs, etc.—can contribute to the overall character of the building, even if the systems themselves need upgrading.

Assessing Alterations and Deterioration

In assesessing a building's interior, it is important to ascertain the extent of alteration and deterioration that may have taken place over the years; these factors help determine what degree of change is appropriate in the project. Close examination of existing fabric and original floorplans, where available, can reveal which alterations have been **additive**, such as new partitions inserted for functional or structural reasons and historic features covered up rather than destroyed. It can also reveal which have been **subtractive**, such as key walls removed and architectural features destroyed. If an interior has been modified by additive changes and if these changes have not acquired significance, it may be relatively easy to remove the alterations and return the interior to its historic appearance. If an interior has been greatly altered through subtractive changes, there may be more latitude in making further alterations in the process of rehabilitation because the integrity of the interior has been compromised. At the same time, if the interior had been exceptionally significant, and solid documentation on its historic condition is available, reconstruction of the missing features may be the preferred option.

It is always a recommended practice to photograph interior spaces and features thoroughly prior to rehabilitation. Measured floor plans showing the existing conditions are extremely useful. This documentation is invaluable in drawing up rehabilitation plans and specifications and in assessing the impact of changes to the property for historic preservation certification purposes.

Drawing Up Plans and Executing Work

If the historic building is to be rehabilitated, it is critical that the new use not require substantial alteration of distinctive spaces or removal of character-defining architectural features or finishes. If an interior loses the physical vestiges of its past as well as its historic function, the sense of time and place associated both with the building and the district in which it is located is lost.

The recommended approaches that follow address common problems associated with the rehabilitation of historic interiors and have been adapted from the Secretary of the Interior's Standards for Rehabilitation and Guidelines for Rehabilitating Historic Buildings. Adherence to these suggestions can help ensure that character-defining interior elements are preserved in the process of rehabilitation. The checklist covers a range of situations and is not intended to be all-inclusive. Readers are strongly encouraged to review the full set of guidelines before undertaking *any* rehabilitation project.

Figure 6. This corridor, located in the historic Monadnock Building in Chicago, has glazed walls, oak trim, and marble wainscotting, and is typical of those found in late 19th and early 20th century office buildings. Despite the simplicity of the features, a careful attention to detail can be noted in the patterned tile floor, bronze mail chute, and door hardware. The retention of corridors like this one should be a priority in rehabilitation projects involving commercial buildings.

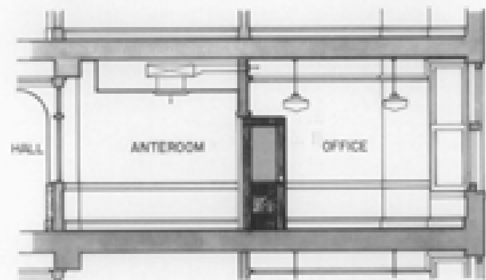

Figure 7. When the Monadnock Building was rehabilitated, architects retained the basic floor plan on the upper floors consisting of a double-loaded corridor with offices opening onto it. The original floor-to-ceiling height in the corridors and outside offices—the most important spaces—was maintained by installing needed air conditioning ductwork in the less important anterooms. In this way, the most significant interior spaces were preserved intact. Drawing by Neal A. Vogel

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Preservation Briefs: Rehabilitating Interiors in Historic Buildings

Recommended Approaches for Rehabilitating Historic Interiors

1. Retain and preserve floor plans and interior spaces that are important in defining the overall historic character of the building. This includes the size, configuration, proportion, and relationship of rooms and corridors; the relationship of features to spaces; and the spaces themselves such as lobbies, reception halls, entrance halls, double parlors, theaters, auditoriums, and important industrial or commercial use spaces. Put service functions required by the building's new use, such as bathrooms, mechanical equipment, and office machines, in secondary spaces.

2. Avoid subdividing spaces that are characteristic of a building type or style or that are directly associated with specific persons or patterns of events. Space may be subdivided both vertically through the insertion of new partitions or horizontally through insertion of new floors or mezzanines. The insertion of new additional floors should be considered only when they will not damage or destroy the structural system or obscure, damage, or destroy character-defining spaces, features, or finishes. If rooms have already been subdivided through an earlier insensitive renovation, consider removing the partitions and restoring the room to its original proportions and size.

3. Avoid making new cuts in floors and ceilings where such cuts would change character-defining spaces and the historic configuration of such spaces. Inserting of a new atrium or a lightwell is appropriate only in very limited situations where the existing interiors are not historically or architecturally distinguished.

4. Avoid installing dropped ceilings below ornamental ceilings or in rooms where high ceilings are part of the building's character. In addition to obscuring or destroying significant details, such treatments will also change the space's proportions. If dropped ceilings are installed in buildings that lack character-defining spaces, such as mills and factories, they should be well set back from the windows so they are not visible from the exterior.

5. Retain and preserve interior features and finishes that are important in defining the overall historic character of the building. This might include columns, doors, cornices, baseboards, fireplaces and mantels, paneling, light fixtures, elevator cabs, hardware, and flooring; and wallpaper, plaster, paint, and finishes such as stenciling, marbleizing, and graining; and other decorative materials that accent interior features and provide color, texture, and patterning to walls, floors, and ceilings.

6. Retain stairs in their historic configuration and location. If a second means of egress is required, consider constructing new stairs in secondary spaces. (For guidance on designing compatible new additions, see Preservation Brief 14, "New Exterior Additions to Historic Buildings.") The application of fire-retardant coatings, such as intumescent paints; the installation of fire suppression systems, such as sprinklers; and the construction of glass enclosures can in many cases permit retention of stairs and other character-defining features.

7. Retain and preserve visible features of early mechanical systems that are important in defining the overall historic character of the building, such as radiators, vents, fans, grilles, plumbing fixtures, switchplates, and lights. If new heating, air conditioning, lighting and plumbing systems are installed, they should be done in a way that does not destroy character-defining spaces, features and finishes. Ducts, pipes, and wiring should be installed as inconspicuously as possible: in secondary spaces, in the attic or basement if possible, or in closets.

8. Avoid "furring out" perimeter walls for insulation purposes. This requires unnecessary removal of window trim and can change a room's proportions. Consider alternative means of improving thermal performance, such as installing insulation in attics and basements and adding storm windows.

9. Avoid removing paint and plaster from traditionally finished surfaces, to expose masonry and wood. Conversely, avoid painting previously unpainted millwork. Repairing deteriorated plasterwork is encouraged. If the plaster is too deteriorated to save, and the walls and ceilings are not highly ornamented, gypsum board may be an acceptable replacement material. The use of paint colors appropriate to the period of the building's construction is encouraged.

10. Avoid using destructive methods—propane and butane torches or sandblasting—to remove paint or other coatings from historic features. Avoid harsh cleaning agents that can change the appearance of wood. (For more information regarding appropriate cleaning methods, consult Preservation Brief 6, "Dangers of Abrasive Cleaning to Historic Buildings.")

Preservation Briefs: Rehabilitating Interiors in Historic Buildings

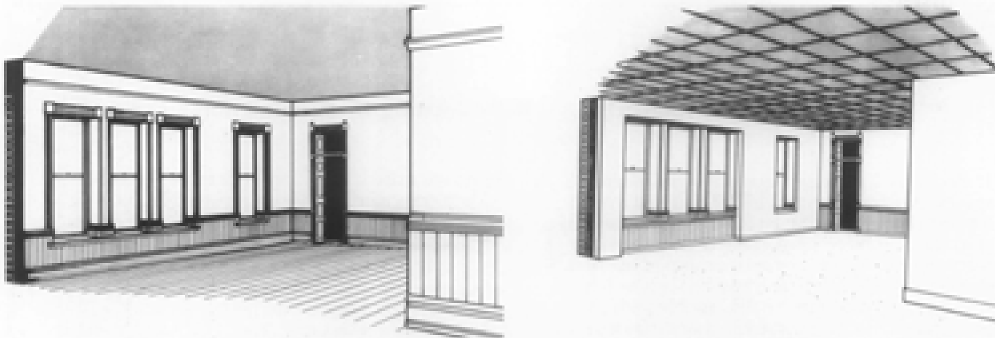

Figure 8. Furring out exterior walls to add insulation and suspending new ceilings to hide ductwork and wiring can change a room's proportions and can cause interior features to appear fragmented. In this case, a school was converted into apartments, and individual classrooms became living rooms, bedrooms, and kitchens. On the left is an illustration of a classroom prior to rehabilitation; note the generous floor-to-ceiling height, wood wainscotting, molded baseboard, picture molding, and Eastlake Style door and window trim. After rehabilitation, on the right, only fragments of the historic detailing survive: the ceiling has been dropped below the picture molding, the remaining wainscotting appears to be randomly placed, and some of the window trim has been obscured. Together with the subdivision of the classrooms, these rehabilitation treatments prevent a clear understanding of the original classroom's design and space. If thermal performance must be improved, alternatives to furring out walls and suspending new ceilings, such as installing insulation in attics and basements, should be considered. Drawings by Neal A. Vogel

Figure 9. The tangible reminders of early mechanical systems can be worth saving. In this example, in the Old Post Office in Washington, D.C., radiators encircle Corinthian columns in a decorative manner. Note, too, the period light fixtures. These features were retained when the building was rehabilitated as retail and office space. Photo: Historic American Buildings Survey

Figure 10. In this case plaster has been removed from perimeter walls, leaving brick exposed. In removing finishes from historic masonry walls, not only is there a loss of historic finish, but raw, unfinished walls are exposed, giving the interior an appearance it never had. Here, the exposed brick is of poor quality and the mortar joints are wide and badly struck. Plaster should have been retained and repaired, as necessary.

