

STRENGTH AND RELATED PROPERTIES OF WOODS GROWN IN THE UNITED STATES

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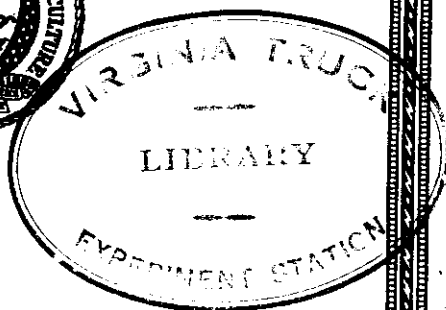
L. J. MARKWARDT

AND

T. R. G. WILSON

Senior Engineers

Forest Products Laboratory, Division of Research
Forest Service



UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE, WASHINGTON, D. C.



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By L. J. MARKWARDT¹ and T. R. C. WILSON, *senior engineers, Forest Products Laboratory,² Division of Research, Forest Service*

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PURPOSE AND RELATION TO OTHER PUBLICATIONS

A knowledge of the properties of any material is essential to its proper use. In recognition of this fact the Forest Products Laboratory in 1910 began a comprehensive series of tests to determine the mechanical, and some of the related physical properties of native woods. Several hundred thousand tests have been made yielding data in varying quantity on 164 species. This bulletin presents data from this study, together with related information on factors that affect strength properties.

The tests reported here were made on clear wood, free from defects that affect the strength. Inasmuch as the strength of wooden members in structural and industrial use is affected by numerous variables, such as species of wood, variation in quality of the clear wood and in defects among pieces of the same species, character and distribution of load and duration of stress, temperature and moisture conditions, and size and shape of the piece, it may be asked, "why make tests on clear wood?"

Information for application to such uses may obviously be obtained by testing actual structural members or finished manufactured articles under such conditions as obtain in service and with defects as found in such pieces. Some earlier investigations by the Forest Service included tests of this character. However, the results of such tests accurately represent only the combination of variables existing in each instance, are difficult to interpret with respect to the separate effects of each variable, and cannot be applied to instances in which a different combination exists. Furthermore, the combinations are so numerous that it is impossible to evaluate them all by such tests, consequently, the limited usefulness of the data was soon evident. The plan that has been largely followed by the Forest Service has been to obtain data that are more generally applicable by testing small clear specimens taken from a specific part of the tree and of a standard size and form according to standardized methods and supplementing the resulting basic data on each species by investigations in which the effects of the more important variables are as far as possible separately studied and evaluated. The supplementary investigations have related to the effects on strength induced by such variables as locality of growth, position in tree, rate of growth, knots, cross grain, pitch pockets, moisture content, size and shape of piece, duration of stress, preservative treatment, and kiln drying. These and other supplementary investigations are the basis for the discussion of factors affecting the strength of wood as presented in pages 31 to 74.

Some of the results of the tests on small clear specimens were combined into simplified comparative figures and published in 1930 in United States Department of Agriculture Technical Bulletin 158 (28).³ Because of their popularized form, data in Technical Bulletin 158 are not suitable for such engineering uses as calculating the strength or size of members, but are usable mainly for comparing species.

The information given here, on the other hand, is more technical, and may be used not only (1) for comparing species but also (2) for calculating the strength of wood members, (3) for establishing safe working stresses when used in conjunction with other information including results of tests of structural timbers, and (4) for grouping

³ Italic numbers in parentheses refer to Literature Cited, p. 74.

species into classes of approximately like properties for various purposes. The present bulletin is based on the same series of tests, but supersedes United States Department of Agriculture Bulletin 556 (37), because it covers additional species and additional tests on species previously reported. Another important difference is that the values for air-dry wood as given herein have been adjusted uniformly to a 12-percent moisture content, thus making them directly comparable as presented. In addition to the data from the standard series of tests begun in 1910 there is included herein results of all earlier tests by the Forest Service that were made in such a manner as to afford data of comparable character to that resulting from the standard series.

MEANING AND IMPORTANCE OF STRENGTH

In a broad sense "strength" implies all those properties that fit a material to resist forces. In a more restricted sense, strength is resistance to stress of a single kind, or to the stresses developed in a particular member. Definiteness requires that the name of the specific property be stated; as for instance, strength in shear, strength in compression parallel to grain, or strength as a short column. If the several strength properties had the same relation to each other in all species, a wood that excels in one property would, of course, be higher in all, and misinterpretation of "strength" would be less likely. Actually, however, a species may rank higher in one strength property than in another. Longleaf pine averages higher than white oak in maximum crushing strength parallel to the grain, but lower in hardness. Hence, it cannot be said that longleaf pine is "stronger" or "weaker" than white oak without specifying the kind of strength. In comparing species for a particular use the kind of strength properties or combination of properties essential to that use must be considered. Thus, from the comparisons just cited, longleaf pine is superior to oak for use as short posts carrying heavy endwise loads, whereas oak excels in resistance to wear and marring.

In most uses the serviceability of wood depends on one or more strength properties. Airplane-wing beams, floor joists, and wheel spokes typify uses in which strength is a major consideration. Other uses often require strength in combination with other characteristics. Telephone poles, railroad ties, and bridge stringers must not only carry loads, but must also resist decay. In addition, many uses not ordinarily associated with strength depend to some degree on strength properties. For example, finish and trim for buildings should be sufficiently hard to avoid marring; window sash must have screw-holding ability to permit secure attachment of hardware, and adequate stiffness to prevent springing when the window is opened and closed. Even matches must have strength to avoid breaking. Information on strength properties is therefore important not only in the design of airplanes, buildings, and bridges, but also as a guide to the selection of wood for a great variety of uses.

The data reported here refer to some of the properties that are important in many uses. Obviously, any such series of mechanical tests does not answer all questions concerning suitability for a given use because the use may involve strength properties that have not been evaluated and because characteristics other than strength (p. 26) are usually also important.

TESTING PROCEDURE

The material for test was identified botanically in the woods and was brought to the Forest Products Laboratory at Madison, Wis., in the green condition in log form. The procedure for selection and care of material, method of preparing test specimens, and method of testing are the result of many years of development in studying wood properties in the United States and embody some features of European practice. Methods of Testing Small Clear Specimens of Timber adopted as standard by the American Society for Testing Materials (4), and the American Standards Association is essentially the same as the procedure used. A generally similar procedure is also being followed in a number of other countries. Detailed description of the procedure used, and of the methods of computing the results are presented in the appendix, p. 78.

SCOPE OF TESTS

Many individual pieces of each species were tested in determining the average values of strength properties as presented in table 1. In all over 250,000 tests have been made. Only the average results for each species are, however, presented here. It is difficult to determine how many tests should be made on each species. The larger the number, the nearer may the average values be expected to approach the true average of the species, but also the greater is the cost. A balance must be reached between these desiderata, so that a species usually has been represented by only five trees from any one site or locality. Two or more five-tree units, however, from different localities have been tested for the more important species. The individual tests on a species vary in number from about a hundred to several thousand.

CONSIDERATIONS CONCERNING USE OF TABLE 1

The values given in table 1 are the best available valuations of the true averages. Those for the less important species, being based on fewer tests, are less reliable than those for the common species. In applying the data, too great emphasis should not be placed on small differences in averages. The importance of such differences depends largely on the use to which the wood is put. A discussion of variability and the significance of differences between averages is presented on page 17.

The results obtained in tests of clear wood depend not only on the inherent characteristics of the wood but also on such extrinsic factors as the size and form of specimens, the rate of loading, and other features of testing procedure, and in seasoned material on the moisture content. Care should accordingly be used in comparing the data with that from tests in which a different procedure may have been used and the moisture content of test material should be taken into consideration.

The values in table 1 are primarily for the comparison of species in the form of clear lumber. For comparing structural timbers in which the defects are limited with reference to their effect on strength, allowable working stresses are preferable (29, 61).

TABLE 1.—Strength and related properties of woods grown in the United States

Species (common and botanical names)	Place of growth of material tested	Moisture condition	Trees tested	Rings per inch	Summer wood	Moisture content	Specific gravity, oven dry, based on volume—		Weight per cubic foot	Shrinkage from green to oven-dry condition based on dimensions when green			Static bending						Impact bending			Compression parallel to grain		Compression perpendicular to grain; stress at proportional limit	Hardness; load required to embed a 0.444-inch ball to 1/2 its diameter		Shear parallel to grain; maximum shearing strength	Cleavage; load to cause splitting	Tension perpendicular to grain; maximum tensile strength									
							At test	When oven dry		Volumetric	Radial	Tangential	Stress at proportional limit	Modulus of rupture	Modulus of elasticity	Work			Stress at proportional limit	Work to proportional limit	Height of drop causing complete failure (50-pound hammer)	Stress at proportional limit	Maximum crushing strength		End	Side												
																Proportional limit	Maximum load	Total																				
HARDWOODS																																						
Alder, red (<i>Alnus rubra</i>)	Washington	(Green)	6	11		98	0.37	0.43	46																													
Apple (<i>Malus punila</i> var.)	Virginia	(Dry)	10	6		42	.61	.74	55	17.6	5.6	10.1																										
Ash, Biltmore white (<i>Frazinus biltmoreana</i>)	Tennessee	(Green)	5	17	49	42	.51	.68	45	12.6	4.2	6.9																										
Ash, black (<i>Frazinus nigra</i>)	Michigan, Wisconsin	(Green)	6	24		52	.48	.53	32	15.2	5.0	7.8																										
Ash, blue (<i>Frazinus quadrangulata</i>)	Kentucky	(Green)	5	12	49	39	.53	.60	34	11.7	3.9	6.5																										
Ash, green (<i>Frazinus pennsylvanica lanceolata</i>)	Louisiana, Missouri	(Green)	10	17	58	48	.53	.61	49	12.5	4.6	7.1																										
Ash, Oregon (<i>Frazinus oregona</i>)	Oregon	(Green)	3	12	63	42	.50	.58	46	13.2	4.1	8.1																										
Ash, pumpkin (<i>Frazinus profunda</i>)	Missouri	(Green)	3	21	46	19	.48	.55	36	12.0	3.7	6.3																										
Ash, white (<i>Frazinus americana</i>)	(Arkansas, New York, West Virginia, Vermont, Massachusetts, Wisconsin, New Mexico)	(Green)	23	12	54	12	.55	.64	38	13.3	4.9	7.9																										
Aspen (<i>Populus tremuloides</i>)	Wisconsin, New Mexico	(Green)	11	8		12	.60	.40	43	11.5	3.5	6.7																										
Aspen, largetooth (<i>Populus grandidentata</i>)	Wisconsin, Vermont	(Green)	10	8		90	.35	.41	27	11.8	3.3	7.9																										
Basswood (<i>Tilia glabra</i>)	Wisconsin, Pennsylvania	(Green)	8	19		105	.32	.40	26	15.8	6.6	9.3																										
Beech (<i>Fagus grandifolia</i>)	Indiana, Pennsylvania, Vermont	(Green)	17	15		54	.56	.67	45	16.3	5.1	11.0																										
Beech, blue (<i>Carpinus caroliniana</i>)	Massachusetts	(Green)	12	15		48	.58	.72	49	19.1	5.7	11.4																										
Birch, Alaska white (<i>Betula neolaskana</i>)	Alaska	(Green)	10	29		58	.49	.59	48	16.7	6.5	9.9																										
Birch, gray (<i>Betula populifolia</i>)	New Hampshire	(Green)	5			63	.45	.55	45	14.7	5.2																											
Birch, paper (<i>Betula papyrifera</i>)	Wisconsin, New Hampshire	(Green)	10	6		65	.48	.60	30	16.2	6.3	8.6																										
Birch, sweet (<i>Betula lenta</i>)	Pennsylvania, New Hampshire	(Green)	10	27		53	.60	.71	57	15.6	6.5	8.5																										
Birch, yellow (<i>Betula lutea</i>)	Pennsylvania, Vermont, Wisconsin	(Green)	17	16		67	.55	.66	57	16.7	7.2	9.2																										
Blackwood (<i>Avicennia nitida</i>)	Florida	(Green)	6	16		42	.83	.96	54	15.6	6.2	9.7																										
Buckeye, yellow (<i>Aesculus octandra</i>)	Tennessee	(Green)	5	15		141	.33	.38	49	12.0	3.5	7.8																										
Bustic (<i>Dipholis salicifolia</i>)	Florida	(Green)	1			44	.86		77																													
Butternut (<i>Juglans cinerea</i>)	Tennessee, Wisconsin	(Green)	10	9		104	.36	.40	46	10.2	3.3	6.1																										
Buttonwood (<i>Conocarpus erecta</i>)	Florida	(Green)	7			47	.69	.85	64	14.6	5.4	8.5																										
Cascara (<i>Rhamnus purshiana</i>)	Oregon	(Green)	5	17		61	.50	.55	36	7.6	3.2	4.6																										
Catalpa, hardy (<i>Catalpa speciosa</i>)	Indiana	(Green)	15	8	58	72	.38	.42	41	7.3	2.5	4.9																										
Cherry, black (<i>Prunus serotina</i>)	Pennsylvania	(Green)	5	11		55	.47	.53	45	11.5	3.7	7.1																										
Cherry, pin (<i>Prunus pennsylvanica</i>)	Tennessee	(Green)	5	8		46	.36	.42	33	12.8	2.8	10.3																										
Chestnut (<i>Castanea dentata</i>)	Maryland, Tennessee	(Green)	10	11	48	122	.40	.45	55	11.6	3.4	6.7																										
Chinquapin, golden (<i>Custanopsis chrysophylla</i>)	Oregon	(Green)	5	15		134	.42	.48	61	13.2	4.6	7.4																										
Cottonwood, eastern (<i>Populus deltoides</i>)	Missouri	(Green)	5	6		111	.37	.43	49	14.1	3.9	9.2																										
Cottonwood, northern black (<i>Populus trichocarpa hastata</i>)	Washington	(Green)	5	6		132	.35	.37	24	12.4	3.6	8.6																										
Dogwood (<i>Cornus florida</i>)	Tennessee	(Green)	5	24		62	.64	.80	64	19.9	7.1	11.3																										
Dogwood, Pacific (<i>Cornus nuttallii</i>)	Oregon	(Green)	5	21		52	.68	.70	55	17.2	6.4	9.6																										
Elder, blueberry (<i>Sambucus coerulea</i>)	Co.	(Green)	5	6		124	.46	.57	65	15.6	4.4	9.0																										

1 The averages for this species include data from tests representing an unknown number of trees in addition to the number indicated.

TABLE 1.—Strength and related properties of woods grown in the United States—Continued

Species (common and botanical names)	Place of growth of material tested	Moisture condition	Trees tested	Rings per inch	Summer wood	Moisture content	Specific gravity, oven-dry, based on volume—		Weight per cubic foot	Shrinkage from green to oven-dry condition based on dimensions when green			Static bending						Impact bending			Compression parallel to grain		Compression perpendicular to grain; stress at proportional limit		Hardness; load required to embed a 0.444-inch ball to 1/2 its diameter		Shear parallel to grain; maximum shearing strength	Cleavage; load to cause splitting	Tension perpendicular to grain; maximum tensile strength				
							At test	When oven-dry		Volumetric	Radial	Tangential	Stress at proportional limit	Modulus of rupture	Modulus of elasticity	Work			Stress at proportional limit	Work to proportional limit	Height of drop causing complete failure (60-pound hammer)	Stress at proportional limit	Maximum crushing strength	Lb. per sq. in.	Lb. per sq. in.	Lb. per sq. in.	End				Side	Lb. per sq. in.	Lb. per in. of width	Lb. per sq. in.
																Proportional limit	Maximum load	Total																
HARDWOODS—continued																																		
Elm, American (<i>Ulmus americana</i>)	(New Hampshire, Pennsylvania, Wisconsin)	(Green)	12	13	54	89	0.46	0.55	Pounds	14.6	4.2	9.5	Lb. per sq. in.	Lb. per sq. in.	1,000 lb. per sq. in.	In.-lb. per cu. in.	In.-lb. per cu. in.	In.-lb. per cu. in.	Lb. per sq. in.	In.-lb. per cu. in.	Inches	Lb. per sq. in.	Lb. per sq. in.	Lb. per sq. in.	Pounds	Pounds	Lb. per sq. in.	Lb. per in. of width	Lb. per sq. in.					
Elm, rock (<i>Ulmus racemosa</i>)	Wisconsin	(Green)	15	29	50	42	0.50	0.66		14.1	4.8	8.1	7,900	11,800	1,110	0.81	11.8	29.7	39	4.6	30	2,490	3,040	600	790	640	1,100	330	570					
Elm, slippery (<i>Ulmus fulva</i>)	Indiana, Wisconsin	(Green)	6	16	54	12	0.53	0.57		13.8	4.9	8.9	4,600	9,500	1,160	1.05	19.8	49.9	33	7.9	47	9,200	11,500	1,110	1,320	1,020	1,510	380	640					
Fig, golden (<i>Ficus aurea</i>)	Florida	(Green)	1			12	0.44						3,200	5,800	600	0.92	6.6	15.2	9	7.5	45	4,760	6,360	1,010	1,120	860	1,630	340	530					
Gum, black (<i>Nyssa sylvatica</i>)	Tennessee	(Green)	5	27		12	0.50	0.55		13.9	4.4	7.7	4,000	7,000	1,030	0.91	8.0	15.3	14	4.0	30	2,490	3,040	600	790	640	1,100	330	570					
Gum, blue (<i>Eucalyptus globulus</i>)	California	(Green)	5			12	0.50	0.80		22.5	7.6	15.3	7,300	9,600	1,260	2.54	6.2	10.6	14	7.1	22	3,470	5,520	1,160	1,240	810	1,340	340	500					
Gum, red (<i>Liquidambar styraciflua</i>)	Missouri	(Green)	15	16		12	0.49	0.53		15.0	5.2	9.9	3,700	6,800	1,150	0.81	9.4	21.7	10,000	3.9	33	2,230	2,840	460	630	520	1,070	330	510					
Gum, tupelo (<i>Nyssa aquatica</i>)	Louisiana, Missouri	(Green)	6	10		12	0.46	0.52		12.5	4.2	7.6	8,100	11,900	1,490	2.67	11.3	15.7	16,800	8.5	32	4,700	5,860	860	950	890	1,610	350	800					
Gumbo limbo (<i>Bursera simaruba</i>)	Florida	(Green)	5			12	0.50	0.32		8.6	2.3	3.6	2,000	3,300	560	0.45	3.5	4.1	5,000	2.3	23	4,280	5,920	1,070	1,200	880	1,590	360	700					
Hackberry (<i>Celtis occidentalis</i>)	Indiana, Wisconsin	(Green)	6	13	56	12	0.43	0.56		13.8	4.8	8.9	2,900	4,800	740	0.85	3.0	3.2	6,300	2.3	9	1,720	3,080	560	370	270	800	200	360					
Haw, pear (<i>Crataegus tomentosa</i>)	Wisconsin	(Green)	2	11		12	0.68						5,900	11,000	1,190	1.72	12.8	27.3	13,700	7.0	43	3,710	5,440	1,160	1,110	880	1,590	330	580					
Hickory, bigleaf shagbark (<i>Hicoria laciniata</i>)	Ohio, Mississippi	(Green)	19	19	65	12	0.62			19.2	7.6	12.6	5,600	10,500	1,340	1.36	29.9	38.0	22,600	13.9	88	8,000	2,220	1,000	1,020	1,310	1,440	2,110	1,190					
Hickory, bitternut (<i>Hicoria cordiformis</i>)	Ohio	(Green)	11	11	70	12	0.60						5,900	10,300	1,400	1.22	20.0	75.5	15,900	8.5	66	4,330	6,570	960	1,020	1,340	1,550	360	640					
Hickory, mockernut (<i>Hicoria alba</i>)	(Pennsylvania, Mississippi, West Virginia)	(Green)	20	18	63	12	0.64			17.9	7.8	11.0	6,300	11,100	1,570	1.38	26.1	74.6	23,600	12.5	86	9,040	2,070	1,000	1,000	1,480	1,740	1,280	1,740					
Hickory, nutmeg (<i>Hicoria myristicaeformis</i>)	Mississippi	(Green)	5	22	59	12	0.50						4,900	9,100	1,230	1.08	12.8	27.3	13,700	6.1	57	3,620	5,940	940	1,030	1,030	1,440	1,440	1,440					
Hickory, pignut (<i>Hicoria glabra</i>)	(West Virginia, Mississippi, Ohio, Pennsylvania)	(Green)	60	20	65	12	0.66			17.9	7.2	11.5	6,200	11,700	1,650	1.34	31.7	86.1	16,900	8.8	89	3,950	6,910	1,140	1,140	1,480	1,740	1,370	1,740					
Hickory, shagbark (<i>Hicoria ovata</i>)	(Mississippi, Ohio, West Virginia, Pennsylvania)	(Green)	24	19	66	12	0.64			16.7	7.0	10.5	5,900	11,000	1,570	1.28	23.7	76.4	14,400	6.4	74	3,430	4,580	1,040	1,040	1,380	1,520	2,430	1,520					
Hickory, water (<i>Hicoria aquatica</i>)	Mississippi	(Green)	2	15	67	12	0.61						6,000	10,700	1,560	1.29	18.8	52.9	13,700	6.1	56	3,240	4,860	1,090	1,090	1,440	1,440	1,440	1,440					
Holly (<i>Ilex opaca</i>)	Tennessee	(Green)	5	27		12	0.50	0.61		16.2	4.5	9.5	3,400	6,500	900	0.72	10.7	13.8	12,500	6.9	33	3,380	5,540	1,120	1,480	1,020	1,020	1,310	1,440	1,440				
Honeylocust (<i>Gleditsia triacanthos</i>)	Indiana, Missouri	(Green)	6	9	45	12	0.63	0.67		10.8	4.2	6.6	5,600	10,200	1,290	1.40	12.6	34.4	11,800	4.6	47	3,320	4,420	1,020	1,420	1,440	1,660	490	930					
Hophornbeam (<i>Ostrya virginiana</i>)	Wisconsin	(Green)	5	29		12	0.63	0.76		18.6	8.2	9.6	4,500	8,500	1,150	1.02	13.3	39.1	10,600	3.5	73	2,570	3,570	730	1,160	1,580	2,250	430	900					
Inkwood (<i>Erothea paniculata</i>)	Florida	(Green)	2			12	0.89	0.92		18.8	6.6	10.9	7,200	10,700	1,540	1.88	16.0	64.1	15,200	6.8	50	3,310	4,480	1,600	1,600	1,320	1,440	1,750	450	750				
Ironwood, black (<i>Krugiodendron ferreum</i>)	do	(Green)	4			12	1.04	1.08		11.6	6.2	8.0	10,100	16,400	2,200	2.64	12.6	37.2	18,500	7.7	35	5,660	7,670	3,460	3,460	2,260	2,260	2,260	2,260					
Laurel, California (<i>Umbellularia californica</i>)	Oregon	(Green)	5	6		12	0.51	0.60		11.9	2.8	8.1	3,900	6,600	720	1.23	16.8	45.6	8,300	4.1	57	1,980	3,020	800	1,020	1,000	1,270	430	780					
Laurel, mountain (<i>Kalmia latifolia</i>)	Tennessee	(Green)	5	24		12	0.62	0.74		14.4	5.6	8	5,800	8,400	920	2.03	12.5	28.6	10,200	5.2	32	4,310	5,920	1,110	1,400	1,500	1,670	1,670	1,670					
Locust, black (<i>Robinia pseudoacacia</i>)	do	(Green)	3	11	51	12	0.66	0.71		9.8	4.4	6.9	8,800	13,800	1,850	2.36	15.4	39.9	13,300	7.9	44	6,120	6,800	1,430	1,640	1,670	1,760	400	770					
Madrono, Pacific (<i>Arbutus menziesii</i>)	California, Oregon	(Green)	6	10		12	0.58	0.69		17.4	5.4	11.9	4,700	7,600	880	1.43	11.2	22.0	10,200	4.7	40	2,430	3,320	780	1,120	1,420	1,420	430	770					
Magnolia, cucumber (<i>Magnolia acuminata</i>)	Tennessee	(Green)	5	14		12	0.44	0.52		13.6	5.2	8.8	4,200	7,400	1,560	0.66	10.0	21.8	9,300	2.9	30	2,810	3,140	410	600	520	960	260	440					
Magnolia, evergreen (<i>Magnolia grandiflora</i>)	Louisiana	(Green)	2	15		12	0.50	0.53		12.3	5.4	6.6	3,600	6,800	1,110	0.67	15.4	34.8	8,800	3.2	54	2,160	2,700	570	780	1,040	1,040	340	610					
Magnolia, mountain (<i>Magnolia fraseri</i>)	Tennessee	(Green)	5	15		12	0.44	0.48		13.0	4.4	7.5	3,400	6,100	1,190	0.55	8.3	16.5	8,600	2.9	23	2,270	2,610	350	570	500	830	260	450					
Mangrove (<i>Rhizophora mangle</i>)	Florida	(Green)	4			12	0.96	1.06		15.8	5.4		9,700	15,200	2,300	2.30	14.6	38.7	20,500	8.2	52	5,200	6,490	2,460	2,010	2,240	1,800	320	600					
Maple, bigleaf (<i>Acer macrophyllum</i>)	Washington	(Green)	5	12		12	0.44	0.51		11.6	3.7	7.1	4,400	7,400	1,100	1.02	8.7	14.2	8,500	2.8	23	2,510	3,240	550	760	620	1,110	320	600					
Maple, black (<i>Acer nigrum</i>)	Indiana	(Green)	1	17		12	0.52	0.62		14.0	4.8	9.3	4,100	7,900	1,330	0.70	12.8	29.8	10,200	3.8	48	2,800	3,270	740	940	1,130	430	720	670					
Maple, red (<i>Acer rubrum</i>)	(New Hampshire, Pennsylvania, Wisconsin)	(Green)	14	13		12	0.49	0.55		13.1	4.0	8.2	3,800	7,700	1,390	0.71	11.4	24.7	11,400	3.2	32	2,360	3,280	500	780	700	1,150	290	500					
Maple, silver (<i>Acer saccharinum</i>)	Wisconsin	(Green)	5	7		12	0.44	0.51		12.0	3.0	7.2	3,100	5,300	940	0.61	11.0	22.3	6,800	2.6	29	1,930	2,490	460	670	590	1,050	300	560					

1 The averages for this species include data from tests representing an unknown number of trees in addition to the number indicated.

TABLE 1.—Strength and related properties of woods grown in the United States—Continued

Species (common and botanical names)	Place of growth of material tested	Moisture condition	Trees tested	Rings per inch	Summer wood	Moisture content	Specific gravity, oven-dry, based on volume—		Weight per cubic foot	Shrinkage from green to oven-dry condition based on dimensions when green			Static bending					Impact bending			Compression parallel to grain		Compression perpendicular to grain; stress at proportional limit	Hardness; load required to embed a 0.444-inch ball to 1/4 its diameter		Shear parallel to grain; maximum shearing strength	Cleavage; load to cause splitting	Tension perpendicular to grain; maximum tensile strength				
							At test	When oven-dry		Volumetric	Radial	Tangential	Stress at proportional limit	Modulus of rupture	Modulus of elasticity	Work			Stress at proportional limit	Work to proportional limit	Height of drop causing complete failure (50-pound hammer)	Stress at proportional limit		Maximum crushing strength	End				Side			
																Proportional limit	Maximum load	Total														
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30			
HARDWOODS—continued																																
Maple, striped (<i>Acer pennsylvanicum</i>)	Vermont	Green	37	12	35	0.44	12	37	36	12.3	3.2	8.6	3,600	7,200	1,080	0.68	10.9	13.4	8,700	2.3	36	1,790	2,920	500	500	1,150	1,150	350	350	800		
Maple, sugar (<i>Acer saccharum</i>)	Indiana, Pennsylvania, Vermont, Wisconsin	Green	17	18	58	0.56	56	56	56	14.9	4.9	9.5	5,200	10,900	1,360	1.08	11.3	16.8	11,400	5.2	27	5,540	800	960	700	1,320	1,320	350	350	800		
Mastic (<i>Sideroxylon foetidissimum</i>)	Florida	Green	5	5	39	0.89	77	77	77	11.7	6.1	7.5	7,100	10,400	1,580	1.79	8.1	19.8	18,000	8.7	52	4,950	5,880	2,850	2,850	1,670	1,670	430	430	1,050		
Oak, black (<i>Quercus velutina</i>)	Arkansas, Wisconsin	Green	8	15	71	0.66	62	62	62	14.2	4.5	9.7	6,600	10,200	1,780	1.39	6.2	6.6	14,100	5.1	24	3,840	6,930	2,830	2,830	1,790	1,790	370	370	710		
Oak, bur (<i>Quercus macrocarpa</i>)	Wisconsin	Green	5	12	59	0.58	62	62	62	12.7	4.4	8.8	3,600	7,200	880	0.89	10.7	26.1	10,000	4.7	44	4,750	6,520	1,150	1,150	1,210	1,210	430	430	800		
Oak, California black (<i>Quercus kelloggii</i>)	Oregon, California	Green	10	16	52	0.64	45	45	45	12.1	3.6	6.6	6,400	10,300	1,030	2.37	9.8	17.4	14,600	8.0	29	3,580	6,060	1,450	1,410	1,370	1,370	350	350	680		
Oak, canyon live (<i>Quercus chrysolepis</i>)	California	Green	3	13	62	0.70	71	71	71	16.2	5.4	9.5	6,300	10,600	1,340	1.70	14.4	30.9	11,400	3.0	16	3,390	5,640	1,440	1,180	1,100	1,470	1,470	350	350	770	
Oak, chestnut (<i>Quercus montana</i>)	Tennessee	Green	5	23	50	0.57	61	61	61	16.7	5.5	9.7	4,600	8,000	1,370	0.90	9.4	22.4	12,000	4.6	35	6,110	9,060	2,260	2,530	2,420	2,290	640	640	970		
Oak, laurel (<i>Quercus laurifolia</i>)	Louisiana	Green	5	11	61	0.56	65	65	65	19.0	4.0	9.9	4,600	7,900	1,390	0.86	11.2	28.3	10,400	3.4	40	4,420	6,830	1,040	1,250	1,130	1,130	350	350	690		
Oak, live (<i>Quercus virginiana</i>)	Florida	Green	5	8	52	0.81	76	76	76	14.7	6.6	9.6	7,700	12,600	1,690	2.02	11.8	28.5	14,700	5.6	39	4,440	6,960	1,310	1,230	1,210	1,180	350	350	790		
Oak, Oregon white (<i>Quercus garryana</i>)	Oregon	Green	10	16	49	0.72	69	69	69	13.4	4.2	9.0	4,600	7,700	790	1.51	13.7	29.1	10,300	4.8	49	4,480	6,570	3,510	3,150	2,660	2,660	520	520	1,010		
Oak, pin (<i>Quercus palustris</i>)	Massachusetts	Green	5	9	58	0.58	63	63	63	14.5	4.3	9.5	4,000	8,300	1,320	0.71	14.0	35.2	11,900	4.2	29	3,960	6,530	2,110	1,880	1,870	2,020	2,020	390	390	800	
Oak, post (<i>Quercus stellata</i>)	Arkansas, Louisiana	Green	10	26	54	0.63	69	69	69	16.2	5.9	9.8	8,000	14,000	1,730	2.22	14.8	36.5	12,300	3.6	45	4,620	6,820	1,260	1,060	1,060	1,110	1,110	470	470	1,050	
Oak, red (<i>Quercus borealis</i>)	Arkansas, Indiana, Louisiana, New Hampshire, Tennessee	Green	33	10	63	0.56	67	67	67	13.5	4.0	8.2	4,100	8,300	1,350	0.73	13.2	34.5	10,600	3.8	46	3,700	6,460	1,760	1,350	1,360	1,540	1,540	450	450	790	
Oak, Rocky Mountain white (<i>Quercus utahensis</i>)	Arizona	Green	3	24	62	0.62	62	62	62	12.5	4.1	7.2	3,200	5,900	480	1.23	11.3	27.2	8,100	4.3	30	4,880	6,760	1,250	1,580	1,280	1,780	410	410	800		
Oak, scarlet (<i>Quercus coccinea</i>)	Massachusetts	Green	5	14	52	0.60	62	62	62	13.8	4.6	9.7	4,500	10,400	1,480	0.81	15.0	41.9	11,900	4.0	54	2,840	4,060	1,030	1,170	1,200	1,440	1,440	420	420	700	
Oak, southern red (<i>Quercus rubra</i>)	Louisiana	Green	4	20	46	0.52	62	62	62	16.3	4.5	8.7	4,200	6,900	1,140	0.93	8.0	16.5	9,100	3.1	29	2,220	3,030	1,390	1,060	1,060	1,180	1,180	280	280	480	
Oak, swamp red (<i>Quercus rubra pagodaefolia</i>)	do	Green	3	7	63	0.61	68	68	68	16.4	5.2	10.8	6,000	10,800	1,490	1.44	9.4	15.9	15,300	7.3	26	2,910	6,090	1,090	1,020	1,060	1,390	1,390	350	350	510	
Oak, swamp chestnut (<i>Quercus prinus</i>)	do	Green	4	12	58	0.60	65	65	65	19.4	5.9	9.2	4,800	8,500	1,350	1.00	12.8	32.2	10,400	3.2	49	3,250	4,740	1,540	1,270	1,270	1,320	1,320	400	400	800	
Oak, swamp white (<i>Quercus bicolor</i>)	Indiana	Green	1	16	71	0.64	69	69	69	17.7	5.5	10.6	7,300	13,900	1,770	1.68	12.0	21.0	19,000	7.8	54	4,400	6,270	1,370	1,290	1,240	1,390	1,390	400	400	670	
Oak, water (<i>Quercus nigra</i>)	Louisiana	Green	5	10	61	0.56	63	63	63	16.4	4.2	9.3	5,600	8,900	1,550	1.14	11.1	32.5	11,600	3.8	49	3,830	6,660	1,470	1,050	1,050	1,120	1,120	450	450	820	
Oak, white (<i>Quercus alba</i>)	Arkansas, Indiana, Louisiana	Green	20	17	60	0.68	62	62	62	15.8	5.3	9.0	4,700	8,300	1,250	1.08	11.6	28.2	10,700	4.2	42	3,960	6,770	1,260	1,400	1,190	1,190	1,240	1,240	470	470	920
Oak, willow (<i>Quercus phellos</i>)	Louisiana	Green	2	14	56	0.56	67	67	67	18.9	5.0	9.6	4,400	7,400	1,200	0.88	8.8	21.3	9,200	2.9	37	4,760	7,440	1,320	1,520	1,060	2,000	450	450	800		
Osage-orange (<i>Toxylon pomiferum</i>)	Indiana	Green	1	6	82	0.76	62	62	62	8.9	—	—	7,800	14,500	1,960	2.61	14.6	37.3	15,600	8.9	35	2,340	3,000	750	1,020	1,060	1,180	400	400	760		
Palmetto, cabbage (<i>Sabal palmetto</i>)	Florida	Green	5	—	134	0.37	54	54	54	25.0	—	—	1,900	3,800	480	0.45	4.0	15.8	5,000	—	15	1,410	1,760	190	330	280	570	110	220			
Paradise tree (<i>Simarouba glauca</i>)	do	Green	4	—	81	0.33	38	38	38	8.6	2.2	5.2	1,900	4,700	560	0.94	4.5	19.6	5,200	—	16	1,450	2,220	180	300	280	410	80	130			
Pecan (<i>Hicoria pecan</i>)	Missouri	Green	5	12	63	0.60	61	61	61	13.6	4.9	8.9	3,900	5,300	850	0.88	3.1	4.0	5,500	—	7	2,160	3,060	400	600	350	620	330	330			
Persimmon (<i>Diospyros virginiana</i>)	do	Green	5	14	66	0.64	63	63	63	18.3	7.5	10.8	9,100	13,700	1,730	2.61	13.8	35.5	17,400	8.2	53	3,100	3,990	960	1,270	1,310	1,480	420	680			
Pigeon-plum (<i>Coccolobis laurifolia</i>)	Florida	Green	5	—	58	0.78	63	63	63	15.7	4.4	7.8	5,600	10,000	1,370	1.35	13.0	31.2	12,100	—	41	3,160	4,170	1,110	1,240	1,280	1,470	410	770			
Poisonwood (<i>Metopium toxiferum</i>)	do	Green	4	—	52	0.77	55	55	55	15.7	4.4	7.8	10,900	17,700	2,010	3.49	15.4	35.2	18,490	8.6	37	6,390	9,170	2,460	2,520	2,160	2,160	590	1,200			
Poplar, balsam (<i>Populus balsamifera</i>)	Alaska, Vermont	Green	10	7	12	0.53	37	37	37	11.6	4.2	7.2	7,800	13,000	1,290	2.67	10.8	24.7	16,000	6.8	40	4,260	4,940	1,500	1,730	1,720	1,510	400	850			
Poplar, yellow (<i>Liriodendron tulipifera</i>)	Kentucky, Tennessee	Green	11	14	64	0.38	38	38	38	12.3	4.0	7.1	3,200	5,400	1,090	0.62	5.4	8.9	8,000	—	18	1,930	2,420	330	390	340	740	220	450			
Rhododendron, great (<i>Rhododendron maximum</i>)	Tennessee	Green	5	28	99	0.60	62	62	62	16.2	6.3	8.7	4,600	6,900	870	1.38	12.1	32.4	11,200	—	20	3,550	5,290	890	1,000	880	1,240	1,240	280	520		
Sassafras (<i>Sassafras variifolium</i>)	do	Green	5	19	48	0.47	44	44	44	10.3	4.0	6.2	6,800	11,000	1,110	2.30	12.4	23.0	—	—	19	1,440	6,420	890	1,000	880	1,240	1,240	300	520		
Serviceberry (<i>Amelanchier canadensis</i>)	do	Green	5	19	48	0.66	61	61	61	18.7	6.7	10.8	6,200	9,000	1,120	1.91	8.7	24.8	10,600	—	33	3,260	4,760	1,050	650	630	1,240	300	590			
		Dry	—	—	12	0.74	52	52	52	—	—	—	11,000	16,900	1,880	3.44	18.0	49.1	21,000	—	63	3,250	4,080	780	1,250	1,240	1,260	400	730			

1 The averages for this species include data from tests representing an unknown number of trees in addition to the number indicated.

