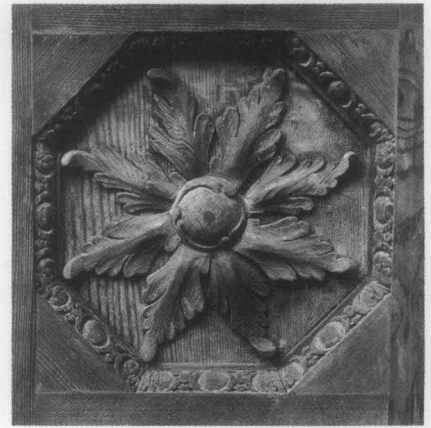


# 18 PRESERVATION BRIEFS



## 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

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.



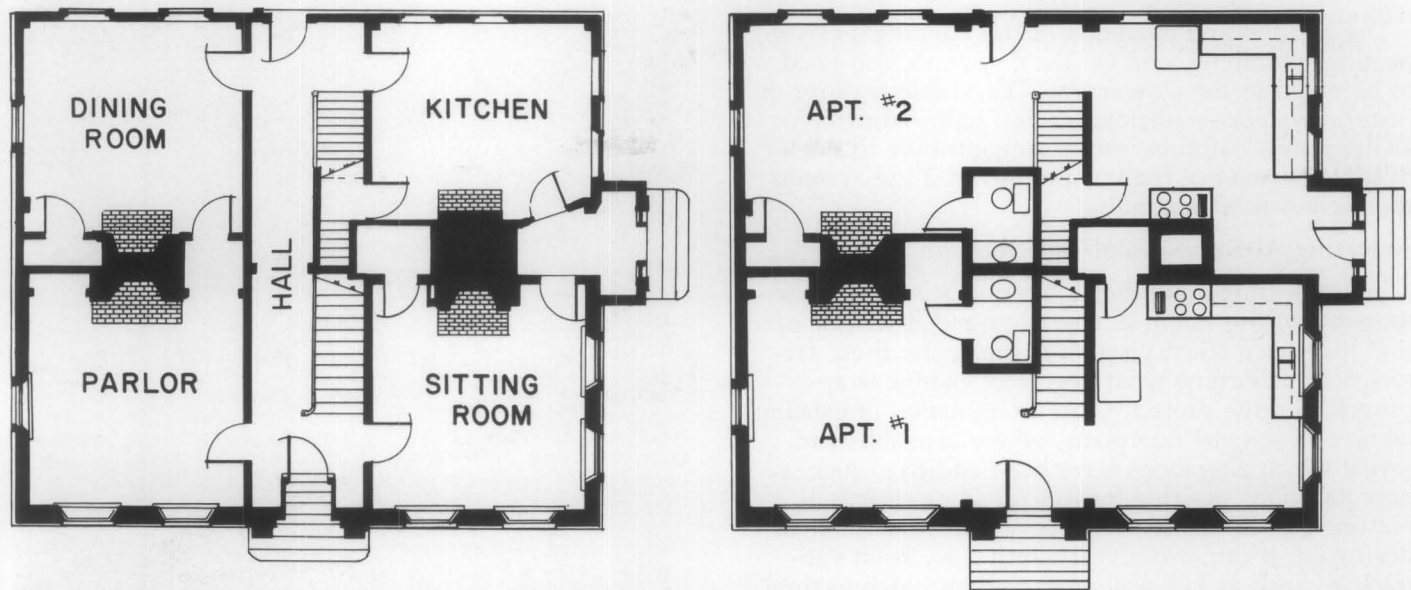


Figure 3. The floor plan at left is characteristic of many 19th century Greek Revival houses, with large rooms flanking a central hall. In the process of rehabilitation, the plan (at right) was drastically altered to accommodate two duplex apartments. The open stair was replaced with one that is enclosed, 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

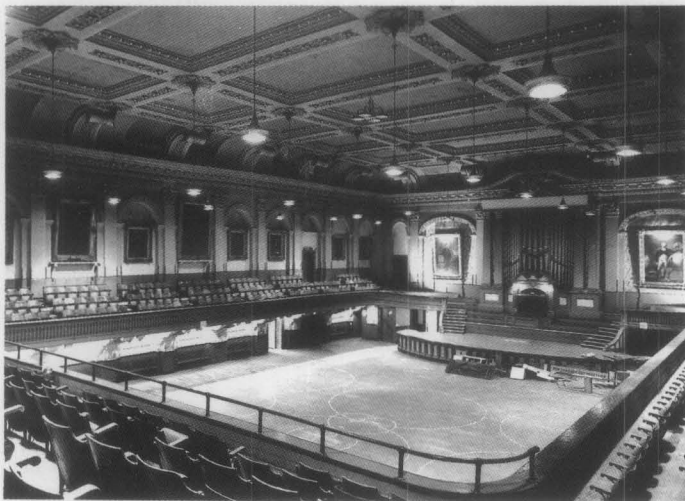


Figure 4. Many institutional buildings possess distinctive spaces or floor plans that are important in conveying the significance of the property. Finding new compatible uses for these buildings and preserving the buildings' historic character can be a difficult, if not impossible, task. One such case 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 assessing 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 wainscoting, 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.

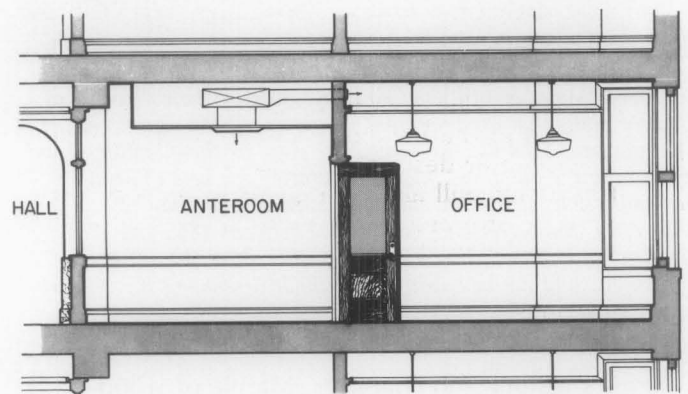


Figure 7. When the Monadnock Building was rehabilitated, architects retained the basic floor plan on the upper floors consisting of a double-loaded corridor with offices opening onto it. The original floor-to-ceiling height in the corridors and outside offices—the most important spaces—was maintained 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



## 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.")

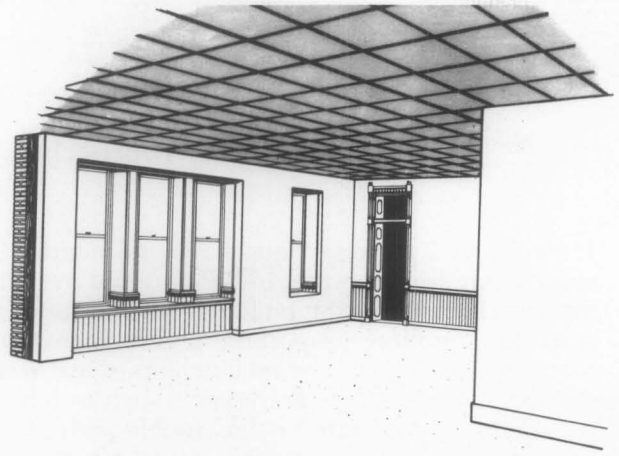
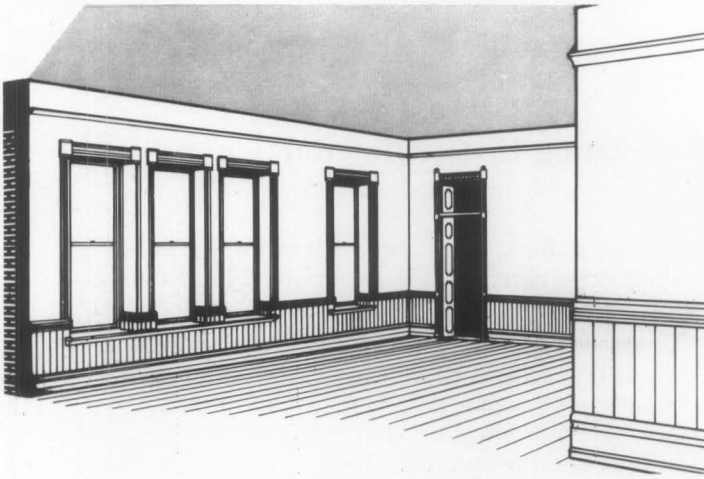


Figure 8. Furring out exterior walls to add insulation and suspending new ceilings to hide ductwork and wiring can change a room's proportions and can cause interior features to appear fragmented. In this case, a school was converted into apartments, and individual classrooms became living rooms, bedrooms, and kitchens. On the left is an illustration of a classroom prior to rehabilitation; note the generous floor-to-ceiling height, wood wainscoting, 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 wainscoting 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.





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, wainscoting, 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.

Fisher, Charles E. *Temporary Protection of Historic Stairways During Rehabilitation Work*. Preservation Tech Note. Washington, D.C.: Preservation Assistance Division, National Park Service, U.S. Department of the Interior, 1985.

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

Johnson, Ed. *Old House Woodwork Restoration: How to Restore Doors, Windows, Walls, Stairs and Decorative Trim to Their Original Beauty*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1983.

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

*The Secretary of the Interior's Standards for Rehabilitation and Guidelines for Rehabilitating Historic Buildings*. Washington, D.C.: Preservation Assistance Division, National Park Service, U.S. Department of the Interior, rev. 1983.

U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development. *Rehabilitation Guidelines*, volumes 1-11. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development, 1980-84.

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.



# 22 PRESERVATION BRIEFS

## The Preservation and Repair of Historic Stucco

Anne Grimmer

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

The term "stucco" is used here to describe a type of exterior plaster applied as a two-or-three part coating directly onto masonry, or applied over wood or metal lath to a log or wood frame structure. Stucco is found in many forms on historic structures throughout the United States. It is so common, in fact, that it frequently goes unnoticed, and is often disguised or used to imitate another material. Historic stucco is also sometimes incorrectly viewed as a sacrificial coating, and consequently removed to reveal stone, brick or logs that historically were never intended to be exposed. Age and lack of maintenance hasten the deterioration of many historic stucco buildings. Like most historic building materials, stucco is at the mercy of the elements, and even though it is a protective coating, it is particularly susceptible to water damage.

Stucco is a material of deceptive simplicity: in most cases its repair should not be undertaken by a property

owner unfamiliar with the art of plastering. Successful stucco repair requires the skill and experience of a professional plasterer. Therefore, this Brief has been prepared to provide background information on the nature and components of traditional stucco, as well as offer guidance on proper maintenance and repairs. The Brief will outline the requirements for stucco repair, and, when necessary, replacement. Although several stucco mixes representative of different periods are provided here for reference, this Brief does not include specifications for carrying out repair projects. Each project is unique, with its own set of problems that require individual solutions.

### Historical Background

Stucco has been used since ancient times. Still widely used throughout the world, it is one of the most common of traditional building materials (Fig. 1). Up until

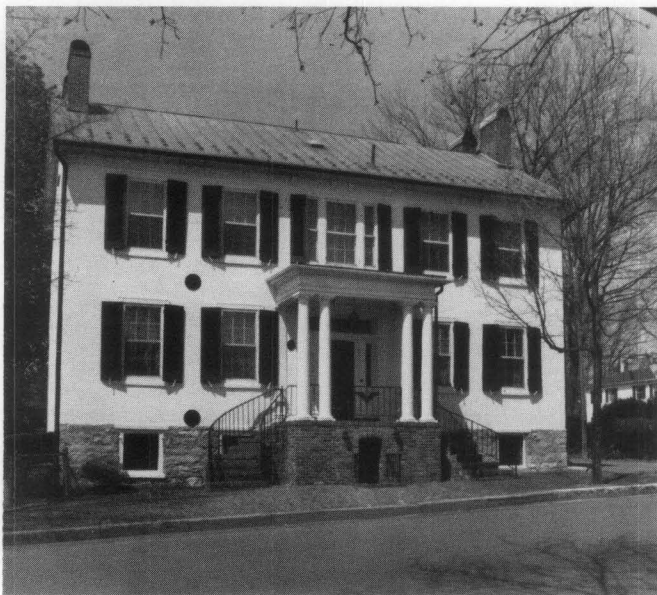
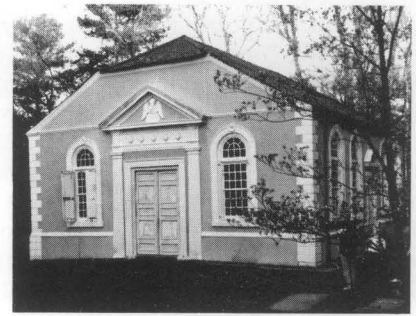


Fig. 1. These two houses in a residential section of Winchester, Virginia, illustrate the continuing popularity of stucco (a) from this early 19th century, Federal style house on the left, (b) to Arts and Crafts style cottage that was built across the street in the 1930's. Photos: Anne Grimmer.

the late 1800's, stucco, like mortar, was primarily lime-based, but the popularization of portland cement changed the composition of stucco, as well as mortar, to a harder material. Historically, the term "plaster" has often been interchangeable with "stucco"; the term is still favored by many, particularly when referring to the traditional lime-based coating. By the nineteenth century "stucco," although originally denoting fine interior ornamental plasterwork, had gained wide acceptance in the United States to describe exterior plastering. "Render" and "rendering" are also terms used to describe stucco, especially in Great Britain. Other historic treatments and coatings related to stucco in that they consist at least in part of a similarly plastic or malleable material include: parging and pargeting, wattle and daub, "cob" or chalk mud, pisé de terre, rammed earth, briqueté entre poteaux or bousillage, half-timbering, and adobe. All of these are regional variations on traditional mixtures of mud, clay, lime, chalk, cement, gravel or straw. Many are still used today.

### The Stucco Tradition in the United States

Stucco is primarily used on residential buildings and relatively small-scale commercial structures. Some of the earliest stucco buildings in the United States include examples of the Federal, Greek and Gothic Revival styles of the eighteenth and the nineteenth centuries that emulated European architectural fashions. Benjamin Henry Latrobe, appointed by Thomas Jefferson as Surveyor of Public Buildings of the United States in 1803, was responsible for the design of a number of important stucco buildings, including St. John's Church (1816), in Washington, D.C. (Fig. 2). Nearly half a century later Andrew Jackson Downing also advocated the use of stucco in his influential book *The Architecture of Country Houses*, published in 1850. In Downing's opinion, stucco was superior in many respects to plain brick or stone because it was cheaper, warmer and dryer, and could be "agreeably" tinted. As a result of his advice, stuccoed Italianate style urban and suburban villas proliferated in many parts of the country during the third quarter of the nineteenth century.

### Revival Styles Promote Use of Stucco

The introduction of the many revival styles of architecture around the turn of the twentieth century, combined with the improvement and increased availability of portland cement resulted in a "craze" for stucco as a building material in the United States. Beginning about 1890 and gaining momentum into the 1930's and 1940's, stucco was associated with certain historic architectural styles, including: Prairie; Art Deco, and Art Moderne; Spanish Colonial, Mission, Pueblo, Mediterranean, English Cotswold Cottage, and Tudor Revival styles; as well as the ubiquitous bungalow and "four-square" house (Fig. 3). The fad for Spanish Colonial Revival, and other variations on this theme, was especially important in furthering stucco as a building material in the United States during this period, since stucco clearly looked like adobe (Fig. 4).