6

Preservation Briefs: Rehabilitating Interiors in Historic Buildings

Figure 11. These dramatic "before" and "after" photographs show a severely deteriorated space restored to its original elegance: plaster has been repaired and painted, the scagliola columns have been restored to match marble using traditional craft techniques, and missing decorative metalwork has been re-installed in front of the windows. Although some reorganization of the space took place, notably the relocation of the front desk, the overall historic character of the space has been preserved. These views are of the lobby in the Willard Hotel, Washington, D.C. Credit: Commercial Photographers (left); Carol M. Highsmith (right)

Meeting Building, Life Safety and Fire Codes

Buildings undergoing rehabilitation must comply with existing building, life safety and fire codes. The application of codes to specific projects varies from building to building, and town to town. Code requirements may make some reuse proposals impractical; in other cases, only minor changes may be needed to bring the project into compliance. In some situations, it may be possible to obtain a code variance to preserve distinctive interior features. (It should be noted that the Secretary's Standards for Rehabilitation take precedence over other regulations and codes in determining whether a rehabilitation project qualifies for Federal tax benefits.) A thorough understanding of the applicable regulations and close coordination with code officials, building inspectors, and fire marshals can prevent the alteration of significant historic interiors.

Sources of Assistance

Rehabilitation and restoration work should be undertaken by professionals who have an established reputation in the field.

Given the wide range of interior work items, from ornamental plaster repair to marble cleaning and the application of graining, it is possible that a number of specialists and subcontractors will need to be brought in to bring the project to completion. State Historic Preservation Officers and local preservation organizations may be a useful source of information in this regard. Good sources of information on appropriate preservation techniques for specific interior features and finishes include the *Bulletin* of the Association for Preservation Technology and *The Old-House Journal*; other useful publications are listed in the bibliography.

Protecting Interior Elements During Rehabilitation

Architectural features and finishes to be preserved in the process of rehabilitation should be clearly marked on plans *and at the site*. This step, along with careful supervision of the interior demolition work and protection against arson and vandalism, can prevent the unintended destruction of architectural elements that contribute to the building's historic character.

Protective coverings should be installed around architectural features and finishes to avoid damage in the course of construction work and to protect workers. Staircases and floors, in particular, are subjected to dirt and heavy wear, and the risk exists of incurring costly or irreparable damage. In most cases, the best, and least costly, preservation approach is to design and construct a protective system that enables stairs and floors to be used yet protects them from damage. Other architectural features such as mantels, doors, wainscotting, and decorative finishes may be protected by using heavy canvas or plastic sheets.

Summary

In many cases, the interior of a historic building is as important as its exterior. The careful identification and evaluation of interior architectural elements, after undertaking research on the building's history and use, is critically important *before* changes to the building are contemplated. Only *after* this evaluation should new uses be decided and plans be drawn up. The best rehabilitation is one that preserves and protects those rooms, sequences of spaces, features and finishes that define and shape the overall historic character of the building.

This Preservation Brief is based on a discussion paper prepared by the author for a National Park Service regional workshop held in March, 1987, and on a paper written by Gary Hume, "Interior Spaces in Historic Buildings," October, 1987. Appreciation is extended to the staff of Technical Preservation Services Branch and to the staff of NPS regional offices who reviewed the manuscript and provided many useful suggestions. Special thanks are given to Neal A. Vogel, a summer intern with the NPS, for many of the illustrations in this Brief.

This publication has been prepared pursuant to the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, as amended. Preservation Briefs 18 was developed under the editorship of Lee H. Nelson, FAIA, Chief, Preservation Assistance Division, National Park Service, U.S. Department of the Interior, P.O. Box 37127, Washington, D.C. 20013-7127. Comments on the usefulness of this information are welcomed and may be sent to Mr. Nelson at the above address. This publication is not copyrighted and can be reproduced without penalty. Normal procedures for credit to the author and the National Park Service are appreciated.

Selected Reading List

There are few books written exclusively on preserving historic interiors, and most of these tend to focus on residential interiors. Articles on the subject appear regularly in *The Old-House Journal*, the *Bulletin of the Association for Preservation Technology*, and *Historic Preservation Magazine*.

Ferro, Maximilian L., and Melissa L. Cook. *Electric Wiring and Lighting in Historic American Buildings*. New Bedford, Massachusetts: AFC/A Nortek Company, 1984.

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Jennings, Jan, and Herbert Gottfried. *American Vernacular Interior Architecture 1870-1940*. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold Company, 1988.

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Labine, Clem, and Carolyn Flaherty (editors). *The Old-House Journal Compendium*. Woodstock, New York: The Overlook Press, 1980.

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Winkler, Gail Caskey, and Roger W. Moss. *Victorian Interior Decoration: American Interiors 1830-1900*. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1986.

October 1988

Cover: Detail of carving on interior shutter, Hammond-Harwood House, Annapolis, Maryland.

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Preservation Briefs: Repairing Historic Flat Plaster - Walls and Ceilings

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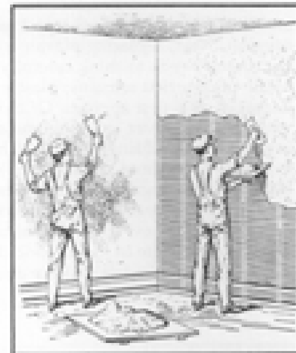

Repairing Historic Flat Plaster—Walls and Ceilings

Marylee MacDonald

U.S. Department of the Interior National Park Service
Preservation Assistance Division Technical Preservation Services

Plaster in a historic building is like a family album. The handwriting of the artisans, the taste of the original occupants, and the evolving styles of decoration are embodied in the fabric of the building. From modest farmhouses to great buildings, regardless of the ethnic origins of the occupants, plaster has traditionally been used to finish interior walls.

A versatile material, plaster could be applied over brick, stone, half-timber, or frame construction. It provided a durable surface that was easy to clean and that could be applied to flat or curved walls and ceilings.

Plaster could be treated in any number of ways: it could receive stenciling, decorative painting, wallpaper, or whitewash. This variety and the adaptability of the material to nearly any building size, shape, or configuration meant that plaster was the wall surface chosen for nearly all buildings until the 1930s or 40s (Fig. 1).

Historic plaster may first appear so fraught with problems that its total removal seems the only alternative. But there are practical and historical reasons for saving it. First, three-coat plaster is unmatched in strength

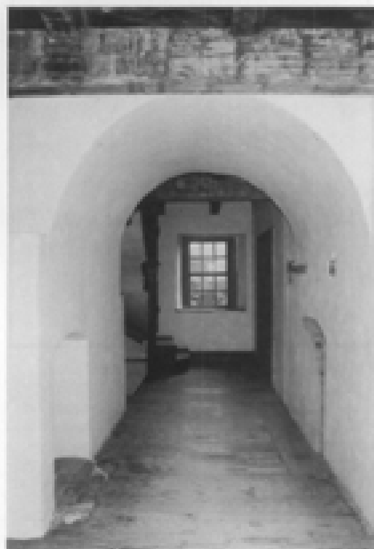

Fig. 1. Left: Schifferstadt, Frederick, Maryland, 1756. Right: First Christian Church, Eugene, Oregon, 1911. Although these two structures are separated in history by over 150 years and differences in size, ethnic origin, geography, construction techniques, and architectural character, their builders both used plaster as the interior surface coating for flat and curved walls. Photo left: Kay Weeks. Photo right: Kaye Ellen Simonson.

and durability. It resists fire and reduces sound transmission. Next, replacing plaster is expensive. A building owner needs to think carefully about the condition of the plaster that remains; plaster is often not as badly damaged as it first appears. Of more concern to preservationists, however, original lime and gypsum plaster is part of the building's historic fabric—its smooth-troweled or textured surfaces and subtle contours evoke the presence of America's earlier craftsmen. Plaster can also serve as a plain surface for irreplaceable decorative finishes. For both reasons, plaster walls and ceilings contribute to the historic character of the interior and should be left in place and repaired if at all possible (Fig. 2).

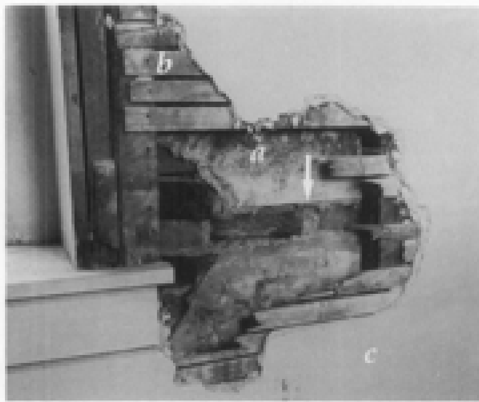

Fig. 2. A hole in the wall of a 1760s Custom House in Chestertown, Maryland illustrates the evolution of the room. (a) The original plaster was applied directly to an exterior masonry wall and the chairrail (missing here, see arrow) was in place before the wet plaster was applied to the wall. Sometime later when the interior was modified, the masonry was furred out. Machine-sawn wood lath (b) was nailed to the furring strips and (c) new three-coat plaster was applied. Photo: Maryland Historical Trust.