TABLE 1.—Strength and related properties of woods grown in the United States—Continued

Species (common and botanical names)	Place of growth of material tested	Moisture condition	Trees tested	Rings per inch	Summer wood	Moisture content	Specific gravity, oven-dry, based on volume—		Weight per cubic foot	Shrinkage from green to oven-dry condition based on dimensions when green			Static bending						Impact bending			Compression parallel to grain		Compression perpendicular to grain; stress at proportional limit		Hardness; load required to embed a 0.444-inch ball to ½ its diameter		Shear parallel to grain; maximum shearing strength	Cleavage; load to cause splitting	Tension perpendicular to grain; maximum tensile strength
							At test	When oven-dry		Volumetric	Radial	Tangential	Stress at proportional limit	Modulus of rupture	Modulus of elasticity	Work			Stress at proportional limit	Work to proportional limit	Height of drop causing complete failure (50-pound hammer)	Stress at proportional limit	Maximum crushing strength	Compression perpendicular to grain; stress at proportional limit	End	Side				
																Proportional limit	Maximum load	Total												
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	
HARDWOODS—continued																														
Silverbell (<i>Halesia carolina</i>)	Tennessee	Green	5	20		70	0.42	0.48	44	12.6	3.8	7.6	3,500	6,500	1,160	0.62	8.8	16.1	9,100	3.3	27	2,140	2,830	430	550	470	930	280	460	
Sourwood (<i>Oryndendrum arboreum</i>)	do	Dry	5	24		12	.50	.59	52	15.2	6.3	8.9	5,700	8,600	1,320	1.46	6.9	18.0	13,300	6.0	24	3,580	5,130	680	880	590	1,180	320	490	
Stopper, red (<i>Eugenia confusa</i>)	Florida	Green	3			41	.53	.92	38	13.3	6.2	9.1	4,400	7,700	1,320	.82	9.8	20.0	10,800	4.1	38	2,700	3,250	680	860	730	1,160	400	710	
Sugarberry (<i>Celtis laevigata</i>)	Missouri	Dry	5	17	38	12	.87		61	12.7	5.0	7.3	8,300	11,600	1,540	2.44	10.9	21.7	17,200	8.6	38	4,400	6,190	1,050	1,350	940	1,500	386	520	
Sumach, staghorn (<i>Rhus hirta</i>)	Wisconsin	Green	5	9	61	12	.46	.54	48	12.7	5.0	7.3	3,200	6,600	810	.78	12.0	30.7	8,200	3.2	33	1,990	2,800	580	840	740	1,050	380	660	
Sycamore (<i>Platanus occidentalis</i>)	Indiana, Tennessee	Dry	5			15	.45		41				3,000	5,800	810	.67	10.8	42.4	11,600	5.4	36	3,970	5,620	1,240	1,280	960	1,280	380		
Walnut, black (<i>Juglans nigra</i>)	Kentucky	Green	10	17		13	.46	.54	52	14.2	5.1	7.6	3,300	6,500	1,060	.60	7.5	15.9	8,800	3.3	26	2,400	2,920	450	700	610	1,000	330	630	
Walnut, little (<i>Juglans rupestris</i>)	Arizona	Dry	5	12		12	.49		34	11.3	5.2	7.1	6,400	10,000	1,420	1.66	8.5	14.3	10,590	3.9	26	3,710	5,380	860	920	770	1,470	400	720	
Willow, black (<i>Salix nigra</i>)	Missouri, Wisconsin	Green	5			18	.55		38				5,400	9,500	1,420	1.16	14.6	35.9	11,900	4.5	37	3,520	4,300	600	960	900	1,220	360	570	
Willow, western black (<i>Salix lasiandra</i>)	Oregon	Dry	1			67	.53	.61	55	10.7	4.4	4.6	10,500	14,600	1,680	3.70	10.7	17.9	18,490	8.2	34	5,780	7,580	1,250	1,050	1,010	1,370	320	690	
Witchhazel (<i>Hamamelis virginiana</i>)	Tennessee	Green	10	5		139	.34	.41	40	13.8	2.5	7.8	3,400	8,000	910	.74	12.8	46.4	9,900	4.5	46	960	1,520	220	350	360	620	230	430	
		Dry	5	5		12	.37		26				3,900	6,200	720	1.94	7.9	11.1	7,700	3.6	30	2,020	3,420	480	550	450	1,050	290	460	
		Green	5	5		105	.39	.47	50	13.8	2.9	9.0	3,100	5,600	1,020	.58	10.8	27.6	7,600	2.5	23	1,810	2,340	330	490	500	870	210	360	
		Dry	5	14		12	.44		31				5,500	8,500	1,310	1.37	9.3	23.4	11,000	4.7	31	3,120	4,560	630	850	630	1,160	290	530	
		Green	5	14		70	.56	.71	59	18.8			5,000	8,300	1,110	1.29	19.5	56.8	12,400	6.3	40		6,740	1,370	1,860	1,530				
		Dry				12	.61		43				9,100	15,200	1,460	3.17	21.0													
SOFTWOODS																														
Cedar, Alaska (<i>Chamaecyparis nootkatensis</i>)	Alaska, Oregon	Green	8	28		38	.42	.46	36	9.2	2.8	6.0	3,800	6,400	1,140	.77	9.2	26.2	9,100	3.2	27	2,500	3,050	430	540	440	840	170	330	
Cedar, incense (<i>Libocedrus decurrens</i>)	Oregon, California	Dry	14	17	30	12	.44		31				7,100	11,100	1,420	2.06	10.4	15.8	12,200	5.0	29	5,210	6,310	770	790	580	1,130	160	260	
Cedar, Port Orford (<i>Chamaecyparis lawsoniana</i>)	Oregon	Green	14	23	34	12	.37		45	7.6	3.3	5.2	3,900	6,200	840	.94	6.4	8.8	7,300	2.4	17	2,940	3,150	460	570	390	830	180	280	
Cedar, eastern red (<i>Juniperus virginiana</i>)	Vermont	Dry	5	12		12	.42	.44	36	10.1	4.6	6.9	5,900	8,000	1,040	1.67	5.4	8.2	9,600	3.9	17	4,760	5,200	730	830	478	880	270	470	
Cedar, southern red (<i>Juniperus sp.</i>)	Florida	Green	5	13		12	.42	.45	33	7.0	2.2	4.0	4,000	6,200	1,420	.65	7.4	22.8	9,200	3.0	22	2,770	3,130	350	460	400	830	100	180	
Cedar, western red (<i>Thuja plicata</i>)	Montana, Alaska, Washington	Dry	5	12		12	.42	.49	29	7.8	3.1	4.7	7,700	11,300	1,730	1.97	9.1	19.5	13,500	5.0	28	5,890	6,470	760	730	560	1,090	220	400	
Cedar, northern white (<i>Thuja occidentalis</i>)	Wisconsin	Green	5	13		12	.42	.45	33	7.0	2.2	4.0	3,400	7,000	650	1.08	15.0	34.7	7,000	2.7	35	2,540	3,570	860	760	650	1,010	180	330	
Cedar, southern white (<i>Chamaecyparis thyoides</i>)	New Hampshire, North Carolina	Dry	5	13		12	.44		31				3,500	8,800	880	1.01	8.3		8,560	4.6	22		6,020	1,140	900	900	260			
Cypress, southern (<i>Taxodium distichum</i>)	Louisiana, Missouri	Green	5	13		12	.42	.45	33	7.0	2.2	4.0	5,000	8,400	930	1.57	8.8	10.7	10,500	5.4	18	3,910	4,360	910	810	580	1,190	210	400	
Douglas fir (coast type) (<i>Pseudotsuga taxifolia</i>)	Washington, Oregon, California	Dry	15	19	36	12	.34		27	7.7	2.4	5.0	7,900	9,400	1,170	1.88	5.4	6.6	10,200	4.2	17	5,190	6,570	1,000	1,010	610	750	140	230	
Douglas fir (intermediate type) (<i>Pseudotsuga taxifolia</i>)	Montana, Idaho, California	Green	5	23	36	12	.35	.32	23	7.0	2.1	4.7	3,200	5,100	920	.63	5.0	10.1	6,900	2.5	17	2,470	2,750	340	430	270	710	140	230	
Douglas fir (Rocky Mountain type) (<i>Pseudotsuga taxifolia</i>)	Wyoming, Montana	Dry	10	16		12	.31		22				5,300	7,700	1,120	1.44	5.8	10.5	8,600	3.2	17	4,360	5,020	610	660	350	960	130	220	
Fir, alpine (<i>Abies lasiocarpa</i>)	Colorado	Green	10	16		12	.31	.36	22	8.4	2.8	5.2	4,900	6,500	800	1.72	4.8	6.0	7,100	2.8	12	2,630	3,960	380	450	320	850	150	240	
Fir, balsam (<i>Abies balsamea</i>)	Wisconsin	Dry	10	20	38	12	.32		23				2,500	4,700	750	.51	5.9	13.5	6,000	2.2	18	1,660	2,390	300	400	290	690	120	180	
Fir, corkbark (<i>Abies arizonica</i>)	New Mexico	Green	10	20	38	91	.42	.48	51	10.5	3.8	6.2	4,200	6,800	930	1.46	4.1	5.2	7,600	3.0	13	4,700	4,700	500	520	350	900	130	220	
Fir, lowland white (<i>Abies grandis</i>)	Montana, Oregon	Dry	10	20	38	12	.46		32				6,000	6,000	1,180	.91	6.6	13.9	8,800	3.3	25	3,100	3,580	500	440	390	810	180	300	
Fir, noble (<i>Abies nobilis</i>)	Oregon	Green	10	18	30	12	.45	.51	33	11.8	5.0	7.8	7,200	10,600	1,440	2.15	8.2	11.9	10,490	3.9	24	4,470	6,360	990	660	510	1,000	170	270	
Fir, California red (<i>Abies magnifica</i>)	California	Dry	15	16	34	12	.48		34				4,800	7,600	1,550	.85	6.8	19.2	9,800	3.2	24	3,410	3,890	510	510	480	930	160	240	
Fir, silver (<i>Abies amabilis</i>)	Washington	Green	15	16	34	12	.41	.47	35	11.2	4.2	7.4	8,100	11,700	1,920	1.96	8.6	22.9	12,700	4.5	30	6,450	7,420	910	760	670	1,140	180	300	
Fir, white (<i>Abies concolor</i>)	California, New Mexico	Dry	10	22	27	12	.44		31				3,800	6,800	1,350	.63	6.6	13.1	8,700	2.7	22	2,570	3,300	480	510	450	840	190	360	
Hemlock, eastern (<i>Tsuga canadensis</i>)	Wisconsin, Tennessee, New Hampshire, Vermont	Green	10	22	27	12	.40	.45	35	10.6	3.6	6.2	7,400	11,200	1,640	1.87	8.8	16.4	11,600	4.4	27	5,540	6,720	920	710	600	1,130	190	340	
Hemlock, mountain (<i>Tsuga mertensiana</i>)	Montana, Alaska	Dry	5	15		12	.43		30				3,600	6,400	1,180	.65	6.8	13.7	9,100	3.0	20	2,540	3,090	450	450	400	880	160	350	
Hemlock, western (<i>Tsuga heterophylla</i>)	Washington, Alaska, Oregon	Green	5	15		12	.31	.32	28	9.0	2.5	7.1	6,800	9,600	1,400	1.60	6.4	11.3	12,100	4.8	26	4,060	6,060	820	740	630	1,070	160	330	
		Dry	5	12	26	12	.35		23				4,400	4,400	890	.39	4.4	5.2	5,300	1.6	9	1,690	2,060	310	280	220	610	130		
		Green	5	12	26	117	.34	.41	45	10.8	2.8	6.6	3,000	4,900	990	.52	4.7	6.5	6,900	2.3	16	3,740	4,330	690	470					

TABLE 1.—Strength and related properties of woods grown in the United States—Continued

Species (common and botanical names)	Place of growth of material tested	Moisture condition	Trees tested	Rings per inch	Summer wood	Moisture content	Specific gravity, oven-dry, based on volume—		Weight per cubic foot	Shrinkage from green to oven-dry condition based on dimensions when green			Static bending						Impact bending			Compression parallel to grain		Compression perpendicular to grain; stress at proportional limit	Hardness; load required to embed a 0.444-inch ball to ½ its diameter		Shear parallel to grain; maximum shearing strength	Cleavage; load to cause splitting	Tension perpendicular to grain; maximum tensile strength
							At test	When oven-dry		Volumetric	Radial	Tangential	Stress at proportional limit	Modulus of rupture	Modulus of elasticity	Work			Stress at proportional limit	Work to proportional limit	Height of drop causing complete failure (50-pound hammer)	Stress at proportional limit	Maximum crushing strength		End	Side			
																Proportional limit	Maximum load	Total											
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30
SOFTWOODS—continued																													
Juniper, alligator (<i>Juniperus pachyphloea</i>)	Arizona	Green	3	32	37	40	0.48	0.54	42	7.8	2.7	3.6	3,600	6,600	450	1.67	13.4	16.4	6,800	3.9	21	2,490	3,730	1,030	960	820	1,280	160	280
Larch, western (<i>Larix occidentalis</i>)	Montana, Washington	Green	13	32	37	58	.48	.59	48	13.2	4.2	8.1	4,600	7,500	1,350	1.01	7.1	18.2	9,400	3.7	24	3,250	3,800	1,080	470	450	920	160	310
Pine, jack (<i>Pinus banksiana</i>)	Wisconsin	Green	5	7	30	105	.39	.46	50	10.4	3.4	6.5	3,000	5,400	920	.56	5.9	21.0	7,800	3.3	32	5,950	7,490	1,080	380	370	760	180	300
Pine, jeffrey (<i>Pinus jeffreyi</i>)	California	Green	5	18	23	101	.37	.42	47	9.9	4.4	6.7	3,200	5,000	960	.60	4.7	14.1	7,200	2.6	21	2,050	2,370	350	320	340	690	160	280
Pine, limber (<i>Pinus flexilis</i>)	New Mexico	Green	2	14	24	68	.37	.42	39	8.2	2.4	5.1	3,900	5,200	800	1.08	5.2	8.3	7,100	2.6	17	4,240	5,530	790	300	310	740	170	270
Pine, loblolly (<i>Pinus taeda</i>)	Florida, Maryland, North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia	Green	56	9	34	81	.47	.54	53	12.3	4.8	7.4	4,100	7,300	1,410	.68	8.2	24.2	8,900	3.0	30	2,550	3,400	480	420	450	850	180	280
Pine, lodgepole (<i>Pinus contorta</i>)	Wyoming, Colorado, Montana	Green	28	24	22	65	.51	.43	39	11.5	4.5	6.7	3,000	5,500	1,080	.49	5.6	11.9	7,200	2.3	30	4,820	7,080	960	750	690	1,370	270	470
Pine, longleaf (<i>Pinus palustris</i>)	Louisiana, Mississippi, Florida, South Carolina	Green	144	14	39	63	.54	.62	55	12.2	5.1	7.5	6,700	9,400	1,340	1.97	6.8	12.1	9,600	3.8	20	4,310	5,370	750	590	490	890	180	290
Pine, mountain (<i>Pinus pungens</i>)	Tennessee	Green	6	15	29	75	.49	.55	54	10.9	3.4	6.8	5,200	8,700	1,600	.95	8.9	32.4	16,100	3.2	35	3,430	4,300	590	550	590	1,040	210	330
Pine, northern white (<i>Pinus strobus</i>)	Wisconsin, Minnesota, New Hampshire	Green	15	13	29	68	.34	.37	36	8.2	2.3	6.0	3,100	5,000	1,020	.54	5.2	10.8	6,700	2.2	29	2,060	2,490	290	310	310	660	140	240
Pine, Norway (<i>Pinus resinosa</i>)	Wisconsin	Green	6	22	41	54	.44	.51	42	11.5	4.6	7.2	3,700	6,400	1,380	.59	5.8	28.4	7,500	2.2	19	3,690	4,840	550	500	490	860	160	300
Pine, pitch (<i>Pinus rigida</i>)	Tennessee, Massachusetts	Green	10	12	28	79	.45	.52	50	10.9	4.0	7.1	3,600	6,800	1,200	.68	9.2	27.9	9,000	3.2	25	5,350	7,340	830	670	580	1,230	200	430
Pine, pond (<i>Pinus rigida serotina</i>)	Florida	Green	5	13	35	56	.50	.58	49	11.2	5.1	7.1	4,500	7,400	1,280	.93	7.5	25.8	9,400	3.2	31	2,940	3,660	540	460	510	940	190	280
Pine, ponderosa (<i>Pinus ponderosa</i>)	Colorado, Washington, Arizona, Montana, California	Green	126	19	30	91	.38	.42	35	9.6	3.9	6.3	3,100	5,000	970	.59	5.1	12.4	6,800	2.5	28	6,300	7,540	1,120	780	740	1,360	240	360
Pine, sand (<i>Pinus clausa</i>)	Florida	Green	6	7	30	36	.45	.51	38	10.0	3.9	7.3	4,100	7,500	1,020	.95	6.6	16.8	9,800	4.0	17	4,060	5,270	740	550	450	1,160	160	490
Pine, shortleaf (<i>Pinus echinata</i>)	Arkansas, Louisiana, North Carolina, New Jersey, Georgia	Green	136	12	31	81	.46	.54	52	12.3	4.4	7.7	3,900	7,300	1,390	.63	8.2	26.1	8,600	2.9	19	3,900	6,920	1,030	950	730	1,100	190	300
Pine, slash (<i>Pinus caribaea</i>)	Florida, Louisiana	Green	30	9	44	66	.56	.66	58	12.2	5.5	7.8	5,100	8,900	1,580	1.02	9.5	30.6	10,800	3.9	33	5,990	7,070	1,000	750	690	1,310	270	470
Pine, sugar (<i>Pinus lambertiana</i>)	California	Green	9	13	32	137	.35	.38	43	7.9	2.9	5.6	3,400	5,100	940	.70	5.4	12.0	7,400	2.6	36	6,280	9,100	1,390	1,090	1,010	1,730	290	570
Pine, western white (<i>Pinus monticola</i>)	Montana, Idaho	Green	15	20	33	54	.36	.42	35	11.8	2.6	5.3	3,400	5,200	1,170	.56	5.0	17.9	7,600	2.6	18	4,140	4,770	590	590	380	1,050	190	350
Piñon (<i>Pinus edulis</i>)	Arizona	Green	3	17	22	63	.50	.57	27	9.9	4.6	5.2	2,600	4,800	1,060	.61	7.6	23.0	8,200	4.2	23	4,480	5,620	540	440	370	850	160	280
Redwood (virgin) (<i>Sequoia sempervirens</i>)	California	Green	16	29	112	57	.33	.42	30	6.8	2.6	4.4	4,800	7,500	1,180	1.18	7.4	15.2	8,900	3.2	12	3,700	4,200	520	570	410	800	170	260
Redwood (second growth, openly grown) (<i>Sequoia sempervirens</i>)	do	Green	6	3	146	28	.28	.31	43	6.3	2.0	4.4	2,900	4,600	640	.68	5.1	6.8	5,900	2.3	14	1,810	2,320	310	390	280	640	160	250
Redwood (second growth, closely grown) (<i>Sequoia sempervirens</i>)	do	Green	8	7	112	32	.32	.36	21	7.4	2.4	5.0	4,200	6,400	760	1.35	4.7	4.9	6,800	2.7	11	2,660	3,810	550	590	340	860	180	280
Spruce, black (<i>Picea mariana</i>)	New Hampshire	Green	5	15	38	38	.38	.43	32	11.3	4.1	6.8	2,900	5,400	1,060	.45	5.7	7.9	9,100	3.2	16	3,750	5,240	640	710	490	890	180	280
Spruce, Engelmann (<i>Picea engelmannii</i>)	Colorado	Green	10	14	35	100	.31	.35	29	10.4	3.4	6.6	5,800	10,300	1,530	1.34	10.5	21.4	13,400	6.2	24	1,540	2,570	180	430	370	860	120	100
Spruce, red (<i>Picea rubra</i>)	Tennessee, New Hampshire	Green	11	18	28	43	.38	.41	34	11.8	3.8	7.8	3,400	5,800	1,190	.58	6.9	16.2	7,200	2.3	18	2,380	2,650	340	410	350	780	150	220
Spruce, Sitka (<i>Picea sitchensis</i>)	Washington, Alaska, Oregon	Green	25	15	35	42	.37	.42	33	11.5	4.3	7.5	3,300	5,700	1,230	.53	6.3	18.3	8,400	4.0	25	4,240	5,690	590	640	490	1,060	180	280
Spruce, white (<i>Picea glauca</i>)	New Hampshire, Alaska, Wisconsin	Green	10	17	26	50	.37	.45	35	13.7	4.7	8.2	6,700	10,200	1,570	1.62	9.4	17.2	11,400	4.2	22	2,130	2,670	340	430	350	760	150	270
Tamarack (<i>Larix laricina</i>)	Wisconsin	Green	5	20	38	52	.49	.56	47	13.6	3.7	7.4	4,200	7,200	1,240	.84	7.2	14.8	7,500	2.7	28	3,790	5,470	570	618	490	1,060	180	280
Yew, Pacific (<i>Taxus brevifolia</i>)	Washington	Green	5	27	44	60	.60	.67	37	9.7	4.0	5.4	8,000	11,600	1,640	2.19	7.1	15.1	15,300	5.4	38	4,780	7,160	990	670	590	1,280	280	460
		Dry				12	.62		44				9,300	15,200	1,350	3.59	18.7	31.1	12,100	6.5	31	4,730	8,100	2,110	2,020	1,600	2,230	260	450

¹ The averages for this species include data from tests representing an unknown number of trees in addition to the number indicated.

COMMON AND BOTANICAL NAMES OF SPECIES (COLUMN 1)

For convenience, the species listed in table 1 are grouped in two major classifications:

(1) Hardwoods, or trees with broad leaves, usually deciduous; (2) softwoods, or trees with needle or scalelike leaves, usually evergreen and most of them cone-bearing. The two groups are also known as hardwoods and conifers. The terms "hardwoods" and "softwoods" are thus indicative of botanical classification. They are not correlated with the actual hardness or softness of the wood. For example, basswood, poplar, aspen, and cottonwood are classified as hardwoods but are in reality among the softest of native woods, whereas longleaf pine, classed as a softwood, is quite hard.

Avoidance of confusion requires a standard nomenclature for species of wood many of which are known by several common names and to several of which a single common name is often applied. The United States Forest Service has adopted such a nomenclature, designating each species by a single common name, in addition to a botanical name about which confusion rarely exists. The official names are used herein and are those given in Check List of the Forest Trees of the United States, their Names and Ranges, except for a few subsequent changes. Page 92 shows the relation between this nomenclature and commercial lumber names (46, 54).

PLACE OF GROWTH OF MATERIAL TESTED (COLUMN 2)

In the second column are listed the States from which the trees furnishing the test specimens were obtained. The locality of growth has in some instances an influence on the strength of timber (p. 43). That this influence is, however, frequently overestimated is indicated by the fact that fully as great differences have been found between stands of different character grown in the same section of the country as between stands grown in widely separated regions within the normal range of growth. For this reason it is considered better to average together the test data on material from the various localities. However, there is a distinct difference in the properties of Douglas fir from the more arid Rocky Mountain region and those of the Douglas fir from the Pacific Northwest. Further, Douglas fir from the so-called "Inland Empire"⁴ region is found to be intermediate in its characteristics between that from the arid Rocky Mountain region and that from the Pacific Northwest. For these reasons separate averages are given for Douglas fir from the Pacific coast, intermediate type, and the Rocky Mountain regions.

MOISTURE CONDITION (COLUMN 3)

Both green and dry material were tested. The resulting data are entered in lines designated "green" and "dry", respectively, in column 3.

Values in the first of each pair of lines beginning with column 3 of table 1 are from tests on green material. Although the moisture content varies among the different species, all tests on green wood were made at approximately the moisture content of the living tree,

⁴ Northwestern Montana, Idaho north of the Salmon River, Washington east of the Cascade Mountains, and the northeastern tip of Oregon.

which is above the limit ⁵ below which differences in moisture content affect the strength properties.

The strength of dry or partially dry wood depends greatly on the particular stage of dryness and on the distribution of the moisture. Values pertaining to a uniformly distributed moisture content of 12 percent are listed in the second of each pair of lines beginning with column 3. These values were obtained by adjusting values obtained from tests made at various moisture contents. The moisture basis adopted (12 percent) represents an average air-dry condition attained without artificial heat by thoroughly seasoned wood over a considerable portion of the United States, including the Lake States region.

Table 1 shows that in most strength properties the dry material in the form of small, clear specimens excels the green. In large timbers, however, the increased strength of the wood fibers is usually offset by checks and other defects resulting from drying, so that as large increases in strength values as in small specimens cannot be expected.

Except where data on dry material are specifically required, or where significant differences in increase with seasoning is involved, the data on green material are preferable for comparing species, because they are based on a larger number of tests.

NUMBER OF TREES TESTED (COLUMN 4)

The number of trees from which specimens were obtained is stated in the fourth column of table 1. The average values for the more important species represent groups of trees from different localities. Five trees of a species were selected, as a rule, from a single locality.

NUMBER OF RINGS PER INCH (COLUMN 5)

The number of rings per inch measures the rate of growth in diameter or radius of the trees from which the test specimens were cut. Rings per inch were counted along a radial line on the end section of each specimen. One ring, consisting of a band of spring wood and a band of summer wood, is formed during each year. Few rings per inch indicate fast growth, and conversely.

Rate of growth of many species is quite variable, and the values listed are to be regarded mainly as averages of the material tested. Rate of growth does not have a definite relation to strength in the sense of strength being proportional, either directly or inversely, to the rate of growth (p. 44).

SUMMER WOOD (COLUMN 6)

Column 6 shows the proportion of summer wood in the material tested, as measured along a representative radial line. Summer wood is usually much denser than spring wood⁶ of the same species so that within a species the proportion of summer wood is indicative

⁵ Green wood contains "absorbed", or "imbibed", water within the cell walls and "free" water in the cell cavities. The free water from the cell cavities is the first to be evaporated in drying. The fiber-saturation point is that point at which no water exists in the cell cavities of the timber but at which the cell walls are still saturated with moisture. The fiber-saturation point varies with the species (*18*). The ordinary proportion of moisture—based on the weight of the dry wood—at the fiber-saturation point is about 30 percent. Most strength properties of wood begin to increase, and shrinkage begins to occur, when the fiber-saturation point is reached in seasoning.

⁶ Numerous determinations have shown that in the southern pines specific gravity of the summer wood is usually from 2 to 3 times as great as that of the spring wood.

of the specific gravity, and hence, of strength. It is difficult to measure the proportion of summer wood accurately and when the change from spring wood to summer wood is not marked or the contrast between them is not sharp, as in many species, the difficulty is even greater. For this reason the proportion of summer wood is given for only part of the species tested.

Summer wood is unusually well differentiated from spring wood in the southern yellow pines and Douglas fir. Some of the structural grading rules for these species involve, among other features, the selection of pieces showing one-third or more summer wood, such material being awarded as a premium higher working stresses (54, 61).

MOISTURE CONTENT (COLUMN 7)

Moisture content is the weight of water contained in the wood, expressed as a percentage of the weight of the oven-dry wood. Since it is thus expressed it is useful to remember that with a given moisture content in percent a block of wood of a given size contains more weight or volume of water if the wood is heavy than if it is light. Moisture content is commonly determined by weighing a sample and then drying it at 212° F. (100° C.) until the weight becomes constant. The loss of weight divided by the weight of the oven-dry wood is the proportion of moisture in the piece. "Moisture" as thus determined is subject to some inaccuracy, because the loss in weight includes that of any substances other than moisture that evaporate at 100° C. Also some constituents other than actual wood substance are not evaporated. Errors from these sources are not sufficient to affect the practical application of the data given in column 7.

The moisture content listed in table 1 for green material is the average for specimens taken from the pith to the circumference of the log. Hence it represents a combination of the moisture as found in the heartwood and in the sapwood, although not in proportion to the amount of wood represented by each. In each instance 12 percent is entered as the moisture content of "dry" material, because the data have all been adjusted to this basis.

As shown by table 1, the average moisture content of the green wood varies widely among species. Also moisture content often differs between heartwood and sapwood of the same species and in some instances varies with height in the tree. Many coniferous species have a large proportion of moisture in the sapwood and much less in the heartwood. Most hardwoods on the other hand show much more nearly the same moisture content in heartwood and sapwood (p. 29). Extreme limits observed in the moisture content of green wood range from as low as 30 to 40 percent in the heartwood of such species as black locust, white ash, Douglas fir, southern pines, and various cedars to about 200 percent in the sapwood of some coniferous species. In the heartwood of some species the moisture content is high at the base of the tree and becomes less toward the top. For example, in green redwood trees examined at the Forest Products Laboratory, the heartwood decreased in average moisture content from 160 percent at stump height to 60 percent at heights above 100 feet. In this instance the sapwood increased slightly in percentage moisture with height in tree.

SPECIFIC GRAVITY (COLUMNS 8 AND 9)

Specific gravity is the relation of the weight of a substance to that of an equal volume of water.

The volume occupied by a specified weight of wood substance changes with the shrinking and swelling caused by changes in moisture content. In table 1, three values of specific gravity are given for each species. They correspond to volumes when green, at 12-percent moisture, and oven-dry, and each is based on the weight of the wood when oven-dry. The number of pounds of wood (exclusive of moisture) in a cubic foot at either of the three moisture conditions may be found by multiplying the specific gravity figure by 62.4. To get the weight per cubic foot of the wood plus that of the associated water, multiply by the factor:

$$1 + \frac{\text{percentage moisture content}}{100}$$

Additional data on the specific gravity of a number of species are presented on page 30. For some species these data are more extensive than those of table 1.

SPECIFIC GRAVITY BASED ON VOLUME WHEN GREEN (COLUMN 8)

Values of specific gravity, based on weight when oven-dry and volume when green, are determined from weights and measurements of specimens tested when green. The weight when oven-dry is computed by dividing the weight when green by 1 plus the proportion of moisture, as found from a moisture determination on the same specimen.

The specific-gravity values based on volume when green, as listed in column 8, are averages of determinations made on each green test specimen. The number of determinations is much larger in most instances than those of specific gravity based on volume when air-dry or when oven-dry.

SPECIFIC GRAVITY BASED ON VOLUME WHEN AIR-DRY (COLUMN 8)

Specific gravity based on volume when air-dry is found in the same manner as that based on volume when green, except that the volume measurements are made on air-dry material. The values for air-dry wood listed in column 8 are adjusted to a volume basis corresponding to 12-percent moisture content.

SPECIFIC GRAVITY BASED ON VOLUME WHEN OVEN-DRY (COLUMN 9)

In determining the specific gravity based on volume when oven-dry, the volume as well as the weight is taken after the specimens are oven-dried to practically constant weight at 100° C.

Specific gravity, as listed in column 9, and shrinkage in volume, as listed in column 11, were determined on the same specimens of which there were usually 4 to 6 from a tree.

The difference between specific gravity based on volume when green and that on volume when air-dry or oven-dry, is due to shrinkage, and either specific gravity may be determined from the other if the corresponding shrinkage in volume is known. For example, specific gravity based on weight and volume when oven-dry equals specific

gravity based on weight when oven-dry and volume when green divided by

$$\left(1 - \frac{\text{percent volumetric shrinkage}}{100}\right)$$

As the determinations of specific gravity, based on volume when oven-dry, and of volumetric shrinkage were made on only a few specimens from each bolt, they are not related to specific gravity based on weight when oven-dry and volume when green in exact accordance with this equation.

WEIGHT PER CUBIC FOOT (COLUMN 10)

Changes in moisture content affect the weight of a piece of wood. When the moisture content is below the value at the fiber-saturation point (p. 48), changes in the moisture content also affect the volume of the piece. Consequently, in order to be specific in stating weight per cubic foot, various degrees of dryness must be recognized.

Green or freshly cut wood, contains, as shown in column 7, a considerable proportion of water. After being dried by exposure to the air until the weight is practically constant, wood is said to be "air-dry." If dried in an oven at 212° F. (100° C.) until all moisture is driven off, wood is "oven-dry."

The weights per cubic foot presented in table 1 are based on weights and volumes of small, clear specimens taken usually from the top 4 feet of 16-foot butt logs of typical trees. Because the wood from such portions is often heavier than that from higher in the tree, material thus selected averages slightly heavier than the wood in ordinary timbers, poles, posts, or railway ties.

WEIGHT PER CUBIC FOOT WHEN GREEN

The value for green wood as given in column 10 includes the moisture in the wood as received at the laboratory, and because protection from seasoning was afforded during transit and pending test, it represents closely the weight of the wood as it comes from the living tree. The weight when green is based on the average of heartwood and sapwood pieces as represented by test specimens taken from pith to circumference. In those species which have a higher moisture content in the sapwood, variations in the proportion of sapwood are accompanied by comparatively large variations in weight per cubic foot of green material.