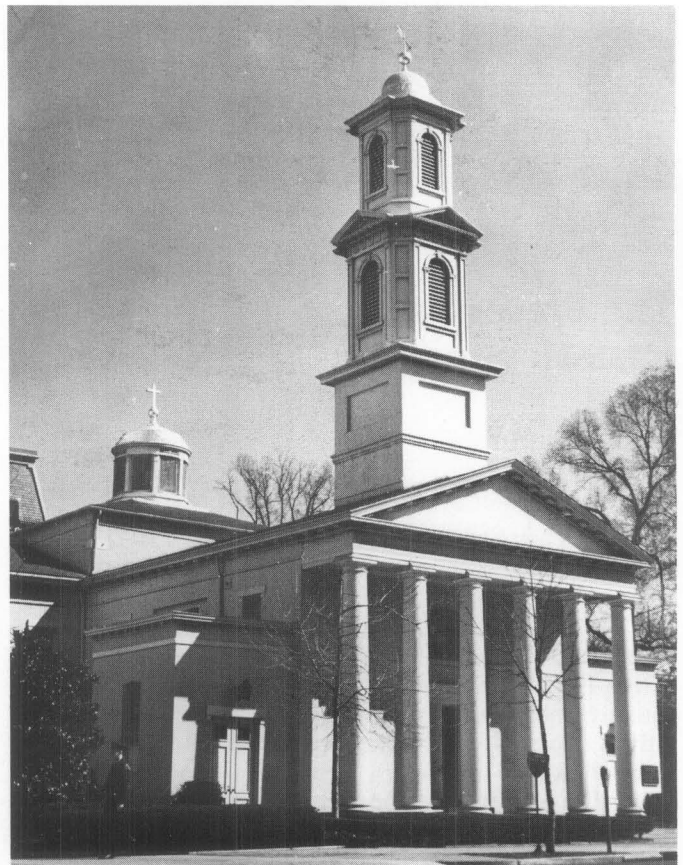


Fig. 2. St. John's Church, Washington, D.C., constructed of brick and stuccoed immediately upon completion in 1816, reflects the influence of European, and specifically English, architectural styles. Photo: Russell Jones, HABS Collection.

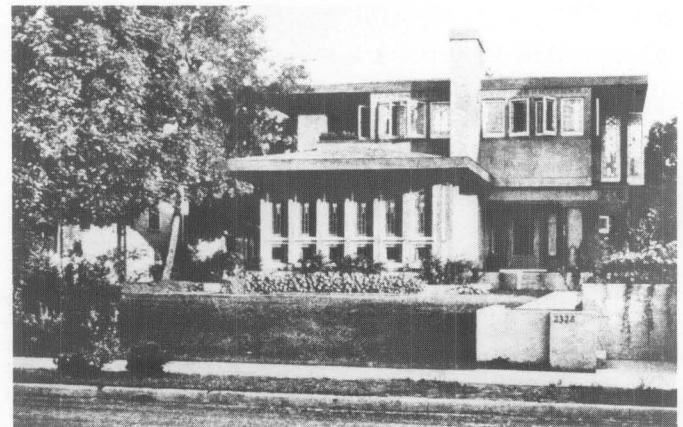


Fig. 3. The William Gray and Edna S. Purcell House, Minneapolis, Minnesota, was designed in 1913 by the architects Purcell and Elmslie in the Prairie style. Stuccoed in a salmon-pink, sand (float) finish, it is unusual in that it featured a 3-color geometric frieze stencilled below the eaves of the 2nd story. The Minneapolis Institute of Art has removed the cream-colored paint added at a later date, and restored the original color and texture of the stucco. Photo: Courtesy MacDonald and Mack Partnership.



Although stucco buildings were especially prevalent in California, the Southwest and Florida, ostensibly because of their Spanish heritage, this period also spawned stucco-coated, revival-style buildings all over the United States and Canada. The popularity of stucco as a cheap, and readily available material meant that by the 1920's, it was used for an increasing variety of building types. Resort hotels, apartment buildings, private mansions and movie theaters, railroad stations, and even gas stations and tourist courts took advantage

of the "romance" of period styles, and adopted the stucco construction that had become synonymous with these styles (Fig. 5).

### A Practical Building Material

Stucco has traditionally been popular for a variety of reasons. It was an inexpensive material that could simulate finely dressed stonework, especially when "scored" or "lined" in the European tradition. A stucco coating over a less finished and less costly substrate such as rubblestone, fieldstone, brick, log or wood frame, gave the building the appearance of being a more expensive and important structure. As a weather-repellent coating, stucco protected the building from wind and rain penetration, and also offered a certain amount of fire protection. While stucco was usually applied during construction as part of the building design, particularly over rubblestone or fieldstone, in some instances it was added later to protect the structure, or when a rise in the owner's social status demanded a comparable rise in his standard of living.

### Composition of Historic Stucco

Before the mid-to-late nineteenth century, stucco consisted primarily of hydrated or slaked lime, water and sand, with straw or animal hair included as a binder. Natural cements were frequently used in stucco mixes after their discovery in the United States during the 1820's. Portland cement was first manufactured in the United States in 1871, and it gradually replaced natural cement. After about 1900, most stucco was composed primarily of portland cement, mixed with some lime. With the addition of portland cement, stucco became even more versatile and durable. No longer used just as a coating for a substantial material like masonry or log, stucco could now be applied over wood or metal lath attached to a light wood frame. With this increased strength, stucco ceased to be just a veneer and became a more integral part of the building structure.



Fig. 4. The elaborate Spanish Colonial Revival style of this building designed by Bertram Goodhue for the 1915 Panama California Exposition held in San Diego's Balboa Park emphasizes the sculptural possibilities of stucco. Photo: C.W. Snell, National Historic Landmark Files.



Fig. 5. During the 19th and 20th centuries stucco has been a popular material not only for residential, but also for commercial buildings in the Spanish style. Two such examples are (a) the 1851 Ernest Hemingway House, Key West, Florida, built of stuccoed limestone in a Spanish Caribbean style; and (b) the Santa Fe Depot (Union Station), San Diego, California, designed by the architects Bakewell and Brown in 1914 in a Spanish Colonial Revival style, and constructed of stucco over brick and hollow tile. Photos: (a) J.F. Brooks, HABS Collection, (b) Marvin Rand, HABS Collection.

Today, gypsum, which is hydrated calcium sulfate or sulfate of lime, has to a great extent replaced lime. Gypsum is preferred because it hardens faster and has less shrinkage than lime. Lime is generally used only in the finish coat in contemporary stucco work.

The composition of stucco depended on local custom and available materials. Stucco often contained substantial amounts of mud or clay, marble or brick dust, or even sawdust, and an array of additives ranging from animal blood or urine, to eggs, keratin or gluesize (animal hooves and horns), varnish, wheat paste, sugar, salt, sodium silicate, alum, tallow, linseed oil, beeswax, and wine, beer, or rye whiskey. Waxes, fats and oils were included to introduce water-repellent properties, sugary materials reduced the amount of water needed and slowed down the setting time, and alcohol acted as an air entrainer. All of these additives contributed to the strength and durability of the stucco.

The appearance of much stucco was determined by the color of the sand—or sometimes burnt clay, used in the mix, but often stucco was also tinted with natural pigments, or the surface whitewashed or colorwashed after stuccoing was completed. Brick dust could provide color, and other coloring materials that were not affected by lime, mostly mineral pigments, could be added to the mix for the final finish coat. Stucco was

also marbled or marbleized—stained to look like stone by diluting oil of vitriol (sulfuric acid) with water, and mixing this with a yellow ochre, or another color (Fig. 6). As the twentieth century progressed, manufactured or synthetic pigments were added at the factory to some prepared stucco mixes.

### Methods of Application

Stucco is applied directly, without lath, to masonry substrates such as brick, stone, concrete or hollow tile (Fig. 7). But on wood structures, stucco, like its interior counterpart plaster, must be applied over lath in order to obtain an adequate key to hold the stucco. Thus, when applied over a log structure, stucco is laid on horizontal wood lath that has been nailed on vertical wood furring strips attached to the logs (Fig. 8). If it is applied over a wood frame structure, stucco may be applied to wood or metal lath nailed directly to the wood frame; it may also be placed on lath that has been attached to furring strips. The furring strips are themselves laid over building paper covering the wood sheathing (Fig. 9). Wood lath was gradually superseded by expanded metal lath introduced in the late-nineteenth and early-twentieth century. When stuccoing over a stone or brick substrate, it was customary to cut back or rake out the mortar joints if they were not already recessed by natural weathering or

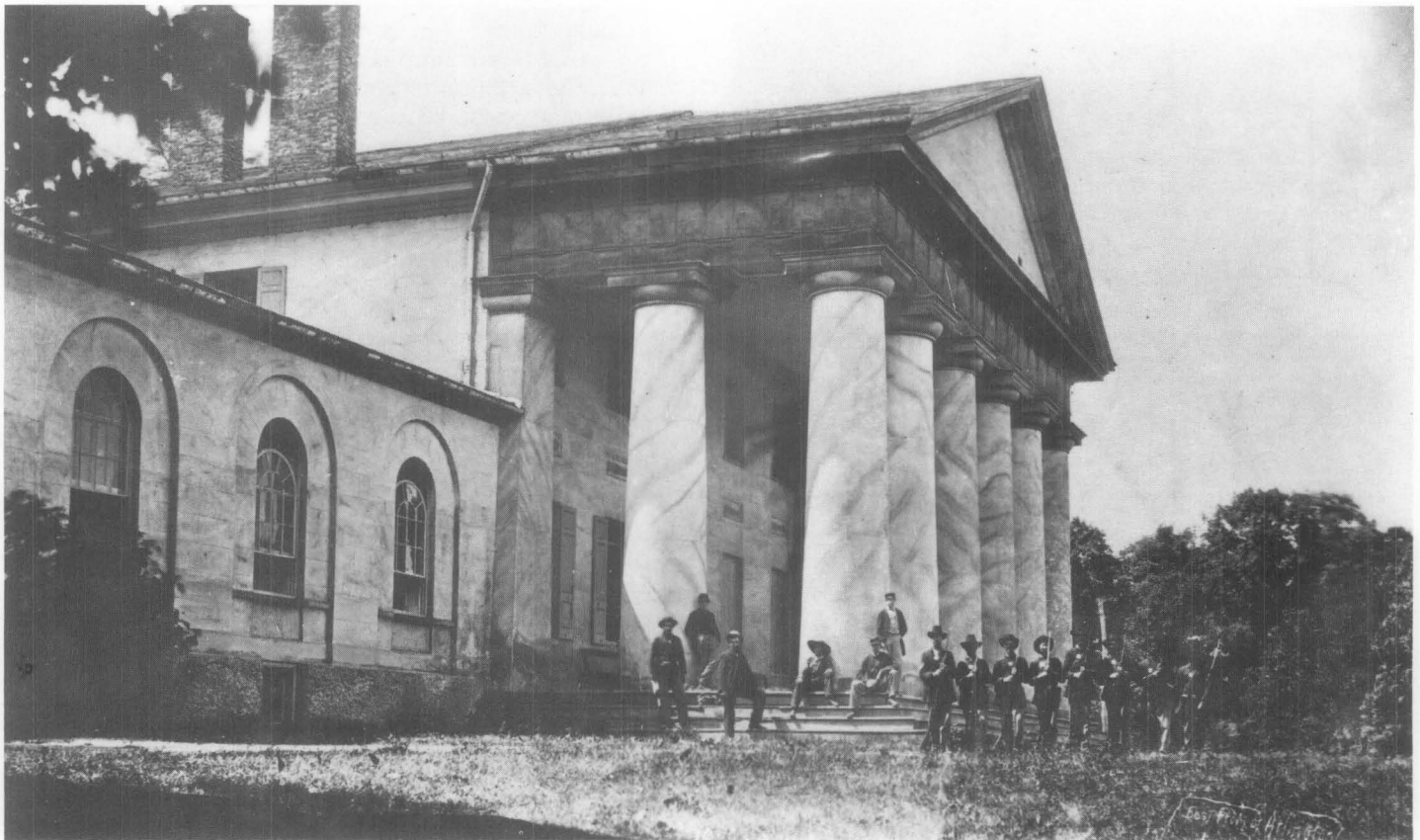


Fig. 6. Arlington House, Arlington, Virginia, was built between 1802–1818 of brick covered with stucco. It was designed by George Hadfield for George Washington Parke Custis, grandson of Martha Washington, and was later the home of Robert E. Lee. This photograph taken on June 28, 1864, by Captain Andrew J. Russell, a U.S. Signal Corps photographer, shows the stucco after it had been marbleized during the 1850's. Yellow ochre and burnt umber pigments were combined to imitate Sienna marble, and the stucco, with the exception of the roughcast foundation, was scored to heighten the illusion of stone. Photo: National Archives, Arlington House Collection, National Park Service.





Fig. 7. Patches of stucco have fallen off this derelict 19th century structure exposing the rough-cut local stone substrate. The missing wood entablature on the side and the rough wood lintel now exposed above a second-floor window, offer clues that the building was stuccoed originally. Photo: National Park Service Files.



Fig. 8. Removal of deteriorated stucco in preparation for stucco repair on this late-18th century log house in Middleway, West Virginia, reveals that the stucco was applied to hand-riven wood lath nailed over vertical wood strips attached to the logs. Photo: Anne Grimmer.

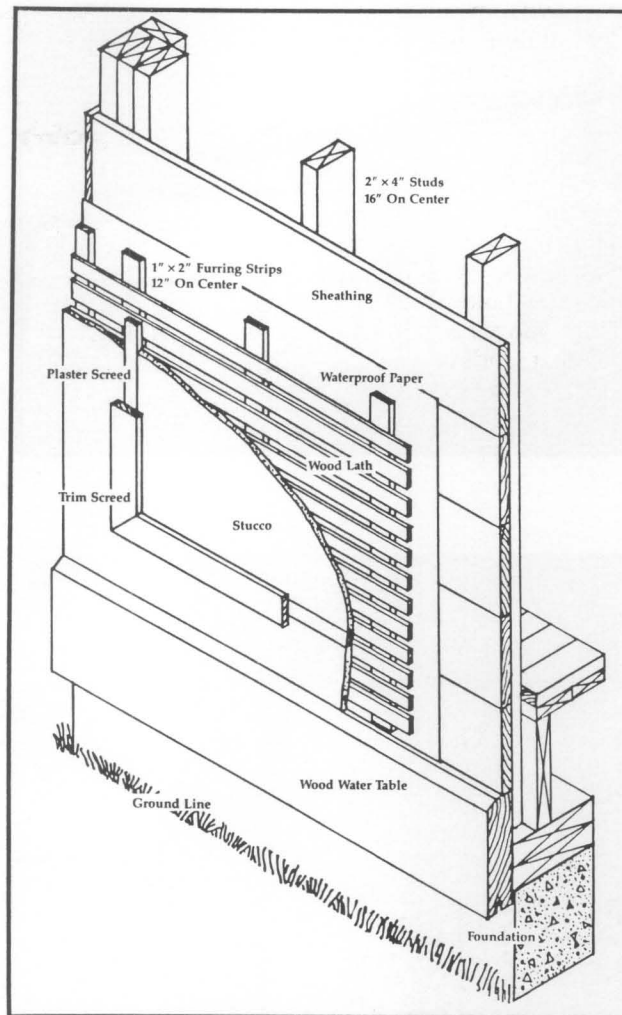


Fig. 9. This cutaway drawing shows the method of attachment for stucco commonly used on wood frame or balloon frame structures from the late-19th to the 20th century. Drawing: Brian Conway, "Illinois Preservation Series Number 2: Stucco."

erosion, and sometimes the bricks themselves were gouged to provide a key for the stucco. This helped provide the necessary bond for the stucco to remain attached to the masonry, much like the key provided by wood or metal lath on frame buildings.