The approaches described in this Brief stress repairs using *wet* plaster, and traditional materials and techniques that will best assist the preservation of historic plaster walls and ceilings—and their appearance. Dry wall repairs are not included here, but have been written about extensively in other contexts. Finally, this Brief describes a replacement option when historic plaster cannot be repaired. Thus, a veneer plaster system is discussed rather than dry wall. Veneer systems include a coat or coats of *wet* plaster—although thinly applied—which can, to a greater extent, simulate traditional hand-troweled or textured finish coats. This system is generally better suited to historic preservation projects than dry wall.

To repair plaster, a building owner must often enlist the help of a plasterer. Plastering is a skilled craft, requiring years of training and special tools (Fig. 3). While minor repairs can be undertaken by building owners, most repairs will require the assistance of a plasterer.

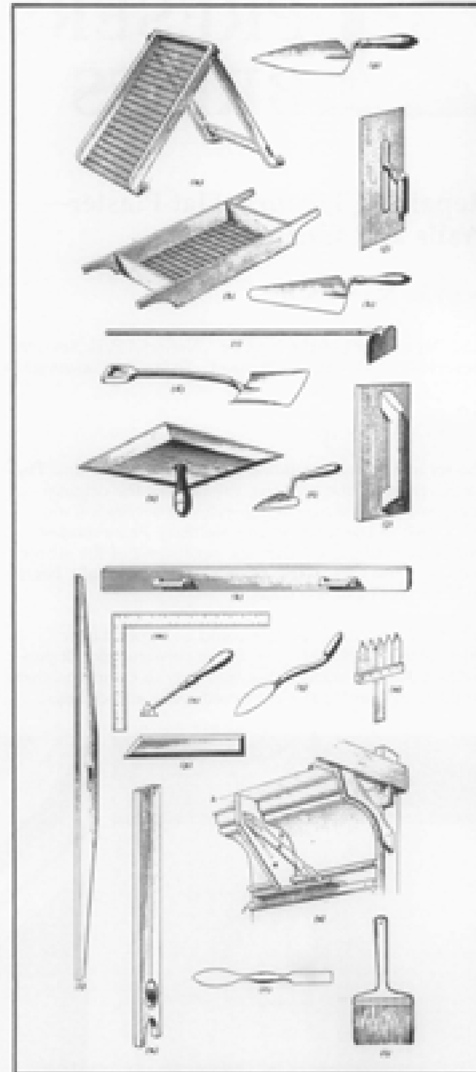

Fig. 3. Many of these traditional plastering tools are still used today: (a) screen to separate coarse sand from fine sand; (b) lime screen to remove unslaked particles of lime; (c) hoe; (d) shovel; (e) hawk to hold small amounts of plaster; (f) angle float to apply finishes to inside angles; (g), (h), (i) assorted trowels to apply basecoats and finish coat; (j) padded float to level off humps and fill in hollows caused by other tools; (k) a two-handled float or "darby" to float larger surfaces; (l) a simple straight edge; (m) a square to test the trueness of angles; (n) plumb to check verticality of plastered surfaces; (o), (p), (q), (r) jointing and mitering tools to pick out angles in decorative moldings; (s) comb made of sharpened lath pieces to scratch the basecoat of plaster; (t) brush to dampen plaster surfaces while they are worked smooth; (u) template made of wood and metal to cut a required outline for a fancy mold.

2

Historical Background

Plasterers in North America have relied on two materials to create their handiwork—lime and gypsum. Until the end of the 19th century, plasterers used lime plaster. Lime plaster was made from four ingredients: lime, aggregate, fiber, and water. The lime came from ground-and-heated limestone or oyster shells; the aggregate from sand; and the fiber from cattle or hog hair. Manufacturing changes at the end of the 19th century made it possible to use gypsum as a plastering material. Gypsum and lime plasters were used in combination for the base and finish coats during the early part of the 20th century; gypsum was eventually favored because it set more rapidly and, initially, had a harder finish.

Not only did the basic plastering material change, but the method of application changed also. In early America, the windows, doors, and all other trim were installed before the plaster was applied to the wall (Fig. 4). Generally the woodwork was prime-painted before plastering. Obtaining a plumb, level wall, while working against built-up mouldings, must have been difficult. But sometime in the first half of the 19th century, builders began installing wooden plaster "grounds" around windows and doors and at the base of the wall. Installing these grounds so that they were level and plumb made the job much easier because the plasterer could work from a level, plumb, straight surface. Woodwork was then nailed to the "grounds" after the walls were plastered (Fig. 5). Evidence of plaster behind trim is often an aid to dating historic houses, or to discerning their physical evolution.

Fig. 4. The builders of this mid-18th century house installed the baseboard moulding first, then applied a mud and horse hair plaster (called paling) to the masonry wall. Lime was used for the finish plaster. Also shown are the hacking marks which prepared the wall for a subsequent layer of plaster. Photo: Kay Weeks.

Fig. 5 (a). The photo above shows the use of wooden plaster "grounds" nailed to the wall studs of the mid-19th century Lockwood House in Harpers Ferry, West Virginia. This allowed the plasterer to work flush with the surface of the grounds. Afterwards, the carpenter could nail the finish woodwork to the ground, effectively hiding the joint between the plaster and the ground. The trim was painted after its installation, leaving a paint outline on the plaster. Fig. 5 (b). The photo below shows door trim and mouldings in place after the plastering was complete. Photos: Kaye Ellen Simonson.

Lime Plaster

When building a house, plasterers traditionally mixed bags of quick lime with water to "hydrate" or "slake" the lime. As the lime absorbed the water, heat was given off. When the heat diminished, and the lime and water were thoroughly mixed, the lime putty that resulted was used to make plaster.

When lime putty, sand, water, and animal hair were mixed, the mixture provided the plasterer with "coarse stuff." This mixture was applied in one or two layers to build up the wall thickness. But the best plaster was done with three coats. The first two coats made up the coarse stuff; they were the *scratch* coat and the *brown* coat. The finish plaster, called "setting stuff" contained a much higher proportion of lime putty, little aggregate, and no fiber, and gave the wall a smooth white surface finish.

Compared to the 3/8-inch-thick layers of the scratch and brown coats, the finish coat was a mere 1/8-inch thick. Additives were used for various finish qualities.

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For example, fine white sand was mixed in for a "float finish." This finish was popular in the early 1900s. (If the plasterer raked the sand with a broom, the plaster wall would retain swirl marks or stipples.) Or marble dust was added to create a hard-finish white coat which could be smoothed and polished with a steel trowel. Finally, a little plaster of Paris, or "gauged stuff," was often added to the finish plaster to accelerate the setting time.

Although lime plaster was used in this country until the early 1900s, it had certain disadvantages. A plastered wall could take more than a year to dry; this delayed painting or papering. In addition, bagged quick lime had to be carefully protected from contact with air, or it became inert because it reacted with ambient moisture and carbon dioxide. Around 1900, gypsum began to be used as a plastering material.

Gypsum Plaster

Gypsum begins to cure as soon as it is mixed with water. It sets in minutes and completely dries in two to three weeks. Historically, gypsum made a more rigid plaster and did not require a fibrous binder. However, it is difficult to tell the difference between lime and gypsum plaster once the plaster has cured.

Despite these desirable working characteristics, gypsum plaster was more vulnerable to water damage than lime. Lime plasters had often been applied directly to masonry walls (without lathing), forming a suction bond. They could survive occasional wind-driven moisture or water wicking up from the ground. Gypsum plaster needed protection from water. Furring strips had to be used against masonry walls to create a dead air space. This prevented moisture transfer.

In rehabilitation and restoration projects, one should rely on the plasterer's judgment about whether to use lime or gypsum plaster. In general, gypsum plaster is the material plasterers use today. Different types of aggregate may be specified by the architect such as clean river sand, perlite, pumice, or vermiculite; however, if historic finishes and textures are being replicated, sand should be used as the base-coat aggregate. Today, if fiber is required in a base coat, a special gypsum is available which includes wood fibers. Lime putty, mixed with about 35 percent gypsum (gauging plaster) to help it harden, is still used as the finish coat.

Lath

Lath provided a means of holding the plaster in place. Wooden lath was nailed at right angles directly to the structural members of the buildings (the joists and studs), or it was fastened to non-structural spaced strips known as furring strips. Three types of lath can be found on historic buildings (Fig. 6).

Wood Lath. Wood lath is usually made up of narrow, thin strips of wood with spaces in between. The plasterer applies a slight pressure to push the wet plaster through the spaces. The plaster slumps down on the inside of the wall, forming plaster "keys." These keys hold the plaster in place.