The weights per cubic foot in column 10 correspond to the average moisture-content values listed in column 7. When in specific instances there are large differences in moisture content between heartwood and sapwood and the proportion of sapwood in logs or other products is known, better estimates of the weight per cubic foot when green may be obtained by correcting the value given in column 7 to a suitable moisture content. For example, the weight and moisture content of ponderosa pine are given in table 1 as 45 pounds per cubic foot and 91 percent, respectively. The average moisture content of ponderosa pine logs having 75 percent sapwood by volume is computed on page 30 as 121 percent. The estimated weight of such logs is then

$$45 \left(\frac{100 + 121}{100 + 91} \right) = 51\frac{3}{4} \text{ pounds per cubic foot.}$$

WEIGHT PER CUBIC FOOT WHEN AIR-DRY

Weight per cubic foot depends upon the amount of moisture in the wood which in turn depends on the species, the size and form of the pieces, the length of the seasoning period, and on the rapidity of seasoning as governed by the climate. The average air-dry condition reached in the northern Central States by wood that is sheltered from rain and snow and not artificially heated, is a moisture content of about 12 percent. The values for dry wood in column 10 apply to this moisture content. The moisture content of thoroughly air-dry wood may be 3 to 5 percent higher in humid regions, and in very dry climates, as much lower. It also varies slightly from day to day because of changes in temperature and atmospheric humidity. Large timbers will have a slightly higher average moisture content when thoroughly air-dry than small pieces. Species vary in the rate at which they give off moisture in drying, and also in the rate at which they take up moisture during periods of wet or damp weather.

Changes of several percent in the moisture content of dry wood cause only small changes in the weight per cubic foot, because of two actions which tend to counteract one another. The weight decreases as drying takes place because of the loss of moisture. At the same time shrinkage reduces the volume. Conversely, both weight and volume increase as moisture is absorbed.

Weight per cubic foot at a moisture content near 12 percent may be estimated from that at 12 percent by assuming that one-half percent increase or decrease in weight accompanies an increase or decrease of 1 percent in moisture content. Thus, raising the moisture content from 12 to 14 percent increases the weight per cubic foot about 1 percent and in drying from 12- down to 8-percent moisture content the weight per cubic foot is reduced about 2 percent.

SHRINKAGE (COLUMNS 11, 12, AND 13)

Shrinkage across the grain (in width and thickness) results when wood loses some of the absorbed moisture (pp. 6, 48). Conversely, swelling occurs when dry or partially dry wood is soaked or when it takes moisture from the air or other source. Shrinkage and swelling in the direction of the grain (length) of normal wood is only a small fraction of 1 percent and is too small to be of practical importance in most uses of wood.⁷ All shrinkages are expressed as percentages of the original or green dimensions.

Column 11 lists for the various species the shrinkage in volume from the green to the oven-dry condition. The values are averages from actual volume determinations on small specimens.

In columns 12 and 13 are average values of the measured radial and tangential shrinkages in drying standard specimens from the green to the oven-dry condition. Radial shrinkage is that across the annual growth rings as in the width of a quarter-sawed board. Tangential shrinkage is that approximately parallel to the annual-growth rings as in the width of a flat-sawed board.

The shrinkage of any piece of wood depends on numerous factors, some of which have not been thoroughly studied. In all species listed in table 1 the radial shrinkage is less than the tangential. Hence,

⁷ Appreciable longitudinal shrinkage is associated with "compression wood", and other abnormal wood structure (p. 72).

quarter-sawed (edge-grained) boards shrink less in width but more in thickness than flat-sawed boards. The smaller the ratio of radial to tangential shrinkage for a species, the greater is the advantage to be gained through minimizing shrinkage in width by using quarter-sawed wood. Also, the less the difference between radial and tangential shrinkage, the less ordinarily is the tendency of the wood to check in drying and to cup when its moisture content changes.

Air-dry wood takes on or gives off moisture with each change in weather or heating conditions. The fact that time is required for these moisture changes, causes a lag between atmospheric changes and their full effect on the moisture condition of the wood. The lag is greater in some species than in others, greater in heartwood than in sapwood, and is much less in small than in large pieces. It is increased by protective coatings such as paint, enamel, or varnish. Some species whose shrinkage from the green to the oven-dry condition is large cause less inconvenience in use than woods with lower total shrinkage, because their moisture content does not respond to atmospheric changes so closely. The shrinkage figures given do not take into account the readiness with which the species take on and give off moisture, and therefore should be considered as the relative shrinkage between woods after long exposure to fairly uniform atmospheric conditions or with the same change in moisture content.

The values listed in columns 11, 12, and 13 are shrinkages from the green to the oven-dry condition and thus are much greater than ordinarily occur in the seasoning of wood or with changes in moisture content subsequent to seasoning. About half the listed value represents the shrinkage from green to the average air-dry condition of 12 to 15 percent moisture. A change in moisture content of dry material by 1 percent may be expected to produce a percentage shrinkage or swelling of about one twenty-fifth of the value listed in columns 11, 12, or 13.

MECHANICAL PROPERTIES (COLUMNS 14 TO 30)

Columns 14 to 30 inclusive list the average values obtained from tests made according to the standardized procedure (pp. 4, 78). For convenience and ease of reference, each of the column headings is discussed independently in the order in which it appears in the table. The reliability of the averages and the significance of differences between species is discussed in a later section on variability. Appreciation of the significance of the values and of how they should be modified to apply to conditions of use differing from those under which the tests were made will be enhanced by study of later discussions, particularly those on form factors and effect of duration of stress. Modifications to make them applicable to material affected by various types of defects are indicated by the discussion of factors affecting strength.

STRESS AT PROPORTIONAL LIMIT, STATIC BENDING (COLUMN 14)

The proportional limit in any test is the limit of proportionality between load (or stress) and deformation (or strain). When load is increased by a given percentage without passing this limit, deformation increases by the same percentage. With an increase in load beyond the proportional-limit value, deformation increases by a

greater percentage than the load. Both these facts are illustrated by the load-deflection graph shown on page 80.

In accordance with current practice (3) in the field of testing materials this bulletin uses "proportional limit", instead of "elastic limit", as used in previous Forest Service publications, to designate the limit of proportionality between stress and strain or between load and deformation.

The determination of the proportional limit in any test is subject to uncertainty because it is somewhat dependent on the increments of load and deflection used in testing and on personal judgment in locating the point of departure from the straight-line relation in such a diagram as shown on page 80. Values of load and deformation at proportional limit for wooden members depend on the rate at which the load is increased and on the length of time it acts on the member. This is illustrated by the fact that stress and deformation at proportional limit are much greater in impact bending, in which the specimen is subjected to instantaneous shocks, than in static bending in which the load increases at a moderate rate.

Because a piece stressed within the proportional limit recovers from its deformation on removal of the load and release of the piece from stress, the proportional limit is sometimes called the elastic limit.

Tests have demonstrated that loads in bending or in compression parallel to grain that exceed the proportional-limit values as found from tests made at the standard speeds (4) will ultimately cause failure if they continue to act on a wooden member. Thus, these proportional-limit values of stress are upper limits to the stresses that can be used in the design of permanent structures. In determining safe working stresses, factors of safety must be applied to average values of stress at proportional limit in order to allow for variations below the average and to provide for the contingency that the member will be loaded more heavily than was assumed in its design. The effects of duration and repetition of stress are discussed on page 59.

Stress at proportional limit in static bending (column 14) is the stress that exists in the top and bottom fibers of a beam at the proportional limit load. It is in general applicable to clear beams of rectangular cross section, although a slight adjustment is necessary to adapt values from the standard 2- by 2-inch specimen to pieces of other sizes. In estimating the strength of beams of special forms, such as I, circular, box, or diamond-shaped cross sections, on the basis of the data derived from square specimens as presented herein, the effect of the shape and proportions of the section (p. 63) must be considered.

MODULUS OF RUPTURE, STATIC BENDING (COLUMN 15)

Modulus of rupture is the computed stress in the top and bottom fibers of a beam at the maximum load and is a measure of the ability of a beam to support a slowly applied load for a short time. The formula by which it is computed is based on assumptions that are valid only to the proportional limit, hence modulus of rupture is not a true stress. It is, however, a widely accepted term and values for various species are quite comparable.

Since the modulus of rupture is based on the maximum load, which is directly determinable, it is less influenced by personal and other factors than proportional limit values.

The modulus-of-rupture values are used to compare the bending strengths of different species, and in conjunction with the results of tests on timbers containing defects to determine safe working stresses for structural timbers.

Like stress at proportional limit, modulus of rupture as found from the standard 2- by 2-inch specimens requires some modification to adapt it to square or rectangular beams of other sizes or to make it applicable to beams of I, circular, box, or diamond-shaped cross section (p. 63).

MODULUS OF ELASTICITY, STATIC BENDING (COLUMN 16)

Modulus of elasticity is a measure of the stiffness or rigidity of a material. The deflection of a beam under load varies inversely as the modulus of elasticity; that is, the higher the modulus the less the deflection. Modulus of elasticity is useful for computing the deflections of joists, beams, and stringers under loads that do not cause stress beyond the proportional limit. It is also used in computing the load that can be carried by a long column, because for such columns the load depends on the stiffness, and not on the crushing strength of the wood parallel to the grain.

Some of the deflection that occurs in the bending of a wooden beam is due to shear distortion, the amount varying with the proportions of the piece and the placement of the load. About one-tenth of the deformation measured in tests of the standard bending specimen is due to shearing distortion. The true moduli of elasticity are consequently about 10 percent higher than the values in column 16.

WORK TO PROPORTIONAL LIMIT, STATIC BENDING (COLUMN 17)

Work to proportional limit in static bending, as the name implies, is a measure of the energy that the beam absorbs in being stressed to the proportional limit. Since work is the product of average force times the distance moved, work to proportional limit involves both the load and the deflection at the proportional limit.

Values of work to proportional limit may be used to compare the ability of different species to withstand a combination of high load and high deflection without appreciable injury. Hence, they measure the toughness of a piece of the elastic limit. It is a comparative property only and cannot be used directly like modulus of rupture in strength calculations.

WORK TO MAXIMUM LOAD, STATIC BENDING (COLUMN 18)

Work to maximum load in static bending represents the capacity of the timber to absorb shocks that cause stress beyond the proportional limit and are great enough to cause some permanent deformation and more or less injury to the timber. It is a measure of the combined strength and toughness of a material under bending stresses. Superiority in this quality makes hickory better than ash, and oak better than longleaf pine for such uses as handles and vehicle parts subjected to shock. Work to maximum load is closely related to height of drop in impact bending as a measure of shock resistance.

Work-to-maximum-load values cannot be used directly in design, but, like many others, their usefulness is limited to comparisons.

TOTAL WORK, STATIC BENDING (COLUMN 19)

Total work in static bending is a measure of the toughness under bending stresses that cause complete failure. Like work to maximum load, it is a measure of that quality which makes hickory a superior wood for handles, and other uses involving shock resistance. It is also indicative of the same quality as is measured by height of drop in impact bending.

STRESS AT PROPORTIONAL LIMIT, IMPACT BENDING (COLUMN 20)

The stress at proportional limit is the computed stress in the top and bottom fibers of the beam at the proportional limit (pp. 11, 84). The stress at proportional limit averages approximately twice as great in impact as in static bending. It is mainly of use in comparing species with respect to their elastic behavior under impact loads. Stress at proportional limit is the only stress computed from the standard-impact-bending test.

It is impossible from the measurements made in this test to find the maximum force between the hammer and the specimen or to compute a maximum stress value analogous to modulus of rupture in static bending. That such a value would, if determined, be considerably higher than modulus of rupture is demonstrated by the fact that stress at proportional limit in impact averages somewhat higher than modulus of rupture. In a few tests in which specimens were broken by a single impact and the maximum force acting on the specimen found from records of the deceleration of the hammer, the computed maximum stress was approximately 75 percent higher than modulus of rupture of similar specimens tested in static bending (58).

WORK TO PROPORTIONAL LIMIT, IMPACT BENDING (COLUMN 21)

The work to proportional limit in impact bending is a measure of the energy that the beam absorbs in being stressed to the proportional limit. It involves both the deflection and the stress at proportional limit. Work to proportional limit is used to compare the ability of a timber to absorb shock and recover promptly without injury. It represents a quality important in such products as tool handles or tennis rackets. The values apply only to the resistance to falling bodies or like conditions in which the stress is applied and removed in a fraction of a second.

HEIGHT OF DROP OF HAMMER, IMPACT BENDING (COLUMN 22)

The height of drop of the hammer in impact bending is the height from which the 50-pound hammer is finally dropped to cause complete failure of the standard test specimen. It is a comparative figure expressing the ability of wood to absorb shock that causes stresses beyond the proportional limit. It represents a quality important in such articles as handles, and picker sticks, which are stressed in service beyond the proportional limit. Wood requiring a large height of drop to produce failure usually exhibits a splintering fracture when broken, whereas a small height of drop is associated with a brittle fracture.

STRESS AT PROPORTIONAL LIMIT, COMPRESSION PARALLEL TO GRAIN (COLUMN 23)

Stress at proportional limit is the greatest stress at which the compressive load remains proportional to the shortening of the specimen (pp. 11, 86).

The stress at proportional limit is applicable to clear compression members for which the ratio of length to least dimension does not exceed 11 to 1. It is the limiting stress in compression parallel to grain which should not be exceeded in determining safe loads. The stress at proportional limit in compression parallel to grain is taken into account in arriving at safe working stresses for short columns and other compression members, determining design values for bolted joints and the like. The stress at proportional limit averages about 80 percent of the maximum crushing strength for coniferous woods, and 75 percent for hardwoods.

MAXIMUM CRUSHING STRENGTH, COMPRESSION PARALLEL TO GRAIN (COLUMN 24)

Maximum crushing strength is the maximum ability of a short piece to sustain a slowly applied end load over a short period. It is applicable to clear compression members whose ratio of length to least dimension does not exceed 11. This property is important in estimating endwise crushing strength of wood, and in developing safe working stresses for structural timbers, design of bolted joints, and the like.

Maximum crushing strength is one of the simplest properties to determine. It is usually less adversely affected by various treatments or processes applied to wood than other strength properties, and hence should not be regarded as representative of other strength properties in appraising the effect of such treatments.

STRESS AT PROPORTIONAL LIMIT, COMPRESSION PERPENDICULAR TO GRAIN (COLUMN 25)

Stress at proportional limit is the maximum across-the-grain stress of a few minutes duration that can be applied without injury through a plate 2 inches wide and covering but a portion of the timber surface. It is useful in deriving safe working stresses in compression perpendicular to grain, for computing the bearing area for beams, stringers, and joists, and in comparing species for railroad ties and other uses in which this property is important.

In compression perpendicular to grain, particularly if the load is applied to only part of the surface area as in this test, wood does not exhibit a true ultimate or maximum strength as in compression parallel to grain and static bending; but the load continues to increase until the block is badly crushed and flattened out. Hence, no ultimate or maximum strength value is obtained.

In the standard test procedure, the specimen is placed with the direction of the annual growth rings parallel to the direction of the load except when this is impossible, such as with specimens from near the pith of the tree. Thus the load is applied to the radial face, but it should be pointed out that the fiber stress at proportional limit in compression perpendicular to grain like other across-the-grain properties of wood are very appreciably affected by ring placement.

Although there appears to be no consistent difference in fiber stress at proportional limit when the rings are parallel and perpendicular respectively to the direction of the applied load, appreciably lower values obtain when the rings are at an angle of 45° . This fact is of practical importance in timber design and use.

The fiber stress at proportional limit in compression perpendicular to grain depends also on the size of plate with respect to the length of the test specimen. With the surface of the specimen but partly covered, there is a component of tension parallel to grain at the edge of the plate, in addition to the compressive stress proper. Values of proportional limit lower than those obtained with the standard test are found when the plate covers the entire surface of the test specimen, and higher values result when the width of plate is decreased. The method of test employing a plate covering but part of the surface is somewhat analogous to the bearing conditions in service where a joist or beam rests on its supports.

HARDNESS (COLUMNS 26 AND 27)

Hardness is the load required to embed a 0.444-inch ball to one-half its diameter in the wood. It represents a property important in wood subjected to wear and marring, such as flooring, furniture, railroad ties, and paving blocks. The hardness test provides data for comparing different pieces or different species of wood, but the results cannot be used for calculating the size of members, as can such properties as modulus of rupture.

Hardness tests are made on end, radial, and tangential surfaces. End hardness values are given in column 26. There is no significant difference between radial and tangential hardness, and they are averaged together as "side hardness" in column 27.

In determining side hardness the principal stress is perpendicular to the grain, but because of the depth of penetration of the ball, a considerable component of end-grain hardness is introduced in the load. Likewise the end-hardness values reflect a component of side-grain hardness. Although end hardness is usually higher than side hardness, it is evident that the two are closely related.

Although hardness is the best available index of the ability of wood to resist wear, it is not so good a criterion of suitability as would be actual comparisons from some kind of abrasion tests that would more nearly simulate service conditions. However, no abrasion test for wood has yet been standardized and systematic results are not available.

MAXIMUM SHEARING STRENGTH, SHEAR PARALLEL TO GRAIN (COLUMN 28)

Maximum shearing strength is the average stress required to shear off from the test specimen a projecting lip having a length in the direction of the grain of 2 inches. Shearing strength parallel to the grain is a measure of the ability of timber to resist slipping of one part upon another along the grain. Shearing stress is produced in most uses of timber. It is important in beams, where it is known as horizontal shear—the stress tending to cause the upper half of the beam to slide upon the lower—and in the design of various kinds of joints.

It is difficult to devise a test that involves only shearing stress. A tensile component perpendicular to the grain of the wood influences the results of tests made by the standard method, but in general, the same effect in varying degree obtains in other methods in use or proposed. In obtaining the average shear values presented, a uniform distribution of stress throughout the shearing area is assumed, although it is not certain that uniformity obtains. The maximum shearing strength also varies with the amount of offset between the shearing force and the line of support of the specimen. Comparable values are obtained by standardizing the test procedure as in this series of tests.

LOAD TO CAUSE SPLITTING, CLEAVAGE (COLUMN 29)

Cleavage is the maximum load required to cause splitting of the standard specimen. It is expressed in pounds per inch of width.

It is evident that the maximum load in cleavage depends on the width and length of the specimen. In order to insure comparable results, the standard length of 3 inches is always maintained. The cleavage strength, like some of the other properties cannot be used directly for calculating required sizes of wood members or in similar design problems, but is useful mainly for comparisons. This test differs from the action of nails in splitting wood when driven, and should not be taken as a criterion of the relative resistance of the different species to such splitting.

MAXIMUM TENSILE STRENGTH, TENSION PERPENDICULAR TO GRAIN (COLUMN 30)

The maximum tensile strength perpendicular to the grain is the average maximum stress sustained across the grain by the wood.

The tabulated values are obtained by dividing the maximum load by the tension area. It is recognized that the tensile stress is not uniformly distributed over the area. Consequently, the values probably do not represent a true tensile strength. They are, nevertheless, useful for comparing species and for estimating the resistance of timber to forces acting across the grain.

VARIABILITY

Variability is common to all materials. If one tests pieces of wire from a roll, the loads necessary to pull the wire apart will vary. Likewise, the breaking strengths of different pieces of the same kind of string or rope are not the same. Materials, however, differ considerably in the amount of variation or the spread of values.

The growing tree is subject to numerous constantly changing influences that affect the wood produced, and it is not surprising that even the clear wood is variable in strength and other properties. The factors affecting tree growth include, soil, moisture, temperature, growing space, and heredity.

Everyone who has handled and used lumber has encountered variability and observed that different pieces even of the same species, are not exactly alike. The differences most commonly recognized are in the appearance, but even greater differences in weight and in strength properties occur and may be of greater importance.

The variability of wood can be illustrated by considering as an example the data on specific gravity of Douglas fir presented in table 2.

These data show that the specific gravity of the heaviest piece included in the series was nearly twice that of the lightest, and that the number of very heavy and very light pieces is small. Most of the values are grouped closely about the average.

TABLE 2.—Results of specific gravity determinations on 1,240 samples of Douglas fir (coast type)

Specific gravity ¹ group limits	Pieces in group		Specific gravity ¹ group limits	Pieces in group	
	Number	Percent		Number	Percent
0.300 to 0.309	2	0.16	0.460 to 0.469	96	7.74
0.310 to 0.319	7	.56	0.470 to 0.479	74	5.97
0.320 to 0.329	6	.48	0.480 to 0.489	70	5.65
0.330 to 0.339	15	1.21	0.490 to 0.499	56	4.52
0.340 to 0.349	13	1.05	0.500 to 0.509	46	3.71
0.350 to 0.359	23	1.85	0.510 to 0.519	41	3.31
0.360 to 0.369	25	2.02	0.520 to 0.529	30	2.42
0.370 to 0.379	38	3.06	0.530 to 0.539	23	1.85
0.380 to 0.389	47	3.79	0.540 to 0.549	12	.97
0.390 to 0.399	64	5.16	0.550 to 0.559	9	.73
0.400 to 0.409	75	6.05	0.560 to 0.569	10	.81
0.410 to 0.419	85	6.86	0.570 to 0.579	4	.32
0.420 to 0.429	76	6.13	0.580 to 0.589	1	.08
0.430 to 0.439	99	7.98	0.590 to 0.599	3	.24
0.440 to 0.449	100	8.06			
0.450 to 0.459	90	7.26	Total	1,240	100.00

¹ Based on weight when oven-dry and volume when green. Average specific gravity equals 0.445; highest observed specific gravity, 0.549; lowest, 0.308.

The manner in which the values are grouped about an average is called a frequency distribution, from which the chances that a random piece will differ from the average by a given amount can be estimated by computation. Such calculations, for example, assuming that the specific-gravity values conform to a so-called normal distribution, leads to the expectation that one-half of the Douglas fir samples would be within 7.9 percent of the average specific gravity, or within the limits 0.41 and 0.48 inclusive, and that one-fourth would be below 0.41 and one-fourth above 0.48. The figure defining such limits, 7.9 percent in this instance, is called the probable variation. By actual count 654 of the pieces or 52.7 percent of the total number (1,240) have a specific gravity between 0.41 and 0.48, whereas 25.4 percent (315) were below 0.38 and 21.9 percent (271) were above 0.48. Thus, as might be expected, the calculated percentages do not agree exactly with the actual count. Nevertheless, the agreement is sufficiently close to show the value of the theory in estimating the variability.

The range in strength properties can be studied and used as a basis for making estimates in a like manner.

After tests have been made it is, of course, easy to determine from the results the proportion of the test pieces within any given range, but one can only estimate the reliability of the averages and the degree to which this test data applies to other pieces. One would like to know the true average for each species, a quantity which cannot actually be determined. The best that can be done is to assume that the laws of chance are operative and thus estimate the probability of variations of given magnitude from the averages found. Such is the basis of the suggestions for estimating variability by means of data presented herein.

It would be desirable to present a measure of the variability of each property of each species. However, the extensive calculations involving all properties and species have not been made; and if available, their presentation would be involved. Although it is known that all species are not equally variable, existing information indicates that they are enough alike that estimates made on the assumption that the percentage variability in any one property is the same for all species will be sufficiently accurate for approximate calculations.

The questions that most frequently arise in a consideration of the variability of wood, are of two types:

(1) What is the significance of the differences between average values for two species or what is the likelihood that the averages will be changed a specified amount by additional tests?

(2) What is the range that includes a specified proportion of material of a species, or what is the likelihood that a piece selected at random will be within a specified range?

VARIATION OF AVERAGE VALUES

The probable variations of observed averages from the true averages enables one to appraise the significance of differences between observed averages. The estimated probable variation of the observed average from the true average of a species, when based on different numbers of trees, is given in table 3. The percentage probable variations listed in table 3 being average values for a number of species, an occasional species may be considerably more or less variable than indicated.

TABLE 3.—Percentages probable variation¹ of the observed average from the true average of a species, when based on material from different numbers of trees

Trees..... number.....	1	2	3	4	5	10	15	20	30	40	50
Specific gravity based on volume when green.....	4.7	3.3	2.7	2.4	2.1	1.5	1.2	1.0	0.9	0.7	0.7
Shrinkage:											
Radial.....	11.6	8.2	6.7	5.8	5.2	3.7	3.0	2.6	2.1	1.8	1.6
Tangential.....	9.0	6.4	5.2	4.5	4.0	2.8	2.3	2.0	1.6	1.4	1.3
Volumetric.....	8.8	6.2	5.1	4.4	3.9	2.8	2.3	2.0	1.6	1.4	1.2
Static bending:											
Fiber stress at proportional limit.....	11.2	7.9	6.4	5.6	5	3.5	2.9	2.5	2.0	1.8	1.6
Modulus of rupture.....	8.9	6.3	5.2	4.5	4	2.8	2.3	2.0	1.6	1.4	1.3
Modulus of elasticity.....	11.2	7.9	6.4	5.6	5	3.5	2.9	2.5	2.0	1.8	1.6
Work to proportional limit.....	15.6	11.1	9.0	7.8	7	5.0	4.0	3.5	2.9	2.5	2.2
Work to maximum load.....	13.4	9.5	7.7	6.7	6	4.2	3.5	3.0	2.4	2.1	1.9
Impact bending:											
Fiber stress at proportional limit.....	8.9	6.3	5.2	4.5	4	2.8	2.3	2.0	1.6	1.4	1.3
Work to proportional limit.....	11.2	7.9	6.4	5.6	5	3.5	2.9	2.5	2.0	1.8	1.6
Height of drop.....	15.6	11.1	9.0	7.8	7	5.0	4.0	3.5	2.9	2.5	2.2
Compression parallel to grain:											
Fiber stress at proportional limit.....	11.2	7.9	6.4	5.6	5	3.5	2.9	2.5	2.0	1.8	1.6
Maximum crushing strength.....	8.9	6.3	5.2	4.5	4	2.8	2.3	2.0	1.6	1.4	1.3
Compression perpendicular to grain:											
Fiber stress at proportional limit.....	13.4	9.5	7.7	6.7	6	4.2	3.5	3.0	2.4	2.1	1.9
Hardness, end.....	8.9	6.3	5.2	4.5	4	2.8	2.3	2.0	1.6	1.4	1.3
Hardness, side.....	11.2	7.9	6.4	5.6	5	3.5	2.9	2.5	2.0	1.8	1.6
Shearing strength parallel to grain.....	6.7	4.7	3.9	3.4	3	2.1	1.7	1.5	1.2	1.1	.9
Tension perpendicular to grain.....	11.2	7.9	6.4	5.6	5	3.5	2.9	2.5	2.0	1.8	1.6

¹ The percentage probable variation of the average of a species is a figure such that there is an even chance that the true average is within this percentage of the observed average in table 1.

The observed average is always the most probable value of the true average. The importance of the differences between species with

respect to averages depends on the magnitude of this difference in relation to the probable variation of the averages, as well as on how exacting the strength requirements are for the particular use under consideration.

If the averages of any property of two species of table 1 differ by an amount equal to the probable variation of the difference,⁸ there is 1 chance in 4 that the true average for the species which is lower in that property on the basis of present data equals or exceeds the true average of the other. There is also 1 chance in 4 that the true average for the higher species exceeds that of the lower one by as much as twice the observed difference. When the averages differ by amounts that are ½, 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5 times the probable variation of their difference the chances of the true average of the lower species equaling or exceeding the true average of the higher, or of the observed difference being at least doubled are given in the following tabulation:

	<i>Multiples</i>	<i>Chance</i>
½	-----	1 in 2¾.
1	-----	1 in 4.
2	-----	1 in 11.
3	-----	1 in 46.
4	-----	1 in 285.
5	-----	1 in 2,850.

As an example, consider the average values for modulus of rupture of 9,300 and 9,600 pounds per square inch for Biltmore white ash and blue ash, respectively, in the green condition (table 1). These averages being based on five trees of each species the probable variation according to table 3 is 4 percent. Then 4 percent of 9,300 equals 372, and 4 percent of 9,600 equals 384, the probable variations of these averages. The probable variation of the difference between the averages is then $\sqrt{(372)^2 + (384)^2}$ or 535; the observed difference in the averages for modulus of rupture (9,600-9,300) is 300. The ratio of the observed difference to the estimated probable variation being less than 1, it may be estimated from the tabulation that the chance that the true average modulus of rupture for Biltmore white ash equals or exceeds that for blue ash is somewhat greater than 1 in 4. There is the same chance that the true average of blue ash exceeds that for Biltmore white ash by as much as 600 or twice the difference in present average figures as shown in table 1. Therefore, the difference in modulus of rupture between blue ash and Biltmore white ash is not to be regarded as significant.

As a second example, consider the figures for modulus of rupture of 9,400 and 8,300 for sweet birch and yellow birch, respectively (table 1). The figures for sweet birch are based on 10 trees, those for yellow birch on 17. From table 3 the probable variation of the species average for modulus of rupture when based on 10 trees is 2.8 percent and when based on 17 trees it is 2.2 percent. (The figure for 17 trees is taken as between that given for 15 trees and 20 trees). Following the method of the preceding example, the probable variation of the difference between the averages is found to be 320. The difference between the observed averages is 1,100, which is about three and one-half times its probable variation of 320. The tabula-

⁸ The probable variation of the difference of two average figures is the square root of the sum of the squares of the probable variations of the averages. The probable variation of the average of any property may be estimated from the figures in table 3.

tion indicates that the chance that the true average for modulus of rupture of yellow birch would equal or excel that for sweet birch is less than 1 in 46. The importance of such differences will depend on the use to be made of the wood.

VARIATION OF AN INDIVIDUAL PIECE FROM THE AVERAGE

The upper and lower limits for any property within which one-half of the material of a species would be expected to fall may be estimated from the following tabulation.

Estimated probable variation of an individual piece from average for species

<i>Property:</i>	<i>Percent</i>
Specific gravity based on volume when green.....	8
Shrinkage:	
Radial.....	11
Tangential.....	10
Volumetric.....	12
Static bending:	
Fiber stress at proportional limit.....	16
Modulus of rupture.....	12
Modulus of elasticity.....	16
Work to maximum load.....	23
Impact bending:	
Fiber stress at proportional limit.....	13
Height of drop.....	18
Compression parallel to grain:	
Fiber stress at proportional limit.....	18
Maximum crushing strength.....	13
Compression perpendicular to grain: Fiber stress at proportional limit....	21
Hardness, end.....	13
Hardness, side.....	15

As an example, consider the modulus of rupture of red alder, when green, which is found from table 1 to be 6,500 pounds per square inch. The tabulation lists the probable variation for modulus of rupture as 12 percent. Twelve percent of 6,500 is 780; which when subtracted from and added to the average gives limits of 5,720 and 7,280 pounds per square inch. The probable variation is a value associated with the range within which one-half of the material of a species will fall. Consequently, it may be estimated that in red alder approximately one-half of the material would be between 5,720 and 7,280 pounds per square inch in modulus of rupture.

Considered in another way, there is 1 chance in 4 that the modulus of rupture of an individual specimen taken at random will be below 5,720 pounds per square inch, 1 chance in 4 that it will be above 7,280 pounds per square inch, and there are 2 chances in 4 that it will be between 5,720 and 7,280 pounds per square inch. The greater the probable variation, the greater the difference that may be expected in values, and the less the certainty with which the average values can be applied to individual pieces.

It is possible by means of mathematical tables, which are available in numerous texts on the theory of probability or statistical methods, to calculate the proportion of material associated with other ranges or that may be expected to be below or above any specified limit.

SELECTION FOR PROPERTIES

The fact that a piece of wood differs in properties from another of the same species often makes one more suitable than the other for a specific use. This suggests the possibility of selecting material of a quality best suited to meet specific use requirements. Fortunately, strength is frequently correlated with weight and to a lesser degree with other physical characteristics, and these relationships sometimes afford a basis for grading and selecting for strength.

Aside from weight, the other physical characteristics most usable for selecting on the basis of the strength of the clear wood are proportion of summer wood, rate of growth, hardness, and stiffness. Either visual or mechanical methods, or both, may be employed in appraising the properties. For example, selection may be made at the sawmill so that the heavier, and consequently stronger and harder, pieces go into structural timbers, flooring, or other uses for which the higher measure of these properties particularly adapt them, while the lighter pieces may preferably be used for such purposes as trim or heat insulation; or selection may be made at the lumber yard when material of high weight or that of low weight is desired. By means of selective methods the variability of wood, usually regarded as a liability, can within certain limits be made an asset. Selection on the basis of grades that limit defects is a common practice. Selection on the basis of quality of clear wood is less common, but is frequently very desirable, and offers possibility in the improvement of marketing practice. In any instance defects must of course be considered.

OTHER MECHANICAL PROPERTIES NOT INCLUDED IN TABLE 1

In addition to the data from the tests presented in table 1, information on certain other mechanical properties, principally tension parallel to grain and torsional properties is sometimes needed. A brief discussion of these properties, and of a special toughness test that may be used as an acceptance method follows.

TENSION PARALLEL TO GRAIN

In order to get reliable data on tension along the grain, special care must be exercised in preparing test specimens, and for this and other reasons little information on this property is available. Furthermore, the true tensile strength of wood along the grain is less important in design than other properties because it is practically impossible to devise attachments that permit the tensile strength of the full cross section of a wooden member to be developed.

Available results of tension tests show that generally the ultimate tensile strength considerably exceeds the modulus of rupture. Hence the modulus of rupture may be used as an estimate of the ultimate tensile strength parallel to grain for conditions where a uniform distribution of tensile stress obtains over the net cross section of a member. Uniform stress distribution, however, does not occur in the net tension area of a bolted joint, where it has been found that for softwoods the net tension area must be 80 percent, and for hardwoods 100 percent of the total bearing area under all the bolts (50) in the joint.

Table 4 presents the average results of tests in tension parallel to the grain on several species.

TABLE 4.—Results of tests to determine the ultimate tensile strength parallel to the grain

Species	Green				Air-dry			
	Moisture content	Tests	Specific gravity ¹	Ultimate tensile strength	Moisture content	Tests	Specific gravity ¹	Ultimate tensile strength
	Percent	Number		Lb. per sq. in.	Percent	Number		Lb. per sq. in.
Ash, white		1	0.535	16,150				
Beech	53	1	.569	12,530				
Cedar:								
Port Orford	34	34	.293	11,380				
Western red	40	10	.300	6,200	8.8	7	0.323	7,130
Cypress, southern	78	15	.424	8,720				
Douglas fir:								
Coast	24	48	.425	12,980	11.1	8	.444	13,830
“Inland Empire”	30	9	.409	9,380	10.2	1	.474	14,880
Fir:								
Noble	29	11	.353	14,750	10.2	9	.370	13,020
California red	168	14	.373	9,040	10.1	10	.385	10,750
White	48	9	.367	8,030	10.7	6	.382	10,450
Hemlock, western	67	20	.380	9,860	10.9	14	.400	9,820
Maple, sugar	48	5	.577	15,660				
Oak, pin	80	3	.378	16,260				
Pine:								
Loblolly	47	2	.446	11,570	11.6	1	.484	15,050
Ponderosa	69	11	.364	8,320				
Poplar, balsam	106	3	.298	7,940	10.4	2	.351	12,160
Redwood	104	29	.377	9,780	10.7	33	.401	10,920
Spruce:								
Eastern ²	34	14	.366	13,650	11.7	13	.391	13,670
Sitka	40	17	.385	8,110	9.5	10	.406	11,150

¹ Based on weight when oven-dry and volume at test.