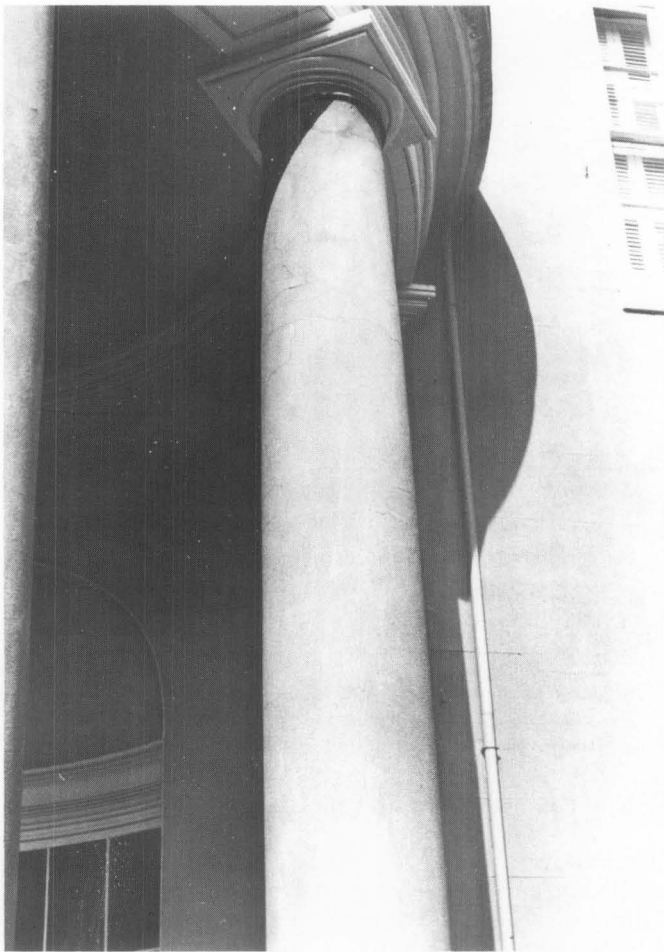
Like interior wall plaster, stucco has traditionally been applied as a multiple-layer process, sometimes consisting of two coats, but more commonly as three. Whether applied directly to a masonry substrate or onto wood or metal lath, this consists of a first "scratch" or "pricking-up" coat, followed by a second scratch coat, sometimes referred to as a "floating" or "brown" coat, followed finally by the "finishing" coat. Up until the late-nineteenth century, the first and the second coats were of much the same composition, generally consisting of lime, or natural cement, sand, perhaps clay, and one or more of the additives previously mentioned. Straw or animal hair was usually added to the first coat as a binder. The third, or finishing coat, consisted primarily of a very fine mesh grade of lime and sand, and sometimes pigment. As already noted, after the 1820's, natural cement was also a common ingredient in stucco until it was replaced by portland



A



B



C



D

Fig. 10. (a) Tudor Place, Washington, D.C. (1805–1816), was designed by Dr. William Thornton. Like its contemporary, Arlington House, it is stuccoed and scored, with a roughcast base, but here the stucco is a monochromatic sandstone color tinted by sand and mineral pigments (b). Although the original stucco was replaced in the early-20th century with a portland cement-based stucco, the family, who retained ownership until 1984 when the house was opened to the public, left explicit instructions for future stucco repairs. The mix recommended for repairing hairline cracks (c), consists of sharp sand, cement and lime, burnt umber, burnt sienna, and a small amount of raw sienna. Preparation of numerous test samples, the size of “a thick griddle cake,” will be necessary to match the stucco color, and when the exact color has been achieved, the mixture is to be diluted to the “consistency of cream,” brushed on the wall and rubbed into the cracks with a rubber sponge or float. Note the dark color visible under the eaves intended to replicate the stronger color of the original limewashed stucco (d). Photos: Anne Grimmer.



Both masonry and wood lath must be kept wet or damp to ensure a good bond with the stucco. Wetting these materials helps to prevent them from pulling moisture out of the stucco too rapidly, which results in cracking, loss of bond, and generally poor quality stuccowork.

### Traditional Stucco Finishes

Until the early-twentieth century when a variety of novelty finishes or textures were introduced, the last coat of stucco was commonly given a smooth, troweled finish, and then scored or lined in imitation of ashlar. The illusion of masonry joints was sometimes enhanced by a thin line of white lime putty, graphite, or some other pigment. Some nineteenth century buildings feature a water table or raised foundation of rough-cast stucco that differentiates it from the stucco surface above, which is smooth and scored (Fig. 10). Other novelty or textured finishes associated with the "period" or revival styles of the early-twentieth century include: the English cottage finish, adobe and Spanish, pebble-dashed or dry-dash surface, fan and sponge texture, reticulated and vermiculated, roughcast (or wet dash), and sgraffito (Fig. 11).

### Repairing Deteriorated Stucco

#### Regular Maintenance

Although A. J. Downing alluded to stuccoed houses in Pennsylvania that had survived for over a century in relatively good condition, historic stucco is inherently not a particularly permanent or long-lasting building material. Regular maintenance is required to keep it in good condition. Unfortunately, many older or historic buildings are not always accorded this kind of care.

Because building owners knew stucco to be a protective, but also somewhat fragile coating, they employed a variety of means to prolong its usefulness. The most common treatment was to whitewash stucco, often annually. The lime in the whitewash offered protection and stability and helped to harden the stucco. Most importantly, it filled hairline cracks before they could develop into larger cracks and let in moisture. To improve water repellency, stucco buildings were also sometimes coated with paraffin, another type of wax, or other stucco-like coatings, such as oil mastics.

#### Assessing Damage

Most stucco deterioration is the result of water infiltration into the building structure, either through the roof, around chimneys, window and door openings, or excessive ground water or moisture penetrating through, or splashing up from the foundation. Potential causes of deterioration include: ground settlement, lintel and door frame settlement, inadequate or leaking gutters and downspouts, intrusive vegetation, moisture migration within walls due to interior condensation and humidity, vapor drive problems caused by furnace, bathroom and kitchen vents, and rising damp resulting from excessive ground water and poor drainage around the foundation. Water infiltration will cause wood lath to rot, and metal lath and nails to rust, which eventu-



Fig. 11. The Hotel Washington, Washington, D.C. (1916–1917), is notable for its decorative *sgraffito* surfaces. Stucco panels under the cornice and around the windows feature classical designs created by artists who incised the patterns in the outer layer of red-colored stucco while still soft, thereby exposing a stucco undercoat of a contrasting color. Photo: Kaye Ellen Simonson.

ally will cause stucco to lose its bond and pull away from its substrate.

After the cause of deterioration has been identified, any necessary repairs to the building should be made first before repairing the stucco. Such work is likely to include repairs designed to keep excessive water away from the stucco, such as roof, gutter, downspout and flashing repairs, improving drainage, and redirecting rainwater runoff and splash-back away from the building. Horizontal areas such as the tops of parapet walls or chimneys are particularly vulnerable to water infiltration, and may require modifications to their original design, such as the addition of flashing to correct the problem.

Previous repairs inexpertly carried out may have caused additional deterioration, particularly if executed in portland cement, which tends to be very rigid, and therefore incompatible with early, mostly soft lime-based stucco that is more "flexible." Incompatible



repairs, external vibration caused by traffic or construction, or building settlement can also result in cracks which permit the entrance of water and cause the stucco to fail (Fig. 12).

Before beginning any stucco repair, an assessment of the stucco should be undertaken to determine the extent of the damage, and how much must be replaced or repaired. Testing should be carried out systematically on all elevations of the building to determine the overall condition of the stucco. Some areas in need of repair will be clearly evidenced by missing sections of stucco or stucco layers. Bulging or cracked areas are obvious places to begin. Unsound, punky or soft areas that have lost their key will echo with a hollow sound when tapped gently with a wooden or acrylic hammer or mallet.

### Identifying the Stucco Type

Analysis of the historic stucco will provide useful information on its primary ingredients and their proportions, and will help to ensure that the new replacement stucco will duplicate the old in strength, composition, color and texture as closely as possible. However, unless authentic, period restoration is required, it may not be worthwhile, nor in many instances possible, to attempt to duplicate *all* of the ingredients (particularly some of the additives), in creating the new stucco mor-

tar. Some items are no longer available, and others, notably sand and lime—the major components of traditional stucco—have changed radically over time. For example, most sand used in contemporary masonry work is manufactured sand, because river sand, which was used historically, is difficult to obtain today in many parts of the country. The physical and visual qualities of manufactured sand versus river sand, are quite different, and this affects the way stucco works, as well as the way it looks. The same is true of lime, which is frequently replaced by gypsum in modern stucco mixes. And even if identification of all the items in the historic stucco mix were possible, the analysis would still not reveal how the original stucco was mixed and applied.

There are, however, simple tests that can be carried out on a small piece of stucco to determine its basic make-up. A dilute solution of hydrochloric (muriatic) acid will dissolve lime-based stucco, but not portland cement. Although the use of portland cement became common after 1900, there are no precise cut-off dates, as stuccoing practices varied among individual plasterers, and from region to region. Some plasterers began using portland cement in the 1880's, but others may have continued to favor lime stucco well into the early-twentieth century. While it is safe to assume that a late-eighteenth or early-nineteenth century stucco is lime-based, late-nineteenth or early-twentieth century

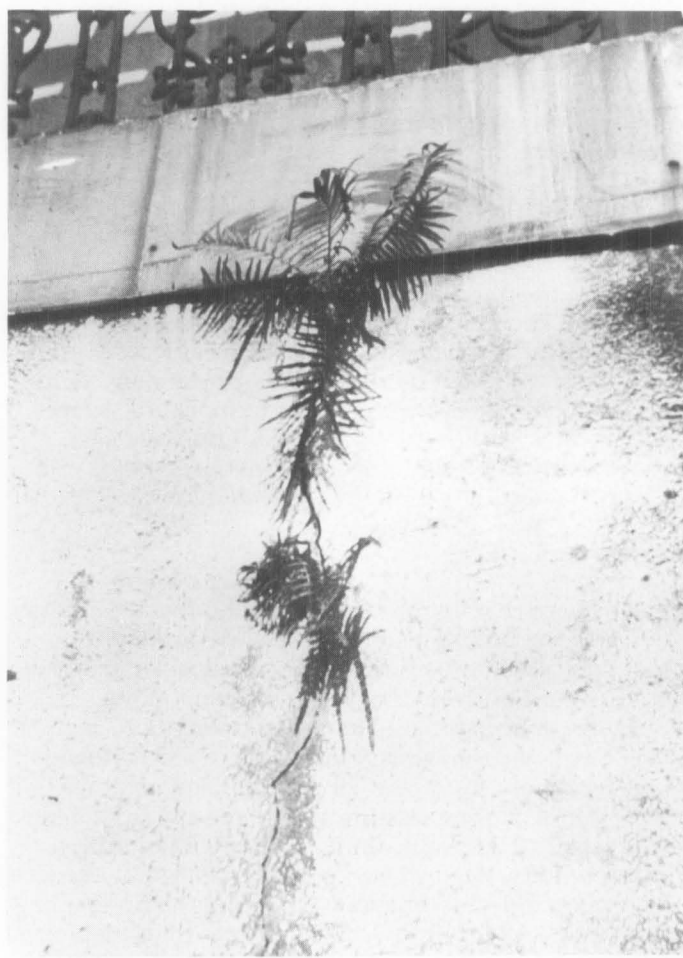
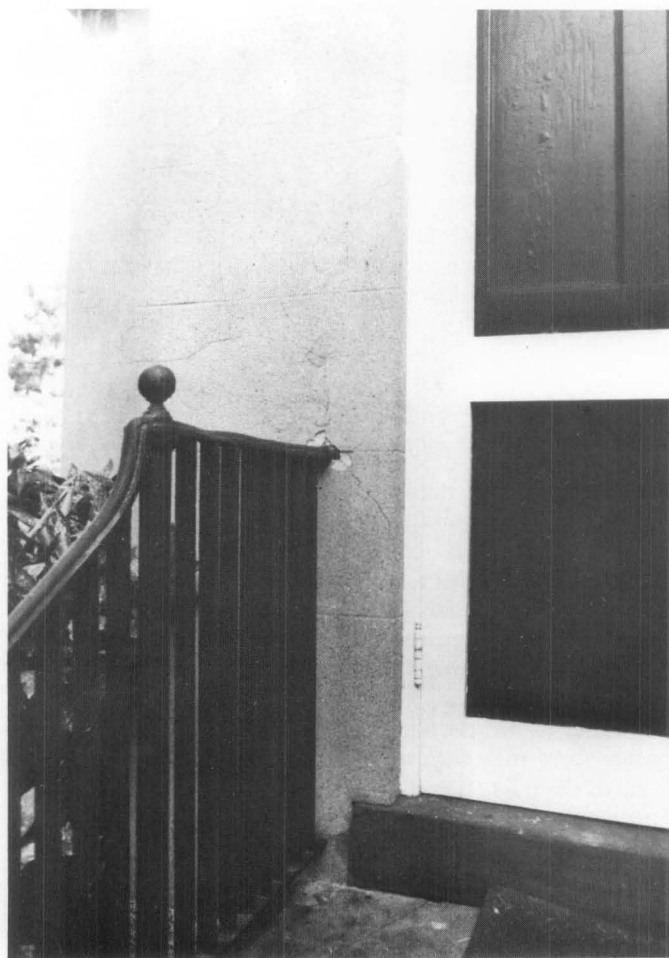


Fig. 12. (a) Water intrusion caused by rusting metal, or (b) plant growth left unattended will gradually enlarge these cracks, resulting in spalling, and eventually requiring extensive repair of the stucco. Photos: National Park Service Files.



Fig. 13. (a) In preparation for repainting, hairline cracks on this Mediterranean style stucco apartment building were filled with a commercial caulking compound; (b) dirt is attracted and adheres to the texture of the caulked areas, and a year after painting, these inappropriate repairs are highly obvious. Photos: Anne Grimmer.

stucco may be based on either lime or portland cement. Another important factor to take into consideration is that an early lime-stucco building is likely to have been repaired many times over the ensuing years, and it is probable that at least some of these patches consist of portland cement.

### Planning the Repair

Once the extent of damage has been determined, a number of repair options may be considered. Small hairline cracks usually are not serious and may be sealed with a thin slurry coat consisting of the finish coat ingredients, or even with a coat of paint or white-wash. Commercially available caulking compounds are not suitable materials for patching hairline cracks. Because their consistency and texture is unlike that of stucco, they tend to weather differently, and attract more dirt; as a result, repairs made with caulking compounds may be highly visible, and unsightly (Fig. 13). Larger cracks will have to be cut out in preparation for more extensive repair. Most stucco repairs will require the skill and expertise of a professional plasterer (Fig. 14).

In the interest of saving or preserving as much as possible of the historic stucco, patching rather than wholesale replacement is preferable. When repairing heavily textured surfaces, it is not usually necessary to replace an entire wall section, as the textured finish, if well-executed, tends to conceal patches, and helps them to blend in with the existing stucco. However, because of the nature of smooth-finished stucco, patching a number of small areas scattered over one elevation may not be a successful repair approach unless the stucco has been previously painted, or is to be painted following the repair work. On unpainted stucco such patches are hard to conceal, because they may not match exactly or blend in with the rest of the historic stucco surface. For



Fig. 14. This poorly executed patch is not the work of a professional plasterer. While it may serve to keep out water, it does not match the original surface, and is not an appropriate repair for historic stucco. Photo: Betsy Chittenden.

this reason it is recommended, if possible, that stucco repair be carried out in a contained or well-defined area, or if the stucco is scored, the repair patch should be "squared-off" in such a way as to follow existing scoring. In some cases, especially in a highly visible location, it may be preferable to restucco an entire wall section or feature. In this way, any differences between the patched area and the historic surface will not be so readily apparent.