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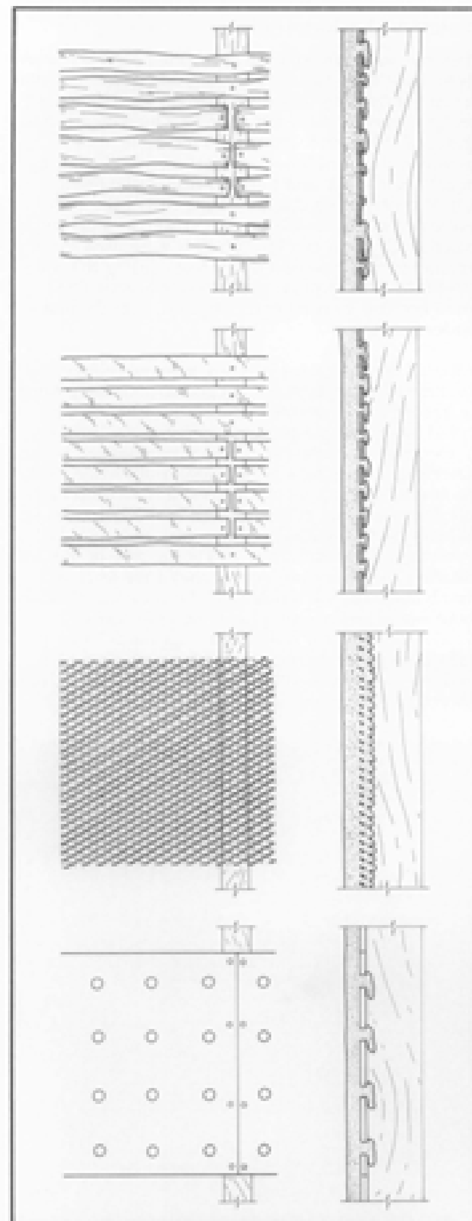


Fig. 6. Top to bottom: Hand-riven lath, machine-sawn wood lath, expanded metal (diamond mesh) lath, and perforated gypsum board lath. Profile views of their keying characteristics are shown to the right. For plaster repairs or replastering, galvanized metal lath is the most reliable in terms of longevity, stability, and proper keying. Drawing: Kaye Ellen Simonson.

Metal Lath. Metal lath, patented in England in 1797, began to be used in parts of the United States toward the end of the 19th century. The steel making up the metal lath contained many more spaces than wood lath had contained. These spaces increased the number of keys; metal lath was better able to hold plaster than wood lath had been.

Rock Lath. A third lath system commonly used was rock lath (also called plaster board or gypsum-board lath). In use as early as 1900, rock lath was made up of compressed gypsum covered by a paper facing. Some rock lath was textured or perforated to provide a key for wet plaster. A special paper with gypsum crystals in it provides the key for rock lath used today; when wet plaster is applied to the surface, a crystalline bond is achieved.

Rock lath was the most economical of the three lathing systems. Lathers or carpenters could prepare a room more quickly. By the late 1930s, rock lath was used almost exclusively in residential plastering.

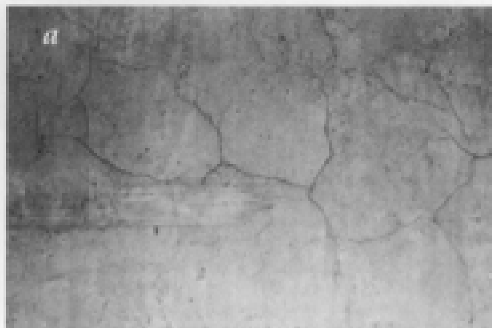
Common Plaster Problems

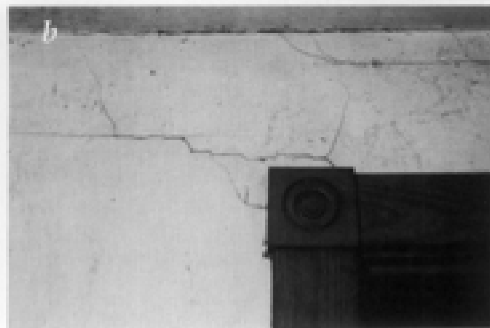
When plaster dries, it is a relatively rigid material which should last almost indefinitely. However, there are conditions that cause plaster to crack, effloresce, separate, or become detached from its lath framework (Fig. 7). These include:

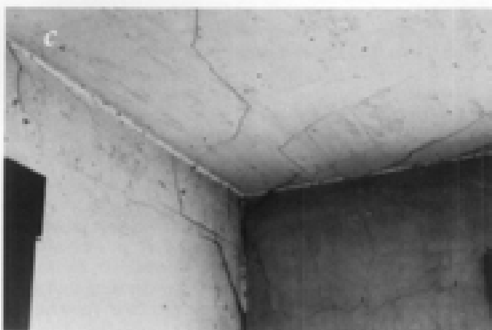
- Structural Problems
- Poor Workmanship
- Improper Curing
- Moisture

Structural Problems

Overloading. Stresses within a wall, or acting on the house as a whole, can create stress cracks. Appearing as diagonal lines in a wall, stress cracks usually start at a door or window frame, but they can appear anywhere in the wall, with seemingly random starting points.







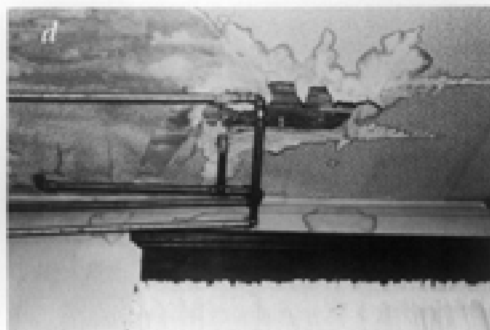


Fig. 7 (a) to (d). A series of photographs taken in different rooms of an early 20th century house in West Virginia reveal a variety of plaster wall surface problems, most of which can easily be remedied through sensitive repair: Hairline cracks (a) in an otherwise sound wall can be filled with joint compound or patching plaster. The wall can also be canvassed or wallpapered. Stress cracks (b) in plaster over a kitchen door frame can be repaired using fiberglass mesh tape and joint compound. Settlement cracks (c) in a bedroom can be similarly repaired. The dark crack at the juncture between walls, however, may be a structural crack and should be investigated for its underlying cause. Moisture damage (d) from leaking plumbing on the second floor has damaged both wallpaper and plaster in the dining room. After fixing the leaking pipes, the wall covering and rotted plaster will need to be replaced and any holes repaired. Photos: Kay Weeks.

Builders of now-historic houses had no codes to help them size the structural members of buildings. The weight of the roof, the second and third stories, the furniture, and the occupants could impose a heavy burden on beams, joists, and studs. Even when houses were built properly, later remodeling efforts may have cut in a doorway or window without adding a structural beam or "header" across the top of the opening. Occasionally, load-bearing members were simply too small to carry the loads above them. Deflection or wood "creep" (deflection that occurs over time) can create cracks in plaster.

Overloading and structural movement (especially when combined with rotting lath, rusted nails, or poor quality plaster) can cause plaster to detach from the lath. The plaster loses its key. When the mechanical bond with the lath is broken, plaster becomes loose or bowed. If repairs are not made, especially to ceilings, gravity will simply cause chunks of plaster to fall to the floor.

Settlement/Vibration. Cracks in walls can also result when houses settle. Houses built on clay soils are especially vulnerable. Many types of clay (such as montmorillonite) are highly expansive. In the dry season, water evaporates from the clay particles, causing them to contract. During the rainy season, the clay swells. Thus, a building can be riding on an unstable footing. Diagonal cracks running in opposite directions suggest that house settling and soil conditions may be at fault. Similar symptoms occur when there is a nearby source of vibration—blasting, a train line, busy highway, or repeated sonic booms.

Lath movement. Horizontal cracks are often caused by lath movement. Because it absorbs moisture from the air, wood lath expands and contracts as humidity rises and falls. This can cause cracks to appear year after year. Cracks can also appear between rock lath panels. A nail holding the edge of a piece of lath may rust or loosen, or structural movement in the wood framing behind the lath may cause a seam to open. Heavy loads in a storage area above a rock-lath ceiling can also cause ceiling cracks.

Errors in initial building construction such as improper bracing, poor corner construction, faulty framing of doors and windows, and undersized beams and floor joists eventually "telegraph" through to the plaster surface.

Poor Workmanship

In addition to problems caused by movement or weakness in the structural framework, plaster durability can be affected by poor materials or workmanship.

Poorly proportioned mix. The proper proportioning and mixing of materials are vital to the quality of the plaster job. A bad mix can cause problems that appear years later in a plaster wall. Until recently, proportions of aggregate and lime were mixed on the job. A plasterer may have skimped on the amount of cementing material (lime or gypsum) because sand was the cheaper material. Oversanding can cause the plaster to weaken or crumble (Fig. 8). Plaster made from a poorly proportioned mix may be more difficult to repair.

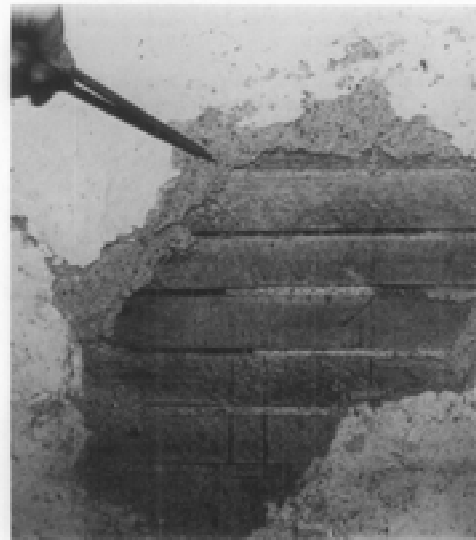


Fig. 8. Too much aggregate (sand) and not enough cementing material (lime or gypsum) in the base coat has made this plaster surface weak and crumbly. Besides losing its key with the lath, the layers are disintegrating. It will most likely need to be totally removed and replaced with all new plaster. Photo: Marylee MacDonald.