² Exact species not known.

Figure 1 illustrates the form of specimen on which table 4 is based. Despite the reduced cross section in the central portion of the length the specimens sometimes fail by shear instead of in tension. Specimens that failed other than in tension are not included in the average values of table 4.

TORSIONAL PROPERTIES

The torsional strength of wood is little needed in design and, except for Sitka spruce, has not been studied extensively. Available results, however, indicate that the shearing stress at maximum torsional load, as calculated by the usual formulas, are approximately one-third greater than the values in table 1 for shearing strength parallel to the grain (51).

The effect of duration of stress on torsional strength is pronounced, being greater on the proportional limit than on the maximum torsional strength. With slowly applied loads the proportional limit may be less than 50 percent of the maximum, whereas with quickly applied loads the proportional limit may be 75 percent of the maximum load.

The modulus of rigidity or the modulus of elasticity of wood in shear is a combination of the component moduli along radial and tangential surfaces, and is influenced among other things by the position of the growth rings. The combined moduli are known as the mean modulus of rigidity, which for Sitka spruce is about one-fifteenth the modulus of elasticity along the grain. Scattered tests on other species show a range in values of the mean modulus of rigidity be-

tween one-fourteenth and one-eighteenth the modulus of elasticity along the grain. Until definite values are available for other species, a ratio of one-seventeenth appears conservative.

A third shear modulus that does not come in play in torsion about an axis parallel to the grain is associated with stresses that tend to roll the wood fibers by each other in a direction at right angles to the grain. This shearing modulus is extremely low but is of little importance in most design.

TOUGHNESS

Although a number of the properties listed in table 1 measure toughness, a special device known as the Forest Products Laboratory toughness machine was developed to provide a simple method of determining toughness from relatively small samples. The test affords a means of comparing species, and a basis for selecting stock of known properties by testing small specimens from pieces of wood intended for use. The machine (fig. 2) operates on the pendulum principle, but it differs from other pendulum machines in that the striking force is applied through a cable attached to a drum mounted on the axis of the pendulum. The specimen, which is $\frac{5}{8}$ by $\frac{5}{8}$ inch or $\frac{3}{4}$ by $\frac{3}{4}$ inch in cross section and is supported over an 8- or 10-inch span, is subjected to an impact bending force at the middle of its length (26).

Available average results of toughness tests are presented in table 5.

Recommended acceptance values for stock for aircraft and other high-class uses are presented for a few woods in table 6. In applying the test as an acceptance requirement for wood, it is recommended that four specimens be tested from the same piece as the part to be used is taken. To be acceptable, the piece (1) must either meet a minimum toughness requirement established for the species under consideration, or if within a certain tolerance below this minimum must pass in addition a minimum

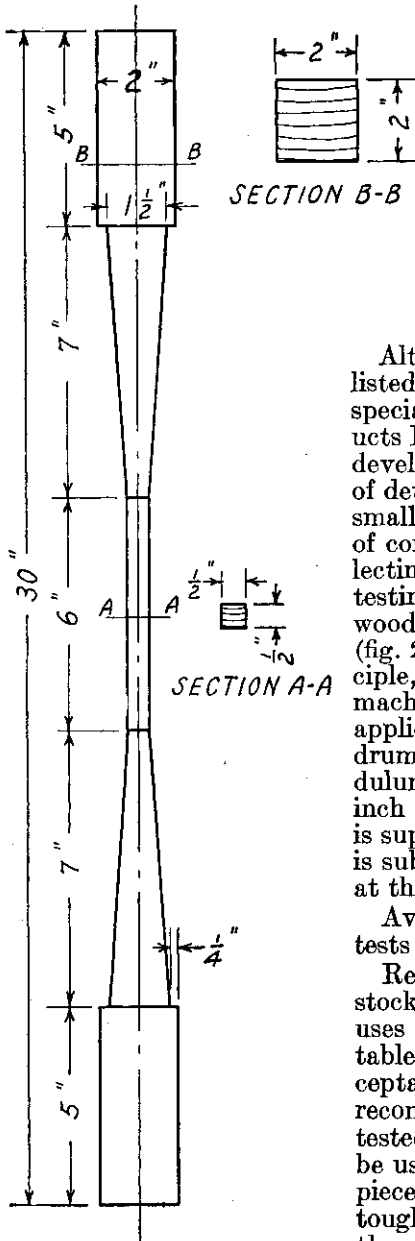


FIGURE 1.—Details of tension-parallel-to-grain test specimen.

specific-gravity requirement; (2) must show a limited range in toughness values for specimens from the same piece, and (3) must pass careful visual inspection.

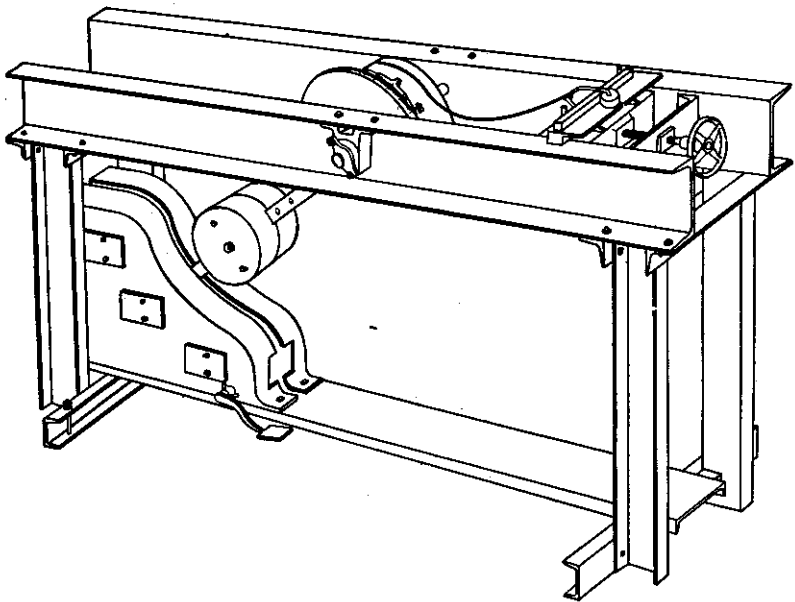


FIGURE 2.—Forest Products Laboratory toughness-testing machine.

TABLE 5.—Results of toughness tests

[Specimens $\frac{5}{8}$ by $\frac{5}{8}$ by 10 inches tested on an 8-inch span]

Species	Moisture content	Specific gravity (oven-dry based on volume at test)	Face to which load is applied			
			Radial		Tangential	
			Tests	Toughness	Tests	Toughness
	Percent		Number	In.-lb. per specimen	Number	In.-lb. per specimen
Birch:						
Alaska white.....	9.8	0.56	14	184	16	180
Yellow.....	11.9	.65	10	262	11	330
Catalpa, hardy.....	66	.40	13	180	19	181
	11.8	.41	18	104	17	124
Cedar:						
Alaska.....	10.4	.48	10	109	10	122
Western red.....	9.2	.33	21	45	21	70
Douglas fir.....	36	.43	51	82	59	112
	10	.46	36	86	36	151
	55	.31	44	36	44	52
Fir, corkbark.....	9.9	.31	28	36	30	51
Hemlock, eastern.....	12.3	.41	13	56	13	86
Hemlock, western.....	11.1	.38	31	60	34	86
Maple, sugar.....	13.8	.64	11	194	11	192
Oak, pin.....	11.5	.64	15	226	18	225
	86	.47	99	139	206	176
Pine, loblolly.....	11.9	.51	174	93	168	149
	90	.54	39	183	38	232
Pine, longleaf.....	13.3	.57	39	94	43	143
	88	.48	106	140	71	191
Pine, shortleaf.....	12.9	.60	75	77	71	120
	78	.55	72	185	73	238
Pine, slash.....	11.6	.59	67	109	63	167
	103	.39	101	58	96	106
Redwood.....	11.4	.39	104	49	99	75
Spruce, Sitka.....	9.8	.44	33	83	37	121

TABLE 6.—*Minimum acceptance requirements for aircraft woods based on tests¹ in the Forest Products Laboratory toughness machine*

Species of wood	Size of specimen	Span	Minimum average acceptable toughness		
			With specific gravity limitation		Without specific gravity limitation; minimum average toughness ³
			Minimum specific gravity ²	Minimum average toughness ³	
	<i>Inches</i>	<i>Inches</i>	<i>In.-lb. per specimen</i>	<i>In.-lb. per specimen</i>	
White ash.....	5/8 by 3/4 by 10	8	0.56	150	175
Yellow birch.....	3/4 by 3/4 by 12	10	.58	225	260
Douglas fir.....	5/8 by 5/8 by 10	8	.45	95	115
White oak.....	3/4 by 3/4 by 12	10	.62	175	200
Sitka spruce.....	5/8 by 5/8 by 10	8	.36	75	90
Black walnut.....	3/4 by 3/4 by 12	10	.52	150	175

¹ Load applied to the tangential face of the specimen.

² Based on weight and volume of oven-dry wood.

³ These values are to be applied to the average of 4 or more test specimens, and the range in individual test values used in arriving at the average should not exceed 1 to 2½ among 4 specimens.

The procedure is simple and tests are made very rapidly. No calculation is necessary as the readings of the machine are readily converted into toughness values by the use of available tables. The procedure is further simplified by the fact that when testing dry wood the moisture condition of the specimen may be ignored, as tests have shown that toughness is affected but little by such moisture differences as may be commonly encountered.

The one essential in the application of the toughness test as an acceptance method, in addition to the necessary machine for making the tests, is a knowledge of the species with respect to minimum toughness requirements. The recommended values presented in table 6 have been established from tests made at the Forest Products Laboratory.

PROPERTIES OTHER THAN STRENGTH

RATING OF SPECIES IN SEVEN PROPERTIES

It has been mentioned that consideration of properties other than strength, weight, and shrinkage may be necessary in appraising the suitability of a wood for various uses (p. 3). Table 7 compares a number of species with respect to ease of kiln drying, ability to stay in place, workability, nail-holding ability, ease of gluing, resistance to decay, and ability to hold paint. The classifications are approximate, and only in some instances are they based on technical research. In others they are based on observation, experience, and general information. The ratings vary from 1 to 4 or 1 to 5, the lowest number indicating the best rating. For some other properties, such as acid resistance, sufficient information is not available to prepare even such a general classification of species. Information on properties other than those presented in this bulletin, insofar as available, may be obtained by writing the Forest Products Laboratory, Madison, Wis.

TABLE 7.—Approximate comparison of 7 properties of commercial species of wood

Key to classification of woods: Columns 2 and 4 represent a gradation of properties in the various woods from those which can be dried and worked with comparative ease (class 1) to those which present some difficulty in those respects (class 4). Column 3 represents a gradation from those woods which possess the greatest ability to stay in place under conditions of actual use (class 1) to those species which do not possess that ability to the same extent (classes 2, 3, 4, in the order named). Column 5 represents a gradation from those which possess the greatest nail-holding power but have the greatest tendency to split (which necessitates the use of smaller nails) to those having the least nail-holding ability but which are less likely to split. In column 6 the woods in class 1 are known to be used commercially in glued construction. Class 2 includes species about which little is known but which are not believed to be difficult to glue. Class 3 includes species which are known to require a little more attention in gluing than class 1 woods in order to get best results. Class 4 includes woods which are known to present real difficulties in gluing, and class 5 those species about which little is known but which it is believed would present some difficulties in view of their similarity to species of known properties. Column 7 presents comparative values for resistance to decay of heartwood when used under conditions that favor decay, class 1 being most decay-resistant. Column 8 represents a classification of softwood species with respect to ability to hold paint when used outside, class 1 species holding paint the most satisfactorily. Ability to hold paint is more important for outside than for inside use. The hardwood species are not commonly used for exterior work requiring painting and have not yet been classified]

Species	Ease of kiln drying ¹	Ability to stay in place	Workability	Nail-holding ability	Ease of gluing	Resistance to decay (heartwood)	Ability to hold paint
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
HARDWOODS							
Alder, red	2	3	2		1		
Ash:							
Black	3	4	3				
White	2	3	4		3	4	
Aspen	2	3	2	5	2	5	
Basswood	2	3	2	5	1	5	
Beech	4	4	4	1	5	4	
Birch:							
Paper	2	4	3		5		
Sweet and yellow	2	4	4	1	3	4	
Buckeye, yellow			2		2		
Butternut	2	2	2		2		
Cascara			4				
Cherry:							
Black	4	3	3				
Pin	3	3	2		2		
Chestnut	2	2	2	4	1	1	
Chinquapin, golden			3				
Cottonwood:							
Black	3	4	2	5	1	5	
Eastern	2	4	2	5	1	5	
Dogwood	2	5	5	1	5		
Elm:							
American	3	5	4	3	1		
Rock	3	5	4				
Gum:							
Black	3	5	4		2	5	
Red	2, 4	4	4	3	1	3	
Hackberry	2	4	3		2		
Hickory, shagbark	4	5	5	1	4		
Honey locust	4	2	4	1	5	2	
Hophornbeam	3	5	5	1	5		
Laurel, California	5	3	4		5		
Madrone, Pacific	4	5	4		5		
Magnolia, cucumber	3	4	3	3	1		
Maple:							
Bigleaf	3	3	3		5		
Red	3	3	4		5		
Sugar	3	4	4	1	3	4	
Oak:							
California black	4	3	4		5		
Red	2, 4, 5	4	4	1	3	4	
White	2, 4, 5	4	4	1	1	2	
Persimmon	4	4	5	1	4		
Poplar, yellow	2	2	2	4	1		
Sycamore	4	4	4	2	2		
Walnut, black	4	2	3		1	1	
Willow, black	2	3	2		2	5	

¹ Softwoods are in general easier to dry than hardwoods. A softwood given the same numerical rating as a hardwood is, therefore, regarded as slightly easier to dry. These ratings are based on ease of removal of moisture without visible degrade but do not take into account susceptibility to reduction in strength in drying under high temperatures (67).

² 2 refers to sapwood and 4 to heartwood, known commercially as sap gum and red gum, respectively.

³ 4 refers to the upland type of oak and 5 to the lowland type of oak.

TABLE 7.—*Approximate comparison of 7 properties of commercial species of wood—*
Continued

Species	Ease of kiln drying	Ability to stay in place	Workability	Nail-holding ability	Ease of gluing	Resistance to decay (heart-wood)	Ability to hold paint
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
SOFTWOODS							
Cedar:							
Alaska	1	1	3	-----	2	1	1
Incense	1	1	2	-----	2	1	1
Northern white	2	1	2	5	2	1	1
Port Orford	2	2	3	-----	2	1	1
Western red	2, 3	1	2	5	2	1	1
Cypress, southern	3	2	3	2	2	1	1
Douglas fir	1	3	4	3	1	2, 3	4
Fir:							
Alpine and balsam	1	-----	2	5	2	5	3
Grand, noble and white	1	3	2	5	2	5	3
Hemlock:							
Eastern	2	3	3	4	2	4	3
Western	2	3	3	3	1	4	3
Larch, western	3	3	4	3	2	3	4
Pine:							
Jack	1	3	3	4	2	-----	3
Lodgepole	1	2	2	5	2	-----	3
Northern white	2	1	1	4	1	-----	2
Norway	1	3	2	3	2	-----	3
Pitch	1	3	4	3	2	3	4
Ponderosa	1	2	2	4	1	-----	3
Southern yellow	1	3	4	2	1	2, 3	4
Sugar	2	1	1	-----	1	-----	2
Western white	3	2	2	4	1	-----	2
Redwood	3, 4	2	3	4	1	1	1
Spruce:							
Engelmann	2	2	2	5	2	4	3
Red and white	1	2	2	4	1	4	3
Sitka	1	2	2	4	1	4	3
Tamarack	2	3	4	-----	2	3	3

¹ 2 refers to material from upper logs and 3 to material from butt logs which are generally susceptible to collapse.

² 2 refers to dense Douglas fir and dense southern yellow pine.

³ 3 refers to material from upper logs and 4 to sinker stock from butt logs.

REQUIREMENTS FOR MOISTURE CONTENT OF WOOD IN BUILDINGS

The satisfactory use of lumber frequently depends upon the characteristics of the stock in its entirety, such as the size, kind, and number of defects as well as upon the properties of the clear wood, and may be further influenced by sizes available, degree of seasoning, and marketing practices. For most purposes seasoned is to be preferred to unseasoned stock, and for some uses, such as flooring, a definite degree of seasoning is essential for satisfactory results.

As an example of seasoning requirements, table 8 gives recommendations for desirable initial moisture content of lumber for various parts of dwellings (40).

While it is desirable that the average moisture content be near the value given in table 8, it is far more important that the moisture content of individual pieces of a lot be within the specified range.

TABLE 8.—Recommended moisture-content values for various wood items at time of installation

Use of lumber	Moisture content (percentage of weight of oven-dry wood) for—					
	Dry southwestern States		Damp southern coastal States		Remainder of the United States	
	Average	Range for individual pieces	Average	Range for individual pieces	Average	Range for individual pieces
Interior finishing woodwork and softwood flooring.....	6	4-9	11	8-13	8	5-10
Hardwood flooring.....	6	5-8	10	9-12	7	6-9
Sheathing, framing, siding, and exterior trim.....	9	7-12	12	9-14	12	9-14

MOISTURE CONTENT OF HEARTWOOD AND SAPWOOD

Average moisture-content values from green specimens consisting entirely of sapwood, or entirely of heartwood, are listed in table 9, for a number of species. These values show the variation in moisture content among species, the relative equality in moisture content of heartwood and sapwood in several hardwoods, and the large differences commonly existing in softwoods.

TABLE 9—Average moisture content for green heartwood and sapwood of 19 species

Species	Trees	Average moisture content		Species	Trees	Average moisture content	
		Heartwood	Sapwood			Heartwood	Sapwood
HARDWOODS				SOFTWOODS—contd.			
Ash, white.....	12	Percent	Percent	Hemlock:	Number	Percent	Percent
Beech.....	6	53	40	Eastern.....			
Birch, yellow.....	9	68	78	Western.....	13	42	170
Elm, American.....	3	95	71	Pine:			
Gum, black.....	4	50	92	Loblolly.....	8	34	94
Maple:			61	Lodgepole.....	5	36	113
Silver.....	4	60	88	Longleaf.....	18	34	99
Sugar.....	6	58	67	Norway.....	4	31	135
	5	36	117	Ponderosa.....	4	40	148
SOFTWOODS	3	91	136	Shortleaf.....	8	34	108
Douglas fir.....	5	36	117	Spruce:			
Fir, lowland white.....	3	91	136	Engelmann.....	2	54	167
				Sitka.....	2	33	146

The moisture content of green heartwood and sapwood varies greatly among trees, and varies within the tree at different heights. The sapwood of the softwood species was consistently higher in moisture content than the heartwood, but some hardwood trees were found in which the heartwood was slightly higher than the sapwood. Because of the variation in moisture content of green wood, the values presented should not be taken as rigid averages for the species, but rather as indications of what may be expected.

The values in table 9 may be used in specific instances to estimate the average moisture content of logs. For example, if ponderosa pine logs in a shipment are observed to have 75 percent of sapwood.

by volume, the average moisture content would be estimated as $(0.75 \times 148) + (0.25 \times 40) = 121$ percent. Average moisture-content values computed in this way are likely to be more accurate in such instances and a better basis for computing weights than the average values listed for green material in column 7 of table 1 as these latter values may represent a quite different proportion of sapwood. The proportion of sapwood and heartwood in trees varies with the age of the stand and with growth conditions.

OTHER DATA ON SPECIFIC GRAVITY

In addition to the data on the specific gravity of the wood subjected to strength tests as presented in table 1, the Forest Products Laboratory has obtained for 14 common softwood species information based on sections of boards collected at sawmills in various parts of the United States (41). For a number of species the sampling from sawmills was more extensive than that used in obtaining specimens for strength tests, and the data are of interest on that account. In addition, data on heartwood and sapwood were segregated, whereas this has not been done with the data from the standard series of strength tests.

The principal data from the study of samples collected at sawmills are shown in table 10.

TABLE 10.—Comparison of specific gravity (oven-dry, based on volume when green) of mill-run samples with that of specimens used for mechanical tests

Species	Mill-run samples ¹					Specimens for mechanical tests		
	Specimens	Specific gravity heartwood and sapwood combined	Probable variation	Specific gravity heartwood	Specific gravity sapwood	Trees	Specimens	Specific gravity
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
	<i>Number</i>		<i>Percent</i>			<i>Number</i>	<i>Number</i>	
Cypress, southern.....	377	0.38	10.0	0.39	0.36	26	479	0.42
Douglas fir:								
Washington and Oregon.....	2,764	.44	8.1	.44	.43	34	1,029	.45
“Inland Empire”.....	176	.44	6.6			10	113	.41
Fir: White.....	1,187	1.33	17.1	1.33	1.33	45	278	.35
Hemlock, western.....	1,359	.39	6.8	.39	.39	18	689	.38
Larch, western.....	820	.45	7.5	.45	.43	13	214	.48
Pine:								
Longleaf.....	15,396	1.52	110.3	1.67	1.48	34	806	.55
Northern white.....	386	.34	5.7	.35	.34	18	299	.34
Norway.....	121	.39	6.6	.39	.38	5	126	.44
Ponderosa.....	1,876	.37	8.7	.38	1.36	31	579	.38
Shortleaf.....	4,357	1.47	18.5	1.61	1.46	22	1,190	2.49
Sugar.....	965	.33	6.7	.33	.32	9	191	.35
Western white.....	1,178	.36	5.9	.36	.36	14	211	.36
Redwood.....	585	.36	9.7	.36		16	564	.39
Spruce, Sitka.....	658	.36	6.9	.36	.33	25	1,392	.37

¹ The mill-run specimens were classified according to commercial species designations of the lumber and not according to botanical classification, although in most instances the two are approximately the same. The southern pines are the principal exception as there is no known method of distinguishing the several species botanically from the wood alone, and hence species are mixed in the commercial designations. The samples used for mechanical tests were taken from trees identified botanically in the woods.

² Values for shortleaf and loblolly pine combined.

It was not possible in all cases to identify these samples as to species. Consequently, the data are classified according to commercial designation of the lumber and not according to exact species. However, except for those names to which footnote 1 is appended, the designations are probably the correct species names.

Table 10 shows for comparison values of specific gravity taken from column 8 of table 1. In general, the values in columns 3 and 9 of table 10 are in reasonable agreement although with but two exceptions (western hemlock and Douglas fir from the "Inland Empire" region) those of column 9 are the same or higher. Other studies have disclosed considerable variation in Douglas fir in the "Inland Empire" region and in this instance the operation of chance in sampling might readily lead to the difference between the values in columns 3 and 9. Further reasons for differences include the effect of position of material in the tree, and the fact that the methods of determining specific gravity were not quite identical.

The specimens used for standard strength tests (column 9) were taken mainly from the top 4 feet of 16-foot butt logs, whereas the samples collected at the mill (column 3) represent mixed material in which wood from all parts of the tree may be included. Because in many species the wood near the butt of the tree is heavier than that from the upper portions of the trunk, the specific-gravity values in column 9 would in general be expected to be slightly higher than those representing mixed material. An example of this kind is afforded by western larch. The butt portions of western larch trees contain large quantities of extractives which increase the weight considerably and as much as 12 feet of the portion immediately above the stump is often discarded because the extra weight makes handling of the logs difficult. On the other hand, Sitka spruce is an example of a species whose specific gravity varied but little with height in tree.

In general, the differences between the values listed in columns 3 and 9 are not greater than are to be expected from the causes just discussed combined with the effects of chance in sampling.

Table 10 also lists some data on the specific gravity of heartwood and sapwood, and the probable variation in specific gravity of the mill samples. It may be noted that the specific gravity of heartwood is in general slightly higher than that of sapwood. One reason for this higher value is the greater quantity of extractives (p. 47) in the heartwood.

FACTORS AFFECTING THE STRENGTH OF WOOD

The numerical data presented in table 1 were, as has been shown, derived from tests of small clear specimens taken from a specific part of the tree and tested under a standardized procedure.

Most uses of wood involve pieces differing in size and shape from those tested; clear material may not be available or may be more expensive than a contemplated use justifies; conditions of use may differ radically from standard test conditions; time limitations may require kiln drying; need for permanence may point to preservative treatment; the user may have erroneous concepts of the rate of growth as a criterion of suitability or of the comparative strength of heartwood or sapwood; he may hesitate to accept material from dead trees, or from turpented trees. These and many other questions

that may arise require consideration in order to properly interpret the numerical data and adapt it to specific uses of wood. A knowledge of factors affecting strength is thus essential to the interpretation of test data and is of value in the purchase of lumber, in the preparation of specifications covering the use of timber in engineering structures, and in the selection, classification, and use of wood for manufactured products. A brief discussion of various factors affecting the strength of wood is accordingly presented.

RELATION OF PROPERTIES TO STRUCTURE

Wood is a heterogeneous material consisting essentially of fibers of cellulose cemented together by lignin. The fibers, which taper toward the ends, are about one-eighth of an inch long in softwoods, one twenty-fourth of an inch in hardwoods, with a central diameter about one hundredth of the length. They are hollow, their longer dimension running lengthwise of the tree. In the softwoods the fibers act as water conductors. In the hardwoods a limited number of fibers act similarly and there are also relatively large pores or vessels which serve the same function. Besides these vertical fibers which comprise the principal part of the wood, all woods except palms and yuccas contain horizontal strips of cells known as rays or wood rays which are oriented radially and are an important part of the tree's food transfer and storage system. Among different species the rays differ widely in their size and prevalence.

The shape, size, and arrangement of the fibers, the presence of the wood rays, and the layer effect of spring and summer wood make wood a nonisotropic material with large differences in the properties along and across the grain (19, 43). Certain of the properties across the grain may be but a small fraction of the like properties along the grain. In air-dry Sitka spruce, for instance, the modulus of elasticity across the grain, may be only one one-hundred-and-fiftieth as great as when the load is parallel to the grain (10,200 pounds per square inch for 45° angle (p. 35) as compared to 1,570,000 pounds per square inch in column 16, table 1). There is an increasing need for information which will permit a closer correlation of structure and properties. Such information is of value in accounting for and remedying and preventing certain difficulties in the use of wood, and for giving a more precise basis for timber design through a better knowledge of properties and stress distribution.

TABLE 11.—Average results of tests showing influence of position of growth rings on the mechanical properties of Sitka spruce, Douglas fir, and loblolly pine

Properties	Sitka spruce				Douglas fir				Loblolly pine, green	
	Green		Air-dried		Green		Kiln-dried		Position A ¹	Position B ¹
	Position A ¹	Position B ¹	Position A ¹	Position B ¹	Position A ¹	Position B ¹	Position A ¹	Position B ¹		
Static bending:										
Moisture.....percent ²	45.2	45.3	12.2	12.2	30.6	29.4	11.9	11.9	26.0	25.8
Specific gravity ³341	.343	.370	.372	.427	.431	.455	.459	.599	.599
Fiber stress at proportional limit.....pounds per square inch	3,160	3,150	5,800	5,900	4,510	4,700	7,800	8,120	4,820	4,540
Fiber stress at maximum load.....pounds per square inch	4,890	4,960	8,470	8,450	7,280	7,470	10,630	10,860	9,750	9,740
Modulus of elasticity.....1,000 pounds per square inch	1,104	1,124	1,370	1,374	1,475	1,480	1,723	1,713	1,398	1,398
Work to proportional limit.....inch-pounds per cubic inch	.52	.52	1.46	1.49	.81	.86	2.03	2.22	1.00	.90
Work to maximum load.....inch-pounds per cubic inch	5.2	5.6	7.5	7.5	6.3	7.6	7.4	7.5		
Work, total.....inch-pounds per cubic inch	15.8	14.4			15.0	11.9				
Impact bending, 50-pound hammer:										
Moisture.....percent ²	45.8	44.4	12.7	12.5	30.4	30.3	10.7	11.0		
Specific gravity ³343	.350	.372	.378	.422	.431	.457	.460		
Fiber stress at proportional limit.....pounds per square inch	7,870	7,860	10,150	9,900	8,870	9,450	12,550	12,370		
Modulus of elasticity.....1,000 pounds per square inch	1,277	1,274	1,618	1,662	1,480	1,729	2,140	2,110		
Work to proportional limit.....inch-pounds per cubic inch	2.7	2.7	3.7	3.4	3.0	2.9	4.2	4.1		
Height of drop causing complete failure.....inches	20	20	21.0	20.9	20.4	18.8	4 23.4	4 23.1		
Compression parallel to grain:										
Moisture.....percent ²	45.2	46.4	12.7	12.7	29.6	29.2	10.2	10.4		
Specific gravity ³339	.341	.363	.370	.428	.419	.451	.459		
Rings per inch.....	14.5	15.7	6.5	7.6	16.3	15.9	20.4	23.0	7.0	7.5
Fiber stress at maximum load.....pounds per square inch	2,220	2,210	4,490	4,670	3,810	3,730	7,230	7,250	4,680	4,650
Hardness ⁴ :										
End.....pounds	357	357	682	701	440	440	713	713		
Side.....pounds	289	283	436	462	452	446	700	687		
Compression perpendicular to grain: Fiber stress at proportional limit.....pounds per square inch	227	227	548	582	455	496	609	667		
Shear parallel to grain: Shearing strength.....pounds per square inch	713	698	184	1,202	883	853	1,209	1,206		
Cleavage: Cleavage strength.....pounds per square inch	122	94	242	189	133	136	163	163		
Tension at right angles to grain: Tensile strength.....pounds per square inch	208	130	466	357	179	165	255	307		

¹ Position A and B refer to placement of growth rings with respect to directions of application of load, as illustrated in fig. 3.

² Percent moisture based on weight of oven-dry wood.

³ Specific gravity based on weight when oven-dry and volume at test.

⁴ Adjusted to drop for 2- by 2-inch cross section.

⁵ Load required to imbed a 0.444-inch ball to ½ its diameter.

POSITION OF GROWTH RINGS

In the sawing of lumber and timber the position of the growth rings may be made to assume different directions with respect to the surfaces of the piece. Any effect of position of growth rings on the properties thus assumes practical significance.

Table 11 presents, for three species, data on clear specimens 2 by 2 inches in cross-section tested to determine the effect of two positions of growth rings on the strength properties (fig. 3). It may be noted

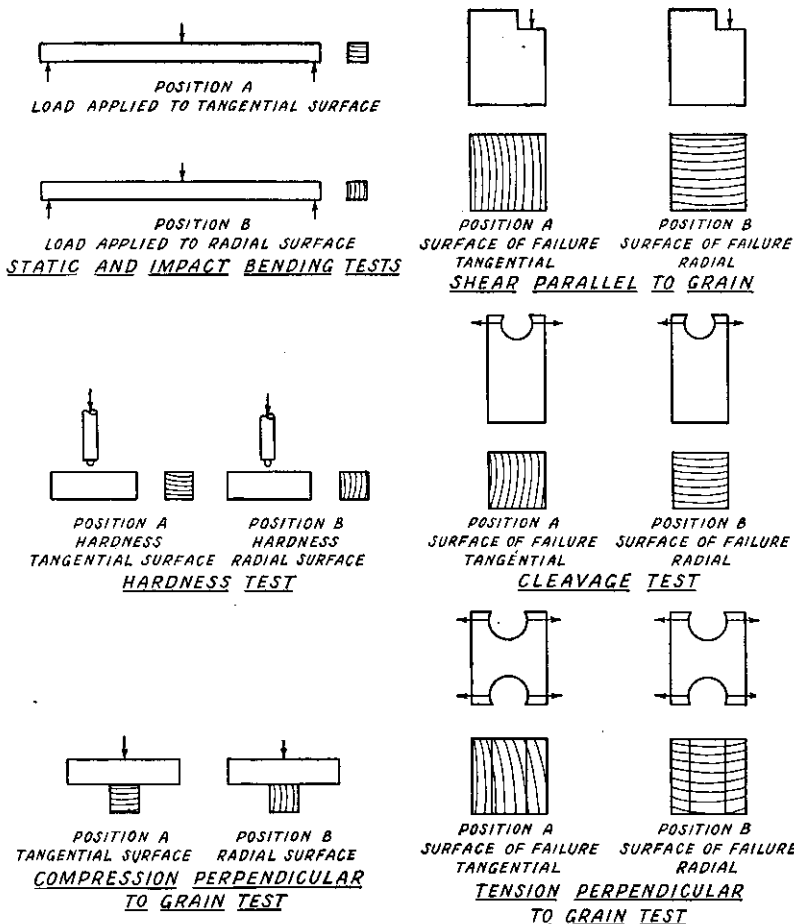


FIGURE 3.—Sketch of standard mechanical tests which afford choice in placement of growth rings with respect to direction of application of load.

that the bending tests, which were on specimens 30 inches long, show little difference in the properties listed, whether the rings as viewed on the end of a piece are vertical or horizontal. Some of the other properties listed, however, show significant differences between the two placements of rings resulting not only from the difference in structure due to the rings themselves, but also the difference orientation of the other minute structural elements of the wood with respect to the direction of stress.

The values from the tests in compression parallel to grain, which were unaffected by the placement of growth rings because the specimens were square, together with the data on specific gravity and rings per inch, show that the wood representing position A was practically identical in quality with that representing position B.

There are many further effects of stratified structure on properties, as evidenced by the growth-ring position, not brought out by results of standard tests. An outstanding example is in compression perpendicular to grain. The results of some preliminary determinations of modulus of elasticity in compression perpendicular to grain are presented in table 12.

TABLE 12.—*Modulus of elasticity in compression perpendicular to grain as influenced by direction of growth rings*

[Specimens $1\frac{1}{4}$ by $1\frac{1}{2}$ by 6 inches loaded on the $1\frac{1}{2}$ by $1\frac{1}{4}$ -inch face]

Species	Specific gravity	Moisture content	Modulus of elasticity when the growth rings with respect to the applied load are at an angle of—					
			0°	22½°	45°	67½°	90°	
			<i>Lb. per sq. in.</i>	<i>Lb. per sq. in.</i>	<i>Lb. per sq. in.</i>	<i>Lb. per sq. in.</i>	<i>Lb. per sq. in.</i>	
		<i>Percent</i>						
Redwood.....	0.34	11	78,400	28,600	17,100	27,900	106,600	
Douglas fir.....	.45	37	58,200	21,400	12,200	26,800	85,400	
Spruce, Sitka.....	.42	13	62,400	18,100	10,200	22,400	110,300	
Hemlock, western.....	.44	88	45,400	11,600	8,300	14,100	71,500	
Birch, yellow.....	.68	63	48,000	39,900	34,000	55,900	81,200	
Do.....	.67	13	106,400	82,300	50,800	113,200	158,000	
Oak, red.....	.56	119	66,200	57,800	59,700	77,400	110,300	

It may be noted that there is a large difference in the modulus of elasticity in compression perpendicular to grain with position of rings, amounting to as much as 11 to 1 in Sitka spruce between material with the rings at 90° to the direction of the load and that with rings at 45°. Proportional limit and maximum crushing strength perpendicular to grain are also affected by ring position, although the indications are that the differences are considerably less than for modulus of elasticity.

In the Forest Products Laboratory toughness test, in which specimens one-half to three-fourths inch square and 10 to 12 inches long are used, some marked differences have been found, depending on whether the load is applied to the radial or tangential face. In some species average differences of as much as 50 percent of the lesser values were noted (table 5), the higher values resulting when the load was applied to the tangential face. These results as compared with those of table 11, indicate that size of specimen may be an important factor in the influence of position of rings.