Repair of historic stucco generally follows most of the same principles used in plaster repair. First, all deteriorated, severely cracked and loose stucco should be removed down to the lath (assuming that the lath is securely attached to the substrate), or down to the masonry if the stucco is directly applied to a masonry substrate. A clean surface is necessary to obtain a good

bond between the stucco and substrate. The areas to be patched should be cleaned of all debris with a bristle brush, and all plant growth, dirt, loose paint, oil or grease should be removed (Fig. 15). If necessary, brick or stone mortar joints should then be raked out to a depth of approximately 5/8" to ensure a good bond between the substrate and the new stucco.

To obtain a neat repair, the area to be patched should be squared-off with a butt joint, using a cold chisel, a hatchet, a diamond blade saw, or a masonry bit. Sometimes it may be preferable to leave the area to be patched in an irregular shape which may result in a less conspicuous patch. Proper preparation of the area to be patched requires very sharp tools, and extreme caution on the part of the plasterer not to break keys of surrounding good stucco by "over-sounding" when removing deteriorated stucco. To ensure a firm bond, the new patch must not overlap the old stucco. If the stucco has lost its bond or key from wood lath, or the lath has deteriorated or come loose from the substrate, a decision must be made whether to try to reattach the old lath, to replace deteriorated lath with new wood lath, or to leave the historic wood lath in place and supplement it with modern expanded metal lath. Unless authenticity is important, it is generally preferable (and easier) to nail new metal lath over the old wood lath to support the patch. Metal lath that is no longer

securely fastened to the substrate may be removed and replaced in kind, or left in place, and supplemented with new wire lath.

When repairing lime-based stucco applied directly to masonry, the new stucco should be applied in the same manner, directly onto the stone or brick. The stucco will bond onto the masonry itself without the addition of lath because of the irregularities in the masonry or those of its mortar joints, or because its surface has been scratched, scored or otherwise roughened to provide an additional key. Cutting out the old stucco at a diagonal angle may also help secure the bond between the new and the old stucco. For the most part it is not advisable to insert metal lath when restuccoing historic masonry in sound condition, as it can hasten deterioration of the repair work. Not only will attaching the lath damage the masonry, but the slightest moisture penetration can cause metal lath to rust. This will cause metal to expand, eventually resulting in spalling of the stucco, and possibly the masonry substrate too.

If the area to be patched is properly cleaned and prepared, a bonding agent is usually not necessary. However, a bonding agent may be useful when repairing hairline cracks, or when dealing with substrates that do not offer a good bonding surface. These may include dense stone or brick, previously painted or stuccoed

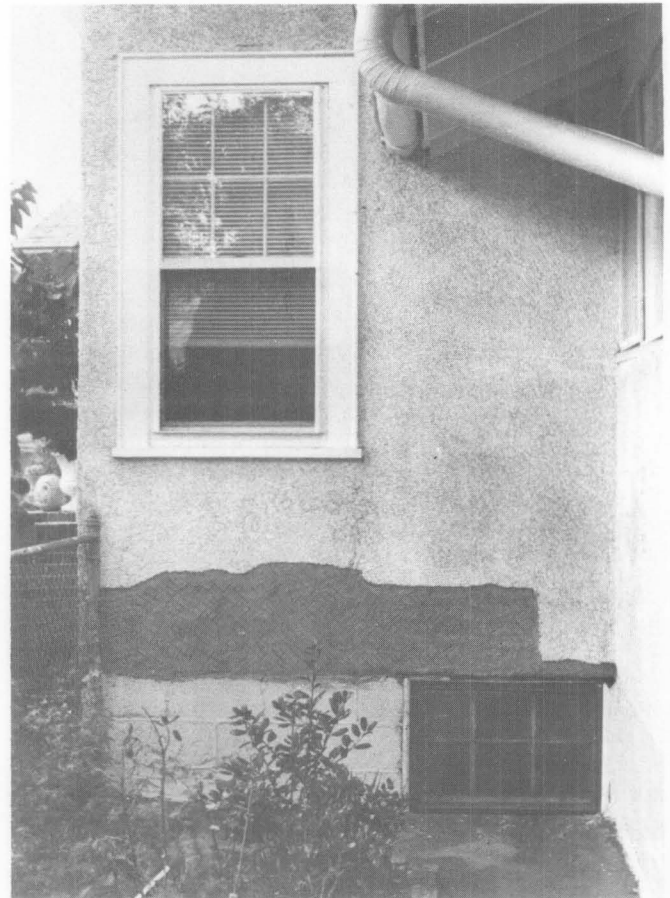
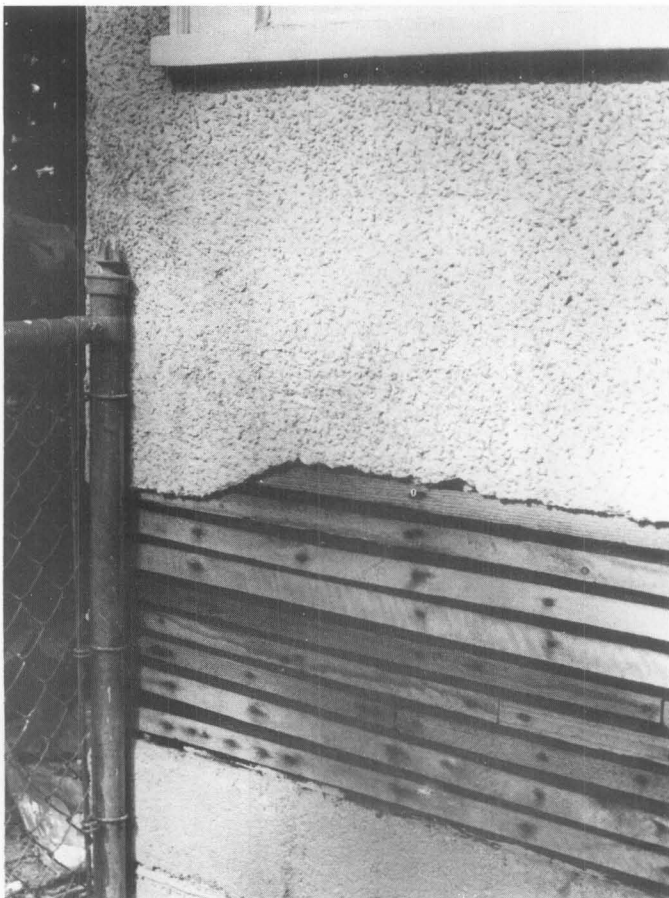


Fig. 15. (a) After reattaching any loose wood lath to the furring strips underneath, the area to be patched has been cleaned, the lath thoroughly wetted, and (b) the first coat of stucco has been applied and scratched to provide a key to hold the second layer of stucco. Photos: Betsy Chittenden.



masonry, or spalling brick substrates. A good mechanical bond is always preferable to reliance on bonding agents. Bonding agents should not be used on a wall that is likely to remain damp or where large amounts of salts are present. Many bonding agents do not survive well under such conditions, and their use could jeopardize the longevity of the stucco repair.

A stucco mix compatible with the historic stucco should be selected after analyzing the existing stucco. It can be adapted from a standard traditional mix of the period, or based on one of the mixes included here. Stucco consisting mostly of portland cement generally will not be physically compatible with the softer, more flexible lime-rich historic stuccos used throughout the eighteenth and much of the nineteenth centuries. The differing expansion and contraction rates of lime stucco and portland cement stucco will normally cause the stucco to crack. Choosing a stucco mix that is durable and compatible with the historic stucco on the building is likely to involve considerable trial and error, and probably will require a number of test samples, and even more if it is necessary to match the color. It is best to let the stucco test samples weather as long as possible—ideally one year, or at least through a change of seasons, in order to study the durability of the mix and its compatibility with the existing stucco, as well as the weathering of the tint if the building will not be painted and color match is an important factor. If the test samples are not executed on the building, they should be placed next to the stucco remaining on the building to compare the color, texture and composition of the samples with the original. The number and thickness of stucco coats used in the repair should also match the original.

After thoroughly dampening the masonry or wood lath, the first, scratch coat should be applied to the masonry substrate, or wood or metal lath, in a thickness that corresponds to the original if extant, or generally about 1/4" to 3/8". The scratch coat should be scratched or cross-hatched with a comb to provide a key to hold the second coat. It usually takes 24–72 hours, and longer in cold weather, for each coat to dry before the next coat can be applied. The second coat should be about the same thickness as the first, and the total thickness of the first two coats should generally not exceed about 5/8". This second or leveling coat should be roughened using a wood float with a nail protruding to provide a key for the final or finish coat. The finish coat, about 1/4" thick, is applied after the previous coat has initially set. If this is not feasible, the base coat should be thoroughly dampened when the finish coat is applied later. The finish coat should be worked to match the texture of the original stucco (Fig. 16).

### Colors and Tints for Historic Stucco Repair

The color of most early stucco was supplied by the aggregate included in the mix—usually the sand. Sometimes natural pigments were added to the mix, and eighteenth and nineteenth-century scored stucco was often marbled or painted in imitation of marble or granite. Stucco was also frequently coated with whitewash or a colorwash. This tradition later evolved

into the use of paint, its popularity depending on the vagaries of fashion as much as a means of concealing repairs. Because most of the early colors were derived from nature, the resultant stucco tints tended to be mostly earth-toned. This was true until the advent of brightly colored stucco in the early decades of the twentieth century. This was the so-called "Jazz Plaster" developed by O.A. Malone, the "man who put color into California," and who founded the California Stucco Products Corporation in 1927. California Stucco was revolutionary for its time as the first stucco/plaster to contain colored pigment in its pre-packaged factory mix.

When patching or repairing a historic stucco surface known to have been tinted, it may be possible to determine through visual or microscopic analysis whether the source of the coloring is sand, cement or pigment. Although some pigments or aggregates used traditionally may no longer be available, a sufficiently close color-match can generally be approximated using sand, natural or mineral pigments, or a combination of these. Obtaining such a match will require testing and comparing the color of dried test samples with the original. Successfully combining pigments in the dry stucco mix prepared for the finish coat requires considerable skill. The amount of pigment must be carefully measured for each batch of stucco. Overworking the mix can make the pigment separate from the lime. Changing the amount of water added to the mix, or using water to apply the tinted finish coat, will also affect the color of the stucco when it dries.

Generally, the color obtained by hand-mixing these ingredients will provide a sufficiently close match to cover an entire wall or an area distinct enough from the rest of the structure that the color differences will not be obvious. However, it may not work for small patches conspicuously located on a primary elevation, where color differences will be especially noticeable. In these instances, it may be necessary to conceal the repairs by painting the entire patched elevation, or even the whole building.

Many stucco buildings have been painted over the years and will require repainting after the stucco repairs have been made. Limewash or cement-based paint, latex paint, or oil-based paint are appropriate coatings for stucco buildings. The most important factor to consider when repainting a previously painted or coated surface is that the new paint be compatible with any coating already on the surface. In preparation for repainting, all loose or peeling paint or other coating material not firmly adhered to the stucco must be removed by hand-scraping or natural bristle brushes. The surface should then be cleaned.

Cement-based paints, most of which today contain some portland cement and are really a type of limewash, have traditionally been used on stucco buildings. The ingredients were easily obtainable. Furthermore, the lime in such paints actually bonded or joined with the stucco and provided a very durable coating. In many regions, whitewash was applied annually during spring cleaning. Modern, commercially available pre-mixed masonry and mineral-based paints may also be used on historic stucco buildings.



Fig. A

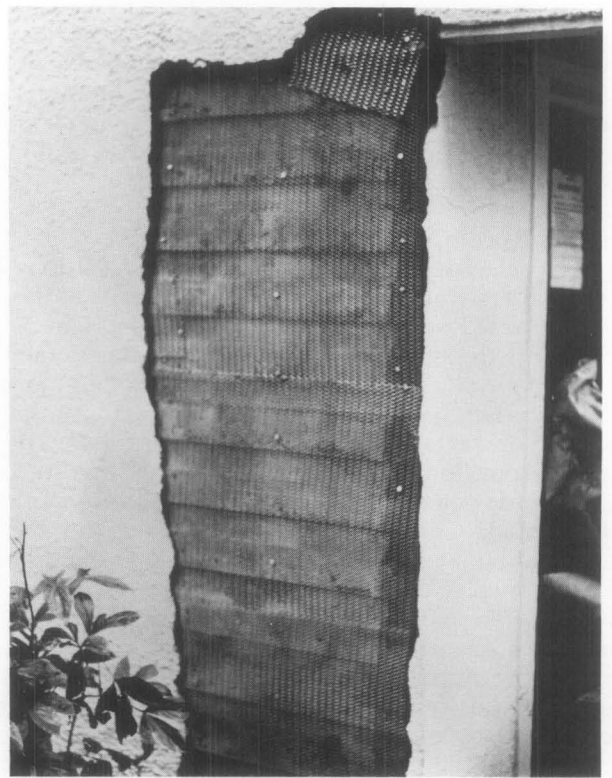


Fig. B

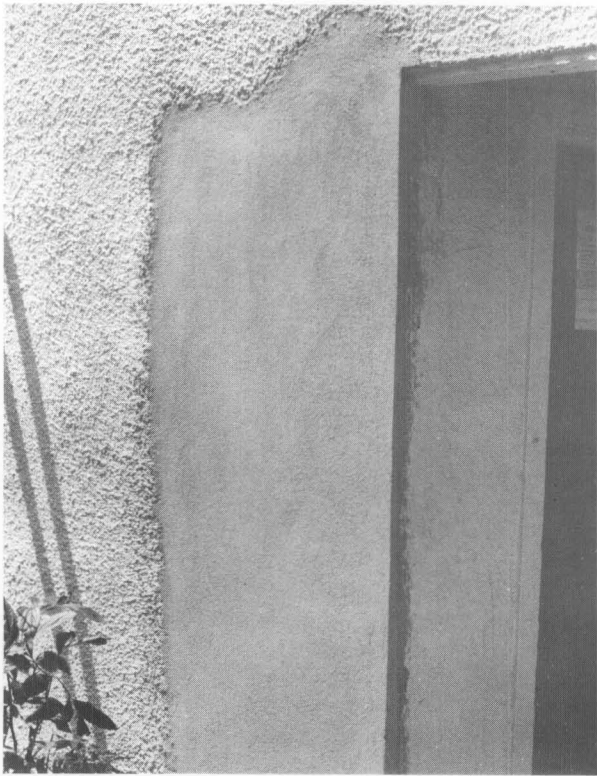


Fig. C

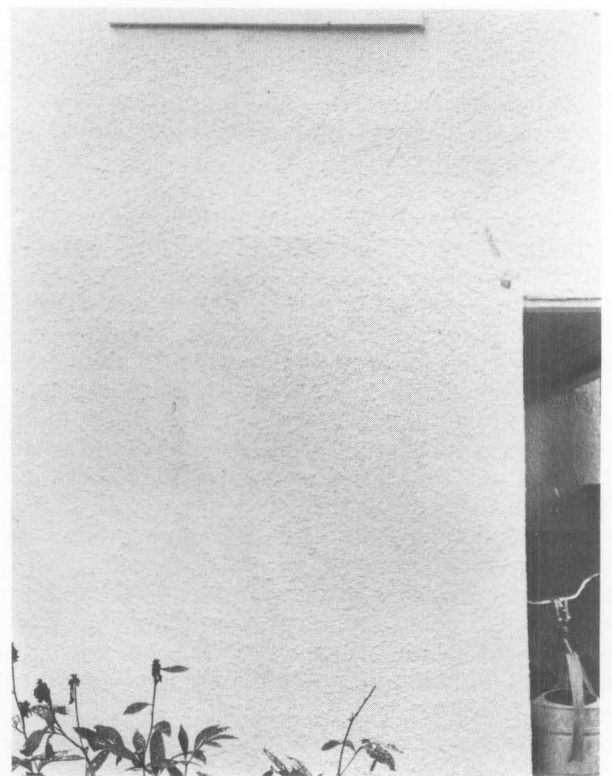


Fig. D

Fig. 16. (a) In preparation for stucco repair, this plasterer is mixing the dry materials in a mortar box with a mortar hoe (note the 2 holes in the blade), pulling it through the box using short choppy strokes. After the dry materials are thoroughly combined, water is added and mixed with them using the same choppy, but gradually lengthening strokes, making sure that the hoe cuts completely through the mix to the bottom of the box. (b) The deteriorated stucco has been cut away, and new metal lath has been nailed to the clapboarding in the area to be patched. (Although originally clapboarded when built in the 19th century, the house was stuccoed around the turn-of-the-century on metal lath nailed over the clapboard.) (c) The first, scratch coat and the second coat have been applied here, and await the spatterdash or rough-cast finish of the final coat (d) which was accomplished by the plasterer using a whisk broom to throw the stucco mortar against the wall surface. This well-executed patch is barely discernable, and lacks only a coat of paint to make it blend completely with the rest of the painted wall surface. Photos: Anne Grimmer.