Incompatible basecoats and finish coats. Use of perlite as an aggregate also presented problems. Perlite is a lightweight aggregate used in the base coat instead of sand. It performs well in cold weather and has a slightly better insulating value. But if a smooth lime finish coat was applied over perlited base coats on wood or rock lath, cracks would appear in the finish coat and the entire job would have to be re-done. To prevent this, a plasterer had to add fine silica sand or finely crushed perlite to the finish coat to compensate for the dramatically differing shrinkage rates between the base coat and the finish coat.

Improper plaster application. The finish coat is subject to "chip cracking" if it was applied over an excessively dry base coat, or was insufficiently troweled, or if too little gauging plaster was used. Chip cracking looks very much like an alligatored paint surface. Another common problem is called map cracking—fine, irregular cracks that occur when the finish coat has been applied to an oversanded base coat or a very thin base coat.

Too much retardant. Retarding agents are added to slow down the rate at which plaster sets, and thus inhibit hardening. They have traditionally included ammonia,

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glue, gelatin, starch, molasses, or vegetable oil. If the plasterer has used too much retardant, however, a gypsum plaster will not set within a normal 20 to 30 minute time period. As a result, the surface becomes soft and powdery.

Inadequate plaster thickness. Plaster is applied in three coats over wood lath and metal lath—the scratch, brown, and finish coats. In three-coat work, the scratch coat and brown coat were sometimes applied on successive days to make up the required wall thickness. Using rock lath allowed the plasterer to apply one base coat and the finish coat—a two-coat job.

If a plasterer skimped on materials, the wall may not have sufficient plaster thickness to withstand the normal stresses within a building. The minimum total thickness for plaster on gypsum board (rock lath) is 1/2 inch. On metal lath the minimum thickness is 5/8 inch; and for wood lath it is about 3/4 to 7/8 inch. This minimum plaster thickness may affect the thickness of trim projecting from the wall's plane.

Improper Curing

Proper temperature and air circulation during curing are key factors in a durable plaster job. The ideal temperature for plaster to cure is between 55-70 degrees Fahrenheit. However, historic houses were sometimes plastered before window sashes were put in. There was no way to control temperature and humidity.

Dryouts, freezing, and sweat-outs. When temperatures were too hot, the plaster would return to its original condition before it was mixed with water, that is, calcined gypsum. A plasterer would have to spray the wall with alum water to re-set the plaster. If freezing occurred before the plaster had set, the job would simply have to be re-done. If the windows were shut so that air could not circulate, the plaster was subject to sweat-out or rot. Since there is no cure for rotted plaster, the affected area had to be removed and replastered.

Moisture

Plaster applied to a masonry wall is vulnerable to water damage if the wall is constantly wet. When salts from the masonry substrate come in contact with water, they migrate to the surface of the plaster, appearing as dry bubbles or efflorescence. The source of the moisture must be eliminated before replastering the damaged area.

Sources of Water Damage. Moisture problems occur for several reasons. Interior plumbing leaks in older houses are common. Roofs may leak, causing ceiling damage. Gutters and downspouts may also leak, pouring rain water next to the building foundation. In brick buildings, dampness at the foundation level can wick up into the above-grade walls. Another common source of moisture is splash-back. When there is a paved area next to a masonry building, rainwater splashing up from the paving can dampen masonry walls. In both cases water travels through the masonry and damages interior plaster. Coatings applied to the interior are not effective over the long run. The moisture problem must be stopped on the outside of the wall.

Repairing Historic Plaster

Many of the problems described above may not be easy to remedy. If major structural problems are found to be the source of the plaster problem, the structural problem should be corrected. Some repairs can be made by removing only small sections of plaster to gain access. Minor structural problems that will not endanger the building can generally be ignored. Cosmetic damages from minor building movement, holes, or bowed areas can be repaired without the need for wholesale demolition. However, it may be necessary to remove deteriorated plaster caused by rising damp in order for masonry walls to dry out. Repairs made to a wet base will fail again.

Canvassing Uneven Wall Surfaces

Uneven wall surfaces, caused by previous patching or by partial wallpaper removal, are common in old houses. As long as the plaster is generally sound, cosmetically unattractive plaster walls can be "wallpapered" with strips of a canvas or fabric-like material. Historically, canvassing covered imperfections in the plaster and provided a stable base for decorative painting or wallpaper.

Filling Cracks

Hairline cracks in wall and ceiling plaster are not a serious cause for concern as long as the underlying plaster is in good condition. They may be filled easily with a patching material (see **Patching Materials,** page 13). For cracks that re-open with seasonal humidity change, a slightly different method is used. First the crack is widened slightly with a sharp, pointed tool such as a crack widener or a triangular can opener. Then the crack is filled. For more persistent cracks, it may be necessary to bridge the crack with tape. In this instance, a fiberglass mesh tape is pressed into the patching material. After the first application of a quick-setting joint compound dries, a second coat is used to cover the tape, feathering it at the edges. A third coat is applied to even out the surface, followed by light sanding. The area is cleaned off with a damp sponge, then dried to remove any leftover plaster residue or dust.

When cracks are larger and due to structural movement, repairs need to be made to the structural system *before* repairing the plaster. Then, the plaster on each side of the crack should be removed to a width of about 6 inches down to the lath. The debris is cleaned out, and metal lath applied to the cleared area, leaving the existing wood lath in place. The metal lath usually prevents further cracking. The crack is patched with an appropriate plaster in three layers (i.e., basecoats and finish coat). If a crack seems to be expanding, a structural engineer should be consulted.

Replacing Delaminated Areas of the Finish Coat

Sometimes the finish coat of plaster comes loose from the base coat (Fig. 9). In making this type of repair, the plasterer paints a liquid plaster-bonding agent onto the areas of base-coat plaster that will be replastered with a new lime finish coat. A homeowner wishing to repair small areas of delaminated finish coat can use the methods described in **Patching Materials.**

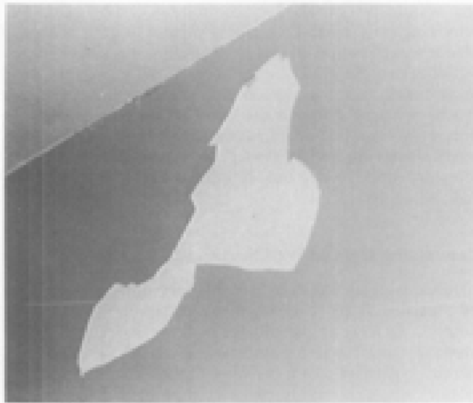

Fig. 9. The smooth-troweled lime finish coat has delaminated from the brown coat underneath. This is another repair that can be undertaken without further loss of the historic plaster. Photo: Maryler MacDonald.

Patching Holes in Walls

For small holes (less than 4 inches in diameter) that involve loss of the brown and finish coats, the repair is made in two applications. First, a layer of basecoat plaster is troweled in place and scraped back below the level of the existing plaster. When the base coat has set but not dried, more plaster is applied to create a smooth, level surface. One-coat patching is not generally recommended by plasterers because it tends to produce concave surfaces that show up when the work is painted. Of course, if the lath only had one coat of plaster originally, then a one-coat patch is appropriate (Fig. 10).

For larger holes where all three coats of plaster are damaged or missing down to the wood lath, plasterers generally proceed along these lines. First, all the old plaster is cleaned out and any loose lath is re-nailed. Next, a water mist is sprayed on the old lath to keep it from twisting when the new, wet plaster is applied, or better still, a bonding agent is used. To provide more reliable keying and to strengthen the patch, expanded metal lath (diamond mesh) should be attached to the wood lath with tie wires or nailed over the wood lath with lath nails (Fig. 11). The plaster is then applied in three layers over the metal lath, lapping each new layer of plaster over the old plaster so that old and new are evenly joined. This stepping is recommended to produce a strong, invisible patch (Fig. 12). Also, if a patch is made in a plaster wall that is slightly wavy, the contour of the patch should be made to conform to the irregularities of the existing work. A flat patch will stand out from the rest of the wall.

Fig. 10 (a) and (b). In this New Hampshire residence dating from the 1790s, the original plaster was a single coat of lime, sand, and horsehair applied over split lath. A one-coat repair, in this case, is appropriate. To the left: a flat sheet of galvanized expanded metal lath is placed over the patch area and an outline marked with a large soft lumber crayon. The metal lath is then cut to fit the hole and nailed to the lath. To the right: the edges of the original plaster and wood lath beneath have been thoroughly soaked with water. A steel trowel is used to apply the plaster in large, rough strokes. Finally, it will be scraped and smoothed off. Because only one coat of plaster is used, without a finish coat, a clean butt-joint is made with the original plaster. Photos: John Leeke.

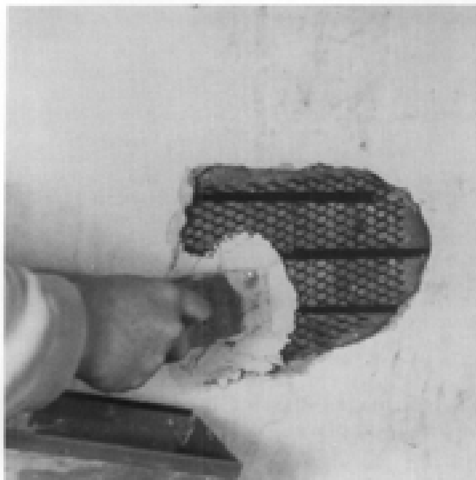

Fig. 11. Repairs are being made to the historic plaster in an early 20th century residence in Tennessee. A fairly sizeable hole in three-coat plaster extends to the wood lath. Expanded metal lath has been cut to fit the hole, then attached to the wood lath with a tie-wire. Two ready-mix gypsum base coats are in the process of being applied. After they set, the finish coat will be smooth-troweled gauged lime to match the existing wall. Photo: Walter Jowers.