SPRING WOOD AND SUMMER WOOD PLACEMENT EFFECT

Significant differences with ring placement may become evident in properties not appreciably affected in 2- by 2-inch pieces when specimens of smaller size are tested. This was demonstrated by static-bending tests on 1- by 1- by 16-inch specimens of southern yellow pine and Douglas fir containing large amounts of summer wood, modulus of elasticity being determined (without stressing the specimen beyond the proportional limit) by placing the specimen with the

rings horizontal and then vertical. The modulus of elasticity of specimens with summer wood layers on the two faces averaged 12 percent higher for southern yellow pine, and 16 percent higher for Douglas fir with the rings horizontal (load applied to tangential face) than with the rings vertical (load applied to radial face). On the other hand, with specimens having spring wood layers on two faces, the modulus of elasticity when the rings were horizontal (load applied to the tangential face) averaged 9 percent lower than when the rings were vertical (load applied to radial face) for southern yellow pine and 13 percent lower for Douglas fir. These differences, it should be observed, represent a spring wood and summer wood placement effect rather than a pure growth-ring placement effect. Theoretical calculations based on the assumption of widely different properties in spring wood and summer wood check these observed values closely.

SPECIES OF WOOD

Some species of wood differ greatly from others in their average specific gravity, strength, and other properties. Certain species, such as hickory and ash, excel in toughness and shock-resisting ability. Others, such as southern yellow pine and Douglas fir, are high in bending strength and stiffness for their weight. Still other species are soft, uniform in texture, and easy to work. Such differences permit a choice of species to meet the requirements of diverse and exacting uses. Comparative data on important properties are presented for 164 species of wood in table 1.

The average differences in strength properties between species ordinarily competing for the same use are often quite small. Nevertheless, there may be decided differences in structure and in behavior with respect to moisture relations, drying, and manufacturing characteristics which make it necessary to vary the handling procedure or manufacturing practice to best suit the wood under consideration. In this way as satisfactory service may be obtained from species not generally regarded so suitable for a use as from species that give a good account of themselves regardless of care or of lack of care in their handling.

SPECIFIC GRAVITY (OR DENSITY) AS RELATED TO STRENGTH

The substance of which wood is composed is actually heavier than water, its specific gravity being about 1.5 regardless of the species of wood. In spite of the fact that the actual wood substance is heavier than water, the dry wood of most species floats in water, and it is thus evident that a considerable portion of the volume of a piece of wood is occupied by cell cavities and pores. The specific gravity of a piece of dry wood is thus an excellent index of the amount of wood substance it contains and hence is an index of the strength properties.

The relations between specific gravity and other properties of wood may be considered on the basis of (1) different species and (2) different pieces of the same species.

SPECIFIC GRAVITY-STRENGTH RELATIONSHIP AMONG SPECIES

The general relation of specific gravity to strength is illustrated by two widely different woods, mastic, a very heavy species growing in Florida, and balsa, a very light species from Central America. Compression-parallel-to-grain tests on green material gave the results in

table 13, and show that mastic with average specific gravity 9 times as great as that of balsa was 9 times as high in crushing strength along the grain. Weight for weight, the crushing strength parallel to grain of these diverse species are substantially equal.

TABLE 13.—Comparison of the specific gravity and the maximum crushing strength of mastic and balsa

Species	Specific gravity, based on weight and volume of wood when oven dry	Maximum crushing strength parallel to grain	Specific strength (column 3÷ column 2)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Mastic.....	1.03	<i>Lb. per sq. in.</i> 5,880	5,710
Balsa.....	.11	644	5,850

The average specific gravity-strength relations based on 163 species of hardwoods and softwoods show that some properties, such as maximum crushing strength parallel to grain, increase approximately in proportion to the increase in specific gravity, whereas others increase more rapidly. Modulus of rupture, for instance, varies from one species to another as the $1\frac{1}{4}$ power of specific gravity. Other properties are related to specific gravity by equations of still higher powers; for example, the exponent of specific gravity for relation to hardness is $2\frac{1}{4}$. It is evident, therefore, that small differences in specific gravity may result in large differences in certain strength properties. For example, one species twice as high in specific gravity as another has $4\frac{1}{4}$ times the hardness.

Approximate average relations of specific gravity to strength properties among different species are given in table 14 (38).

TABLE 14.—Specific gravity-strength relations among different species ¹

Property	Unit	Moisture condition	
		Green	Air-dry (12-percent moisture content)
Static bending:			
Fiber stress at proportional limit.....	Pounds per square inch.....	10200 <i>G</i> ^{1.25}	16700 <i>G</i> ^{1.25}
Modulus of rupture.....	do.....	17600 <i>G</i> ^{1.25}	25700 <i>G</i> ^{1.25}
Work to maximum load.....	Inch-pounds per cubic inch.....	35.6 <i>G</i> ^{1.75}	32.4 <i>G</i> ^{1.75}
Total work.....	do.....	103 <i>G</i> ²	72.7 <i>G</i> ²
Modulus of elasticity.....	1,000 pounds per square inch.....	2380 <i>G</i>	2800 <i>G</i>
Impact bending:			
Fiber stress at proportional limit.....	Pounds per square inch.....	23700 <i>G</i> ^{1.25}	31200 <i>G</i> ^{1.25}
Modulus of elasticity.....	1,000 pounds per square inch.....	2940 <i>G</i>	3380 <i>G</i>
Height of drop.....	Inches.....	114 <i>G</i> ^{1.75}	94.6 <i>G</i> ^{1.75}
Compression parallel to grain:			
Fiber stress at proportional limit.....	Pounds per square inch.....	5250 <i>G</i>	8750 <i>G</i>
Maximum crushing strength.....	do.....	6730 <i>G</i>	12300 <i>G</i>
Modulus of elasticity.....	1,000 pounds per square inch.....	2910 <i>G</i>	3380 <i>G</i>
Compression perpendicular to grain: Fiber stress at proportional limit.....	Pounds per square inch.....	3000 <i>G</i> ^{2.25}	4630 <i>G</i> ^{2.25}
Hardness:			
End.....	Pounds.....	3740 <i>G</i> ^{2.25}	4800 <i>G</i> ^{2.25}
Radial.....	do.....	3380 <i>G</i> ^{2.25}	3720 <i>G</i> ^{2.25}
Tangential.....	do.....	3460 <i>G</i> ^{2.25}	3820 <i>G</i> ^{2.25}

¹ The values listed in this table are to be read as equations, for example: Modulus of rupture for green material = 17600*G*^{1.25}, where *G* represents the specific gravity, oven-dry, based on volume at moisture condition indicated.

Some species of wood contain relatively large amounts of resins, gums, and other extractives, which add to the weight but do not contribute so much to the strength as would a like amount of wood substance (23). In addition, species vary in the structural arrangement of their fibers. For these reasons, two species which average the same in specific gravity may exhibit different strength character-

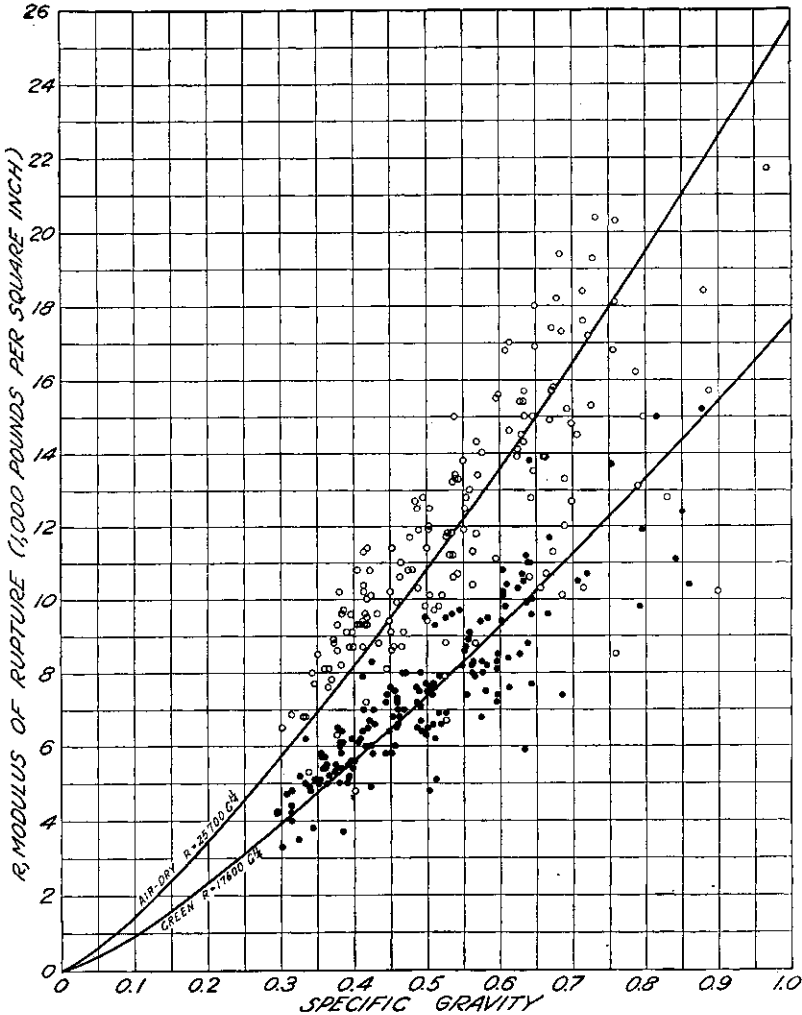


FIGURE 4.—Relation of modulus of rupture to specific gravity for green and air-dry material of various species.

istics. This fact is illustrated by the scattering of the points in figure 4. The values for Douglas fir (coast type) and red gum in table 1 illustrate an extreme example of variations from the average density-strength relations among species. Although these woods are about equal in weight per unit volume when dry, Douglas fir averages 39 percent higher in compressive strength but considerably lower than red gum in shock resistance.

It is true, likewise, that some species of wood are equal in some respects to others of higher density. Douglas fir (coast type), although its density is but three-fourths that of commercial white oak, is about equal to the oak in bending and compressive strengths, and excels it in stiffness. However, the oak averages much higher than Douglas fir in hardness and shock resistance. Hence the specific gravity relationships among species represent general trends and not uniform laws. Departure of a species from the general relationship often indicates some exceptional characteristic which makes this species particularly desirable for certain use requirements.

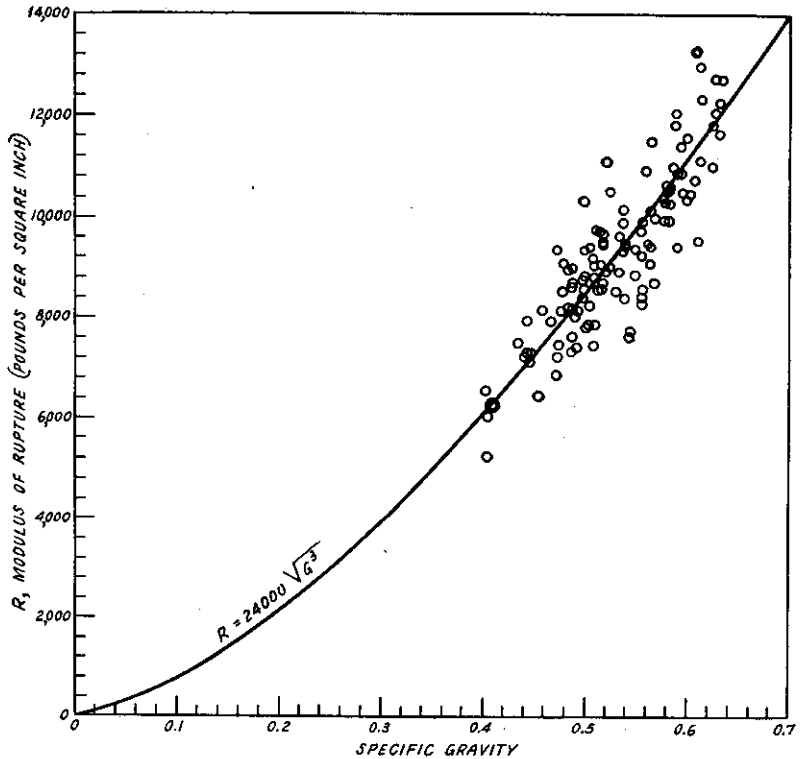


FIGURE 5.—Relation of modulus of rupture of white ash (green) to specific gravity.

SPECIFIC GRAVITY-STRENGTH RELATIONSHIP AMONG INDIVIDUAL PIECES OF A SPECIES

While a general relationship thus exists between the specific gravities and strength properties among different species, specific gravity affords a still better index of strength within a species. The heaviest pieces of any species of wood are generally 2 to 3 times as high in specific gravity as the lighter ones of the species, and are correspondingly stronger. The relationship of pieces within a species is usually represented by a power of specific gravity slightly higher than that representing average values for different species. Furthermore, departures from the average relationship are less marked. Figure 5 illustrates the relation between the specific gravity and the modulus of rupture for individual pieces of white ash.

THE TREE IN RELATION TO STRENGTH

HEIGHT IN TREE

The wood from the butt of the trees of many species is higher in specific gravity than that from higher positions. Since wood of higher specific gravity usually has the better mechanical properties regardless of position in tree, the height in tree ordinarily needs to be taken into account only in connection with other factors (fig. 6). Sometimes, however, notably in hickory and ash, material from the

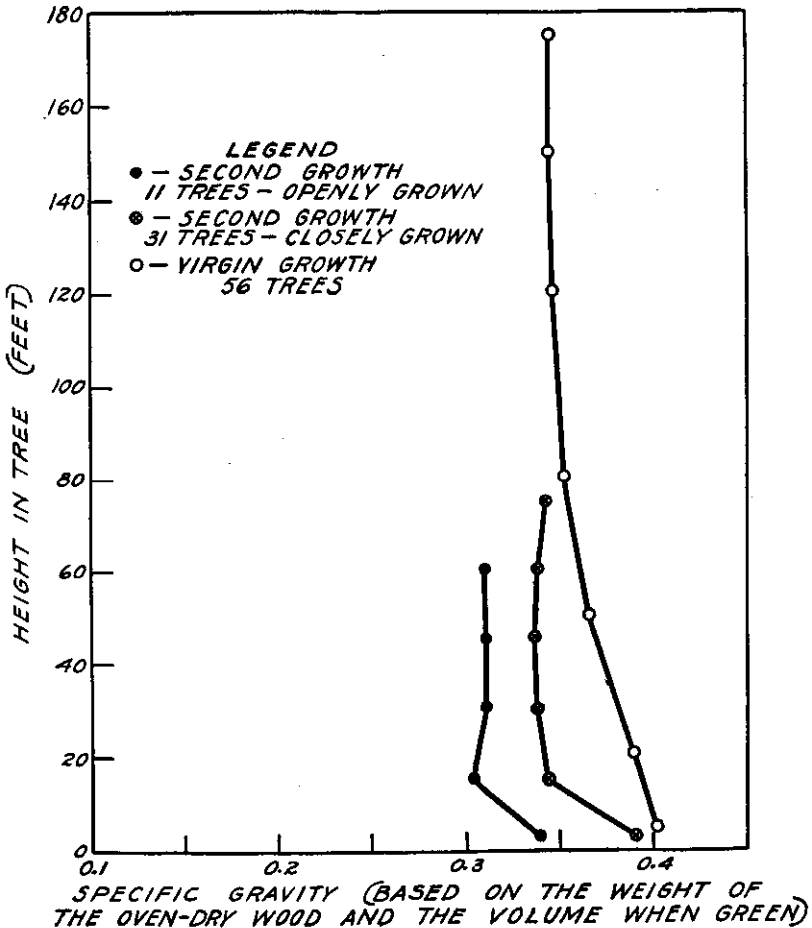


FIGURE 6.—Variation in specific gravity with height for virgin-growth and second-growth redwood.

butt shows superior toughness or shock resistance for its weight. On the other hand, wood from the swelled butts of certain swamp-grown hardwoods is usually low in specific gravity and of inferior strength properties, whereas that above the swelled butt is more nearly normal.

POSITION IN CROSS SECTION OF TREE

Position in cross section is not in itself a reliable guide to the strength of the wood. As in other instances, the wood of highest specific gravity has the best strength properties.

In coniferous species wood near the pith of the tree is often of very rapid growth and low specific gravity, whereas that in the outer part of overmature trees is of slow growth and likewise of medium to low specific gravity, the wood of highest strength most frequently being that in the intermediate zone. The many factors influencing growth, however, result in wide diversity of wood formation and preclude the drawing of rigid general rules (fig. 7).

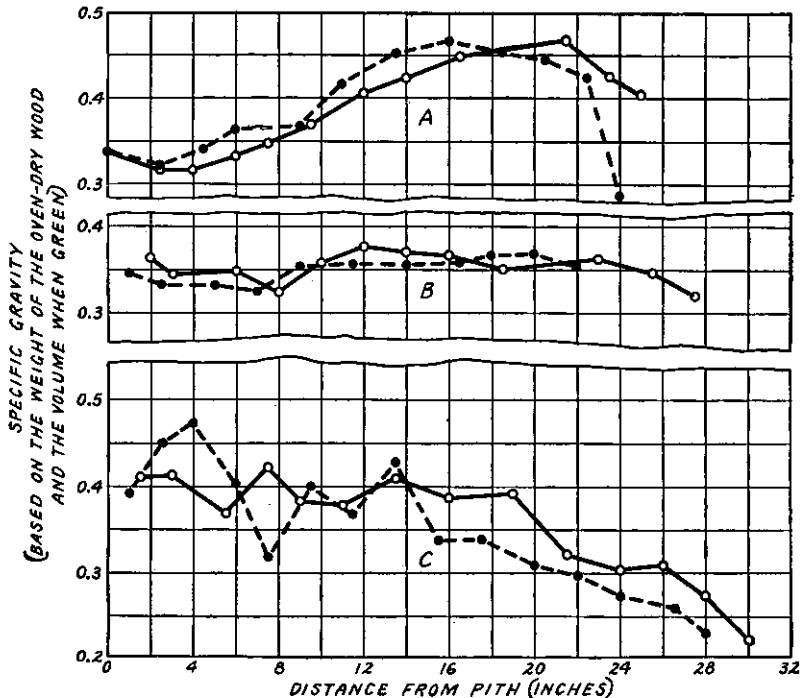


FIGURE 7.—Variation of specific gravity with distance from the pith for three different virgin-growth red-wood trees at a height of 20 to 30 feet above the ground, showing (A) increase in specific gravity with distance from pith for greater part of diameter (B) little or no change, and (C) decrease. Solid and dotted lines represent specimens taken from opposite sides of the pith.

In the hardwoods, wood of high density may be produced at any stage in the life of the tree, depending on the growth conditions at the particular time the wood is formed (39). In some hickory trees, for instance, wood of high density is found near the pith, and in others farther out in the cross section.

HEARTWOOD AND SAPWOOD

The trunk and principal branches of a tree consist of a central portion called heartwood surrounded by a layer of sapwood.

All wood is formed as sapwood and as the growth of the tree proceeds the inner portion becomes heartwood. In most species the transformation is accompanied by an infiltration of various substances that cause a change in color and in some species by the plugging up of the pores with a frothlike growth, known as "tyloses" (13).

In the many tests which have been made on the various species of wood, no effect upon the mechanical properties of most species due to change from sapwood to heartwood has been found. In general the conditions of growth that prevail when wood is first formed determine

its strength properties and whether heartwood or sapwood is the stronger depends on those conditions. Consequently, in one tree the heartwood may excel and in another of the same species the sapwood. Thus the heartwood of the southern pines and of Douglas fir is not, as has often been supposed to be the case, intrinsically stronger than the sapwood. The sapwood of hickory or ash may be either superior or inferior to the heartwood for handles (8). In some instances, however, as shown in the discussion of extractives, heartwood and sapwood do differ essentially in strength properties.

The heartwood of many species is of much darker color than the sapwood. In numerous species, on the other hand, the color difference is nonexistent or very slight. The sapwood of all species is lacking in resistance to decay and rapidly loses its strength if exposed to conditions favoring the growth of decay-producing organisms. The heartwood of some species is very resistant to decay, while that of other species is readily attacked.

Sapwood is more permeable to liquids than heartwood, and hence is desirable in wood that is to be impregnated or treated to increase its resistance to decay, fire, or insect attack.

VARIATION AMONG TREES

In addition to the variation of wood from one part to another of the same tree, there are considerable differences among trees of a species including those that grow side by side. The magnitude of these variations is illustrated by data on redwood. Of 57 virgin-growth trees examined in lots of 4 to 6 from each of 12 different localities throughout the range, the greatest observed difference in average specific gravity between individual trees from a single locality was 25 percent, based on the heaviest tree, whereas considering the entire range the greatest difference between individual trees was only 30 percent. The two trees representing the extremes found in the entire range were from the same county. These data indicate that the growth conditions affecting individual trees within a single site, and perhaps inherent differences in strains or types of trees, are of much greater importance in causing variations in specific gravity than geographical location within the normal range of growth of the species.

Probable variation of random tree from average for species

Property:	Percent
Specific gravity based on volume when green.....	4
Static bending:	
Fiber stress at proportional limit.....	9
Modulus of rupture.....	7
Modulus of elasticity.....	9
Work to maximum load.....	15
Impact bending:	
Fiber stress at proportional limit.....	8
Work to proportional limit.....	12
Height of drop.....	13
Compression parallel to grain:	
Fiber stress at proportional limit.....	12
Crushing strength.....	7
Compression perpendicular to grain: Fiber stress at proportional limit.....	14
Hardness:	
End.....	10
Side.....	9
Shearing strength parallel to grain.....	7
Tension perpendicular to grain.....	12

The preceding tabulation presents an estimate of the probable variation of a random tree from the average for a species, for a number of physical and mechanical properties. The values are general figures derived from a number of species.

LOCALITY OF GROWTH

In considering the causes of variations in properties of wood, it may first be noted that many factors affect the growth of trees. Such features of environment as soil, soil moisture, climatic conditions, and competition for light and food, vary widely within small areas, and are subject to further variation from one period to another during the life of the tree. Their effect is seemingly of greater importance than geographical location within the normal range of a species. This is indicated by the finding of significant differences in strength properties between samples from adjacent areas, among trees grown within a few yards of each other and between the inner and outer portions of the same tree and the observation that samples from widely separated regions may be very similar (29). This is illustrated by the discussion of redwood on page 42.

A further example is noted in Sitka spruce. Samples from two localities in Oregon show an average difference of 12 percent in specific gravity and 20 percent or more in modulus of rupture. In contrast, samples from near Ketchikan, Alaska, tested in a green condition, average the same in specific gravity as samples from near Portland, Oreg., and the difference in modulus of rupture was only a few percent. These and similar observations lead to the general conclusion that, in the absence of specific data concerning a given lot of material, average data for the species is a more reliable estimate of the strength properties of that lot than data on samples from adjacent localities or from sites that appear to be the same. However, there may be differences apparent in the grade and quality of wood from different stands, especially old-growth and second-growth stands in which prevalence of defects, seasoning characteristics, and the like, are sufficient in importance to justify marketing preferences.

The whole problem of the effect of region, site, and conditions of stand on wood properties is an exceedingly complicated one, and sufficient data are not available nor has sufficient study been made to attempt a final appraisal.

A few instances of significant differences in the properties of a species grown in different regions have been noted. For example, Douglas fir grows to larger size in the moist region of the Pacific Northwest than in the drier Rocky Mountain States, and the wood from the former region averages somewhat higher in specific gravity and strength properties than the latter. On the other hand, weight for weight, the wood from the two regions has the same strength, and pieces of Douglas fir from the Rocky Mountain region may be selected which are higher in properties than unselected Douglas fir from the Pacific Northwest.

Another significant effect of growth conditions on properties is that resulting from inundation. Some of the hardwoods, notably ash and tupelo gum (44) grown in the overflow bottom lands of the lower Mississippi basin develop swelled butts, the wood in which although of rapid growth and relatively good appearance, is low in specific gravity and poor in mechanical properties compared to average mate-

rial of the species. The characteristics of the wood from these swelled butts are so unlike those of the normal wood of the species that it cannot be satisfactorily employed for the same uses. Wood above this butt swell usually is normal in properties. Hence one utilization problem is the proper classification of such stock according to its properties and potential uses.

RATE OF GROWTH

Rate of growth as indicated by the width of the annual rings is of some assistance in appraising the physical and mechanical properties of wood, but it cannot be regarded as an efficient criterion for selection. Density or specific gravity, as explained on page 36, is a much more reliable criterion of strength. In any species, wood of excellent mechanical properties may vary considerably in rate of growth, but such material will quite consistently be of good density.

Among the ring-porous hardwoods, such as hickory, ash, and the oaks, the production of wood with low specific gravity is caused by some unfavorable condition which interferes with the normal growth of the tree. As a rule, wood of fairly rapid growth put on at any

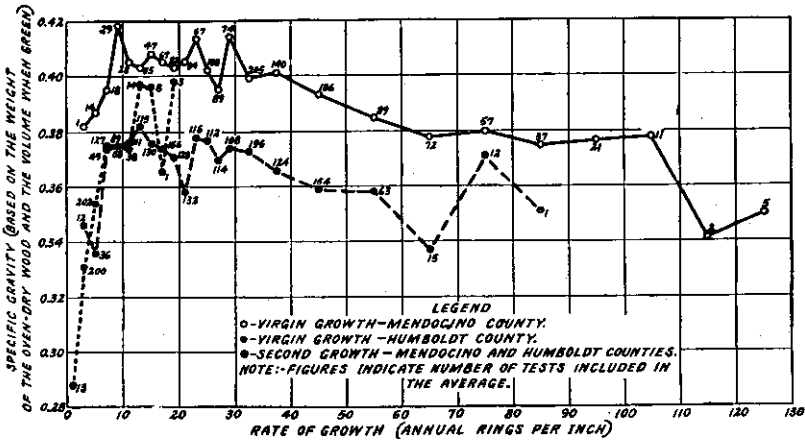


FIGURE 8.—Relation between specific gravity and rate of growth of the heartwood of redwood.

period of the life of the tree, is likely to be excellent in weight and strength. Wood of slow but uniform growth near the center of a tree may also be of high density, but wood of slow growth near the outside of the same tree is sure to be poorer if an interval of faster growth has intervened, or if the outer growth is slower than that about the center (39). Hence, in the ring-porous hardwoods fast growth (few rings per inch) is generally indicative of good strength properties, although slow growth does not necessarily indicate weak material. An exception is found in the rapid growth material from swelled butts of swamp-grown trees (p. 40).

Of the diffuse-porous hardwoods studied, sugar maple trees produced dense wood during early age whether their growth was rapid or slow. In some of the yellow poplar trees examined, wood of more rapid growth near the center was lighter in weight than that from the rest of the cross section, while other trees growing on rich alluvial soil

did not exhibit this difference. Accelerated growth following a period of slow growth resulted in an increase in the specific gravity of the wood, and hence in strength.

Softwood species show a wide range in density and strength at each rate of growth, but usually the strongest material is associated with a normal growth rate. Exceedingly rapid or exceptionally slow growth is most likely to be attended by low density and low mechanical properties. The lighter weight, slow-growth material shrinks and swells less with moisture changes than the heavier material, and usually stays in place better because of its greater freedom from internal stresses, so that it is to be preferred for many uses not primarily involving strength.

Figure 8 illustrates the relations between rate of growth (rings per inch) and specific gravity for redwood (24), and figure 9, the relation between rate of growth and modulus of rupture and work to maximum load for hickory.

TIMBER FROM LIVE AND FROM DEAD TREES

Sound wood from trees killed by insects, fungi, wind, or fire is, unless unduly checked, as good for any structural purpose as that from trees that were alive when cut (20).

If a tree stands on the stump after its death the sapwood is likely to become decayed or to be severely attacked by wood-boring insects, and in time the heartwood will be similarly affected. Such deterioration occurs also in logs that have not been properly cared for subsequent to being cut from live trees. Because of variations in climatic and local weather conditions and in other factors that affect the rate of deterioration, the length of the period during which timber may stand dead on the stump or may lie in the forest without serious deterioration varies. Tests on wood from trees of one species that had stood as long as 15 years after fire-killing demonstrated that this wood was sound and as strong as wood from live trees. Also logs of some of the more durable species have had thoroughly sound heartwood after lying on the ground in the forest for several decades. On the other hand, decay may cause great loss of strength within a very brief time, both in trees standing dead on the stump and in logs that have been cut from live trees and allowed to lie on the ground. Consequently, the important consideration is not whether the trees from which timber products are cut are alive or dead, but whether the products themselves are free from decay or other defects that would render them unsuitable for use. In considering the utility of timber from a dead tree it is helpful to remember that the heartwood of a living tree is entirely dead, and in the sapwood only a fraction of the cells are alive.

Decay that is not sufficiently advanced to be readily detected may still affect seriously the strength of a piece of wood. For this reason and also because decay is present in timber from dead trees more frequently than in that cut from freshly felled live trees, timber from dead trees needs more careful inspection. Specifications for some timber products, notably poles and piling, often require that only live trees be used. This requirement is difficult to enforce unless inspection is made in the forest, because wood cut from dead trees before weathering, seasoning, discoloration, decay, insect attack, or similar change has occurred cannot ordinarily be distinguished from wood

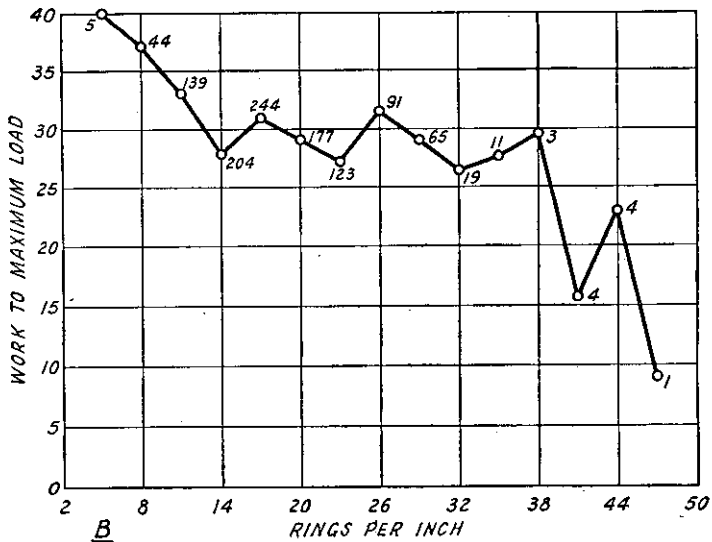
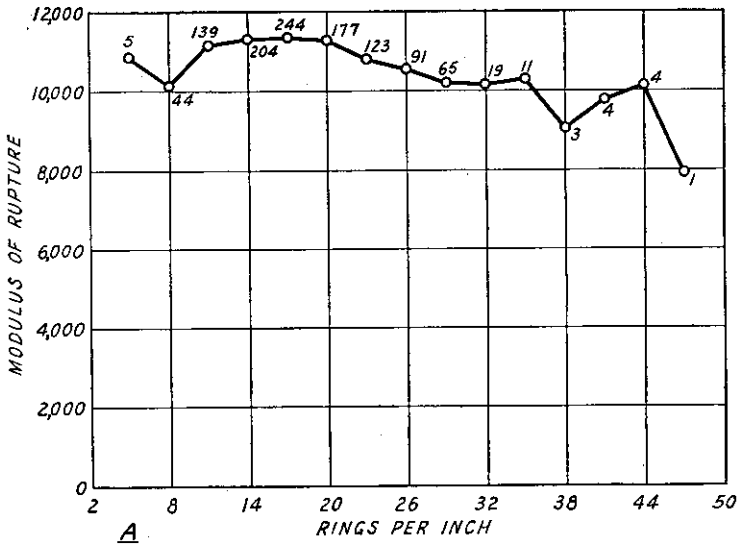


FIGURE 9.—Relation between the rate of growth and modulus of rupture (A) and also work to maximum load for green hickory (B). Figures indicate number of tests included in the average.

taken from live trees. Many specifications omit the live-tree requirement, depending entirely on inspection to determine the suitability of timber for use.

EFFECT OF RESIN AND OF TURPENTINING

Resin is formed in some of the conifers, especially the southern pines. Amounts up to 6 percent of the weight of the dry wood are common, and pieces with a resin content up to 50 percent are sometimes found.

Tests at the Forest Products Laboratory on southern yellow pine indicate that resin will slightly increase some strength properties but the effect is too small to be of any practical significance (10). An excessive amount of resin is sometimes associated with an injury such as a compression failure that may have greatly reduced the strength.

Longleaf and slash pine trees are frequently "tapped" for turpentine. The results of a special investigation, involving mechanical tests, and physical and chemical analyses of the wood of turpented and unturpented trees from the same locality (10), show that (1) turpented timber is as strong as unturpented if of the same weight (table 15); (2) the weight and shrinkage of the wood is not affected by turpenting; and (3) except in parts adjacent to the "faces" where there may be a concentration of resin, turpented trees contain practically neither more nor less resin than unturpented trees, the exudation of resin occurring only from the sapwood, and therefore the resin content of the heartwood is not affected by the turpenting process.

TABLE 15.—*Effect of turpenting on the strength of longleaf pine*

Item	Tests	Relative specific gravity of test pieces	Modulus of rupture	Maximum crushing strength (parallel to grain)
	Number		Lb. per sq. in.	Lb. per sq. in.
Unboxed (not turpented) trees.....	400	1.00	12,358	7,166
Boxed (turpented) and recently abandoned.....	390	1.07	12,961	7,813
Boxed (turpented) and abandoned 5 years.....	535	1.03	12,586	7,575

EXTRACTIVES AS RELATED TO STRENGTH

Extractives are constituents that dissolve when a piece of wood is placed in a solvent that has little or no effect on the wood substance. They are referred to as cold-water, hot-water, or alcohol-soluble extractives, depending on the solvent used. Extractives are found in the heartwood of many species and are especially abundant in redwood, western red cedar, and black locust. These species are also relatively high in certain strength properties for the amount of wood substance they contain, particularly when unseasoned, and tests have shown that the presence of extractives is probably accountable. The extent to which extractives affect the strength is apparently dependent upon the amount and nature of the extractives, the species of wood, the moisture condition of the piece, and the mechanical property under consideration. Of the properties examined, maximum crushing strength in compression parallel to the grain showed the greatest increase as the result of the infiltration of extractives accompanying the change of

sapwood into heartwood, and shock resistance the least, with modulus of rupture intermediate. In fact, under some conditions shock resistance appears to be actually lowered by extractives. That extractives may affect different species differently is indicated by the fact that they appear to affect the strength of western red cedar less than the strength of black locust, although black locust has a smaller percentage of extractives (23). Difference in the character of the extractives is probably also a factor in this connection.

TIME OR SEASON OF CUTTING

The time or season of cutting is sometimes thought to affect the properties and durability of wood, but so far as is known it actually has very little direct effect on the characteristics of the wood itself. The method of handling after cutting, however, may be very important. During the summer, for instance, seasoning proceeds more rapidly and is more apt to produce checking than in the winter. Insects, stains, and decay-producing fungi are more vigorous in the summer and the freshly-cut wood is most subject to attack at this time. Winter cutting, therefore, has the advantage that more favorable seasoning conditions and greater freedom from stains, molds, decay, and insects simplify the problem of caring for the timber before conversion. There is but little difference in the moisture content of green wood in winter and in summer.