If the structure must be painted for the first time to conceal repairs, almost any of these coatings may be acceptable depending on the situation. Latex paint, for example, may be applied to slightly damp walls or where there is an excess of moisture, but latex paint will not stick to chalky or powdery areas. Oil-based, or alkyd paints must be applied only to dry walls; new stucco must cure up to a year before it can be painted with oil-based paint.

### Contemporary Stucco Products

There are many contemporary stucco products on the market today. Many of them are not compatible, either physically or visually, with historic stucco buildings. Such products should be considered for use only after consulting with a historic masonry specialist. However, some of these prepackaged tinted stucco coatings may be suitable for use on stucco buildings dating from the late-nineteenth or early-twentieth century, as long as the color and texture are appropriate for the period and style of the building. While some masonry contractors may, as a matter of course, suggest that a water-repellent coating be applied after repairing old stucco, in most cases this should not be necessary, since color-washes and paints serve the same purpose, and stucco itself is a protective coating.

### Cleaning Historic Stucco Surfaces

Historic stucco buildings often exhibit multiple layers of paint or limewash. Although some stucco surfaces may be cleaned by water washing, the relative success of this procedure depends on two factors: the surface texture of the stucco, and the type of dirt to be removed. If simply removing airborne dirt, **smooth unpainted stucco**, and **heavily-textured painted stucco** may sometimes be cleaned using a low-pressure water wash, supplemented by scrubbing with soft natural bristle brushes, and possibly non-ionic detergents. Organic plant material, such as algae and mold, and metallic stains may be removed from stucco using poultices and appropriate solvents. Although these same methods may be employed to clean **unpainted rough-cast, pebble-dash, or any stucco surface featuring exposed aggregate**, due to the surface irregularities, it may be difficult to remove dirt, without also removing portions of the decorative textured surface. Difficulty in cleaning these surfaces may explain why so many of these textured surfaces have been painted.

### When Total Replacement is Necessary

Complete replacement of the historic stucco with new stucco of either a traditional or modern mix will probably be necessary only in cases of extreme deterioration—that is, a loss of bond on over 40–50 per cent of the stucco surface. Another reason for total removal might be that the physical and visual integrity of the historic stucco has been so compromised by prior incompatible and ill-conceived repairs that patching would not be successful.

When stucco no longer exists on a building there is more flexibility in choosing a suitable mix for the replacement. Since compatibility of old and new stucco will not be an issue, the most important factors to con-

sider are durability, color, texture and finish. Depending on the construction and substrate of the building, in some instances it may be acceptable to use a relatively strong cement-based stucco mortar. This is certainly true for many late-nineteenth and early-twentieth century buildings, and may even be appropriate to use on some stone substrates even if the original mortar would have been weaker, as long as the historic visual qualities noted above have been replicated. Generally, the best principle to follow for a masonry building is that the stucco mix, whether for repair or replacement of historic stucco, should be somewhat weaker than the masonry to which it is to be applied in order not to damage the substrate.

### General Guidance for Historic Stucco Repair

A skilled professional plasterer will be familiar with the properties of materials involved in stucco repair and will be able to avoid some of the pitfalls that would hinder someone less experienced. General suggestions for successful stucco repair parallel those involving restoration and repair of historic mortar or plaster. In addition, the following principles are important to remember:

- Mix only as much stucco as can be used in one and one-half to two hours. This will depend on the weather (mortar will harden faster under hot and dry, or sunny conditions); and experience is likely to be the best guidance. Any remaining mortar should be discarded; it should not be retempered.
- Stucco mortar should not be over-mixed. (Hand mix for 10–15 minutes after adding water, or machine mix for 3–4 minutes after all ingredients are in mixer.) Over-mixing can cause crazing and discoloration, especially in tinted mortars. Over-mixing will also tend to make the mortar set too fast, which will result in cracking and poor bonding or keying to the lath or masonry substrate.
- Wood lath or a masonry substrate, but not metal lath, must be thoroughly wetted before applying stucco patches so that it does not draw moisture out of the stucco too rapidly. To a certain extent, bonding agents also serve this same purpose. Wetting the substrate helps retard drying.
- To prevent cracking, it is imperative that stucco not dry too fast. Therefore, the area to be stuccoed should be shaded, or even covered if possible, particularly in hot weather. It is also a good idea in hot weather to keep the newly stuccoed area damp, at approximately 90 per cent humidity, for a period of 48 to 72 hours.
- Stucco repairs, like most other exterior masonry work, should not be undertaken in cold weather (below 40 degrees fahrenheit, and preferably warmer), or if there is danger of frost.



### Historic Stucco Textures

Most of the oldest stucco in the U.S. dating prior to the late-nineteenth century, will generally have a **smooth, troweled finish** (sometimes called a **sand** or **float finish**), possibly scored to resemble ashlar masonry units. Scoring may be incised to simulate masonry joints, the scored lines may be emphasized by black or white penciling, or the lines may simply be drawn or painted on the surface of the stucco. In some regions, at least as early as the first decades of the nineteenth century, it was not uncommon to use a **roughcast finish** on the foundation or base of an otherwise **smooth-surfaced** building (Fig. a). **Rough-cast** was also used as an overall stucco finish for some outbuildings, and other less important types of structures.

A wide variety of decorative surface textures may be found on revival style stucco buildings, particularly residential architecture. These styles evolved in the late-nineteenth century and peaked in popularity in the early decades of the twentieth century. Frank Lloyd Wright favored a **smooth finish** stucco, which was imitated on much of the Prairie style architecture inspired by his work. Some of the more picturesque surface textures include: **English Cottage** or **English Cotswold finish**; **sponge finish** (Fig. b); **fan texture**; **adobe finish** (Fig. c), and **Spanish or Italian**

**finish**. Many of these finishes and countless other regional and personalized variations on them are still in use.

The most common early-twentieth century stucco finishes are often found on bungalow-style houses, and include: **spatter** or **spatterdash** (sometimes called **roughcast**, **harling**, or **wetdash**), and **pebbledash** or **drydash**. The **spatterdash** finish is applied by throwing the stucco mortar against the wall using a whisk broom or a stiff fiber brush, and it requires considerable skill on the part of the plasterer to achieve a consistently rough wall surface. The mortar used to obtain this texture is usually composed simply of a regular sand, lime, and cement mortar, although it may sometimes contain small pebbles or crushed stone aggregate, which replaces one-half the normal sand content. The **pebbledash** or **drydash finish** is accomplished manually by the plasterer throwing or "dashing" dry pebbles (about 1/8" to 1/4" in size), onto a coat of stucco freshly applied by another plasterer. The pebbles must be thrown at the wall with a scoop with sufficient force and skill that they will stick to the stuccoed wall. A more even or uniform surface can be achieved by patting the stones down with a wooden float. This finish may also be created using a texturing machine (Figs. d-f illustrate 3 versions of this finish. Photos: National Park Service Files).

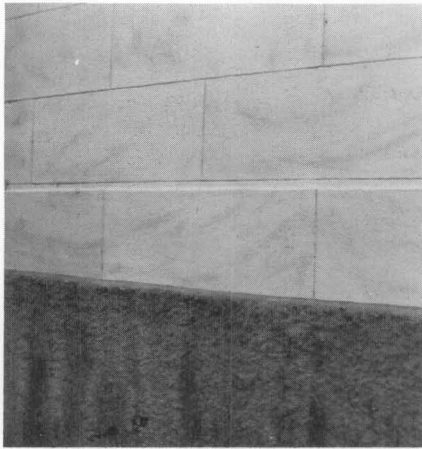


Fig. A



Fig. B

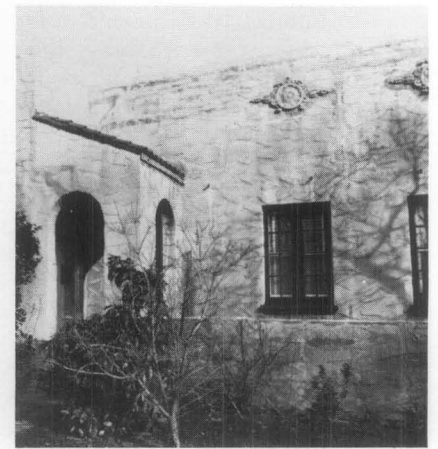


Fig. C

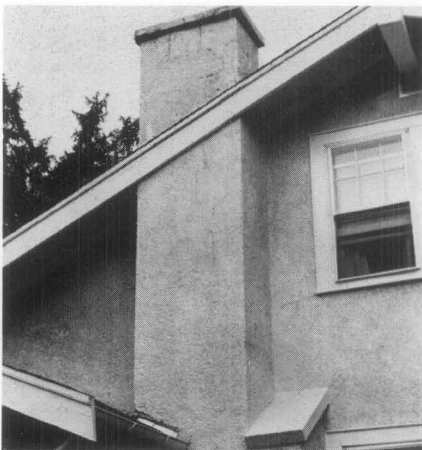


Fig. D

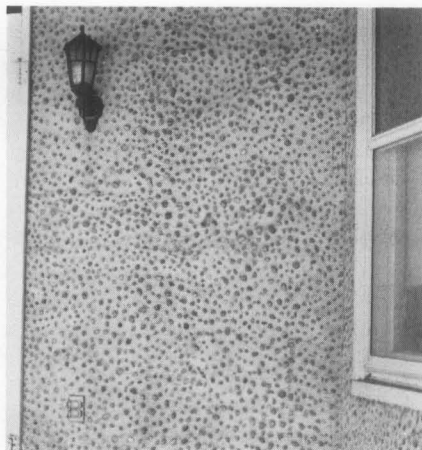


Fig. E

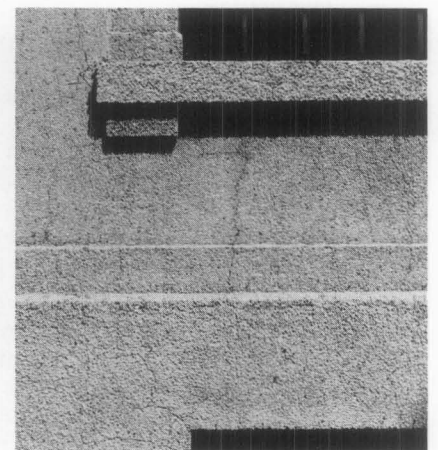


Fig. F

## Summary

Stucco on historic buildings is especially vulnerable not only to the wear of time and exposure to the elements, but also at the hands of well-intentioned “restorers,” who may want to remove stucco from eighteenth and nineteenth century structures, to expose what they believe to be the original or more “historic” brick, stone or log underneath. Historic stucco is a character-defining feature and should be considered an important historic building material, significant in its own right. While many eighteenth and nineteenth century buildings were stuccoed at the time of construction, others were stuccoed later for reasons of fashion or practicality. As such, it is likely that this stucco has acquired significance over time, as part of the history and evolution of a building. Thus, even later, non-historic stucco should be retained in most instances; and similar logic dictates that new stucco should not be applied to a historic building that was not stuccoed previously. When repairing historic stucco, the new stucco should duplicate the old as closely as possible in strength, composition, color and texture.

### Mixes for Repair of Historic Stucco

Historic stucco mixes varied a great deal regionally, depending as they did on the availability of local materials. There are probably almost as many mixes that can be used for repair of historic stucco as there are historic stucco buildings. For this reason it is recommended that at least a rudimentary analysis of the existing historic stucco be carried out in order to determine its general proportions and primary ingredients. However, if this is not possible, or if test results are inconclusive, the following mixes are provided as reference. Many of the publications listed under “Selected Reading” include a variety of stucco mixes and should also be consulted for additional guidance.

**Materials Specifications** should conform to those contained in *Preservation Briefs 2: Repointing Mortar Joints in Historic Brick Buildings*, and are as follows:

- Lime should conform to ASTM C-207, Type S, Hydrated Lime for Masonry Purposes.
- Sand should conform to ASTM C-144 to assure proper gradation and freedom from impurities. Sand, or other type of aggregate, should match the original as closely as possible.
- Cement should conform to ASTM C-150, Type II (white, non-staining), portland cement.
- Water should be fresh, clean and potable.
- If hair or fiber is used, it should be goat or cattle hair, or pure manilla fiber of good quality, 1/2" to 2" in length, clean, and free of dust, dirt, oil, grease or other impurities.
- Rules to remember: More lime will make the mixture more plastic, but stucco mortar with a very large proportion of lime to sand is more likely to crack because of greater shrinkage; it is also weaker and slower to set. More sand or aggregate, will minimize shrinkage, but make the mixture harder to trowel smooth, and will weaken the mortar.

### Soft Lime Stucco (suitable for application to buildings dating from 1700–1850)

*A.J. Downing's Recipe for Soft Lime Stucco*

- 1 part lime
- 2 parts sand

(A.J. Downing, “The Architecture of Country Houses,” 1850)

*Vieux Carre Masonry Maintenance Guidelines*

Base Coats (2):

- 1 part by volume hydrated lime
- 3 parts by volume aggregate [sand]—size to match original
- 6 pounds/cubic yards hair or fiber

Water to form a workable mix.

Finish Coat:

- 1 part by volume hydrated lime
- 3 parts aggregate [sand]—size to match original

Water to form a workable mix.

Note: No portland cement is recommended in this mix, but if it is needed to increase the workability of the mix and to decrease the setting time, the amount of portland cement added should never exceed 1 part to 12 parts lime and sand.

(“Vieux Carre Masonry Maintenance Guidelines,” June, 1980.)

*“Materials for Soft Brick Mortar and for Soft Stucco”*

- 5 gallons hydrated lime
- 10 gallons sand

- 1 quart white, non-staining portland cement (1 cup only for pointing)

Water to form a workable mix.

(Koch and Wilson, Architects, New Orleans, Louisiana, February, 1980)

*Mix for Repair of Traditional Natural Cement or Hydraulic Lime Stucco*

- 1 part by volume hydrated lime
- 2 parts by volume white portland cement
- 3 parts by volume fine mason's sand

If hydraulic lime is available, it may be used instead of lime-cement blends.