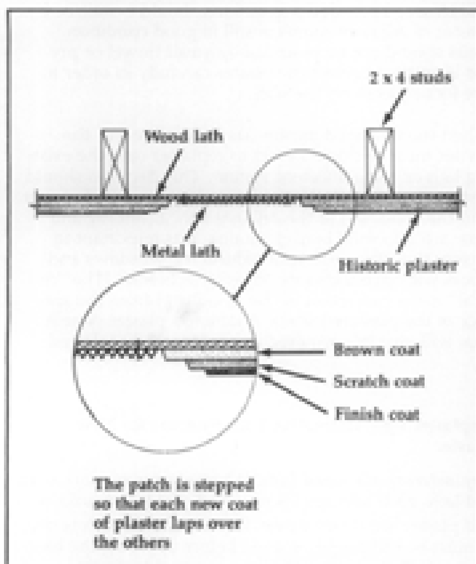

Fig. 12. This explains how a hole in historic plaster is repaired over the existing wood lath. First, metal lath is secured over the wood lath with a tie wire, then the new plaster is applied in three layers, "stepped" so that each new coat overlaps the old plaster to create a good adhesive bond. Drawing: Kaye Ellen Simonson.

Patching Holes in Ceilings

Hairline cracks and holes may be unsightly, but when portions of the ceiling come loose, a more serious problem exists (Fig. 13). The keys holding the plaster to the ceiling have probably broken. First, the plaster around the loose plaster should be examined. Keys may have deteriorated because of a localized moisture problem, poor quality plaster, or structural overloading; yet, the surrounding system may be intact. If the areas surrounding the loose area are in reasonably good condition, the loose plaster can be reattached to the lath using flat-head wood screws and plaster washers (Fig. 14). To patch a hole in the ceiling plaster, metal lath is fastened over the wood lath; then the hole is filled with successive layers of plaster, as described above.

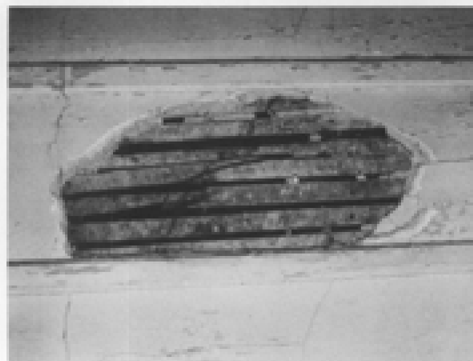

Fig. 13. This beaded ceiling in one of the bedrooms of the 1847 Lockwood House, Harpers Ferry, West Virginia, is missing portions of plaster due to broken keys. This is attributable, in part, to deterioration of the wood lath. Photo: Kaye Ellen Simonson.

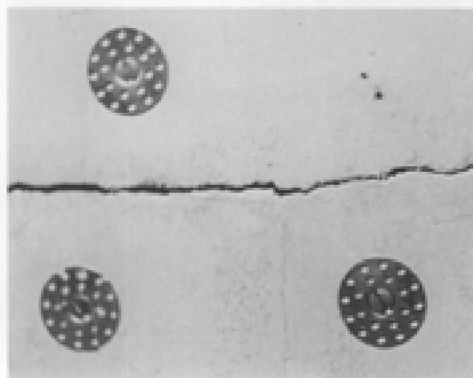

Fig. 14. In a late 18th century house in Massachusetts, flat-head wood screws and plaster washers were used to reattach loose ceiling plaster to the wood lath. After the crack is covered with fiberglass mesh tape, both the taped crack and the plaster washers will be skim-coated with a patching material. Photo: John Obed Curtis.

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Establishing New Plaster Keys

If the back of the ceiling lath is accessible (usually from the attic or after removing floor boards), small areas of bowed-out plaster can be pushed back against the lath. A padded piece of plywood and braces are used to secure the loose plaster. After dampening the old lath and coating the damaged area with a bonding agent, a fairly liquid plaster mix (with a glue size retardant added) is applied to the backs of the lath, and worked into the voids between the faces of the lath and the back of the plaster. While this first layer is still damp, plaster-soaked strips of jute scrim are laid across the backs of the lath and pressed firmly into the first layer as reinforcement. The original lath must be secure, otherwise the weight of the patching plaster may loosen it.

Loose, damaged plaster can also be re-keyed when the goal is to conserve decorative surfaces or wallpaper. Large areas of ceilings and walls can be saved. This method requires the assistance of a skilled conservator—it is not a repair technique used by most plasterers. The conservator injects an acrylic adhesive mixture through holes drilled in the face of the plaster (or through the lath from behind, when accessible). The loose plaster is held firm with plywood bracing until the adhesive bonding mixture sets. When complete, gaps between the plaster and lath are filled, and the loose plaster is secure (Fig. 15).

Fig. 15. When ceiling repairs are made with wet plaster or with an injected adhesive mixture, the old loose plaster must be supported with a plywood brace until re-keying is complete. Photo: John Leeke.

Replastering Over the Old Ceiling

If a historic ceiling is too cracked to patch or is sagging (but not damaged from moisture), plasterers routinely keep the old ceiling and simply relath and replaster over it. This repair technique can be used if lowering the ceiling slightly does not affect other ornamental features. The existing ceiling is covered with 1x3-inch wood furring strips, one to each joist, and fastened completely through the old lath and plaster using a screw gun. Expanded metal lath or gypsum board lath is nailed over the furring strips. Finally, two or three coats are applied according to traditional methods. Replastering over the old ceiling saves time, creates much less dust than demolition, and gives added fire protection.

When Damaged Plaster Cannot be Repaired—Replacement Options

Partial or complete removal may be necessary if plaster is badly damaged, particularly if the damage was caused by long-term moisture problems. Workers undertaking demolition should wear OSHA-approved masks because the plaster dust that flies into the air may contain decades of coal soot. Lead, from lead-based paint, is another danger. Long-sleeved clothing and head-and-eye protection should be worn. Asbestos, used in the mid-twentieth century as an insulating and fireproofing additive, may also be present and OSHA-recommended precautions should be taken. If plaster in adjacent rooms is still in good condition, walls should not be pounded—a small trowel or pry bar is worked behind the plaster carefully in order to pry loose pieces off the wall.

When the damaged plaster has been removed, the owner must decide whether to replaster over the existing lath or use a different system. This decision should be based in part on the thickness of the original plaster and the condition of the original lath. Economy and time are also valid considerations. It is important to ensure that the wood trim around the windows and doors will have the same "reveal" as before. (The "reveal" is the projection of the wood trim from the surface of the plastered wall). A lath and plaster system that will give this required depth should be selected.

Replastering—Alternative Lath Systems for New Plaster

Replastering old wood lath. When plasterers work with old lath, each lath strip is re-nailed and the chunks of old plaster are cleaned out. Because the old lath is dry, it must be thoroughly soaked before applying the base coats of plaster, or it will warp and buckle; furthermore, because the water is drawn out, the plaster will fail to set properly. As noted earlier, if new metal lath is installed *over* old wood lath as the base for new plaster,

many of these problems can be avoided and the historic lath can be retained (Fig. 16). The ceiling should still be sprayed unless a vapor barrier is placed behind the metal lath.

Replastering over new metal lath. An alternative to re-using the old wood lath is to install a different lathing system. Galvanized metal lath is the most expensive, but also the most reliable in terms of longevity, stability, and proper keying. When lathing over open joists, the plasterer should cover the joists with kraft paper or a polyethylene vapor barrier. Three coats of wet plaster are applied consecutively to form a solid, monolithic unit with the lath. The scratch coat keys into the metal lath; the second, or brown, coat bonds to the scratch coat and builds the thickness; the third, or finish coat, consists of lime putty and gauging plaster.

Replastering over new rock lath. It is also possible to use rock lath as a plaster base. Plasterers may need to remove the existing wood lath to maintain the woodwork's reveal. Rock lath is a 16x36-inch, 1/2-inch thick, gypsum-core panel covered with absorbent paper with gypsum crystals in the paper. The crystals in the paper bond the wet plaster and anchor it securely. This type of lath requires two coats of new plaster—the brown coat and the finish coat. The gypsum lath itself takes the place of the first, or scratch, coat of plaster.

Painting New Plaster

The key to a successful paint job is proper drying of the plaster. Historically, lime plasters were allowed to cure for at least a year before the walls were painted or papered. With modern ventilation, plaster cures in a shorter time; however, fresh gypsum plaster with a lime finish coat should still be perfectly dry before paint is applied—or the paint may peel. (Plasterers traditionally used the "match test" on new plaster. If a match would light by striking it on the new plaster surface, the plaster was considered dry.) Today it is best to allow new plaster to cure two to three weeks. A good alkaline-resistant primer, specifically formulated for new plaster, should then be used. A compatible latex or oil-based paint can be used for the final coat.

A Modern Replacement System

Veneer Plaster. Using one of the traditional lath and plaster systems provides the highest quality plaster job. However, in some cases, budget and time considerations may lead the owner to consider a less expensive replacement alternative. Designed to reduce the cost of materials, a more recent lath and plaster system is less expensive than a two-or-three coat plaster job, but only slightly more expensive than drywall. This plaster system is called veneer plaster.