MOISTURE AS RELATED TO STRENGTH

Wood in the green state contains considerable moisture varying from about 30 to 40 percent (based on the weight of the dry wood) in the heartwood of some of the pines to over 200 percent in some other species. Part of this moisture is held absorbed by the cell walls and part is held within the cell cavities as water is held in a container (15, 47, 60). As wood dries, the cell walls do not give off moisture until the adjacent cavities are empty. The condition in which the cell walls are fully saturated and the cell cavities empty is known as the "fiber-saturation point." It varies from 25 to 35 percent moisture content.

Increase in strength begins when the cell walls begin to lose moisture; that is, after the wood is dried to below the fiber-saturation point. From this point on most strength properties increase rapidly as drying progresses. This increased strength of dry over green wood of the same dimensions is due to two causes: (1) Actual strengthening and stiffening of the cell walls as they dry out, and (2) increase in the compactness or the amount of wood substance in a given volume because of the shrinkage that accompanies drying below the fiber-saturation point.

Drying wood down to 5-percent moisture may add from about 2½ to 20 percent to its density, while in small pieces its end-crushing strength, and bending strength, may easily be doubled and in some woods tripled. Thus, the first of the two factors mentioned is the one chiefly responsible for the increase in strength.

The increase in strength with seasoning is much greater in small clear specimens of wood than in large timbers containing defects. In the latter the increase in strength is to a large extent offset by the influence of defects that develop in seasoning.

The various strength properties are not equally affected by changes in moisture content. Whereas some properties, such as crushing strength and bending strength increase greatly with decrease in moisture, others, such as stiffness, change only moderately, and still

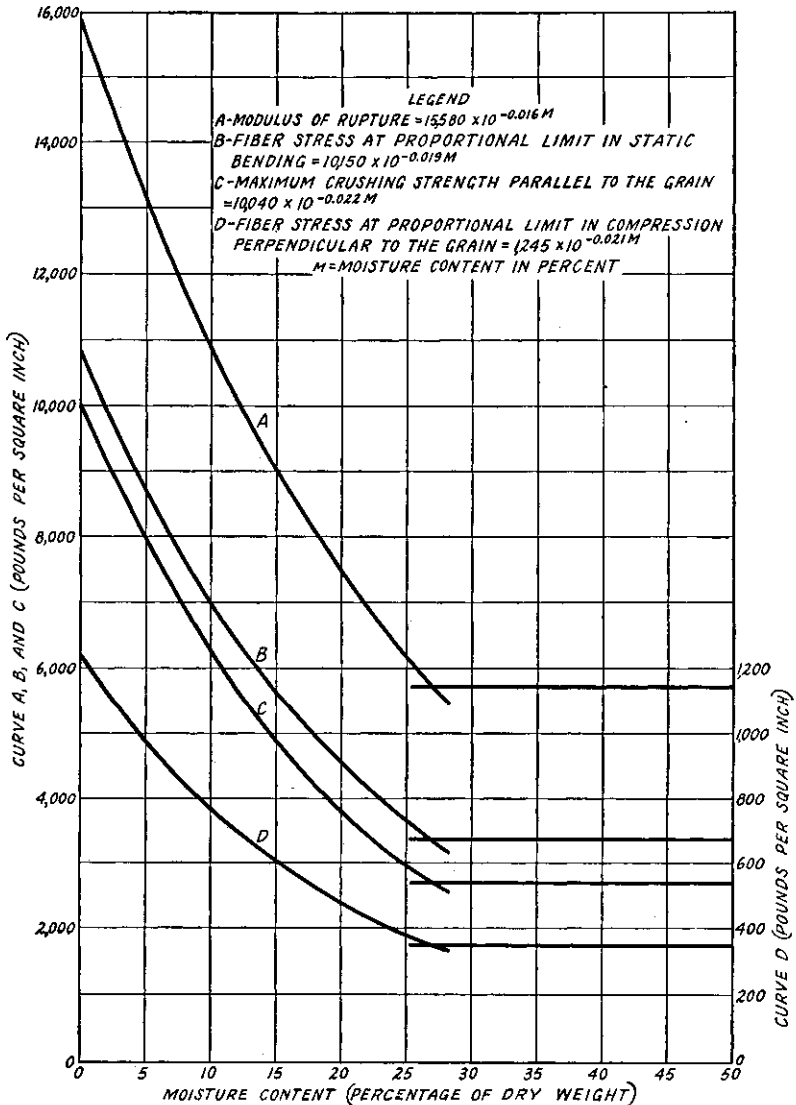


FIGURE 10.—The relation between mechanical properties and the moisture content of small clear specimens of Sitka spruce.

others, such as shock resistance, may even show a slight decrease. This last effect is due to the fact that drier wood does not bend so far as green wood before failure, although it will sustain a greater load, and because shock resistance or toughness is dependent upon both strength and pliability.

The following tabulation shows the average variation of the strength properties of wood with change in moisture content, and figure 10 shows graphically the effect of moisture on certain strength properties of Sitka spruce.

Average increase (or decrease) in value effected by lowering (or raising) the moisture content 1 percent

Property:	Percent
Static bending:	
Fiber stress at proportional limit.....	5
Modulus of rupture, or cross-breaking strength.....	4
Modulus of elasticity or stiffness.....	2
Work to proportional limit.....	8
Work to maximum load or shock-resisting ability.....	½
Impact bending:	
Fiber stress at proportional limit.....	3
Work to proportional limit.....	4
Height of drop of hammer causing complete failure.....	-½
Compression parallel to grain:	
Fiber stress at proportional limit.....	5
Maximum crushing strength.....	6
Compression perpendicular to grain:	
Fiber stress at proportional limit.....	5½
Hardness, end grain.....	4
Hardness, side grain.....	2½
Shearing strength parallel to grain.....	3
Tension perpendicular to grain.....	1½

METHODS OF MOISTURE-STRENGTH ADJUSTMENT

It is often desirable to adjust strength values for wood at one moisture content to what they would be under some other condition. This can be done quite accurately when the data apply to small clear specimens which are quite uniformly dried so that the moisture content is approximately the same at all points of the cross section.

Three general methods, differing materially in their accuracy, and in simplicity and facility of application, may be used for moisture-strength adjustments. These are referred to as the (1) approximate method, (2) the equation method, and (3) the graphical method.

APPROXIMATE METHOD

The approximate method of moisture-strength adjustment consists simply in an application of the percentage figures of the tabulation above for the property under consideration, regardless of species. For example, if the maximum crushing strength of Sitka spruce at 12-percent moisture content is 5,610 pounds per square inch, what is the approximate value at 10-percent moisture? From the tabulation it may be noted that the average change in maximum crushing strength for 1-percent change in moisture is 6 percent. For 2-percent change in moisture content (12-percent moisture to 10-percent moisture) the average expected change in maximum crushing strength would consequently be 12 percent. Since this property increases with decrease in moisture content, the approximate increase in strength is 12 percent of 5,610=673, and the approximate maximum crushing strength at 10-percent moisture is 5,610+673=6,283 pounds per square inch.

This is the least accurate of the several methods described, and is useful only for making rough approximations. For comparison it may be noted that application of the equation method to the foregoing example gives a value of 6,194 pounds per square inch.

EQUATION METHOD

Studies at the Forest Products Laboratory (60) have led to the derivation of a formula for strength adjustment, the numerical solution of which affords more accurate estimates than any other method. This formula, known as the exponential formula is based on the fact that for any one species and strength property, moisture-content values within certain limits and the logarithms of corresponding strength values have been found to conform closely to a straight-line relationship.

The formula may be written

$$\text{Log } S_D = \text{log } S_C + (C - D) \frac{\text{log } (S_B \div S_A)}{A - B}$$

where A , B , C , and D , are values of moisture content and S_A , S_B , S_C , and S_D are corresponding strength values; S_C is the strength value from tests made at moisture content C and S_D is this strength value adjusted to moisture content D . The expression

$$\frac{\text{log } (S_B \div S_A)}{A - B}$$

which is equivalent to

$$\frac{\text{log } S_B - \text{log } S_A}{A - B}$$

measures the change in strength property caused by a change of 1 percent in the moisture content. Required for evaluation of this expression are strength values S_A and S_B found from tests made at two different moisture contents A and B on matched specimens; that is, specimens that can be assumed to be alike except for the single factor of moisture content, such as specimens from closely adjacent positions within the same annual growth layers.

When in any instance a strength value is that for green material, the corresponding moisture content to be used for the species under consideration is listed in the following tabulation:

Species ² :	<i>Moisture content</i>	<i>Percent</i>
Ash, white		24
Birch, yellow		27
Chestnut		24
Douglas fir		24
Hemlock, western		28
Larch, western		28
Pine:		
Loblolly		21
Longleaf		21
Norway		24
Redwood		21
Spruce:		
Red		27
Sitka		27
Tamarack		24

² The exact value has been determined only for the species listed here. For other species the value of 24 percent may be assumed to apply.

Three types of moisture-strength adjustment differing with respect to the source of the data for evaluating the expression

$$\frac{\log (S_B \div S_A)}{A-B}$$

are defined and illustrated in the following paragraphs:

TYPE 1. From tests on matched groups of material at two different moisture-content values, a strength value corresponding to a third value of moisture content is computed, the data for evaluating the expression

$$\frac{\log (S_B \div S_A)}{A-B}$$

being supplied by the tests on the material under consideration.

Example: The average maximum crushing strength of Sitka spruce as listed in table 1 is 2,670 pounds per square inch for green material and 5,610 pounds per square inch for material at 12 percent moisture. Compute the maximum crushing strength corresponding to a moisture content of 14 percent.

$S_A=2,670$ from table 1, and A for green material is 27.

$S_B=5,610$, $B=12$. C may be taken either as 27 or 12 with corresponding choice of S_C ; that is, either the value for green material or that for material at 12-percent moisture may be adjusted to 14-percent moisture content.

$D=14$.

Taking $C=12$, and $S_C=5,610$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Log } S_{14} &= \text{log } 5,610 + (12 - 14) \frac{\text{log } (5,610 \div 2,670)}{27 - 12} \\ &= 3.7490 - 2 \times \frac{0.3224}{15} \\ &= 3.7490 - 0.0430 = 3.7060 \end{aligned}$$

Then $S_{14} = \text{antilog } 3.7060 = 5,082$.

or

Taking $C=27$ and $S_C=2,670$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Log } S_{14} &= \text{log } 2,670 + (27 - 14) \frac{\text{log } (5,610 \div 2,670)}{27 - 12} \\ &= 3.4265 + 13 \times \frac{0.3224}{15} \\ &= 3.4265 + 0.2794 = 3.7059 \end{aligned}$$

Then $S_{14} = \text{antilog } 3.7059 = 5,082$ as before, and the maximum crushing strength of Sitka spruce at 14-percent moisture content, as obtained by adjusting to this moisture content the average values given in table 1, is 5,082 pounds per square inch.

TYPE 2. A strength value obtained at one moisture content is adjusted to a second value of moisture content, the data for evaluating the expression

$$\frac{\log (S_B \div S_A)}{A-B}$$

as found in other tests on the same species being assumed to apply.

Example: A specimen of longleaf pine at 9.8-percent moisture content was found from test to have a modulus of rupture of 13,500 pounds per square inch. Estimate the value of modulus of rupture that would have resulted had the test been made at a moisture content of 12 percent.

Values of modulus of rupture on matched specimens of longleaf pine are given in table 1 as 8,700, which is equal to S_A , and 14,700, which is equal to S_B , pounds per square inch for the green and 12-percent moisture conditions, respectively. A , from the tabulation (p. 51) =21, $B=12$, $C=9.8$, and $D=12$.

Then substituting in the formula

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Log } S_{12} &= \log 13,500 + (9.8 - 12) \frac{\log (14,700 \div 8,700)}{21 - 12} \\ &= 4.1303 - 2.2 \times \frac{0.2278}{9} \\ &= 4.1365 - 0.0557 = 4.0746 \end{aligned}$$

$S_{12} = \text{antilog } 4.0746 = 11,874$

and the modulus of rupture at 12-percent moisture as estimated from the value determined at 9.8-percent moisture is 11,874 pounds per square inch.

TYPE 3. As in type 2, except that the data for evaluating the expression

$$\frac{\log (S_B \div S_A)}{A-B}$$

for the same species not being known an average value as computed from tests of other species is assumed to apply.

Example: The modulus of rupture of a sample of a hardwood species tested at 9-percent moisture content was 11,700 pounds per square inch. Estimate the value at 12-percent moisture. Here $S_C=11,700$, $C=9$, and $D=12$. No values of S_A and S_B for the same species being available, it is assumed that the strength-moisture relationship for this hardwood is similar to that for hardwood species

in general and 1.59, the value of $\frac{S_{12}}{S_G}$ as given for modulus of rupture

of hardwood species in table 16, is used for $\frac{S_A}{S_B}$. $A=12$ and for B the

value of 24 from the tabulation on page 51 is taken. Substituting in the formula:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Log } S_{12} &= \log 11,700 + (9 - 12) \frac{\log 1.59}{24 - 12} \\ &= 4.0682 - 3 \times \frac{0.2014}{12} \\ &= 4.0682 - 0.0503 = 4.0179 \end{aligned}$$

TABLE 16.—Average strength ratios $\left(\frac{S_{12}}{S_0}\right)$ for species in drying from a green condition to 12-percent moisture content

Property	Hardwoods (113 species)	Softwoods (54 species)
Static bending:		
Fiber stress at proportional limit.....	1.80	1.81
Modulus of rupture.....	1.59	1.61
Modulus of elasticity.....	1.31	1.28
Work to proportional limit.....	2.49	2.56
Work to maximum load.....	1.05	1.13
Impact bending:		
Fiber stress at proportional limit.....	1.44	1.39
Work to proportional limit.....	1.68	1.59
Height of drop causing complete failure.....	.89	1.03
Compression parallel to grain:		
Fiber stress at proportional limit.....	1.74	1.86
Maximum crushing strength.....	1.95	1.97
Compression perpendicular to grain: Fiber stress at proportional limit.....	1.84	1.96
Hardness:		
End.....	1.55	1.67
Side.....	1.33	1.40
Shear parallel to the grain: Maximum shearing strength.....	1.43	1.37
Tension perpendicular to grain: Maximum tensile strength.....	1.20	1.23

$$S_{12} = \text{antilog } 4.0179 = 10,400$$

Obviously, adjustments of type 1 are most and those of type 3 least accurate. The inaccuracy in types 2 and 3 is due to the assumed values of the expression

$$\frac{\log (S_B \div S_A)}{A - B}$$

not being definitely applicable.

In types 2 and 3 the accuracy of the computed or estimated value decreases with increase in moisture difference for which adjustment is made.

GRAPHICAL METHOD

The graphical method consists of using a chart (fig. 11) for the solution of the formula described under the equation method, thus avoiding the use of logarithms as required in the arithmetical calculation. This method is, therefore, simpler than the equation method, but due to the personal equation in reading the chart and the small scale of the chart, the adjustment is less accurate.

The procedure in the use of the chart is as follows:

1. First determine *K*, the ratio of the strength when dry to the strength when green for the strength property and species under consideration. This ratio should be determined from one of the three following sources, with preference in the order named:

(a) From the tests of matched green and dry material for which the adjustment is to be made.

(b) From the data for green and dry material of table 1.

(c) From the ratios of table 16.

2. Determine the difference in moisture between the value to be used for green material (table 1) and the moisture content of the dry material on which the preceding dry to green strength ratio is based. (For all species listed in table 1 the moisture content of the dry material is 12 percent.)

3. Determine the difference between the moisture content of the material at test and the moisture content to which adjustment is to

be made. This difference represents the range in moisture over which the adjustment is to be made.

4. Locate on the chart a point corresponding to the difference in moisture content as determined under 2 and the ratio K as determined under 1. From the line joining this point with the lower

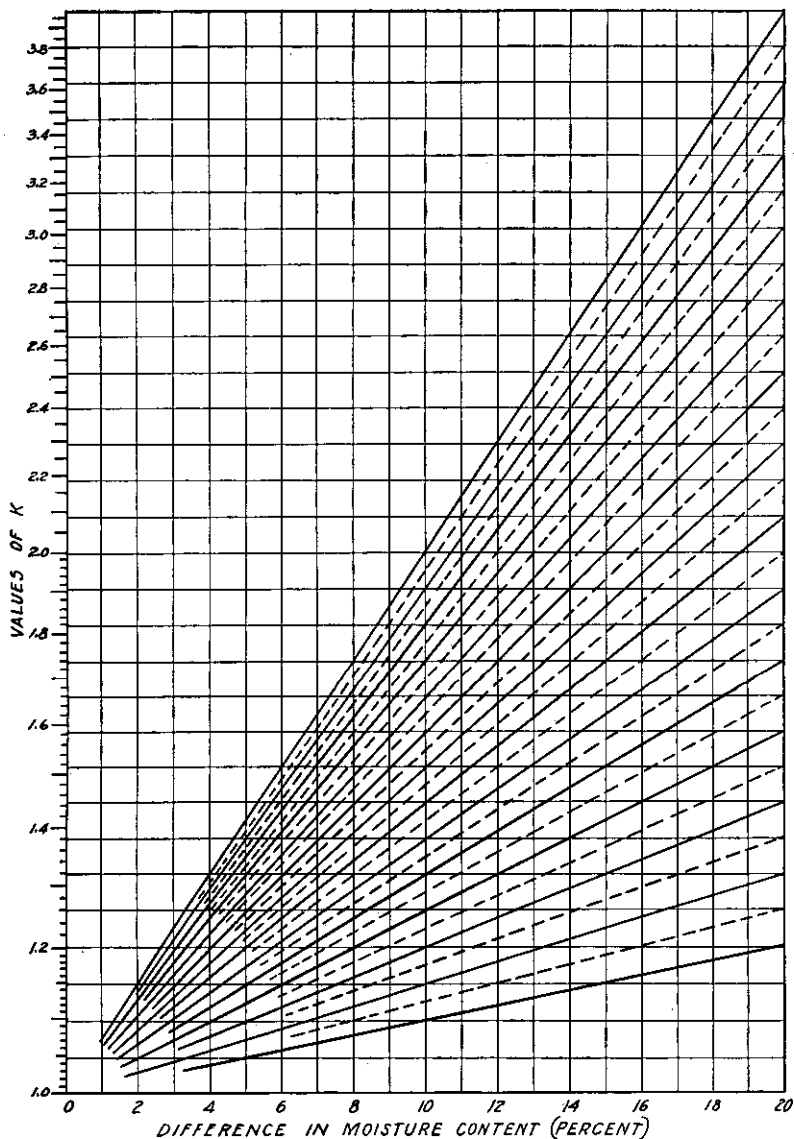


FIGURE 11.—Chart for making strength-moisture adjustments.

left-hand corner of the chart the ratio corresponding to any difference in moisture content can be found.

5. Locate on this line, the point that corresponds to the difference in the moisture content as determined under 3, and read the corresponding new strength ratio K on the left-hand scale.

6. (a) If the adjustment is being made to a lower moisture content than that at which the tests were made, multiply the strength at test by the new ratio (as obtained in 5 above) to get the adjusted strength value.

(b) If the adjustment is being made to a higher moisture content than that at which the tests were made, divide the strength at test by the new ratio (as obtained in 5 above) to get the adjusted strength value.

Example 1. Tests of matched specimens of Douglas fir gave values of maximum crushing strength of 3,940 and 10,680 pounds per square inch, respectively, for green wood and wood at 6.2-percent moisture content. What is the strength at 12-percent moisture content?

1. The ratio $K = \frac{10,680}{3,940} = 2.71$.

2. The difference between the moisture content to be used for green material (tabulation on p. 51) and that at test is $24 - 6.2 = 17.8$ which is the difference in moisture content to which the ratio 2.71 applies.

3. The difference between the moisture content of the dry material at test and the moisture content to which adjustment is desired is $12 - 6.2 = 5.8$.

4. Starting with the ratio 2.71 on the left-hand margin of figure 11, and following horizontally to the vertical representing the 17.8-percent moisture difference, locate a point.

5. Following the converging line on which this point is located to its intersection with a vertical corresponding to the moisture difference of 5.8 (step 3), and thence horizontally to the left-hand margin, a new ratio K of 1.38 is found.

6. The maximum crushing strength at 12 percent moisture is $\frac{10,680}{1.38} = 7,740$ pounds per square inch. The moisture content of 12 percent to which adjustment is made is higher than the moisture content at test. Consequently the strength value at test is divided by the ratio.

Example 2. The modulus of rupture of a sample of hardwood species tested at 13-percent moisture content was 10,030 pounds per square inch. What is the estimated value at 9-percent moisture?

1. Since data on matched green and dry material are not available, the average ratio of strength when dry (12-percent moisture content) to that when green for a hardwood is taken from table 16, and is 1.59.

2. From the tabulation on page 51, the moisture content to be used for green material is assumed to be 24-percent moisture content. The ratio of 1.59 applies to material at 12-percent moisture content. The moisture difference is, therefore, $24 - 12 = 12$ -percent moisture content.

3. The differences between the moisture content of the sample at test and the moisture to which adjustment is desired is $13 - 9 = 4$ percent.

4. Starting with the ratio 1.59 on the left-hand margin of figure 11, and following horizontally to the vertical representing 12-percent moisture difference, locate a point.

5. Following the converging line through this point to its intersection with the vertical corresponding to the moisture difference of 4

percent (step 3), and thence horizontally to the left-hand margin, the ratio K of 1.165 is found.

6. The modulus of rupture at 9-percent moisture content is $10,030 \times 1.165 = 11,680$ pounds per square inch. In this instance the moisture content of 9 percent to which adjustment is made is lower than the moisture content at test and the strength value at test is multiplied by the ratio K .

LIMITATIONS TO MOISTURE-STRENGTH ADJUSTMENTS

When the strength data are from tests on material in which the moisture is not uniformly distributed in the cross section, moisture-strength adjustments on the basis of the methods just outlined cannot be considered as reliable, and no acceptable general method for the adjustment of such data is available.

COMPARATIVE STRENGTH OF AIR-DRIED AND KILN-DRIED WOOD

Some wood users contend that kiln-dried wood is brash and not equal in strength to wood that is air-dried. Others advance figures purporting to show that kiln-dried wood is much stronger than air-dried. However, comparative strength tests, made by the Forest Products Laboratory on kiln-dried and air-dried specimens of 28 common species of wood, show that good kiln drying and good air drying have the same effect upon the strength of wood but that severe conditions in the kiln will lower most of the strength properties (56).

The belief that kiln drying produces stronger wood than air drying is usually the result of failure to consider differences in moisture content. The moisture content of wood on leaving the kiln is generally from 2 to 6 percent lower than that of thoroughly air-dried stock. Since wood rapidly increases in most strength properties with loss of moisture, higher strength values may be obtained from kiln-dried than from air-dried wood. Such a difference in strength is not permanent, since in use a piece of wood will come to practically the same moisture condition whether it is kiln-dried or air-dried.

It must be emphasized that the appearance of wood is not a reliable criterion of the effect the drying process may have upon its strength. The strength properties may be seriously injured without visible damage to the wood. Also, it has been found that the same kiln-drying process cannot be applied with equal success to all species. To insure kiln-dried material of the highest strength, a knowledge of the correct kiln conditions to use with stock of a given species, grade, and thickness, and a record showing that no more severe treatment has been employed, are necessary.

TEMPERATURE AS RELATED TO STRENGTH

The moisture content of wood determines to a large extent how it is affected by temperature.

Lowering the temperature of wet or green wood decidedly increases its stiffness and its strength in compression parallel to grain. Freezing temperatures have resulted in increases of from 5 to 25 percent as compared to values at normal room temperature, the results varying with the strength property considered, the species, and the moisture condition (12, 47). Such effects are much less pronounced in wood

whose moisture content is below the fiber-saturation point and become comparatively small at very low moisture content values.

Tests in compression parallel to grain have shown values for green wood at temperatures near the boiling point about one-fifth as great as at normal room temperature. Including both moisture and temperature effects a tenfold difference in maximum crushing strength has been observed between specimens tested immediately after soaking in hot water and other matched specimens that were tested after cooling subsequent to over drying to expel all moisture. This illustrates the importance of establishing comparable conditions of moisture and temperature when making comparisons involving strength.

Aside from the current or immediate effects of temperature as just cited, tests have shown that heating to or above the boiling point for several hours or to more moderate temperatures, such as are used in kiln drying, for longer periods may permanently lower the strength properties as compared to unheated wood at the same moisture content. The effect on the strength at some lower moisture content is somewhat less than on the strength of wood in the green or wet condition. The amount of this lowering apparently depends on a large number of variables including species, size, and moisture content of the material when heated, the temperature, and the duration of the heating period (22, 42, 59).

Steaming or boiling of wood for brief periods is used to make it pliable and prepare it for bending to curved form. Such preparation makes it possible to bend the wood to curvatures otherwise unattainable. The heating is usually for comparatively brief periods and probably has little permanent effect on the strength.

EFFECT OF PRESERVATIVE TREATMENT ON STRENGTH

Coal-tar creosote, water-gas tar, wood-tar creosote, creosote-tar mixtures, and creosote-petroleum mixtures are practically inert to wood and have no chemical influence upon it that would affect its strength (6). The 2- to 5-percent solutions of zinc chloride commonly used in preservative treatment apparently have no important effect.

Although wood preservatives are not harmful in themselves, the treatment used in injecting them into the wood may result in considerable loss of strength to the wood. Green wood conditioned for the injection of preservatives by steaming or by boiling under vacuum may be seriously reduced in strength if extreme temperatures or heating periods are employed. Consequently, care should be used to keep the temperature as low and the duration of the treatment as short as is consistent with satisfactory absorption and penetration of the preservative (59). A gage pressure of 20 pounds (259° F.) is sufficiently high for steam conditioning. No advantage is known to result from higher pressures, and the resulting higher temperatures are much more likely to damage the wood. The maximum temperature employed in the boiling-under-vacuum process is usually less than 210°.

The use of pressures greater than 175 pounds in injecting preservatives into wood that is soft from long heating is likely to cause severe end checking and collapse. Considerably higher pressures can be used if the wood has been heated for a short time only, or not at all. Woods of low density are more subject to injury from high pressures than woods of high density.

STRENGTH AS AFFECTED BY RATE AND METHOD OF LOADING

DURATION OF STRESS

The duration of stress or the time during which a load or force acts on a beam or other wooden member has an important bearing on the use of the timber, and on the adaptation of results of tests to the design of different kinds of structures or members. For instance, when an airplane traveling at high speed suddenly changes its course as in flattening out following a dive, wooden members may without damage be subjected for a few seconds to forces which would cause complete failure if applied for a longer time. In impact-bending tests, where the load is suddenly applied and is maintained for but a fraction of a second, a stick will resist a force more than double that required to produce failure in a standard static-bending test. On the other hand, beams under continuous loading for years, as in warehouse floors, will fail at loads one-half to three-fourths as great as would be required to produce failure in the standard static bending test where the maximum load is reached in a few minutes (5, 27, 31, 49).

From the foregoing it is clear that tests made under widely different conditions of loading are not comparable, and that the allowable stress in a wooden beam must be determined in accordance with the loading to which it will be subjected in service. The rapidity with which the load is applied and the duration of the stress are material factors in the result.

Figure 12 presents an interpretation of some data on the influence of rate of loading from tests of small clear specimens. A tenfold increase or decrease in the rate of loading produces approximately a 10-percent increase or decrease, respectively, in bending strength.

In timber testing, the allowable tolerance in rate of loading is limited to ± 25 percent of the required rate in order to keep the variation in test results from this cause within about 1 percent (48).

FATIGUE

Some tests have been carried on both in the United States and in Europe to determine the effect of repeated stress and vibration although no extended and thorough or complete investigation has been made (30).

In tests made at the Forest Products Laboratory on beams of circular cross section, rotated so that the outer fibers were stressed in compression and tension alternately at each revolution, the fatigue limit was found to be about one-third of the modulus of rupture as determined in static tests, on beams having square cross sections. Sometimes the fatigue limit of wooden beams with circular cross section is expressed as a ratio to the static modulus of rupture of beams also of circular cross section. Expressed in this way the ratio is less than one-third, since a beam of circular section has a form factor of 1.18. These tests involved over 300,000 stress cycles (table 17).

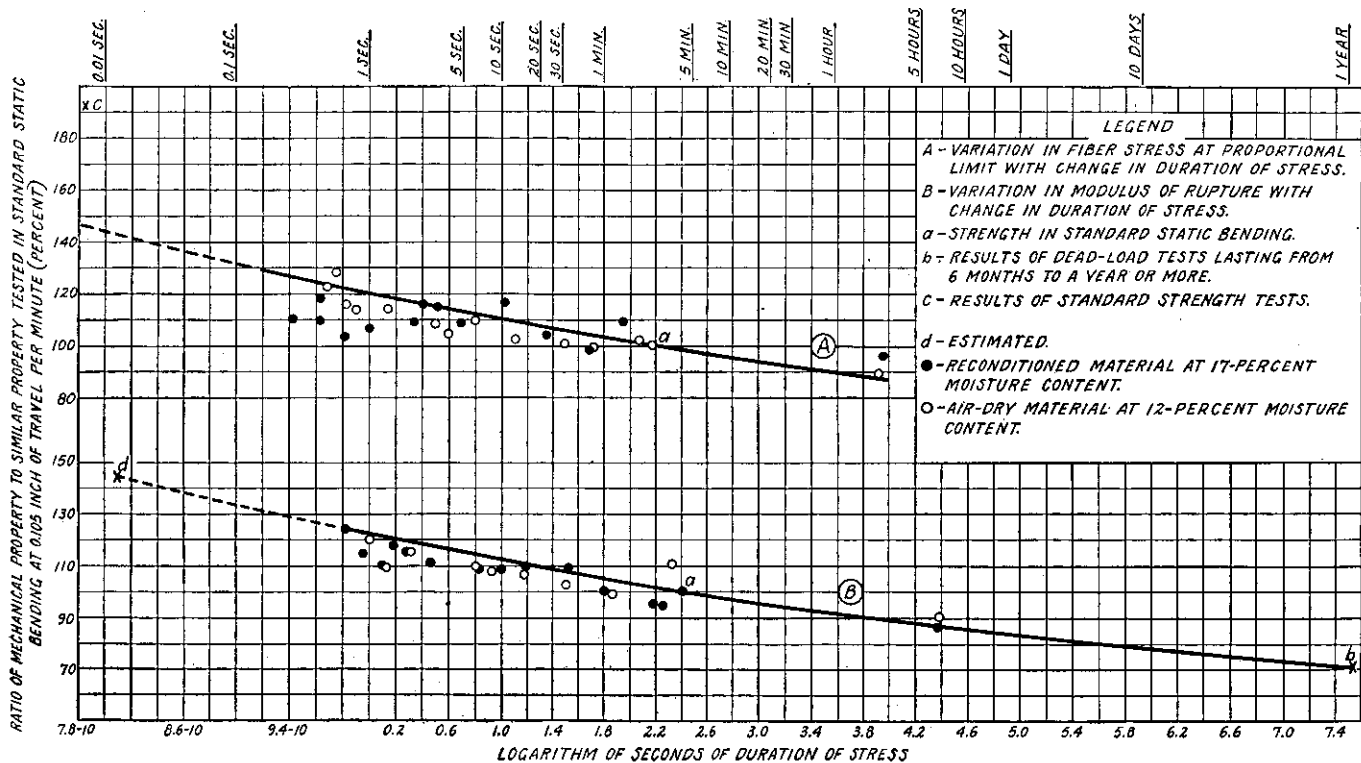


FIGURE 12.—The relation between fiber stress at proportional limit in static bending and modulus of rupture of Sitka spruce, and duration of stress. Each point is the average of the results of from 5 to 10 tests. Duration of stress is the total time between application of load and reaching the proportional limit or the maximum load.

TABLE 17.—Results of static tests and fatigue rotating beam tests of wood

Kind of wood	Moisture content	Specific gravity ¹	Static modulus of rupture for specimens of circular cross section	Estimated endurance limit (rotating beam test specimens of circular cross section)	Ratio of endurance limit to modulus of rupture of beams of circular cross section	Ratio of endurance limit to modulus of rupture of beams of square cross section ²
	<i>Percent</i>		<i>Lb. per sq. in.</i>	<i>Cycles</i>		
Sitka spruce.....	13.8	0.38	12,100	3,200	0.27	0.32
Southern white oak.....	82.4	.58	10,600	3,200	.30	.35
Douglas fir.....	14.3	.50	15,000	4,000	.27	.32
Do.....	23.8	.52	12,800	3,900	.31	.37

¹ Specific gravity, oven dry, based on volume at test.

² Calculated on basis that form factor of beam of circular cross section is 1.15.

Studies made on cantilever beams having an enlarged cross section at the point of support demonstrated that the fatigue limit varied greatly depending on whether the change of cross section was abrupt or gradual.

With even what is normally considered a generous fillet the fatigue limit is lowered markedly. This effect, together with the influence of form factors, has led some investigators erroneously to place the fatigue limit for wood as low as one-sixth of the static modulus of rupture.

Tests made at the Forest Products Laboratory on tapered specimens of a form to obviate changes in cross section that would influence failure show that, for a stress just slightly greater than the fatigue limit, failure occurs at not more than 2,000,000 load reversals and in some species at less than 1,000,000 reversals. Tests at stresses only slightly less than the fatigue limit showed no failure after reversals ranging in number from 14,000,000 to 125,000,000.

Other tests on Sitka spruce in which specimens of rectangular cross section were vibrated through approximately 5,000,000 cycles indicate that the modulus of elasticity is not greatly affected by vibration. No effect on fiber stress at proportional limit and modulus of rupture could be detected from these tests, the values being about the same for specimens which had and which had not been vibrated. The tests indicate that the same stress prevails at the fatigue limit with vibrated specimens of rectangular cross section as with rotated specimens of circular cross section.

Further studies to obtain more specific information on the effects of vibration and fatigue, particularly when subjected to a large number of stress cycles, and to determine the variation of these properties with different species are needed.

EFFECT OF TIME OR LENGTH OF SERVICE ON THE STRENGTH OF WOOD

It is sometimes assumed that wood is perishable and is suitable only for use in temporary structures. Although wood, like other materials, is subject to attack by destructive agents, there is ample historical evidence of its permanence when protected from attack by such agencies as fungi, insects, marine borers, and rodents.

So far as is known the lignin and cellulose which constitute the wood substance are not subject to chemical change with time when

wood is adequately protected from the elements and other destructive agencies, although the color of wood may be slightly changed by long-continued exposure to air. Possibly this change of color results from oxidation of substances that are not parts of the wood substance.

The effect of time cannot be appraised accurately by tests of wood from old structures since the original strength of the material is unknown. The evidence from such tests as are on record is that no significant loss of strength has occurred in the absence of the destructive agencies enumerated (1, 2, 14).

The shrinkage that occurs in the drying of wood induces internal stresses. In time, equalization of differentials of moisture content combined with the action of wood as a plastic material relieves such stresses. This effect would tend to increase the resistance to external forces but its effect is probably not great enough to be significant in most uses of wood.

A recent survey has shown that literally hundreds of bridges made entirely or partly of wood have served satisfactorily and with but little attention for long periods. Many that are more than a century old are still in service. Others have given way, while still in good condition, to the demands for greater width of roadway and higher load capacity than that for which they were built (11).

SIZE OF PIECE AS RELATED TO STRENGTH

It is well known that the size and form of a timber have a definite bearing on its load-carrying ability for different purposes, but the manner in which the load-carrying ability and stiffness vary with dimensions is not so generally understood.