(“Conservation Techniques for the Repair of Historical Ornamental Exterior Stucco, January, 1990)



### Early-twentieth century Portland Cement Stucco

- 1 part portland cement
- 2 1/2 parts sand

Hydrated lime = to not more than 15% of the cement's volume

Water to form a workable mix.

The same basic mix was used for all coats, but the finish coat generally contained more lime than the undercoats. (“Illinois Preservation Series No. 2: Stucco,” January, 1980)

### American Portland Cement Stucco Specifications (c. 1929)

Base Coats:

- 5 pounds, dry, hydrated lime
- 1 bag portland cement (94 lbs.)

Not less than 3 cubic feet (3 bags) sand (passed through a #8 screen)

Water to make a workable mix.

Finish Coat:

Use WHITE portland cement in the mix in the same proportions as above.

To color the stucco add not more than 10 pounds pigment for each bag of cement contained in the mix.



## Selected Reading

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*Vieux Carre Masonry Maintenance Guidelines*. Revised from the initial report prepared by Mary L. Oehrlein in 1977. New Orleans, LA: Vieux Carre Commission, 1980.

*Whitewash & Coldwater Paints*. Bulletin No. 304–G. Washington, D.C.: National Lime Association, 1955.

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This publication has been prepared pursuant to the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, as amended, which directs the Secretary of the Interior to develop and make available information concerning historic properties. Comments on the usefulness of this publication may be directed to H. Ward Jandl, Chief, Technical Preservation Services Branch, Preservation Assistance Division, National Park Service, 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.

October 1990

*Cover Photograph: St. James Church, Goose Creek, Berkeley County, South Carolina (1713–1719), is constructed of brick covered with stucco. Although much restored, it is notable for its ornamental stucco detailing, including rusticated quoins, cherub head "keystones" above the windows, flaming hearts, and a pelican in piety—symbol of the sacrament, in the pediment over the front door. Photo: Gary Hume.*

# 24 PRESERVATION BRIEFS

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

Sharon C. Park, AIA



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

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.

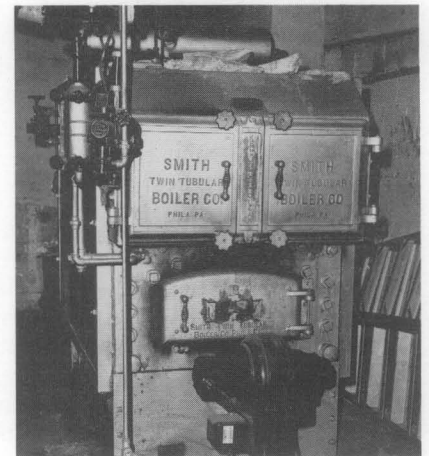
Historic buildings are not easily adapted to house modern precision mechanical systems. Careful planning must be provided early on to ensure that decisions made during the design and installation phases of a new system are appropriate. Since new mechanical and other related systems, such as electrical 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.

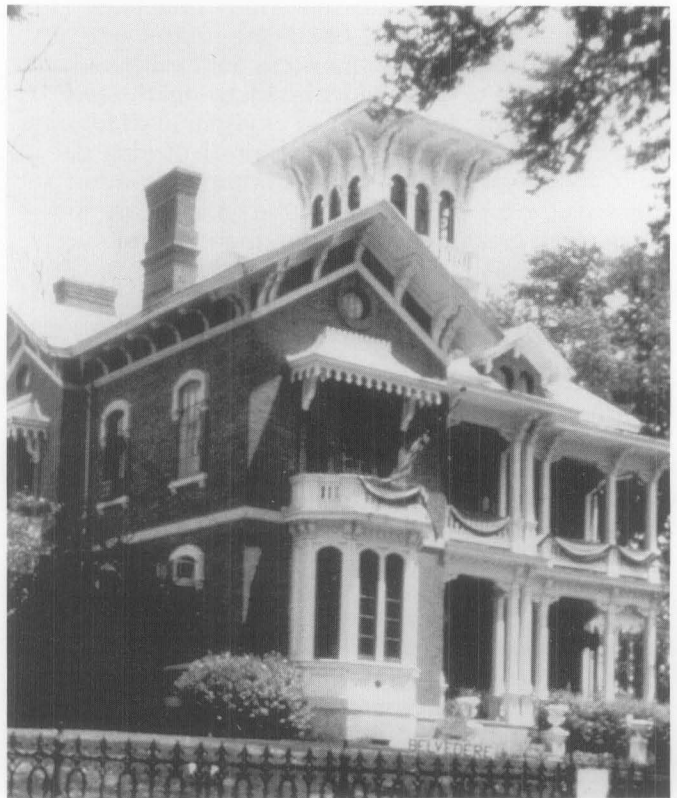
Regional styles and architectural features reflected regional climates. In warm, dry and sunny climates, thick adobe walls offered shelter from the sun and kept the inside temperatures cool. Verandas, courtyards, porches, and high ceilings also reduced the impact of the sun. Hot and humid climates called 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



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 fire-proofing. Mineral wool and cork were new sources of lightweight insulation and were forerunners of contemporary batt and blanket insulation.

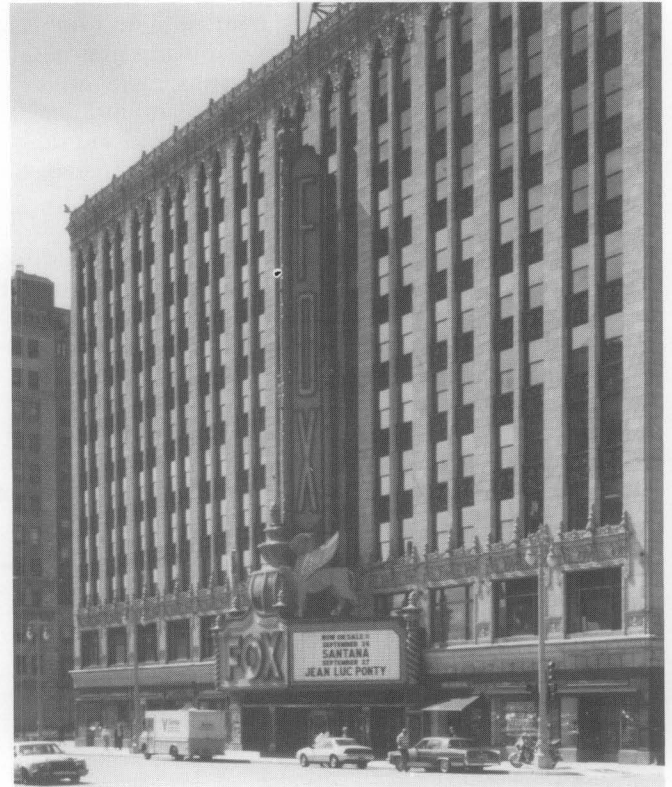
The technology of the age, however, was not sufficient to produce "tight" buildings. There was still only a moderate difference between internal and external temperatures. This was due, in part, to the limitations of early insulation, the almost exclusive use of single glazed windows, and the absence 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

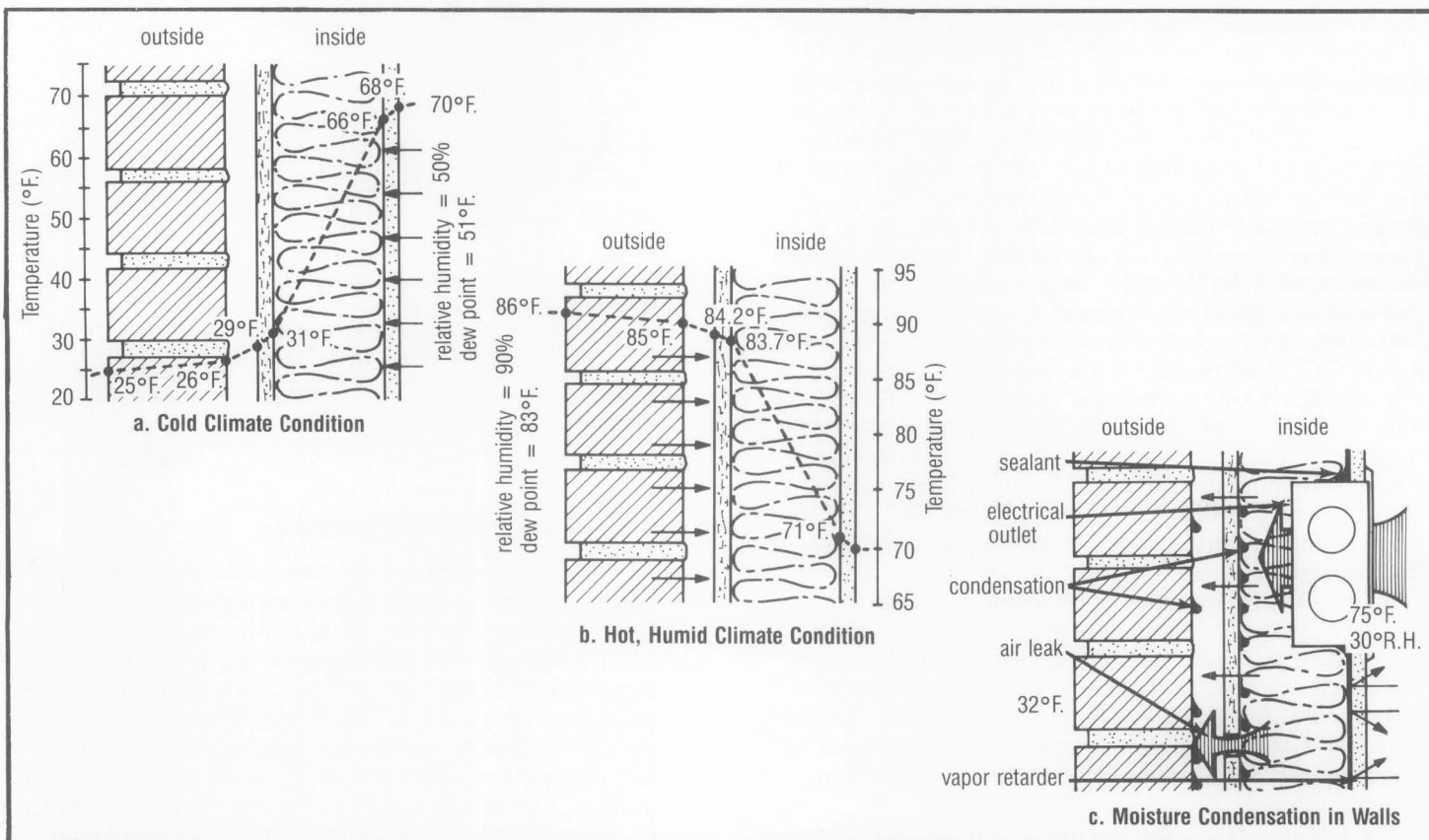
Although twentieth century mechanical systems technology has had a tremendous impact on making historic buildings comfortable, the introduction of these new systems in older buildings is not without problems. The attempt to meet and maintain modern climate control standards *may in fact be damaging to 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.

In general, the greater the differential between the interior and exterior temperature and humidity levels, the greater the potential for damage. As natural vapor pressure moves moisture from a warm area to a colder, dryer area, condensation will occur on or in building materials in the colder area (see figure 4). Too little humidity in winter, for example, can dry and crack historic wooden or painted surfaces. Too much humidity in winter causes moisture to collect on cold surfaces, such as windows, or to migrate into walls. As a result, this condensation deteriorates wooden or metal windows and causes rotting of walls and wooden structural elements, dampening insulation and holding moisture against exterior surfaces. Moisture migration through walls can cause the corrosion of metal anchors, angles, nails or wire lath, can blister and peel exterior paint, or can leave efflorescence and salt deposits on exterior masonry. In cold climates, freeze-thaw damage can result from excessive moisture in external walls.

To avoid these types of damage to a historic building, it is important to understand how building components work together as a system. Methods for controlling interior temperature and humidity and improving ventilation must be considered in any new or upgraded HVAC or climate control system. While certain energy retrofit measures will have a positive effect on the overall building, installing effective vapor barriers in historic walls is difficult and often results in destruction of significant historic materials (see figure 5).



5. The installation of vapor retarders in walls of historic buildings in an effort to contain interior moisture can cause serious damage to historic finishes as shown here. In this example, all the wall plaster and lath have been stripped in preparation for a vapor barrier prior to replastering. Controlling interior temperature and relative humidity can be more effective than adding insulation and vapor barriers to historic perimeter walls. Photo: Ernest A. Conrad, P.E.



4. Mechanical heating and cooling systems change the interior climate of a building. Moisture in the air will dissipate from the warmer area of a building to the colder area and can cause serious deterioration of historic materials. Condensation can form if the dew point occurs within the building wall, particularly one that has been insulated (see a and b). Even when vapor retarders are installed (c), any non-continuous areas will provide spaces for moisture to pass. Wall Section Drawings: NPS files



### Planning the New System

Climate control systems are generally classified according to the medium used to condition the temperature: air, water, or a combination of both (see overview on page 6). The complexity of choices facing a building owner or manager means that a *systematic approach* is critical in determining the most suitable system for a building, its contents, and its occupants. No matter which system is installed, a change in the interior climate will result. This physical change will in turn affect how the building materials perform. New registers, grilles, cabinets, or other accessories associated with the new mechanical system will also visually change the interior (and sometimes the exterior) appearance of the building. Regardless of the type or extent of a mechanical system, the owner of a historic building should know *before* a system is installed what it will look like and what problems can be anticipated during the life of that system. The potential harm to a building and costs to an owner of selecting the wrong mechanical system are very great.

The use of a building and its contents will largely determine the best type of mechanical system. The historic building materials and construction technology as well as the size and availability of secondary spaces within the historic structure will affect the choice of a system. It may be necessary to investigate a combination of systems. In each case, the needs of the user, the needs of the building, and the needs of a collection or equipment must be considered. It may not be necessary to have a comprehensive climate control system if climate-sensitive objects can be accommodated in special areas or climate-controlled display cases. It may not be necessary to have central air conditioning in a mild climate if natural ventilation systems can be improved through the use of operable windows, awnings, exhaust fans, and other "low-tech" means. Modern standards for climate control developed for new construction may not be achievable or desirable for historic buildings. *In each case, the lowest level of intervention needed to successfully accomplish the job should be selected.*

Before a system is chosen, the following planning steps are recommended:

1. **Determine the use of the building.** The proposed use of the building (museum, commercial, residential, retail) will influence the type of system that should be installed. The number of people and functions to be housed in a building will establish the level of comfort and service that must be provided. Avoid uses that require major modifications to significant architectural spaces. What is the intensity of use of the building: intermittent or constant use, special events or seasonal events? Will the use of the building require major new services such as restaurants, laundries, kitchens, locker rooms, or other areas that generate moisture that may exacerbate climate control within the historic space? In the context of historic preservation, uses that require radical reconfigurations of historic spaces are inappropriate for the building.

2. **Assemble a qualified team.** This team ideally should consist of a preservation architect, mechanical engineer, electrical engineer, structural engineer, and preservation consultants, each knowledgeable in codes and local requirements. If a special use (church, mu-

seum, art studio) or a collection is involved, a specialist familiar with the mechanical requirements of that building type or collection should also be hired.

Team members should be familiar with the needs of historic buildings and be able to balance complex factors: the preservation of the historic architecture (aesthetics and conservation), requirements imposed by mechanical systems (quantified heating and cooling loads), building codes (health and safety), tenant requirements (quality of comfort, ease of operation), access (maintenance and future replacement), and the overall cost to the owner.