Fig. 16. In the restoration of a ca. 1830s house in Maine, split-board lath has been covered with expanded metal lath in preparation for new coats of plaster. This method permits the early lath to be saved while the metal lath, with its superior keying, serves as reinforcement. Photo: National Park Service files.

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The system uses gypsum-core panels that are the same size as drywall (4x8 feet), and specially made for veneer plaster. They can be installed over furring channels to masonry walls or over old wood lath walls and ceilings. Known most commonly as "blueboard," the panels are covered with a special paper compatible with veneer plaster. Joints between the 4-foot wide sheets are taped with fiberglass mesh, which is bedded in the veneer plaster. After the tape is bedded, a thin, 1/16-inch coat of high-strength veneer plaster is applied to the entire wall surface. A second veneer layer can be used as the "finish" coat, or the veneer plaster can be covered with a gauged lime finish-coat—the same coat that covers ordinary plaster (Fig. 17).

Fig. 17. This contemporary plasterer is mixing a lime finish coat in much the same way as America's earlier artisans. The ring consists of lime putty; the white powder inside is gauging plaster. After the mixture is blended, a steel trowel will be used to apply it. It should be noted that a traditional lime finish coat can be applied over a veneer plaster base coat to approximate the look of historic plaster walls and ceilings. Photo: Marylee MacDonald.

Although extremely thin, a two-coat veneer plaster system has a 1,500 psi rating and is thus able to withstand structural movements in a building or surface abrasion. With either a veneer finish or a gauged lime-putty finish coat, the room will be ready for painting almost immediately. When complete, the troweled or textured wall surface looks more like traditional plaster than drywall.

The thin profile of the veneer system has an added benefit, especially for owners of uninsulated masonry buildings. Insulation can be installed between the pieces of furring channel used to attach blueboard to masonry walls. This can be done without having to furr out the window and door jambs. The insulation plus the veneer system will result in the same thickness as the original plaster. Occupants in the rooms will be more comfortable because they will not be losing heat to cold wall surfaces.

Summary

The National Park Service recommends retaining historic plaster if at all possible. Plaster is a significant part of the "fabric" of the building. Much of the building's history is documented in the layers of paint and paper found covering old plaster. For buildings with decorative painting, conservation of historic flat plaster is even more important. Consultation with the National Park Service, with State Historic Preservation Officers, local preservation organizations, historic preservation consultants, or with the Association for Preservation Technology is recommended. Where plaster cannot be repaired or conserved using one of the approaches outlined in this Brief, documentation of the layers of wallpaper and paint should be undertaken before removing the historic plaster. This information may be needed to complete a restoration plan.

Patching Materials

Plasterers generally use ready-mix base-coat plaster for patching, especially where large holes need to be filled. The ready-mix plaster contains gypsum and aggregate in proper proportions. The plasterer only needs to add water.

Another mix plasterers use to patch cracks or small holes, or for finish-coat repair, is a "high gauge" lime putty (50 percent lime; 50 percent gauging plaster). This material will produce a white, smooth patch. It is especially suitable for surface repairs.

Although property owners cannot duplicate the years of accumulated knowledge and craft skills of a professional plasterer, there are materials that can be used for do-it-yourself repairs. For example, fine cracks can be filled with an all-purpose drywall joint compound. For bridging larger cracks using fiberglass tape, a homeowner can use a "quick-setting" joint compound. This compound has a fast drying time—60, 90, or 120 minutes. Quick-setting joint compound dries because of a chemical reaction, not because of water evaporation. It shrinks less than all-purpose joint compound and has much the same workability as ready-mix base-coat plaster. However, because quick-set joint compounds are hard to sand, they should only be used to bed tape or to fill large holes. All-purpose joint compound should be used as the final coat prior to sanding.

Homeowners may also want to try using a ready-mix perlited base-coat plaster for scratch and brown coat repair. The plaster can be hand-mixed in small quantities, but bagged ready-mix should be protected from ambient moisture. A "mill-mixed pre-gauged" lime finish coat plaster can also be used by homeowners. A base coat utilizing perlite or other lightweight aggregates should only be used for making small repairs (less than 4 ft. patches). For large-scale repairs and entire room re-plastering, see the precautions in Table 1 for using perlite.

Homeowners may see a material sold as "patching plaster" or "plaster of Paris" in hardware stores. This dry powder cannot be used by itself for plaster repairs. It must be combined with lime to create a successful patching mixture.

When using a lime finish coat for any repair, wait longer to paint, or use an alkaline-resistant primer.

TABLE 1
REPLASTERING
Selected Plaster Bases/Compatible Basecoats and Finish Coats

Traditional Plaster Bases	*Compatible Basecoats*	*Compatible Finish Coats*
OLD WOOD LATH	gypsum/sand plaster gypsum/perlite plaster [2]	lime putty/gauging plaster lime putty/gauging plaster
METAL LATH	gypsum/sand plaster (high strength) gypsum/perlite plaster [2]	lime putty/gauging plaster lime putty/gauging plaster
GYPSUM (ROCK) LATH PANELS	gypsum/sand plaster gypsum/perlite plaster [2]	lime putty/gauging plaster lime putty/gauging plaster
UNGLAZED BRICK/CLAY TILE	gypsum/perlite plaster [2] (masonry type)	lime putty/gauging plaster
Modern Plaster Base	***Compatible Basecoat***	***Compatible Finish Coat***
GYPSUM CORE VENEER PANELS (BLUE BOARD)	veneer plaster	veneer plaster *or* lime putty/gauging plaster

[1] On traditional bases (wood, metal, and rock lath), the thickness of base coat plaster is one of the most important elements of a good plaster job. Grounds should be set to obtain the following minimum plaster thicknesses: (1) Over rock lath—1/2" (2) Over brick, clay tile, or other masonry—5/8" (3) Over metal lath, measured from face of lath—5/8" (4) Over wood lath—7/8". In no case should the total plaster thickness be less than 1/2". The allowance for the finish coat is approximately 1/16" which requires the base coat to be 7/16" for 1/2" grounds. This is a minimum base coat thickness on rock lath. The standard for other masonry units and metal lath is 5/8" thick, including the finish. Certain types of construction or fire ratings may require an increase in plaster thickness (and/or an increase in the gypsum to aggregate ratios) but never a thinner application of plaster than recommended above. Job experience indicates that thin applications of plaster often evidence cracking where normal applications to standard grounds do not. This condition is a direct result of the inability of thin section areas to resist external forces as adequately as thicker, normal applications of plaster.

[2] Perlite is a lightweight aggregate often used in gypsum plaster in place of sand. It performs well in cold weather and has a slightly better insulating value than sand. In a construction with metal lath, perlite aggregate is not recommended in the basecoat except under a sand or "float" finish. When gypsum/perlite basecoats are used over any other base (i.e., wood, rock lath, brick) and the finish coat is to be a "white" finish coat (smooth-troweled gauged lime putty) it is necessary to add fine silica sand or perlite fines to the finish coat. This measure prevents cracking of the "white" finish coat due to differential shrinkage.

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Plaster Terms

Scratch coat. The first base coat put on wood or metal lath. The wet plaster is "scratched" with a scarifier or comb to provide a rough surface so the next layer of base coat will stick to it.

Brown coat. The brown coat is the second application of wet, base-coat plaster with wood lath or metal systems. With gypsum board lath (rock lath, plasterboard), it is the only base coat needed.

Finish coat. Pure lime, mixed with about 35 percent gauging plaster to help it harden, is used for the very thin surface finish of the plaster wall. Fine sand can be added for a sanded finish coat.

Casing Bead. Early casing bead was made of wood. In the 19th century, metal casing beads were sometimes used around fireplace projections, and door and window openings. Like a wood ground, they indicate the proper thickness for the plaster.

Corner Bead. Wire mesh with a rigid metal spline used on outside corners. Installing the corner bead plumb is important.

Cornerite. Wire mesh used on inside corners of adjoining walls and ceilings. It keeps corners from cracking.

Ground. Plasterers use metal or wood strips around the edges of doors and windows and at the bottom of walls. These grounds help keep the plaster the same thickness and provide a stopping edge for the plaster. Early plaster work, however, did not use grounds. On early buildings, the woodwork was installed and primed before plastering began. Some time in the early 19th century, a transition occurred, and plasterers applied their wall finish before woodwork was installed.

Gypsum. Once mined from large gypsum quarries near Paris (thus the name plaster of Paris), gypsum in its natural form is calcium sulfate. When calcined (or heated), one-and-a-half water molecules are driven off, leaving a hemi-hydrate of calcium sulfate. When mixed with water, it becomes calcium sulfate again. While gypsum was used in base-coat plaster from the 1890s on, it has always been used in finish coat and decorative plaster. For finish coats, gauging plaster was added to lime putty; it causes the lime to harden. Gypsum is also the ingredient in moulding plaster, a finer plaster used to create decorative mouldings in ornamental plasterwork.

Lime. Found in limestone formations or shell mounds, naturally occurring lime is calcium carbonate. When heated, it becomes calcium oxide. After water has been added, it becomes calcium hydroxide. This calcium hydroxide reacts with carbon dioxide in the air to recreate the original calcium carbonate.

Screed. Screeds are strips of plaster run vertically or horizontally on walls or ceilings. They are used to plumb and straighten uneven walls and level ceilings. Metal screeds are used to separate different types of plaster finishes or to separate lime and cement plasters.