SIZE OF COLUMNS OR COMPRESSION MEMBERS

In a short column, that is, a column whose ratio of length to least dimension is 11 to 1 or less, the end load that can be carried varies simply with the area of the cross section of the piece, other factors being equal. However, with a long column, one whose length exceeds about 20 times its least dimension, the end load that can be supported (with a given "end condition") varies not as the cross-sectional area, but directly as the greater dimension of the cross section, directly as the cube of the lesser, and inversely as the square of the length. Columns are usually either square or round. Hence the load that can be carried by a long column of square or circular cross section varies directly as the fourth power of the side of the square or diameter of circle, and inversely as the square of the length. The load that can be supported by columns of intermediate length is intermediate between that for the short and long column (32).

SIZE OF BEAMS

The load that a beam of rectangular cross section can carry, other factors being equal, varies directly as the width, directly as the square of the depth, and inversely as the span. The deflection for a given load varies inversely as the width, inversely as the cube of the depth, and directly as the cube of the span.

A few numerical examples will serve to illustrate these relations. Let it be assumed that a beam $1\frac{1}{2}$ by $7\frac{1}{2}$ inches (nominal 2 by 8) is used on edge on a 12-foot span.

EFFECT OF WIDTH

If the width of beam were increased from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches (nominal 4-inch width) a total load about two and one-fourth times as large ($3\frac{1}{2} \div 1\frac{1}{2} = 2.23$) could be carried, and the deflection for a given load would be about 45 percent as great

$$\left(\frac{1}{3\frac{1}{2}} \div \frac{1}{1\frac{1}{2}} = 0.448 \right)$$

EFFECT OF DEPTH

If the depth were increased from $7\frac{1}{2}$ to $9\frac{1}{2}$ inches (nominal 10-inch depth) a total load 1.6 times as large, $(9\frac{1}{2})^2 \div (7\frac{1}{2})^2 = 1.60$, could be carried, and the deflection for a given load would be about 49 percent as great

$$\left(\frac{1}{(9\frac{1}{2})^3} \div \frac{1}{(7\frac{1}{2})^3} = 0.492 \right)$$

EFFECT OF LENGTH

If the span were increased from 12 to 15 feet a total load 80 percent as large ($\frac{1}{15} \div \frac{1}{12} = 0.80$) could be carried, and the deflection for a given load would be nearly twice as great ($15^3 \div 12^3 = 1.95$).

The preceding relations are those expressed by the usually accepted engineering formulas and are based on assumptions that are more or less inaccurate under certain conditions. Their use, however, has been long established and they may be regarded as the best general basis for calculation.

Since strength and stiffness are dependent on the form and size of piece as well as on the inherent strength of the wood, it is usually possible to compensate for the lower strength of the weaker species by increasing the size of members in accordance with engineering principles.

FORM OF CROSS SECTION AS RELATED TO STRENGTH OF WOODEN BEAMS

Calculations by the commonly accepted engineering formulas as previously illustrated are sufficiently accurate for use in the design of members of rectangular cross section for common structural purposes. Experiments have demonstrated, however, that beams may carry more or less load, depending on the form of the cross section, than would be calculated from the general beam formula, using the modulus-of-rupture value based on specimens 2 by 2 inches in cross section as given in table 1. Hence, when members of other than rectangular section are used, or when maximum accuracy is essential, as in the design of aircraft parts, modification of these formulas is necessary (36).

Tests have shown that a beam of given cross-sectional area carries the same load regardless of whether the cross section is circular, square, or diamond shape (square with diagonal in the direction of load). This is true both of loads at proportional limit and of maximum load. The corresponding stresses computed from the usual formula are 18 percent higher for the circular and 41 percent higher

for the diamond-shaped beam than for the square. Thus the circular and diamond-shaped sections may be said to have form factors of 1.18 and 1.41, respectively. On the other hand, the form factor for beams with I and box-shaped sections has been found to be less than unity and may in extreme instances be as small as 0.50.

The stresses developed in a wooden beam also depend on its size—or rather its depth. In general, the shallower the beam the greater the stresses that will be developed and conversely. This effect is sufficient to make about 7 percent difference between depths of 8 and 2 inches.

Theoretically, also, the stresses developed are affected by the width of the piece. As far as is known, this effect is not sufficiently large to be of practical significance. If, however, the width is too small in comparison with the height and span a beam may deflect sideways and fail at a lower stress than would a wider beam with other dimensions the same or than the same beam if braced against deflection sideways (52).

The effects of shape and depth of beams as just discussed apply to loads and stresses. Modulus of elasticity is not affected. Consequently, the same value of modulus of elasticity may be used for computing deflections by the usual engineering formulas regardless of the shape or depth of a beam. When, however, the relation of depth to span is such that high horizontal shearing stress is involved, the effect of shearing deformation should be considered in computing deflections (35).

DEFECTS

Defects are any irregularities occurring in or on wood that may lower some of the strength, durability, or utility values. Defects may be divided into two groups on the basis of their effect on structural timbers: (1) Those that materially affect the strength and must be considered in formulating specifications. This group includes decay, cross grain, knots, shakes, checks, and splits; and structural grading rules definitely limit the sizes of such defects according to the grade (9, 33, 34, 61). (2) Those that would normally be excluded for other reasons than their effect on the strength. This second group includes pitch pockets, wane, wormholes, warp, pith, and imperfect manufacture. These may ordinarily be disregarded in grading structural timbers but must be considered in selecting material of smaller size for special uses, such as handles or ladder parts.

DECAY

Vegetable organisms known as fungi, of which there are many varieties, are the cause of decay or rot in timber. Aside from food, which is supplied by the wood, the three essentials to their development are air, suitable temperature, and favorable moisture content. Wood that is completely submerged in water does not decay because the necessary air is lacking. Wood whose moisture content is constantly below about 16 percent does not decay because insufficient moisture is available for decay-producing organisms. The so-called dry rot develops in timber that is apparently below such a moisture content because the producing organism is capable of conducting the needed moisture from sources outside the timber itself.

Wood decays more rapidly in warm humid climates than in cool dry regions. High altitudes are as a rule less favorable to decay than nearby low areas because the average temperature is lower and the growing season for fungi is shorter.

Not all properties are affected to the same extent by a given degree of decay. Shock-resisting ability as reflected in the work values in static bending, or the height of drop in impact bending, is one of the first properties to be affected, and decay which has not progressed far enough to be visible may seriously impair this quality. Crushing strength parallel to the grain is slowest to give way, with hardness and strength as a beam holding an intermediate position. Decay often develops in localized regions or pockets and may not affect the strength of a piece uniformly.

Because of the fact that it is impossible to estimate satisfactorily either the extent to which decay has progressed, or the probability of its further development, timber containing decay in any stage should be regarded with misgiving for use where strength is important.

Two methods are available for prolonging the life of timber exposed to conditions favorable to decay: (1) Use the heartwood of species that are naturally resistant to decay; (2) impregnate the wood with a preservative (18).

The danger of decay can in many instances be lessened materially by careful attention to details of design and construction. For example, proper insulation of water pipes will prevent excess humidity and the deposition of water on woodwork in their vicinity; joints in exterior woodwork can be made so that they are readily drained or ventilated; ventilation can be provided beneath the floors of houses without basements; basement posts or columns can be raised a few inches above the floor by means of pedestals.

The sapwood of all species has low natural decay resistance and generally short life under decay-producing conditions. Common native species vary greatly with respect to the durability of the heartwood. Furthermore, all pieces of the heartwood of a species are not equally durable.

General comparisons of the relative decay resistance of different species must be estimates. They cannot be exact and they may be very misleading if interpreted as mathematically accurate and applicable in all instances. They may be very useful, however, if understood as approximate averages only, from which specific cases may vary considerably, and as having application only where conditions are favorable to decay. The classification of a number of common native species with respect to the durability of the untreated heartwood as presented in table 7 is to be so understood.

CROSS GRAIN

The term "cross grain" denotes any deviation of wood fibers from a direction parallel to the longitudinal axis of a piece.

In order to correlate cross grain with the strength properties of timber, a definite method of measurement is necessary. This is afforded by the angle between the direction of the fibers and the axis of the piece, or edge if it is parallel to the axis. The angle is usually expressed as a slope; for instance, 1 in 15, or 1 to 15, means that the grain deviates 1 inch from the edge of the piece in a distance of 15 inches.

An extensive series of tests on Sitka spruce, Douglas fir, and commercial white ash has shown that the several strength properties differ in the degree to which they are affected by cross grain and that for properties materially affected the tendency of values to fall off occurs with even slight deviations of grain (19, 57). Values presented

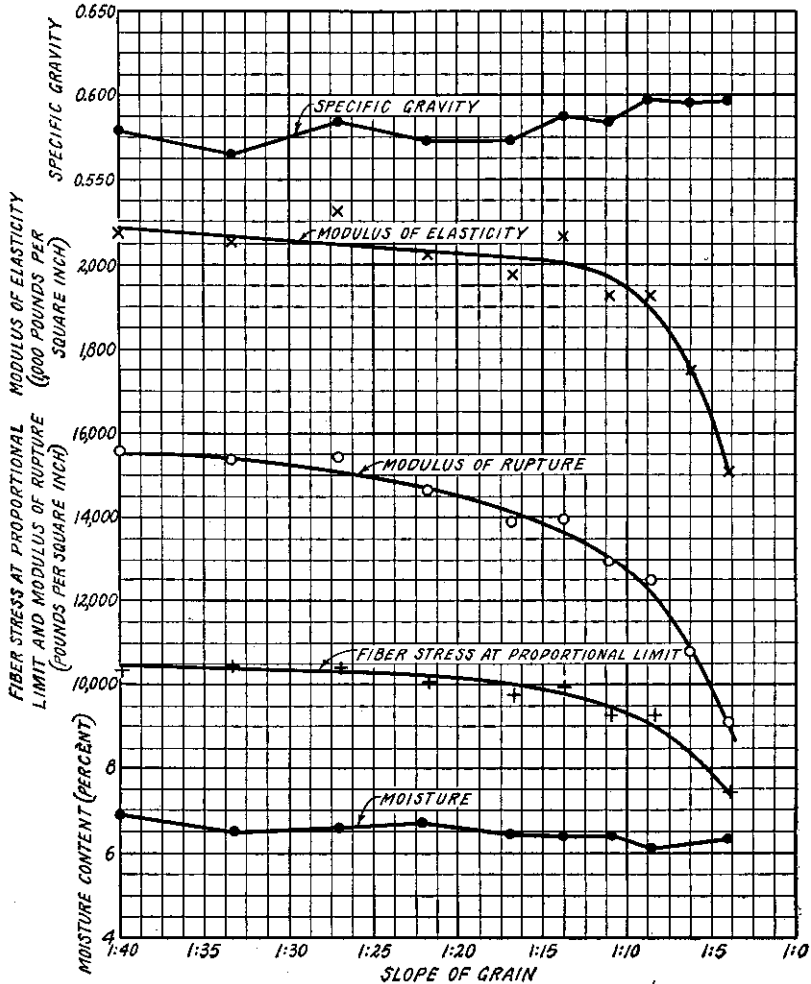


FIGURE 13.—Effect of spiral and diagonal grain on fiber stress at proportional limit, modulus of rupture, and modulus of elasticity in static bending on white ash.

in table 18 are the average percentage deficiencies for various slopes of cross grain in material that is free from checks and other defects, as compared with straight-grained stock. Figure 13 presents the results for white ash graphically. Specific gravity and moisture content are plotted in this figure merely to show that they do not vary greatly among the groups of material representing various slopes of grain.

TABLE 18.—Average percentage deficiency in strength properties of cross-grained material of various slopes with respect to straight-grained material

[From tests of kiln-dried material with moisture content as shown in fig. 13]

Species of wood and slope of grain	Static bending			Impact bending maximum drop	Compression parallel to grain, maximum crushing strength
	Modulus of rupture	Modulus of elasticity	Work to maximum load		
White ash:					
1:25	4	2	9	6	0
1:20	6	3	17	12	0
1:15	11	4	27	22	0
1:10	18	7	43	37	1
1:5	36	22	61	59	7
Douglas fir:					
1:25	7	4	17	1	
1:20	10	6	24	4	
1:15	15	8	34	13	
1:10	25	14	46	31	
1:5	54	40	68	65	
Sitka spruce:					
1:25	2	2	14	8	
1:20	4	4	21	13	
1:15	8	7	33	22	
1:10	17	13	55	45	
1:5	44	36	76	69	
Average:					
1:25	4	3	13	5	
1:20	7	4	21	10	
1:15	11	6	31	19	
1:10	19	11	48	38	
1:5	45	33	68	64	

The weakening effect of cross grain results from the wide difference in properties of wood along and across the grain. Cross grain is accompanied by an increased variability of properties, increased checking, and a tendency of the wood to twist and warp.

The data presented on the influence of cross grain are based on tests of clear pieces 2 by 2 inches in cross section, free from checks. In larger sizes, and when other defects are present, checks are apt to be present along with the cross grain, and in such instances greater weakening occurs than in the test results cited. The values given are thus indicative of the minimum effect.

The weakening effect on stress in extreme fiber in bending becomes significant with a slope of about 1 in 20 and increases rapidly with increase in slope. The permissible slope of grain depends on the use to which the wood is put. In general a slope greater than 1 in 20 should not be permitted in a main structural aircraft member. In structural timbers, the permissible slope varies with the grade and with the kind of stress, and ranges from 1 in 20 for high-grade beams to 1 in 8 for low-grade posts.

Cross grain may be of three fundamentally different types as follows:

DIAGONAL GRAIN

This form of deviation of grain is caused by failure to saw parallel to the annual growth layers because of either crooked logs, carelessness in manufacture, or the practice of sawing parallel to the pith instead of parallel to the bark in logs of large taper. Diagonal grain shows on the edge-grain or quarter-sawed face of a board or timber.

SPIRAL GRAIN

This form of deviation of grain results from a corkscrew or spiral rather than vertical arrangement of fibers in a tree. Spiral grain thus refers to the direction of fibers within the annual growth layers and its true direction is evident only on a plain or flat-sawn surface where it is measured by the direction of checks, splits, or other indication of the direction in which the grain runs. Interlocked grain is a special form of spiral grain varying in slope or reversing slope between successive growth periods. An approximation to spiral grain results when a piece is cut so that the grain of the wood on the flat-sawn face is at an angle to the axis.

IRREGULAR GRAIN

This term applies to a more or less irregular wood structure usually accompanying knots, or occasionally appearing as waves in otherwise clear wood.

METHODS OF CALCULATING CROSS-GRAIN

When the grain slopes on both flat-sawn and quarter-sawn faces of a piece these slopes being 1 in a and 1 in b , the resultant or effective slope is given by the expression

$$\frac{\sqrt{a^2+b^2}}{ab};$$

for example, if the slopes are 1 in 12 and 1 in 5 the effective slope is

$$\frac{\sqrt{5^2+12^2}}{5 \times 12} = \frac{13}{60} = 1 \text{ in } 4.6,$$

or if the slopes are both 1 in 20 the effective slope is

$$\frac{\sqrt{20^2+20^2}}{20 \times 20} = \frac{28.3}{400} = 1 \text{ in } 14.1$$

KNOTS

A knot is that portion of a branch which has become incorporated in the body of a tree. The influence on strength is due to the fact that the knot interrupts the continuity and direction of fibers and that the direction of fibers in the knot is essentially at right angles to those in the adjacent wood.

The influence of knots depends on their size, location, shape, and soundness; the kind, size, and proportions of the piece; the kind of stress to which the piece is subjected; and the amount of the attendant cross-grain.

Knots actually increase hardness and strength in compression perpendicular to grain, and are objectionable in regard to these properties only to the extent that they cause nonuniform wear or a nonuniform distribution of pressure at contact surfaces. Knots, however, are harder to work and machine than the surrounding wood, may project from the surface when shrinkage occurs, and also are a cause of twisting.

Knots have relatively little effect on the stiffness of a member. Hence, it is possible to effect some economy by using low-grade material where stiffness is the controlling factor as in joists in small buildings. In such instances the size of the member is usually governed by stiffness, and hence relatively knotty material can be satisfactorily used, although at some sacrifice of bending strength. For example, tests of two 2- by 8-inch by 10-foot joists cut from the same species showed, in pounds per square inch, a modulus of elasticity of 1,100,000 and a modulus of rupture of 5,470 for a practically clear joist and a modulus of elasticity of 1,246,000 and a modulus of rupture of 2,940 for a knotty joist. The slightly higher modulus of elasticity of the knotty joist is attributed to the slightly higher specific gravity of the wood over that of the clear joist.

In a long column, that is, a column in which the length exceeds about 20 times its least dimension, the maximum load depends on the stiffness alone, and knots are consequently less detrimental than in a short column in which the crushing strength of the wood determines the maximum load (32).

Knots have approximately one-half as much effect on compressive as on tensile strength. Hence, for a given percentage reduction in strength larger knots are permissible in a short column than on the tension side of a beam.

Knots are most serious in their effect on the bending strength of beams. The influence of a knot on the tension face is approximately measured by the ratio of the diameter of the knot to the width of the face, the diameter being taken as the distance between lines enclosing the knot and parallel to the edges of the face. Thus, a knot which measures one-fourth the width of the tension face reduces the bending strength 25 percent. The same knot on the compression side of the beam would have about half the influence. Large knots have a somewhat greater influence on the bending strength than is indicated by the foregoing rule, owing to the increased distortion of grain around them. This effect is taken care of in the structural grading rules conforming to American lumber standards (54, 61). The effect of knots is greater in the center half of the length of a beam than near the ends, and is greater near the upper and lower faces than at the center of the height (9).

SHAKES

A shake is a separation of wood along the grain, the greater part of which occurs between or within the rings of annual growth. Shakes can best be detected at the end of the piece where they extend in a general circumferential direction. In structural grading, shakes that appear on an end of a piece are assumed to extend to the center of its length. In beams the principal effect of shakes and one effect of checks is to reduce resistance to horizontal shear or the sliding of the upper on the lower part of the piece. Not only do shakes and checks reduce the area acting in resistance to shear but because of concentration of stress at their extremities the average shearing strength of the remaining area is much less than the shearing strength of unchecked wood as found from shear or torsion tests. These effects are important in large timbers in which the concentration of stress accompanying shakes and/or the checking that usually occurs either prior or subsequent to the placement of timbers in service is sufficient to cause failure at a shearing stress, as averaged over the unchecked area, of

less than half the ultimate value found in standard shear block tests (table 1). The effect of shakes on strength in horizontal shear is appraised in the grading of beams by determining the width of the shake, as measured on the end between lines parallel to the faces, in terms of the width of the piece. For green timbers the allowable shake is the same percentage of the width of the piece as the grade is below an assumed strength for the clear wood (61). Thus, in beams of a grade that permits defects that reduce the strength by one-fourth, the allowable shake would be one-fourth the width of the piece. Shakes tend to increase in size with seasoning. A slightly larger shake is allowable in seasoned material.

CHECKS

A check is a separation along the grain, the greater part of which occurs across the rings of annual growth. Checks other than heart and star checks which occur in green wood and whose cause is unknown occur in seasoning and are due to difference in shrinkage in radial and tangential, or circumferential, directions, and to difference in shrinkage between adjacent parts induced by differences in moisture content. Checks are classed as end checks, heart checks, star checks, surface checks, and through checks. An end check is one at an end of a piece; a heart check is one starting near the pith and extending toward but not to the surface of the piece; a star check consists of a number of heart checks; a surface check is one into a piece from the surface, and a through check is one extending through the piece from one surface to another. Difference between forms of checks need not be considered in determining their effect on strength.

Checks, like shakes, are injurious to beams to the extent that they reduce the area resisting horizontal shear. It is evident that checks in the narrow or horizontal face have practically no effect upon the strength of straight-grained beams. Checks in the wide or vertical faces are most serious in their effect on resistances to horizontal shear when straight and at or near the center of the height.

The effect of checks in beams and columns depends on the area of the longitudinal section they cover, but, unlike shakes, they are not assumed to extend from the end of the piece to the center of the length. The same method of measurement and limitation may be applied as for shakes. If more refinement is desired, however, it may be obtained by estimating the actual reduction of area in a longitudinal plane within that portion of the length extending from the end to a distance three times the depth from the end. The aggregate area of checks permissible within this distance is equal to the width of the allowable shake multiplied by three times the height of the beam (61).

Checks also cause serious weakening in tension perpendicular to grain, but are less injurious in straight-grained members subjected to direct compression or tension along the grain.

Checks are more difficult to prevent in large timbers than in small pieces, and they increase in size and depth with the degree of seasoning during the earlier stages but later close partially or entirely. Checks usually appear first on the ends of a piece, but the development of end checks can be retarded, and in smaller sizes prevented, by the application of an end coating, such as hardened gloss oil prior to seasoning. Season checks form in round timbers because the radial shrinkage differs from the tangential or circumferential.

PITCH POCKETS

Pitch pockets are openings within or between the annual growth rings that contain more or less pitch or bark. Pitch pockets vary greatly in size. Ordinarily, their dimension at right angles to the annual rings is less than one-half inch, whereas they may extend for several inches along the grain (vertically in the tree) and/or in the direction of the annual rings (circumferentially in the tree).

Native species in which pitch pockets are found are the pines, the spruces, Douglas fir, western larch, and tamarack. Pitch pockets in structural timbers ordinarily are not important as (1) their extent is not sufficient to cause significant weakening in shear, (2) they do not cause serious deviations of grain, and (3) they occupy only a small proportion of the cross section of a piece. However, numerous pitch pockets in or close to the same annual growth layer may denote the presence of shakes or may be equivalent in effect to a shake.

In small members the size of the pitch pockets may represent an appreciable portion of the cross section and be located so as to have a marked effect on the strength.

The weakening effect of pitch pockets is more serious when they cause distortion or "dip" of the grain. It is, of course, necessary to limit pitch pockets in aircraft parts, and rules have been established for this purpose (53, 55) but in general they are of importance chiefly because of their effect on appearance.

COMPRESSION FAILURES

A compression failure is a local buckling of the fibers, essentially at right angles to the length, due to excessive compression along the grain. Compression failures appear as wrinkles on the surface of a piece, and range from a well-defined buckling of the fibers visible with the unaided eye to a slight crinkling visible only with a microscope (7, 21, 25).

Compression failures may occur when standing trees are bent severely by wind or snow, when trees are felled over logs or irregularities of the ground, from rough handling of logs or sawed stock, and excessive stresses in service. They weaken the wood in tension, and when on the tension side of a beam produce brash appearing and sudden failures. Material containing compression failures should be rejected for uses in which strength and shock resistance are important, such as in handles and ladder parts. Compression failures are usually so inconspicuous that careful search is necessary to detect them. Often tilting of a piece of wood with respect to the line of vision or source of light will help make them visible. It is seldom possible to detect them in rough-sawn material.

The results of static bending tests on four specimens from a board containing compression failures sufficiently prominent to be readily detected, as compared with the average of uninjured material are given in table 19. These data, while but fragmentary, illustrate the serious reduction in modulus of rupture caused by pronounced compression failures, the even greater reduction in shock resistance as shown by work to maximum load, and the variability in strength properties which they cause.

TABLE 19.—Results of static bending test on 4 specimens¹ from a board containing prominent compression failures

Kind of specimen	Specific gravity ²	Moisture content	Modulus of rupture	Work to maximum load
			<i>Lb. per sq. in.</i>	<i>In.-lb. per cu. in.</i>
Containing compression failures.....	0.53	10.3	5,770	1.44
	.48	11.3	3,050	.59
	.46	11.2	2,510	.38
Average figures for uninjured material.....	.52	11.3	5,830	1.30
	.45	12	10,690	7.8

¹ The bending tests were made on specimens $\frac{3}{4}$ by 2 by 20 inches, using center loading and an 18-inch span. Specimens 1, 2, 3, and 4 were cut so that the compression failures were located at the center of the span.

² Specific gravity based on weight when oven dry and volume when green.

COMPRESSION WOOD

Compression wood, also known as red wood (rotholz), is wood of abnormal growth and structure, slightly above the average in weight, which is usually distinguished by very wide and eccentric annual rings, a lack of contrast between spring and summer wood, and a more or less dark-reddish to brown color. This growth occurs on the under side of limbs and leaning trunks of coniferous trees (16, 21).

Table 20 compares compression wood with normal wood in ponderosa pine, southern yellow pine, and redwood. The values given should not be regarded as the true averages either for normal wood or compression wood, but as indicative of the relationships between the two types. The reason for this is that compression wood varies greatly in degree from material bordering on normal wood to pronounced types. The normal wood represented was cut from the same pieces as the compression wood, and hence was selected to match the latter rather than to be representative of the species.

TABLE 20.—Strength properties of compression wood compared with normal wood of redwood, ponderosa pine, and southern yellow pine¹

Average values	Redwood				Ponderosa pine				Southern yellow pine, air-dry	
	Green		Air-dry		Green		Air-dry		Normal wood	Compression wood
	Normal wood	Compression wood	Normal wood	Compression wood	Normal wood	Compression wood	Normal wood	Compression wood		
Specific gravity, based on oven-dry volume.....									0.57	0.66
Shrinkage, longitudinal, green to oven-dry..... percent	0.14	1.19			0.21	0.80			.4	2.5
Shrinkage, radial, green to oven-dry..... do	2.4								4.6	2.2
Shrinkage, tangential, green to oven-dry..... do	4.0								6.2	2.6
Static bending:										
Moisture content..... do	114	102	9.9	10.5	133	88	12.0	12.6	11.6	12.4
Specific gravity, based on volume as tested.....	.38	.51	.38	.51	.35	.47	.37	.50		
Fiber stress at proportional limit..... pounds per square inch					3,010	3,730	7,250	6,620	8,550	6,520
Modulus of rupture..... do	7,310	7,470	10,210	8,890	4,640	6,120	9,840	11,710	11,730	9,000
Modulus of elasticity..... 1,000 pounds per square inch	1,110	685	1,253	788	1,074	842	1,345	1,019	1,495	994
Work to proportional limit..... inch pounds per cubic inch					.47	.94	2.19	.63		
Work to maximum load..... do	7.5	6.9	6.0	6.5	4.0	8.3	7.6	15.7	8.2	5.5
Work, total..... do					14.4	45.6	10.8	16.2		
Toughness:										
Moisture content..... percent	129	89	8.8	9.7	121	85	10.0	10.6		
Specific gravity, based on volume as tested.....	.37	.52	.37	.49	.37	.49	.38	.53		
Toughness per specimen..... inch-pounds	83.0	69.5	64.5	64.4	100.7	173.4	79.2	100.4		
Compression parallel to grain:										
Moisture content..... percent	126	106	8.6	10.0	138	78	12.1	12.7	11.7	10.8
Specific gravity, based on volume as tested.....	.37	.51	.38	.51	.35	.47	.37	.50	.55	.68
Crushing strength at proportional limit										
..... pounds per square inch	3,950	4,640	7,160	7,250	2,140	2,090				
..... do					2,340	3,300	5,210	5,970	7,370	8,100
Modulus of elasticity..... 1,000 pounds per square inch					1,476	996				

¹ Exact species unknown.

It may be noted that compression wood is characterized by high longitudinal shrinkage, by low stiffness, and for its weight, a general deficiency in most other properties.

When compression wood and wood of normal structure are present in the same piece very high stresses are set up in drying on account of the large difference in longitudinal shrinkage of the two types of wood. This causes bowing or other distortion and may even result in splitting of the piece or in tension failure in the compression wood.

INSECT HOLES

The effect of wormholes on strength is somewhat similar to that of knots or knot holes, except that they do not involve distortion of grain. Inasmuch as wormholes found in lumber usually have only small diameters, occasional ones do not seriously weaken the wood.

In lumber which has been in storage for some time wormholes may be more serious on the interior than is indicated on the surface. This is especially true of the sapwood of ash, oak, hickory, elm, and some other hardwoods that are subject to attack by the powder post beetle (45).

SAP STAIN

Sap stains (blue, red, and yellow) are caused by organisms which germinate in the sapwood, absorbing starches and sugars. Most sap stains, unlike wood-destroying fungi, do not as a rule penetrate the cell walls and consume the wood substance, and therefore sap stain is not in itself so serious from the strength standpoint. However, severe sap stain of certain varieties causes sufficient injury to appreciably reduce the shock resistance or toughness.

Sap stain exerts a marked effect on appearance. Its presence, furthermore, indicates that the wood has been subjected to unfavorable conditions and the possible development of wood-destroying fungi should be considered in the use of such material (17).

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A further feature was the testing in a similar manner of green material taken at various heights above the stump from one or more trees of a number of species. The resulting data are not tabulated herein but are the basis of the discussion of variation of properties with height in tree (p. 40).

TESTING METHODS

The detailed procedure of testing conformed closely to standards of the American Society for Testing Material (4). Specimens for mechanical tests are 2 by 2 inches in cross section and of different lengths, depending on the kind of test. Those for radial and tangential shrinkage are 1 inch thick, 4 inches wide, and 1 inch in length along the grain, the width being radial or tangential according to

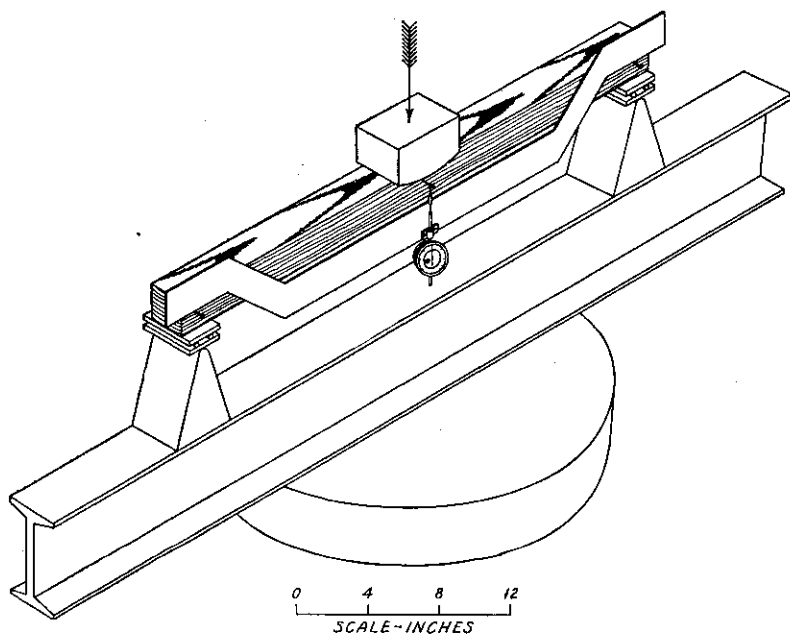


FIGURE 15.—Method of conducting static-bending test.

whether radial or tangential shrinkage is to be measured. Moisture determinations are made on all test specimens.

Only specimens free from knots, cross grain, shakes, checks, and the like were tested. The effects of such characteristics on strength values has been investigated in other tests (9).

A brief outline of the procedure in making each kind of test and of computing the results follows.

DESCRIPTION OF TESTS

STATIC BENDING

In the static-bending test resistance of a beam to slowly applied loads is measured. The specimen is 2 by 2 inches in cross section and 30 inches long and is supported on roller bearings which rest on knife edges placed 28 inches apart (fig. 15). Load is applied at the center of the length through a hard maple block, $3\frac{1}{16}$ inches wide, having a compound curvature. The curvature has a radius of 3 inches over the central $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches of arc, and is joined by an arc of 2 inches radius on each side (fig. 15). The standard placement is with the annual rings of the specimen horizontal. A constant rate of deflection (0.1 inch per minute) is maintained until the beam fails. Load and deflection are read simultaneously at suitable intervals. Figure 16 is a sample data sheet on which such readings are plotted and other information is shown, and figure 17 is a sample computation data card. In figure 16 it may be noted that a line is drawn through the origin parallel to that through the initial points of the curve in order to determine the deflection at proportional limit.

Data on a number of properties are obtained from static-bending tests, the most important of which are stress at proportional limit, modulus of rupture, modulus of elasticity, work to proportional limit, work to maximum load, and total work, discussions of which follow.

STRESS AT PROPORTIONAL LIMIT

As may be noted the first several plotted points in figure 16 are approximately on a straight line showing that the load is proportional to the deflection. As the test progresses, however, the load ceases to increase in direct proportion

Timber Test Log Sheet

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE
FOREST SERVICE

Project No. 124
Working Plan No. 124
Laboratory No. 100.831

Station MADISON Date _____ Ship. No. L-315 Stick No. S-8

Piece No. 4 Mark d

Species DOUGLAS FIR
Kind of test STATIC BENDING
Grade CLEAR
Group _____
Loading CENTER
Span 28 IN.
Distance between collars _____
Width of plate _____
Machine M-1037
Speed of mach. 0.105 in. per min.
Weight of hammer _____
Height 2.02 IN.
Width 2.00 IN.
Length 30.10 IN.
Cross section _____
Weight 1.251 G.
Rings per inch 9
Sap 0 %
Summer wood 40 %
Seasoning GREEN
Moisture 31.4 %
Kind of failure COMPRESSION
FOLLOWED BY SPLINTERING
TENSION
Remarks _____

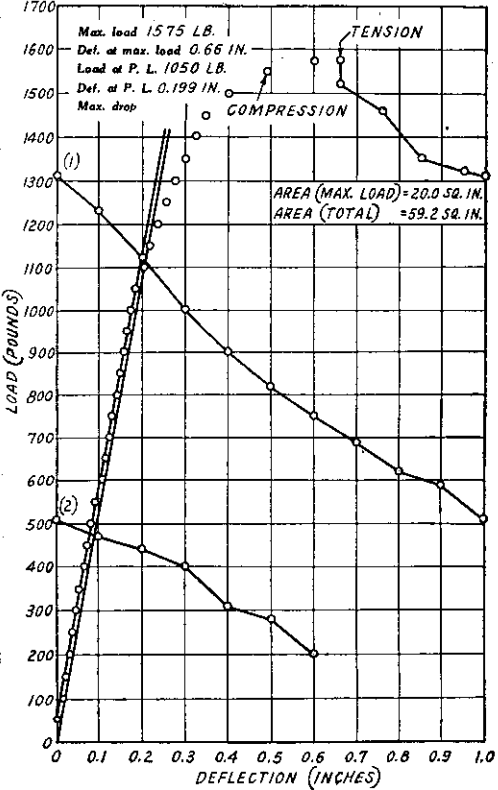
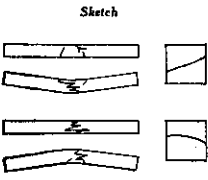


FIGURE 16.—Data sheet for static-bending test.

to the deflection. The point where this occurs, at a load of 1,050 pounds in figure 16, is known as the proportional limit. The corresponding stress in the top and bottom fibers of the beam is the stress at proportional limit.

Using formula 1 on page 98, the stress at proportional limit for the specimen represented by figure 16 is

$$S_{PL} = \frac{3 \times 1050 \times 28}{2 \times 2.00 \times (2.02)^2} = 5,400 \text{ pounds per square inch}$$

From formula 6 (p. 98), the work to maximum load for the test specimen of figure 16 is

$$W_{ML} = \frac{20 \times 200 \times 0.2}{2.00 \times 2.02 \times 28} = 7.1 \text{ inch-pounds per cubic inch}$$

(The area under the curve in the graph reproduced in figure 16 was 20 square inches, and with the scales used in plotting, each square inch represents 200 (pounds) times 0.2 (inch) or 40 inch-pounds.)

TOTAL WORK

The total work is represented by the complete area under the curve from the beginning of the test until it is discontinued. The test is arbitrarily discontinued in this series when the load after attaining its maximum value first decreases to 200 pounds, or when a deflection of 6 inches is reached, whichever occurs first.