3. **Undertake a condition assessment of the existing building and its systems.** What are the existing construction materials and mechanical systems? What condition are they in and are they reusable (see figure 6)? Where are existing chillers, boilers, air handlers, or cooling towers located? Look at the condition of all other services that may benefit from being integrated into a new system, such as electrical and fire suppression systems. Where can energy efficiency be improved to help downsize any new equipment added, and which of the historic features, e.g. shutters, awnings, skylights, can be reused (see figure 7)? Evaluate air infiltration through the exterior envelope; monitor the interior for temperature and humidity levels with hygrothermographs for at least a year. Identify building, site, or equipment deficiencies or the presence of asbestos that must be corrected prior to the installation or upgrading of mechanical systems.



6. A condition assessment during the planning stage would identify this round radiator in a small oval-shaped vestibule as a significant element of the historic heating system. In upgrading the mechanical system, the radiator should be retained. Photo: Michael C. Henry, P.E., AIA.



## Overview of HVAC Systems

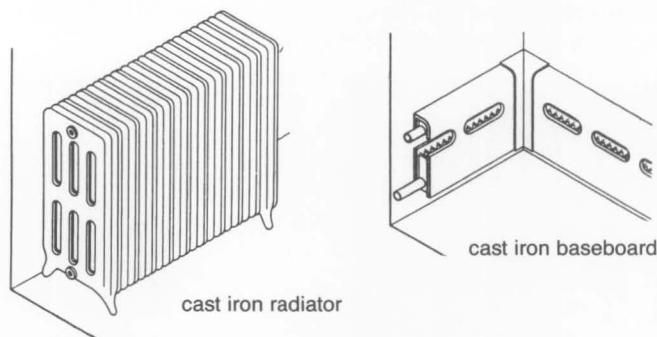
### WATER SYSTEMS: Hydronic radiators, Fan coil, or radiant pipes

Water systems are generally called *hydronic* and use a network of pipes to deliver water to hot water radiators, radiant pipes set in floors or fan coil cabinets which can give both heating and cooling. Boilers produce hot water or steam; chillers produce chilled water for use with fan coil units. Thermostats control the temperature by zone for radiators and radiant floors. Fan coil units have individual controls. Radiant floors provide quiet, even heat, but are not common.

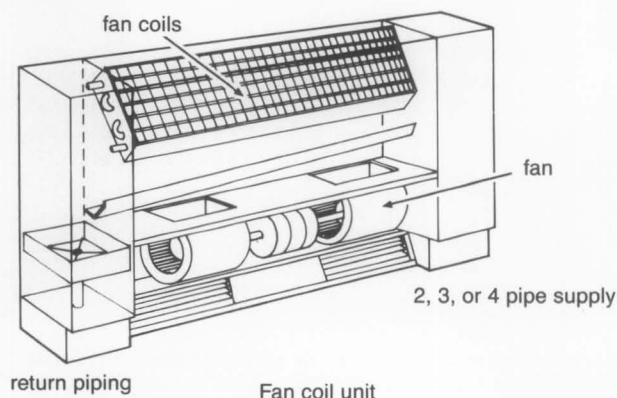
**Advantages:** Piped systems are generally easier to install in historic buildings because the pipes are smaller than ductwork.

**Disadvantages:** There is the risk, however, of hidden leaks in the wall or burst pipes in winter if boilers fail. Fan coil condensate pans can overflow if not properly maintained. Fan coils may be noisy.

**Hydronic Radiators:** Radiators or baseboard radiators are looped together and are usually set under windows or along perimeter walls. New boilers and circulating pumps can upgrade older systems. Most piping was cast iron although copper systems can be used if separately zoned. Modern cast iron baseboards and copper fin-tubes are available. Historic radiators can be reconditioned.



**Fan Coil Units:** Fan coil systems use terminal cabinets in each room serviced by 2, 3, or 4 pipes approximately 1-1/2" each in diameter. A fan blows air over the coils which are serviced by hot or chilled water. Each fan coil cabinet can be individually controlled. Four-pipe fan coils can provide both heating and cooling all year long. Most piping is steel. Non-cabinet units may be concealed in closets or custom cabinetry, such as benches, can be built.



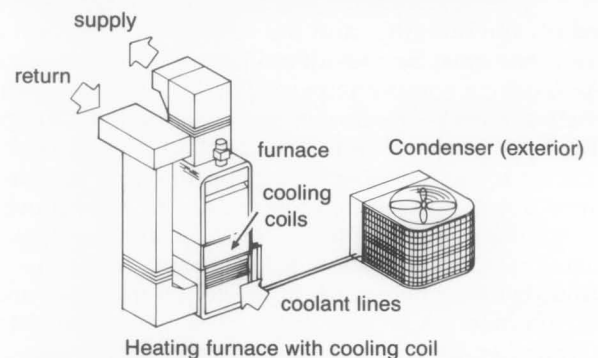
### CENTRAL AIR SYSTEMS

The basic heating, ventilation and air conditioning (HVAC) system is all-air, single zone fan driven designed for low, medium or high pressure distribution. The system is composed of compressor drives, chillers, condensers, and furnace depending on whether the air is heated, chilled or both. Condensers, generally air cooled, are located outside. The ducts are sheet metal or flexible plastic and can be insulated. Fresh air can be circulated. Registers can be designed for ceilings, floors and walls. The system is controlled by thermostats; one per zone.

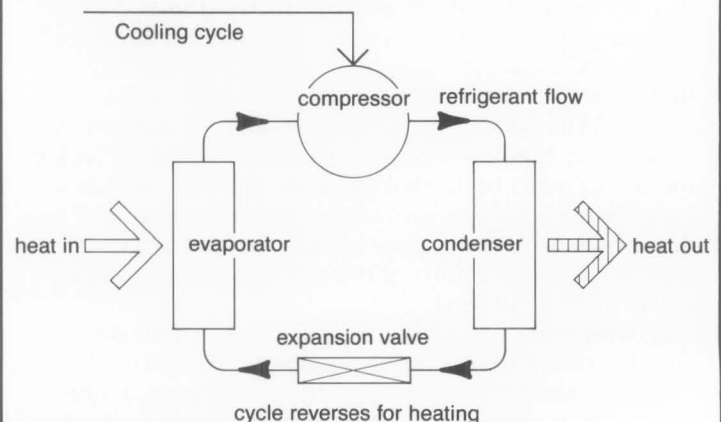
**Advantages:** Ducted systems offer a high level of control of interior temperature, humidity, and filtration. Zoned units can be relatively small and well concealed.

**Disadvantages:** The damage from installing a ducted system without adequate space can be serious for a historic building. Systems need constant balancing and can be noisy.

**Basic HVAC:** Most residential or small commercial systems will consist of a basic furnace with a cooling coil set in the unit and a refrigerant compressor or condenser located outside the building. Heating and cooling ductwork is usually shared. If sophisticated humidification and dehumidification is added to the basic HVAC system, a full climate control system results. This can often double the size of the equipment.



**Basic Heat Pump/Air System:** The heat pump is a basic HVAC system as described above except for the method of generating hot and cold air. The system operates on the basic refrigeration cycle where latent heat is extracted from the ambient air and is used to evaporate refrigerant vapor under pressure. Functions of the condenser and evaporator switch when heating is needed. Heat pumps, somewhat less efficient in cold climates, can be fitted with electric resistance coil.



## COMBINED AIR AND WATER SYSTEMS

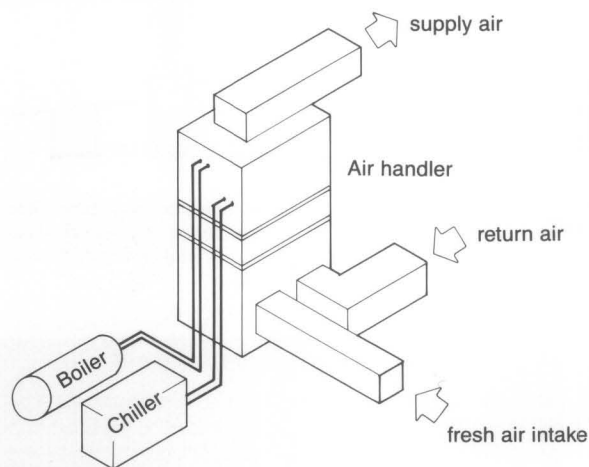
These systems are popular for restoration work because they combine the ease of installation for the piped system with the performance and control of the ducted system. Smaller air handling units, not unlike fan coils, may be located throughout a building with service from a central boiler and chiller. In many cases the water is delivered from a central plant which services a complex of buildings.

This system overcomes the disadvantages of a central ducted system where there is not adequate horizontal or vertical runs for the ductwork. The equipment, being smaller, may also be quieter and cause less vibration. If only one air handler is being utilized for the building, it is possible to house all the equipment in a vault outside the building and send only conditioned air into the structure.

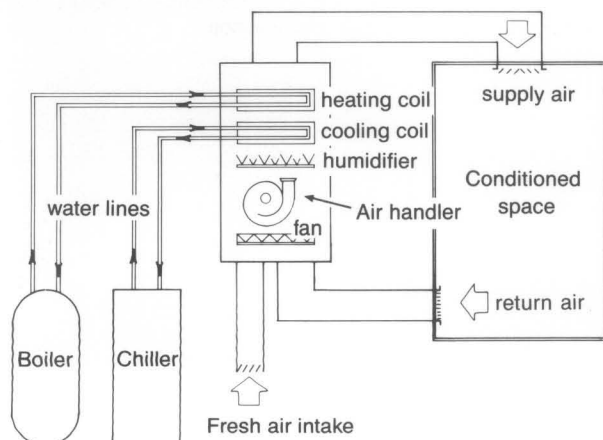
**Advantages:** flexibility for installation using greater piping runs with shorter ducted runs; Air handlers can fit into small spaces.

**Disadvantages:** piping areas may have undetected leaks; air handlers may be noisy.

### Water-serviced Air Handlers:



### Typical Systems Layout:



## OTHER SYSTEM COMPONENTS

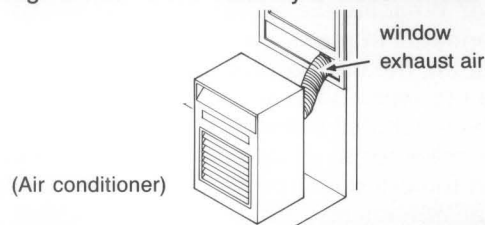
Non-systems components should not be overlooked if they can make a building more comfortable without causing damage to the historic resource or its collection.

**Advantages:** components may provide acceptable levels of comfort without the need for an entire system.

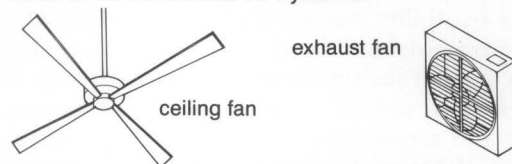
**Disadvantages:** Spot heating, cooling and fluctuations in humidity may harm sensitive collections or furnishings. If an integrated system is desirable, components may provide only a temporary solution.

### Portable Air Conditioning:

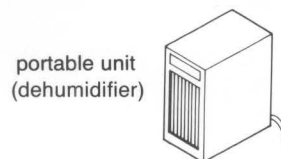
Most individual air conditioners are set in windows or through exterior walls which can be visually as well as physically damaging to historic buildings. Newer portable air conditioners are available which sit in a room and exhaust directly to the exterior through a small slot created by a raised window sash.



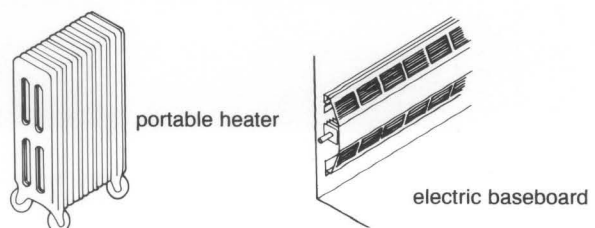
**Fans:** Fans should be considered in most properties to improve ventilation. Fans can be located in attics, at the top of stairs, or in individual rooms. In moderate climates, fans may eliminate the need to install central air systems.



**Dehumidifiers:** For houses without central air handling systems, a dehumidifier can resolve problems in humid climates. Seasonal use of dehumidifiers can remove moisture from damp basements and reduce fungal growth.



**Heaters:** Portable radiant heaters, such as those with water and glycol, may provide temporary heat in buildings used infrequently or during systems breakdowns. Care should be taken not to create a fire hazard with improperly wired units.



4. **Prioritize architecturally significant spaces, finishes, and features to be preserved.** Significant architectural spaces, finishes and features should be identified and evaluated at the outset to ensure their preservation. This includes significant existing mechanical systems or elements such as hot water radiators, decorative grilles, elaborate switchplates, and non-mechanical architectural features such as cupolas, transoms, or porches. Identify non-significant spaces where mechanical equipment can be placed and secondary spaces where equipment and distribution runs on both a horizontal and vertical basis can be located. Appropriate secondary spaces for housing equipment might include attics, basements, penthouses, mezzanines, false ceiling or floor cavities, vertical chases, stair towers, closets, or exterior below-grade vaults (see figure 8).

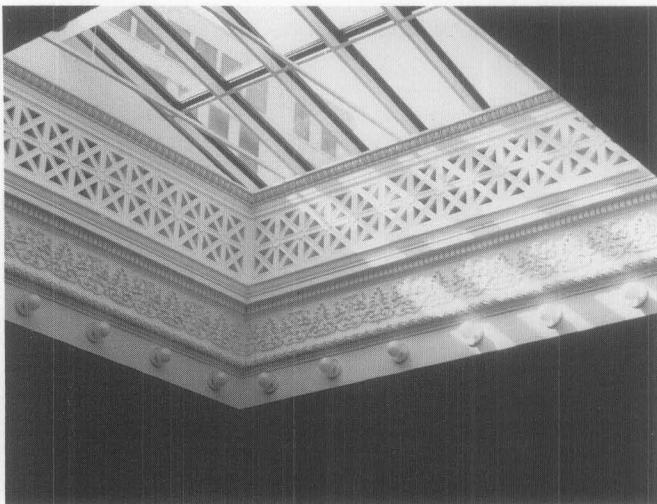
5. **Become familiar with local building and fire codes.** Owners or their representatives should meet early and often with local officials. Legal requirements should be checked; for example, can existing ductwork be reused or modified with dampers? Is asbestos abatement required? What are the energy, fire, and safety codes and standards in place, and how can they be met while maintaining the historic character of the building? How are fire separation walls and rated mechanical systems to be handled between multiple tenants? Is there a requirement for fresh air intake for stair towers that will affect the exterior appearance of the building? Many of the health, energy, and safety code requirements will influence decisions made for mechanical equipment for climate control. It is important to know what they are before the design phase begins.