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Preservation Briefs: Heating, Ventilating, and Cooling Historic Buildings

24 PRESERVATION BRIEFS

Heating, Ventilating, and Cooling Historic Buildings: Problems and Recommended Approaches

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Cultural Resources
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The need for modern mechanical systems is one of the most common reasons to undertake work on historic buildings. Such work includes upgrading older mechanical systems, improving the energy efficiency of existing buildings, installing new heating, ventilation or air conditioning (HVAC) systems, or—particularly for museums—installing a climate control system with humidification and dehumidification capabilities. Decisions to install new HVAC or climate control systems often result from concern for occupant health and comfort, the desire to make older buildings marketable, or the need to provide specialized environments for operating computers, storing artifacts, or displaying museum collections. Unfortunately, occupant comfort and concerns for the objects within the building are sometimes given greater consideration than the building itself. In too many cases, applying modern standards of interior climate comfort to historic buildings has proven detrimental to historic materials and decorative finishes.

This Preservation Brief underscores the importance of careful planning in order to balance the preservation objectives with interior climate needs of the building. It is not intended as a technical guide to calculate tonnage or to size piping or ductwork. Rather, this Brief identifies some of the problems associated with installing mechanical systems in historic buildings and recommends approaches to minimizing the physical and visual damage associated with installing and maintaining these new or upgraded systems.

Historic buildings are not easily adapted to house modern precision mechanical systems. Careful planning must be provided early on to ensure that decisions made during the design and installation phases of a new system are appropriate. Since new mechanical and other related systems, such as electrical and fire suppression, can use up to 10% of a building's square footage and 30%–40% of an overall rehabilitation budget, decisions must be made in a systematic and coordinated manner. The installation of inappropriate mechanical systems may result in any or all of the following:

- large sections of historic materials are removed to install or house new systems.
- historic structural systems are weakened by carrying the weight of, and sustaining vibrations from, large equipment.
- moisture introduced into the building as part of a new system migrates into historic materials and causes damage, including biodegradation, freeze/thaw action, and surface staining.
- exterior cladding or interior finishes are stripped to install new vapor barriers and insulation.
- historic finishes, features, and spaces are altered by dropped ceilings and boxed chases or by poorly located grilles, registers, and equipment.
- systems that are too large or too small are installed before there is a clearly planned use or a new tenant.

For historic properties it is critical to understand what spaces, features, and finishes are historic in the building, what should be retained, and what the *realistic* heating, ventilating, and cooling needs are for the building, its occupants, and its contents. A systematic approach, involving preservation planning, preservation design, and a follow-up program of monitoring and maintenance, can ensure that new systems are successfully added—or existing systems are suitably upgraded—while preserving the historic integrity of the building.

No set formula exists for determining what type of mechanical system is best for a specific building. Each building and its needs must be evaluated separately. Some buildings will be so significant that every effort must be made to protect the historic materials and systems in place with minimal intrusion from new systems. Some buildings will have museum collections that need special climate control. In such cases, curatorial needs must be considered—but not to the ultimate detriment of the historic building resource. Other

buildings will be rehabilitated for commercial use. For them, a variety of systems might be acceptable, as long as significant spaces, features, and finishes are retained.

Most mechanical systems require upgrading or replacement within 15–30 years due to wear and tear or the availability of improved technology. Therefore, historic buildings should not be greatly altered or otherwise sacrificed in an effort to meet short-term systems objectives.

History of Mechanical Systems

The history of mechanical systems in buildings involves a study of inventions and ingenuity as building owners, architects, and engineers devised ways to improve the interior climate of their buildings. Following are highlights in the evolution of heating, ventilating, and cooling systems in historic buildings.

Eighteenth Century. Early heating and ventilation in America relied upon common sense methods of *managing the environment* (see figure 1). Builders purposely sited houses to capture winter sun and prevailing summer cross breezes; they chose materials that could help protect the inhabitants from the elements, and took precautions against precipitation and damaging drainage patterns. The location and sizes of windows, doors, porches, and the floor plan itself often evolved to maximize ventilation. Heating was primarily from fireplaces or stoves and, therefore, was at the source of delivery. In 1744, Benjamin Franklin designed his "Pennsylvania stove" with a fresh air intake in order to maximize the heat radiated into the room and to minimize annoying smoke.

Thermal insulation was rudimentary—often wattle and daub, brick and wood nogging. The comfort level for occupants was low, but the relatively small difference between internal and external temperatures and relative humidity allowed building materials to expand and contract with the seasons.

Regional styles and architectural features reflected regional climates. In warm, dry and sunny climates, thick adobe walls offered shelter from the sun and kept the inside temperatures cool. Verandas, courtyards, porches, and high ceilings also reduced the impact of the sun. Hot and humid climates called for elevated living floors, louvered grilles and shutters, balconies, and interior courtyards to help circulate air.

Nineteenth Century. The industrial revolution provided the technological means for *controlling the environment* for the first time (see figure 2). The dual developments of steam energy from coal and industrial mass production made possible early central heating systems with distribution of heated air or steam using metal ducts or pipes. Improvements were made to early wrought iron boilers and by late century, steam and low pressure hot water radiator systems were in common use, both in offices and residences. Some large institutional buildings heated air in furnaces and distributed it throughout the building in brick flues with a network of metal pipes delivering heated air to individual rooms. Residential designs of the period often used gravity hot air systems utilizing decorative floor and ceiling grilles.

Ventilation became more scientific and the introduc-

1. Eighteenth century and later vernacular architecture depended on the siting of the building, deciduous trees, cross ventilation, and the placement of windows and chimneys to maximize winter heating and natural summer cooling. Regional details, as seen in this Virginia house, include external chimneys and a separate summer kitchen to reduce fire risk and isolate heat in the summer. Photo: NPS Files.

2. Nineteenth century buildings continued to use architectural features such as porches, cupolas, and awnings to make the buildings more comfortable in summer, but heating was greatly improved by hot water or steam radiators. Photo: NPS Files

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tion of fresh air into buildings became an important component of heating and cooling. Improved forced air ventilation became possible in mid-century with the introduction of power-driven fans. Architectural features such as porches, awnings, window and door transoms, large open-work iron roof trusses, roof monitors, cupolas, skylights and clerestory windows helped to dissipate heat and provide healthy ventilation.

Cavity wall construction, popular in masonry structures, improved the insulating qualities of a building and also provided a natural cavity for the dissipation of moisture produced on the interior of the building. In some buildings, cinder chips and broken masonry filler between structural iron beams and jack arch floor vaults provided thermal insulation as well as fireproofing. Mineral wool and cork were new sources of lightweight insulation and were forerunners of contemporary batt and blanket insulation.

The technology of the age, however, was not sufficient to produce "tight" buildings. There was still only a moderate difference between internal and external temperatures. This was due, in part, to the limitations of early insulation, the almost exclusive use of single glazed windows, and the absence of air-tight construction. The presence of ventilating fans and the reliance on architectural features, such as operable windows, cupolas and transoms, allowed sufficient air movement to keep buildings well ventilated. Building materials could behave in a fairly traditional way, expanding and contracting with the seasons.

Twentieth Century. The twentieth century saw intensive development of new technologies and the notion of fully *integrating mechanical systems* (see figure 3). Oil and gas furnaces developed in the nineteenth century were improved and made more efficient, with electricity becoming the critical source of power for building systems in the latter half of the century. Forced air heating systems with ducts and registers became popular for all types of buildings and allowed architects to experiment with architectural forms free from mechanical encumbrances. In the 1920s large-scale theaters and auditoriums introduced central air conditioning, and by mid-century forced air systems which combined heating and air conditioning in the same ductwork set a new standard for comfort and convenience. The combination and coordination of a variety of systems came together in the post-World War II highrise buildings; complex heating and air conditioning plants, electric elevators, mechanical towers, ventilation fans, and full service electric lighting were integrated into the building's design.

The insulating qualities of building materials improved. Synthetic materials, such as spun fiberglass batt insulation, were fully developed by mid-century. Prototypes of insulated thermal glazing and integral storm window systems were promoted in construction journals. Caulking to seal out perimeter air around window and door openings became a standard construction detail.

The last quarter of the twentieth century has seen making HVAC systems more energy efficient and better integrated. The use of vapor barriers to control moisture migration, thermally efficient windows, caulking and gaskets, compressed thin wall insulation, has become standard practice. New integrated systems now combine interior climate control with fire suppression, lighting, air filtration, temperature and humidity control, and security detection. Computers regulate the performance of these integrated systems based on the time of day, day of the week, occupancy, and outside ambient temperature.

3. The circa 1928 Fox Theater in Detroit, designed by C. Howard Crane, was one of the earliest twentieth century buildings to provide air conditioning to its patrons. The early water-cooled system was recently restored. Commercial and highrise buildings of the twentieth century were able, mostly through electrical power, to provide sophisticated systems that integrated many building services. Photo: William Kessler and Associates, Architects.

Climate Control and Preservation

Although twentieth century mechanical systems technology has had a tremendous impact on making historic buildings comfortable, the introduction of these new systems in older buildings is not without problems. The attempt to meet and maintain modern climate control standards *may in fact be damaging to historic resources.* Modern systems are often over-designed to compensate for inherent inefficiencies of some historic buildings materials and plan layouts. Energy retrofit measures, such as installing exterior wall insulation and vapor barriers or the sealing of operable window and vents, ultimately affect the performance and can reduce the life of aging historic materials.

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