6. **Evaluate options for the type and size of systems.** A matrix or feasibility studies should be developed to balance the benefits and drawbacks of various systems. Factors to consider include heating and/or cooling, fuel type, distribution system, control devices, generating equipment and accessories such as filtration, and humidification. What are the initial installation costs, projected fuel costs, long-term maintenance, and life-cycle

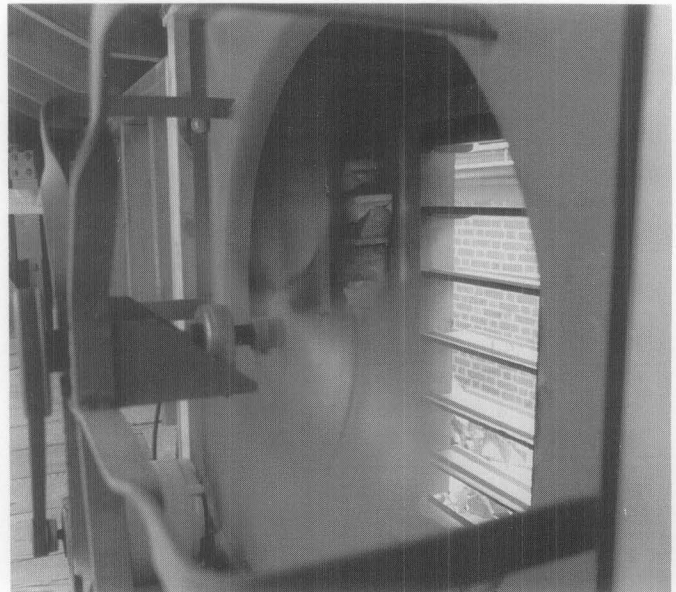
costs of these components and systems? Are parts of an existing system being reused and upgraded? The benefits of added ventilation should not be overlooked (see figure 9). What are the trade-offs between one large central system and multiple smaller systems? Should there be a forced air ducted system, a 2-pipe fan coil system, or a combined water and air system? What space is available for the equipment and distribution system? Assess the fire-risk levels of various fuels. Understand the advantages and disadvantages of the various types of mechanical systems available. *Then evaluate each of these systems in light of the preservation objectives established during the design phase of planning.*



8. In considering options for new systems, existing spaces should be evaluated for their ability to house new equipment. This sketch shows several areas where new mechanical equipment could be located to avoid damaging significant spaces. Sketch: NPS files



7. Operable skylights and grilles that can be adapted for return air should be identified as part of the planning phase for new or upgraded mechanical systems. Photo: Dianne Pierce, NPS files.



9. Improving ventilation through traditional means should not be overlooked in planning new or upgraded HVAC systems. In mild climates, good exhaust fans can often eliminate the need for air conditioning or can reduce equipment size by reducing cooling loads. Photo: Ernest A. Conrad, P.E.



### *Designing the new system*

In designing a system, it is important to anticipate how it will be installed, how damage to historic materials can be minimized, and how visible the new mechanical system will be within the restored or rehabilitated spaces (see figure 10 a-f). Mechanical equipment space needs are often overwhelming; in some cases, it may be advantageous to look for locations outside of the building, including ground vaults, to house some of the equipment but only if there is no adverse impact to the historic landscape or adjacent archeological resources. Various means for reducing the heating and cooling loads (and thereby the size of the equipment) should be investigated. This might mean reducing slightly the comfort levels of the interior, increasing the number of climate control zones, or improving the energy efficiency of the building.

The following activities are suggested during the design phase of the new system:

**1. Establish specific criteria for the new or upgraded mechanical system.** New systems should be *installed with a minimum of damage to the resource and should be visually compatible with the architecture of the building.* They should be installed in a way that is *easy to service, maintain, and upgrade in the future.* There should be *safety and back-up monitors in place* if buildings have collections, computer rooms, storage vaults or special conditions that need monitoring. The new systems should work within the structural limits of the historic building. They should produce *no undue vibration, no undue noise, no dust or mold, and no excess moisture* that could damage the historic building materials. If any equipment is to be located outside of the building, there should be *no impact to the historic appearance of building or site, and there should be no impact on archeological resources.*

**2. Prioritize the requirements for the new climate control system.** The use of the building will determine the level of interior comfort and climate control. Sometimes, various temperature zones may safely be created within a historic building. This zoned approach may be appropriate for buildings with specialized collections storage, for buildings with mixed uses, or for large buildings with different external exposures, occupancy patterns, and delivery schedules for controlled air. Special archives, storage vaults or computer rooms may need a completely different climate control from the rest of the building. Determine temperature and humidity levels for occupants and collections and ventilation requirements between differing zones. Establish if the system is to run 24 hours a day or only during operating or business hours. Determine what controls are optimum (manual, computer, preset automatic, or other). The size and location of the equipment to handle these different situations will ultimately affect the design of the overall system as well.

**3. Minimize the impact of the new HVAC on the existing architecture.** Design criteria for the new system should be based on the type of architecture of the historic resource. Consideration should be given as to whether or not the delivery system is visible or hidden. Utilitarian and industrial spaces may be capable of

accepting a more visible and functional system. More formal, ornate spaces which may be part of an interpretive program may require a less visible or disguised system. A ducted system should be installed without ripping into or boxing out large sections of floors, walls, or ceilings. A wet pipe system should be installed so that hidden leaks will not damage important decorative finishes. In each case, not only the type of system (air, water, combination), but its distribution (duct, pipe) and delivery appearance (grilles, cabinets, or registers) must be evaluated. It may be necessary to use a combination of different systems in order to preserve the historic building. Existing chases should be reused whenever possible.

**4. Balance quantitative requirements and preservation objectives.** The ideal system may not be achievable for each historic resource due to cost, space limitations, code requirements, or other factors beyond the owner's control. However, significant historic spaces, finishes, and features can be preserved in almost every case, even given these limitations. For example, if some ceiling areas must be slightly lowered to accommodate ductwork or piping, these should be in secondary areas away from decorative ceilings or tall windows. If modern fan coil terminal units are to be visible in historic spaces, consideration should be given to custom designing the cabinets or to using smaller units in more locations to diminish their impact. If grilles and registers are to be located in significant spaces, they should be designed to work within the geometry or placement of decorative elements. All new elements, such as ducts, registers, pipe-runs, and mechanical equipment should be installed in a reversible manner to be removed in the future without further damage to the building (see fig 11).

### *Systems Performance and Maintenance*

Once the system is installed, it will require routine maintenance and balancing to ensure that the proper performance levels are achieved. In some cases, extremely sophisticated, computerized systems have been developed to control interior climates, but these still need monitoring by trained staff. If collection exhibits and archival storage are important to the resource, the climate control system will require constant monitoring and tuning. Back-up systems are also needed to prevent damage when the main system is not working. The owner, manager, or chief of maintenance should be aware of all aspects of the new climate control system and have a plan of action before it is installed.

Regular training sessions on operating, monitoring, and maintaining the new system should be held for both curatorial and building maintenance staff. If there are curatorial reasons to maintain constant temperature or humidity levels, only individuals thoroughly trained in how the HVAC systems operates should be able to adjust thermostats. Ill-informed and haphazard attempts to adjust comfort levels, or to save energy over weekends and holidays, can cause great damage.

10. The following photographs illustrate recent preservation projects where careful planning and design retained the historic character of the resources.

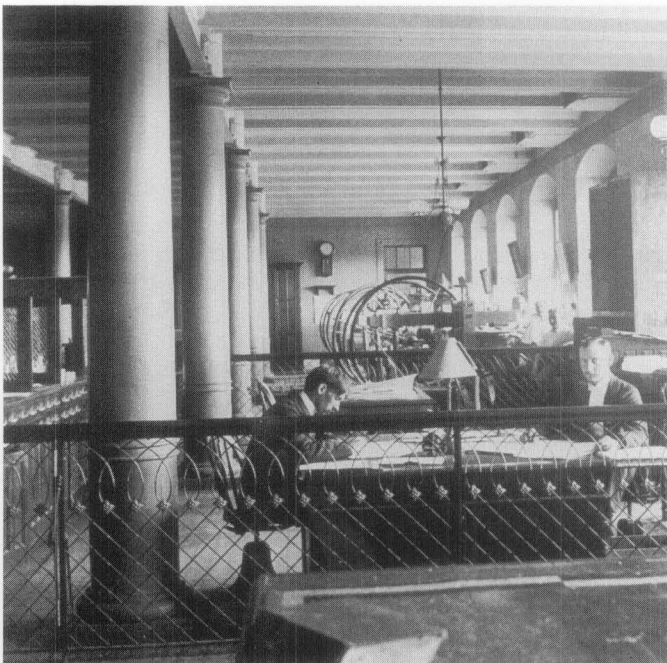


before



after

a. Before and after of a circa 1900 school entrance. The radiators have been replaced with a two-pipe fan coil system built into bench seats. The ceiling was preserved and no exposed elements were required to add air conditioning. Piping runs are under the benches and there was no damage to the masonry walls. Photos: Notter Finegold + Alexander Inc. and Lautman Photography, Washington.



historic



after

d. Auditors Buildings, Washington, D.C. This upper floor workspace had been modified over the years with dropped ceilings and partitions. In the recent restoration, the open plan workspace was restored, the false ceiling was removed, and the fireproof construction was exposed. A variable air volume (VAV) system using round double shell exposed ductwork is in keeping with the industrial character of the architectural space. Photo: Kenneth Wyner Photography, courtesy of Notter Finegold + Alexander Inc. Before view provided by Notter Finegold + Alexander/Mariani.





b. Central air conditioning was installed in the corridors of this circa 1900 school building by adding an air handler over the entrance from a vestibule. The custom-designed slot registers provide linear diffusers without detracting from the architecture of the space. Photo: Lautman Photography courtesy of Notter Finegold + Alexander Inc.



e. Town Hall, Andover, MA. The upstairs auditorium was restored and new mechanical systems were installed. Perimeter baseboard radiation provides heat and air handlers, located in the attic space provide air conditioning. The cast iron ceiling grille was adapted for return air and the supply registers were installed in a symmetrical and regular manner to minimize impact on the historic ceiling. Photo: David Hewitt/Anne Garrison for Ann Beha Associates.



c. Conference room, Auditors Building, Washington, D.C. The historic steam radiators were retained for heating. The cast iron ceiling register was retained as a decorative element, but made inoperable to meet fire codes. Photo: Kenneth Wyner Photography courtesy of Notter Finegold + Alexander Inc.



f. Homewood, Baltimore, MD. This elegant circa 1806 residence is now a house museum. The registers for the forced air ducted system seen behind the table legs, are grained to blend with the historic baseboards. The HVAC system uses a water/air system where chilled water and steam heat are converted to conditioned air. Photo: Courtesy Homewood Museum, Johns Hopkins University.



## *HVAC Do's and Don'ts*

### DO's:

- Use shutters, operable windows, porches, curtains, awnings, shade trees and other historically appropriate non-mechanical features of historic buildings to reduce the heating and cooling loads. Consider adding sensitively designed storm windows to existing historic windows.
- Retain or upgrade existing mechanical systems whenever possible: for example, reuse radiator systems with new boilers, upgrade ventilation within the building, install proper thermostats or humidistats.
- Improve energy efficiency of existing buildings by installing insulation in attics and basements. Add insulation and vapor barriers to exterior walls *only* when it can be done without further damage to the resource.
- In major spaces, retain decorative elements of the historic system whenever possible. This includes switchplates, grilles and radiators. Be creative in adapting these features to work within the new or upgraded system.
- Use space in existing chases, closets or shafts for new distribution systems.
- Design climate control systems that are compatible with the architecture of the building: hidden system for formal spaces, more exposed systems possible in industrial or secondary spaces. In formal areas, avoid standard commercial registers and use custom slot registers or other less intrusive grilles.
- Size the system to work within the physical constraints of the building. Use multi-zoned smaller units in conjunction with existing vertical shafts, such as stacked closets, or consider locating equipment in vaults underground, if possible.
- Provide adequate ventilation to the mechanical rooms as well as to the entire building. Selectively install air intake grilles in less visible basement, attic, or rear areas.
- Maintain appropriate temperature and humidity levels to meet requirements without accelerating the deterioration of the historic building materials. Set up regular monitoring schedules.
- Design the system for maintenance access and for future systems replacement.
- For highly significant buildings, install safety monitors and backup features, such as double pans, moisture detectors, lined chases, and battery packs to avoid or detect leaks and other damage from system failures.

- Have a regular maintenance program to extend equipment life and to ensure proper performance.
- Train staff to monitor the operation of equipment and to act knowledgeably in emergencies or breakdowns.
- Have an emergency plan for both the building and any curatorial collections in case of serious malfunctions or breakdowns.

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### DON'TS:

- Don't install a new system if you don't need it.
- Don't switch to a new type of system (e.g. forced air) unless there is sufficient space for the new system or an appropriate place to put it.
- Don't over-design a new system. Don't add air conditioning or climate control if they are not absolutely necessary.
- Don't cut exterior historic building walls to add through-wall heating and air conditioning units. These are visually disfiguring, they destroy historic fabric, and condensation runoff from such units can further damage historic materials.
- Don't damage historic finishes, mask historic features, or alter historic spaces when installing new systems.
- Don't drop ceilings or bulkheads across window openings.
- Don't remove repairable historic windows or replace them with inappropriately designed thermal windows.
- Don't seal operable windows, unless part of a museum where air pollutants and dust are being controlled.
- Don't place condensers, solar panels, chimney stacks, vents or other equipment on visible portions of roofs or at significant locations on the site.
- Don't overload the building structure with the weight of new equipment, particularly in the attic.
- Don't place stress on historic building materials through the vibrations of the new equipment.
- Don't allow condensation on windows or within walls to rot or spall adjacent historic building materials.

Maintenance staff should learn how to operate, monitor, and maintain the mechanical equipment. They must know where the maintenance manuals are kept. Routine maintenance schedules must be developed for changing and cleaning filters, vents, and condensate pans to control fungus, mold, and other organisms that are dangerous to health. Such growths can harm both inhabitants and equipment. (In piped systems, for example, molds in condensate pans can block drainage lines and cause an overflow to leak onto finished surfaces). Maintenance staff should also be able to monitor the appropriate gauges, dials, and thermographs. Staff must be trained to intervene in emergencies, to know where the master controls are, and whom to call in an emergency. As new personnel are hired, they will also require maintenance training.

In addition to regular cyclical maintenance, thorough inspections should be undertaken from time to time to evaluate the continued performance of the climate control system. As the system ages, parts are likely to fail, and signs of trouble may appear. Inadequately ventilated areas may smell musty. Wall surfaces may show staining, wet patches, bubbling or other signs of moisture damage. Routine tests for air quality, humidity, and temperature should indicate if the system is performing properly. If there is damage as a result of the new system, it should be repaired immediately and then closely monitored to ensure complete repair.

Equipment must be accessible for maintenance and should be visible for easy inspection. Moreover, since mechanical systems last only 15–30 years, the system itself must be “reversible.” That is, the system must be installed in such a way that later removal will not damage the building. In addition to servicing, the back-up monitors that signal malfunctioning equipment must be routinely checked, adjusted, and maintained. Checklists should be developed to ensure that all aspects of routine maintenance are completed and that data is reported to the building manager.



a

## Conclusion

The successful integration of new systems in historic buildings can be challenging. Meeting modern HVAC requirements for human comfort or installing controlled climates for museum collections or for the operation of complex computer equipment can result in both visual and physical damage to historic resources. Owners of historic buildings must be aware that the final result will involve balancing multiple needs; no perfect heating, ventilating, and air conditioning system exists. In undertaking changes to historic buildings, it is best to have the advice and input of trained professionals who can:

- assess the condition of the historic building,
- evaluate the significant elements that should be preserved or reused,
- prioritize the preservation objectives,
- understand the impact of new interior climate conditions on historic materials,
- integrate preservation with mechanical and code requirements,
- maximize the advantages of various new or upgraded mechanical systems,
- understand the visual and physical impact of various installations,
- identify maintenance and monitoring requirements for new or upgraded systems, and
- plan for the future removal or replacement of the system.

Too often the presumed climate needs of the occupants or collections can be detrimental to the long-term preservation of the building. With a careful balance between the preservation needs of the building and the interior temperature and humidity needs of the occupants, a successful project can result.



b

11. During the restoration of this 1806 National Historic Landmark (photo a), a new climate control system was installed. The architects removed all the earlier mechanical equipment from the house and installed new equipment in a 30' × 40' concrete vault located underground 150 feet from the house itself (photo b). Only conditioned air is blown into the house reusing much of the circa 1930s ductwork. Photos: Thomas C. Jester.

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cover photo: This historic coal boiler continues in use after its conversion to an oil-fired boiler. Photo: NPS files

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