From formula 7 (p. 98), the total work for the test specimen of figure 16 is

$$W_T = \frac{59.2 \times 40}{2 \times 2.02 \times 28} = 20.9$$

inch-pounds per cubic inch

The total area under the curve in the original graph represented by figure 16 was 59.2 square inches.

IMPACT BENDING

The impact-bending test is made to determine the resistance of beams to suddenly applied loads. The specimen is 2 by 2 inches in cross section and 30 inches long, and the span is 28 inches. A 50-pound ram or hammer falling between two vertical guides is dropped upon the stick at the center of the span; first from a height of 1 inch, next 2 inches, and so on to 10 inches, then increasing 2 inches at a time until complete failure occurs (fig. 18). A stylus attached to the hammer moves against paper mounted on a revolving drum and records the deflection at each blow, and the position of the specimen when the hammer comes to rest after rebounding. Thus, data are obtained for determining various properties of the wood. Figure 19 is a sample record taken on the drum. Figure 20 is a sample computation card, and figure 21 is a sample data sheet on which the test results are plotted to determine the stress at propor-

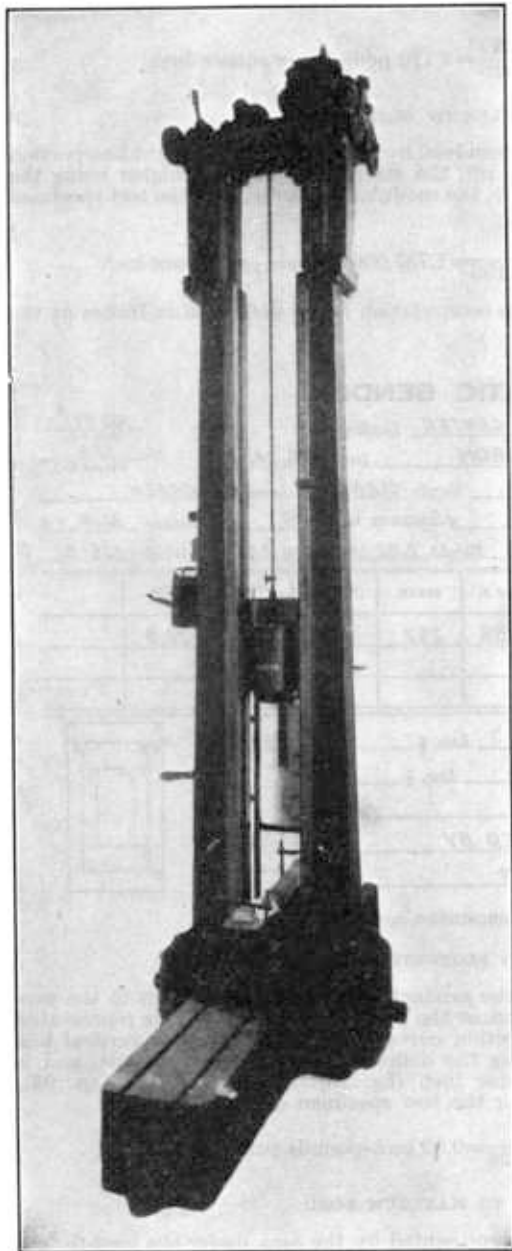


FIGURE 18.—Machine used for impact-bending test.

drum. Figure 20 is a sample computation card, and figure 21 is a sample data sheet on which the test results are plotted to determine the stress at propor-

tional limit and the modulus of elasticity. Other properties on which data are obtained are height of drop in impact bending and work to proportional limit.

STRESS AT PROPORTIONAL LIMIT

In figure 21, height of drop is plotted against the square of the deflection. The first several points are approximately on a straight line, and are used to determine the limit of proportionality. Practically all the factors influencing the test tend to reduce the deflection for a given height of drop, so that after finding the deflection at proportional limit as usual, the head or drop at this deflection is read from a line passing through the origin and the point within the proportional limit which gives this line the least slope. From formula 13 (p. 98), the stress at proportional limit for the specimen represented by figure 21 is

$$S_{PL} = \frac{3 \times 50 \times 7.88 \times 28}{2.00 \times (2.00)^2 \times 0.39} = 10,610 \text{ pounds per square inch}$$

WORK TO PROPORTIONAL LIMIT

The work to proportional limit is equivalent to the energy of the drop that stresses the piece to the proportional limit. From formula 14 (p. 98), the work to the proportional limit for the test specimen of figure 21 is

$$W_{PL} = \frac{50 \times 7.88}{28 \times 2 \times 2} = 3.51 \text{ inch-pounds per cubic inch}$$

HEIGHT OF DROP

The height of drop is recorded as the maximum drop of the hammer causing complete failure of the specimen, or causing a 6-inch deflection. When it is necessary to use a hammer heavier than the 50-pound standard, the height of drop is converted to the equivalent value for a 50-pound hammer.

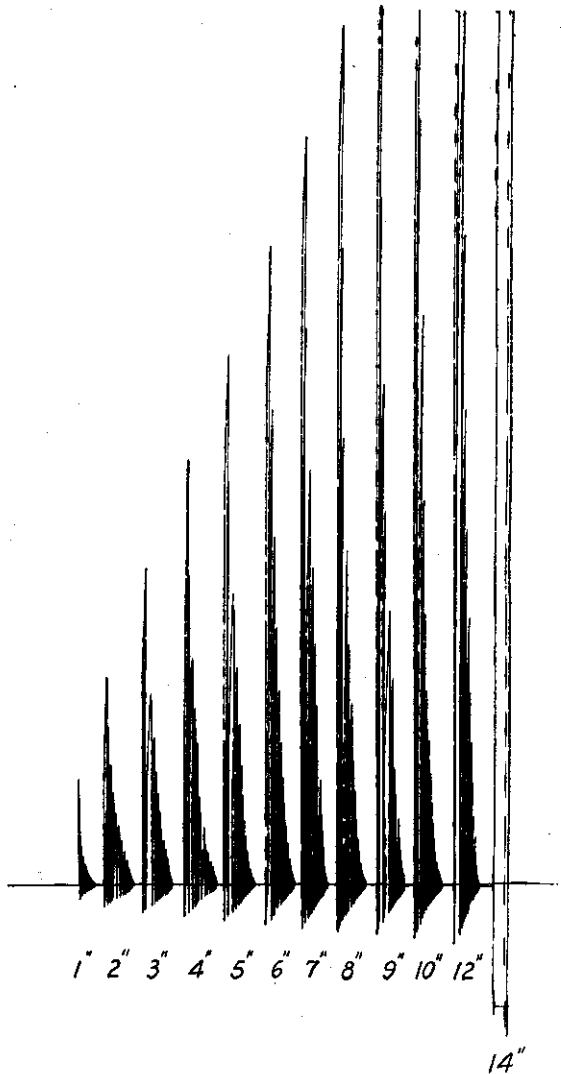


FIGURE 19.—Record taken on the drum of the impact-bending machine in testing northern white pine in a green condition. A maximum drop of 14 inches is recorded.

Form 500 (Revised Jan.,

IMPACT BENDING

L-315 (Ship No.) E-12 (Stick No.) Station MADISON Date AUG. 20. 101151 (Lab. No.)
1 (Piece No.) C (Mark) 124 (Project No.)
 Species DOUGLAS FIR Grade CLEAR Seasoning GREEN
 Rings 8 Sap 100 % Summer wood 30 % Moisture 61.4 %
 Hammer 50 lbs. Span 28 IN. Length 29.94 IN. Height 2.00 IN. Width 2.00 IN. Weight 1370 G.

Drop No.	DROP	Dsr.	(Dsr.) ²	Sxt.	Drop No.	DROP	Dsr.	(Dsr.) ²	Sxt.	Sp. Gr. (at test)
1	1.0	0.13	0.017		11	12.0	0.50	0.250		0.698
2	2.0	0.18	0.032		12	14.0	0.55	0.302		0.432
3	3.0	0.22	0.048		13	16.0	0.62	0.384		F. S. at P. L., 10610
4	4.0	0.26	0.068		14	18.0	0.67	0.593		M. of E., 1776
5	5.0	0.30	0.090		15					E. Resit., 3.51
6	6.0	0.34	0.116		16					Max. Drop, 22 IN.
7	7.0	0.36	0.130		17					d, 0.010
8	8.0	0.38	0.144		18					H 7.88
9	9.0	0.43	0.185		19					Δ 0.39
10	10.0	0.46	0.212		20					

Failure: COMPRESSION FOLLOWED BY SPLINTERING TENSION

FIGURE 20.—Sample computation card for impact-bending test.

8-1431

Timber Test Log Sheet

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE
FOREST SERVICE

Project No. 124 Working Plan No. 124 Station MADISON Date _____ Ship No. L-315 Stick No. E-12
 Laboratory No. 101151 Piece No. 1 Mark C

Species DOUGLAS FIR
 Kind of test IMPACT BENDING
 Grade CLEAR
 Group _____
 Loading CENTER
 Span 28 IN.
 Distance between collars _____
 Width of plate _____
 Machine M-1036
 Speed of mach. _____ in. per min.
 Weight of hammer 50 LB.
 Height 2.00 IN.
 Width 2.00 IN.
 Length 29.94 IN.
 Cross section _____
 Weight 1370 G.
 Rings per inch 8
 Sap 100 %
 Summer wood 30 %
 Seasoning GREEN
 Moisture 61.4 %
 Kind of failure COMPRESSION FOLLOWED BY SPLINTERING TENSION
 Remarks _____

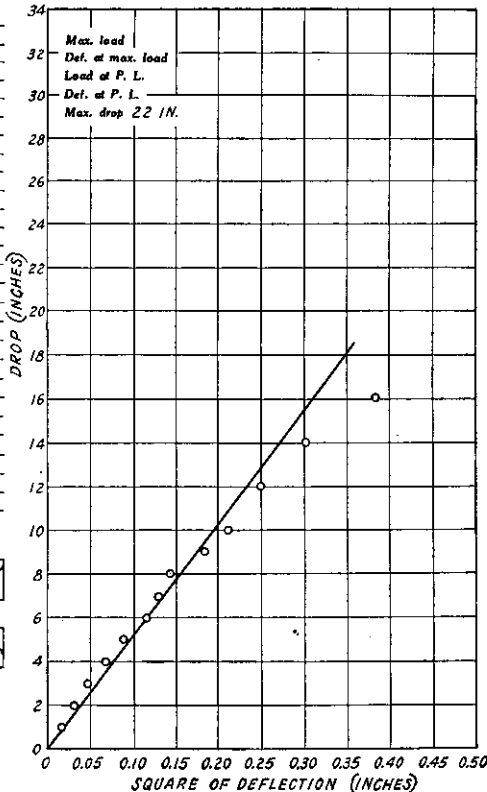
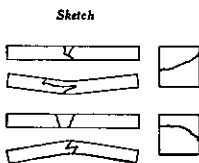


FIGURE 21.—Data sheet for impact-bending test.

COMPRESSION PARALLEL TO GRAIN

In the compression-parallel-to-grain test a 2- by 2- by 8-inch block is compressed in the direction of its length (fig. 22) at a constant rate (0.024 inch per minute). The load is applied through a spherical bearing block, preferably of the suspended self-aligning type, to insure uniform distribution of stress. On some of the specimens, the load and the deformation in a 6-inch central gage length are read simultaneously until the proportional limit is passed. The test is discontinued when the maximum load is passed, and the failure appears. Figure 23 is a sample data sheet on which the test readings are plotted and figure 24 is a sample computation data card.

An alternate form of test specimen has a circular cross section 1 3/4 inches in diameter except at the ends which are left 2 inches square (4). This specimen requires less exacting technic than the square prism, to get good results in testing, but is less simple to prepare.

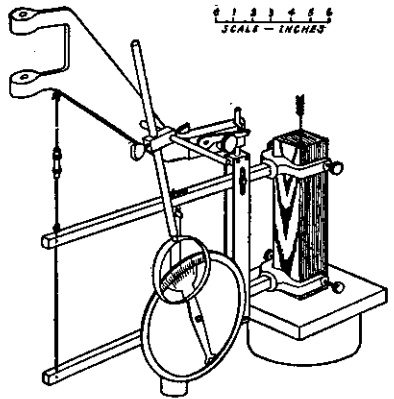


FIGURE 22.—Diagrammatic sketch of compression-parallel-to-grain tests.

Timber Test Log Sheet

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE
FOREST SERVICE

Project No. 124
Working Plan No. 124
Laboratory No. 101329

Station MADISON Date _____

Ship No. L-315 Stich No. E-3

Piece No. 7 Mark d-1

Species DOUGLAS FIR
Kind of test COMP. PAR. TO GR.
Grade CLEAR
Group _____
Loading _____
Span _____
Distance between collars 6 IN.
Width of plate _____
Machine M 1040
Speed of mach. 0.024 in. per min.
Weight of hammer _____
Height _____
Width _____
Length 7.99 IN.
Cross section 1.97 IN. X 2.00 IN.
Weight 287 G.
Rings per inch 8
Sap 0 %
Summer wood 26 %
Seasoning GREEN
Moisture 28.7 %
Kind of failure CRUSHING
NEAR TOP

Remarks _____

Sketch

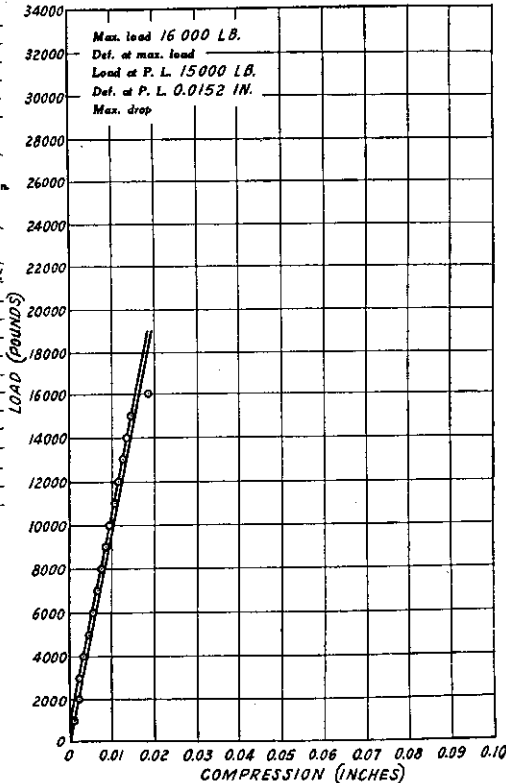


FIGURE 23.—Data sheet for compression-parallel-to grain test.

Form 505
(Revised Nov. 27)

COMPRESSION PARALLEL TO GRAIN

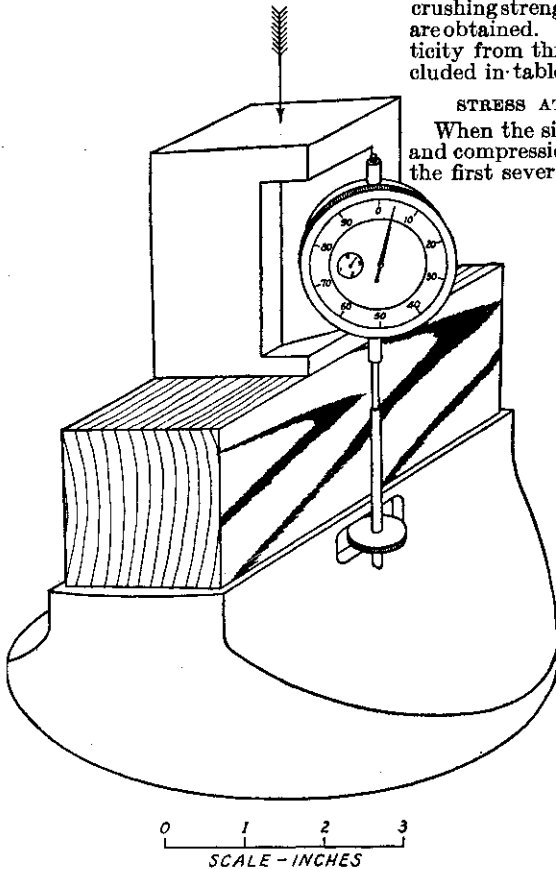
L-315 (Ship. No.) F-3 (Slovak No.) 101329 (Lab. No.)
 7 (Piece No.) d-1 (Mark) Station MADISON Date AUG. 26. 124 (Project No.)
 Species DOUGLAS FIR Grade CLEAR Seasoning GREEN
 Rings 8 Sap 0 % Summer wood 26 % Moisture 28.7 %
 Length 7.99 IN. Cross section 1.97 IN. X 2.00 IN. Weight 287 G.

SPECIFIC GRAVITY		MAX. LOAD	CRUSH. ST. AT P. L.	MAX. CRUSH. ST.	M. OF E.	LOAD AT P.L.	DEF. AT P.L.
At Test	Ov. Dry						
0.556	0.432	16000	3810	4060	1502	15000	0.0152

Defects _____
 Failure CRUSHING AT TOP

FIGURE 24.—Sample computation card for compression-parallel-to-grain test.

Data on stress at proportional limit, stress at maximum load (maximum crushing strength), and modulus of elasticity are obtained. The data on modulus of elasticity from this test, however, are not included in table 1.



STRESS AT PROPORTIONAL LIMIT

When the simultaneous readings of load and compression are plotted as in figure 23, the first several points are approximately on a straight line. The point beyond which the compression increases at more rapid rate than the load is the proportional limit, and the accompanying stress is the stress at proportional limit. From formula 15, (p. 98), the stress at proportional limit for the test specimen represented by figure 23 is

$$S_{PL} = \frac{15,000}{1.97 \times 2.00} = 3,810 \text{ pounds per square inch}$$

MAXIMUM CRUSHING STRENGTH

The maximum crushing strength is computed from the same formula as stress at proportional limit, using the maximum load instead of load at proportional limit. From formula 16, (p. 98), the maximum crushing strength of the test specimen of figure 23 is

$$S_c = \frac{16,000}{1.97 \times 2} = 4,060 \text{ pounds per square inch}$$

FIGURE 25.—Method of conducting compression-perpendicular-to-grain test.

COMPRESSION PERPENDICULAR TO GRAIN

The specimen for the compression-perpendicular-to-grain test is 2 by 2 inches in cross section and 6 inches long. Pressure is applied through an iron plate 2 inches wide placed across the center of the specimen and at right angles to its length (fig. 27). Hence the plate covers one-third of the surface. The standard placement is with the growth rings vertical. The rate of descent of the movable head of the testing machine is 0.024 inch per minute. Simultaneous readings of load and compression are taken until the test is discontinued at 0.1-inch compression. The principal property determined is the stress at proportional limit. Figure 25 is a sample data sheet and figure 26 a sample computation card for compression-perpendicular-to-grain test.

STRESS AT PROPORTIONAL LIMIT

Figure 25 illustrates a load compression curve. The proportional limit is located as indicated from the straight-line portion of the curve. From formula 18, (p. 98), the stress at proportional limit for the test specimen represented by figure 25 is

$$S_{PL} = \frac{2000}{2 \times 2.01} = 498 \text{ pounds per square inch}$$

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE
FOREST SERVICE

Timber Test Log Sheet

Project No. 221
Working Plan No. 124
Laboratory No. 101159

Station MADISON Date _____ Ship No. L-315 Stick No. E-11

Piece No. 1 Mark d-2

Species DOUGLAS FIR
Kind of test COMP. PERP. TO GR.
Grade CLEAR
Group _____
Loading _____
Span _____
Distance between collars _____
Width of plate 2 IN.
Machine M-1040
Speed of mach. 0.024 in. per min.
Weight of hammer _____
Height 2.00 IN.
Width 2.01 IN.
Length 6.00 IN.
Cross section _____
Weight 289 G.
Rings per inch 9
Sap 100%
Summer wood 30%
Seasoning GREEN
Moisture 62.1%
Kind of failure _____

Remarks _____

Sketch _____

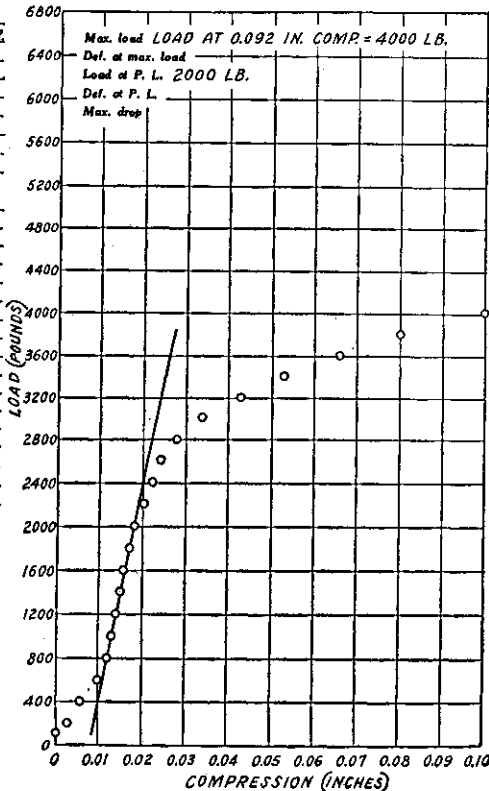


FIGURE 26.—Data sheet for compression-perpendicular-to-grain test.

Form 500
(Revised January,)

1-315 (Ship. No.) E-11 (Stick No.) COMPRESSION AT RIGHT ANGLES TO GRAIN 101159 (Lab. No.)

1 (Piece No.) d-2 (Mark) Station MADISON Date AUG. 20. 124 (Project No.)

Species DOUGLAS FIR Grade CLEAR Seasoning GREEN

Rings 9 Sap 100 % Summer wood 38 % Moisture 62.1 %

Width of plate 2 IN. Length 6.00 IN. Height 2.00 IN. Width 2.01 IN. Weight 289 G.

SPECIFIC GRAVITY		LOAD AT P. L.	CAUSH. ST. AT P. L.	$\Delta + \frac{1}{2}$	
At Test.	Ov. Dry				
0.732	0.452	2000	498		

FIGURE 27.—Sample computation card for compression-perpendicular-to-grain test.

HARDNESS

Hardness is measured by the load required to embed a 0.444-inch ball (fig. 28) to one-half its diameter in the wood. (The diameter of the ball is such that its projected area is 1 square centimeter). The rate of penetration of the ball is 0.25 inch per minute. Two penetrations are made on each end, two on a radial, and two on a tangential surface of the wood. A special tool makes it easy to determine when the proper penetration of the ball has been reached. The accompanying load is recorded as the hardness value (fig. 29).

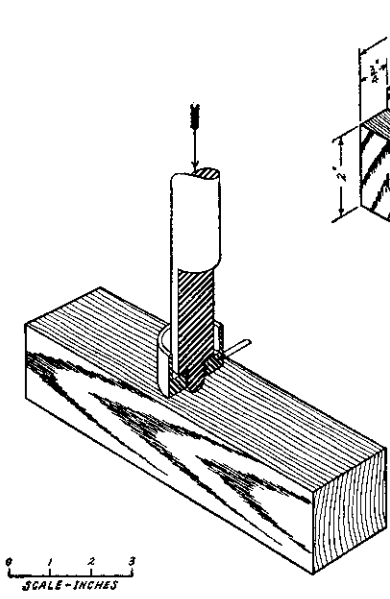


FIGURE 28.—Method of conducting hardness test.

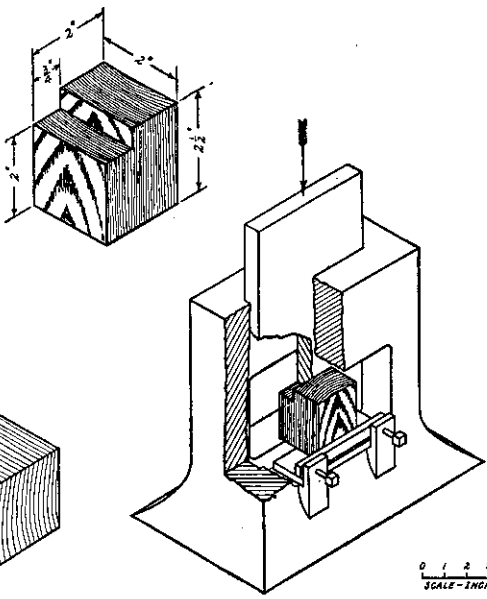


FIGURE 30.—Method of conducting shear-parallel-to-grain test.

SHEAR PARALLEL TO GRAIN

The shearing-parallel-to-grain test is made by applying force to a 2-by-2-inch lip projecting three-fourths of an inch from the side of a block 2½ inches long (fig. 30). The block is placed in a special tool having a plate that is seated on the lip and moved downward at a rate of 0.015 inch per minute. The specimen is supported at the base so that a ¼-inch off-set exists between the outer edge of the support and the inner surface of the plate. The improved shear tool has

Form 501
(Revised Dec. 30,)

HARDNESS

L-315 (Ship. No.) E-10 (Stick No.) 101170 (Lab. No.)
 1 (Piece No.) d-4 (Mark) Station MADISON Date AUG. 20 124 (Project No.)
 Species DOUGLAS FIR Grade CLEAR Seasoning GREEN
 Rings 8 Sap _____ % Summer wood 33 % Moisture 31.7 %
 Length 6.01 IN. Cross section 2.00 IN. x 2.00 IN. Weight 246 G.

	SPECIFIC GRAVITY		RADIAL SURFACE	TANGENTIAL SURFACE	END SURFACE
	At Test.	Ov. Dpt.			
1	0.622	0.472	460	570	525
2			520	460	500
3					510
4					510
AVG.			490	515	511
AVG. RAD. AND TANG.			502		

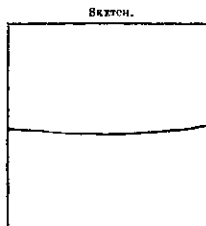


FIGURE 29.—Sample computation card for hardness test.

roller guides to reduce the friction of the plate, and an adjustable seat in the plate to insure uniform lateral distribution of the load.

Specimens are cut so that a radial surface of failure is obtained in some and a tangential surface of failure in others. The property obtained from the shear parallel-to-grain test is the maximum shearing strength.

MAXIMUM SHEARING STRENGTH

The maximum load required to shear off the lip of the specimen is recorded in the test. From formula 19, (p. 99) the maximum shear strength for the test specimen represented by figure 31 is

$$S_s = \frac{3600}{2.02 \times 2.01} = 887 \text{ pounds per square inch}$$

Form 510
(Revised Dec.,)

TANGENTIAL SHEAR

L-315 (Ship. No.) E-12 (Stick No.) 101183 (Lab. No.)
 1 (Piece No.) C-5 (Mark) Station MADISON Date AUG. 21 124 (Project No.)
 Species DOUGLAS FIR Grade CLEAR Seasoning GREEN
 Rings 8 Sap 75 % Summer wood 30 % Moisture 80.0 %

SHEARING AREA	MAX. LOAD	SHEARING STR.	TIME	SKETCH
2.02 x 2.01	3600	887		

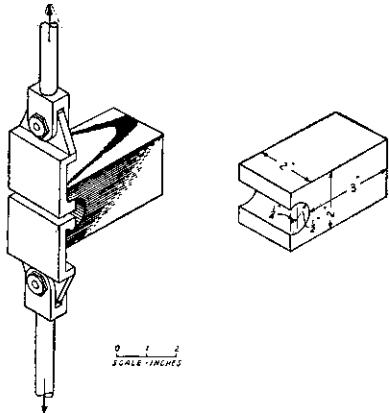
FIGURE 31.—Sample computation card for shear-parallel-to-grain test.

CLEAVAGE

The cleavage test is made to determine the resistance of wood to forces that produce a splitting action. The specimen is 2 by 2 inches in cross section, and 3 3/4 inches in overall length, with a cleavage section 3 inches long. The forces are applied with special grips as shown in figure 32, the rate of motion of the movable head of the testing machine being 0.25 inch per minute. Tests are made on some specimens cut so as to give a radial surface of failure, and on others cut to give a tangential surface of failure. The value obtained from the cleavage test is the load to cause splitting.

The maximum load causing failure of the specimen is observed. From formula 20 (p. 99), the load to cause splitting, for the specimen represented by figure 33, is

$$S_{CL} = \frac{365}{2.01} = 182 \text{ pounds per inch of width. FIGURE 32.—Method of conducting cleavage test.}$$



Form 508
(Revised Dec.,)

L-315 E-12
(Ship. No.) (Stick No.)

R CLEAVAGE

101177
(Lab. No.)

1 C-3
(Piece No.) (Mark)

Station MADISON

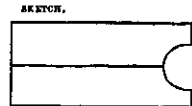
Date AUG. 21

124
(Project No.)

Species DOUGLAS FIR Grade CLEAR Seasoning GREEN

Rings B Sap 75 % Summer wood 30 % Moisture 31.6 %

HEIGHT.	WIDTH.	LENGTH.	MAX. LOAD.	LOAD PER INCH WIDTH.
	2.01	2.98	365	182



.....

.....

.....

.....

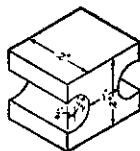
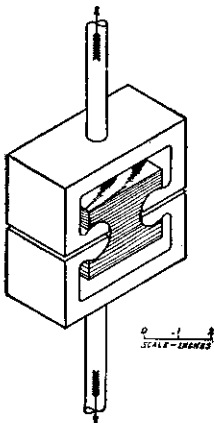
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.....

.....

FIGURE 33.—Sample computation card for cleavage test.



TENSION PERPENDICULAR TO GRAIN

The tension-perpendicular-to-grain test is made to determine the resistance of wood across the grain to slowly applied loads. The test specimen is 2 by 2 inches in cross section, and 2 1/2 inches in overall length, with a length at mid-height of 1 inch. The load is applied with the special grips shown in figure 34, the rate of motion of the movable head of the testing machine being 0.25 inch per minute. Some specimens are cut to give a radial, and others to give a tangential surface of failure.

MAXIMUM TENSILE STRENGTH

The maximum tensile strength is the only property evaluated. From formula 21 (p. 99) the maximum tensile strength (perpendicular to the grain) for the specimen represented by figure 35 is

$$S_{TF} = \frac{533}{2.01 \times 0.97} = 273 \text{ pounds per square inch.}$$

FIGURE 34.—Method of conducting tension-perpendicular-to-grain test.

Form 511 (Revised Dec.,) R TENSION PERPENDICULAR TO GRAIN

L-315 (Ship. No.) E-12 (Stick No.) 101189 (Lab. No.)

1 (Piece No.) E-6 (Mark) Station MADISON Date AUG. 21 124 (Project No.)

Species DOUGLAS FIR Grade CLEAR Seasoning GREEN

Rings 8 Sap 80 % Summer wood 30 % Moisture 44.2 %

HEIGHT.	WIDTH.	LENGTH.	MAXIMUM LOAD.	TENSION, Lbs. per sq. in.
	2.01	0.97	533	273

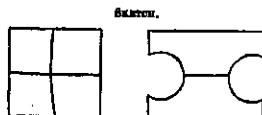


FIGURE 35.—Sample computation card for tension-perpendicular-to-grain test.

TENSION PARALLEL TO GRAIN

The tension-parallel-to-grain test is made to determine the resistance of wood to slowly applied loads acting along the grain. The test specimen is 30 inches long (fig. 1). The specimen is supported by the shoulders near the ends. The rate of motion of the movable head of the testing machine is 0.05 inch per minute. Simultaneous readings of load and of deformation over a 2-inch or 4-inch gage length are taken when it is desired to determine modulus of elasticity.

MAXIMUM TENSILE STRENGTH

From formula 22 (p. 99), the maximum tensile strength parallel to the grain for the specimen represented by figure 36 is

$$S_{TPA} = \frac{2,085}{0.485 \times 0.482} = 8,920 \text{ pounds per square inch.}$$

Form 511-B TENSION PARALLEL TO GRAIN

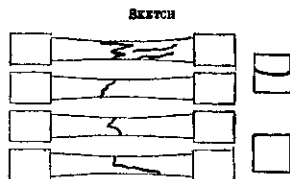
1326 (Ship. No.) L-3 (Stick No.) 632170 (Lab. No.)

6 (Piece No.) a (Mark) Station MADISON Date _____ 124 (Project No.)

Species LOBLOLLY PINE Grade CLEAR Seasoning GREEN

Rings 6 Sap 100 % Summer wood 35 % Moisture 29.3 %

Cross Section	LENGTH	MAXIMUM LOAD	TENSION Lbs. per sq. in.
0.485 x 0.482"		2085	8920



FAILURE: SPLINTERING TENSION

FIGURE 36.—Sample computation card for tension-parallel-to-grain test.

LINEAR SHRINKAGE

Shrinkage measurements are made to determine the change in dimension with change in moisture content. The test specimen is 1 inch thick, 4 inches wide, and 1 inch in length along the grain. Two specimens are taken from each tree, one for measuring radial shrinkage, the other tangential. The width is measured in the apparatus shown in figure 37, which employs a micrometer reading to 0.001

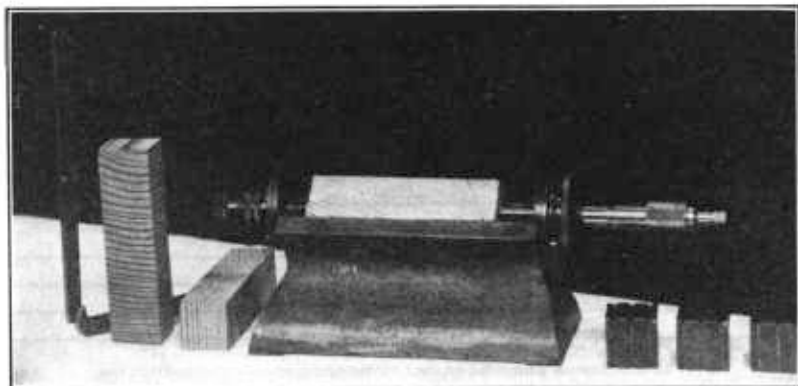


FIGURE 37.—Method of measuring linear shrinkage.

inch. The width of the specimens is measured when green, and after oven drying. In some instances measurements are also taken at intermediate stages of drying. The linear shrinkage from the green to the oven-dry condition is the original width minus the width when oven-dry, divided by the original width. This ratio is expressed as a percentage.

From formula 23 (p. 99), the radial shrinkage for the specimen represented by figure 38 is

$$F_R = \frac{4.006 - 3.808}{4.006} \times 100 = 4.9 \text{ percent.}$$

Form 541

SHRINKAGE—RADIAL AND TANGENTIAL

101 200

101 199

(LAB. NO.)

124

(PROJECT NO.)

L-315
(SHIP NO.)

(STICK NO.)

STATION—MADISON, WIS.

1
(PIECE NO.)d
(MARK)

SPECIES DOUGLAS FIR

NOMINAL SIZE OF SPECIMEN 1 IN. X 4 IN. X 1 IN.

SEASONING	DATE	RINGS PER INCH	% SAP	% SUM-MER WOOD	WIDTH INCHES	WEIGHT GRAMS	% MOISTURE	% X SHRINKAGE
RADIAL								
GREEN	AUG. 19.	11	30	41	4.006	49.8	66.5	
OVEN-DRY	OCT. 5.				3.808	29.9		4.9
TANGENTIAL								
GREEN	AUG. 19.	12	95	34	4.016	64.0	119.1	
OVEN-DRY	OCT. 5.				3.632	29.2		9.5

X BASED ON GREEN WIDTH

FIGURE 38.—Sample computation card for linear shrinkage measurements.

SHRINKAGE IN VOLUME

Shrinkage-in-volume determinations are made on specimens 2 by 2 inches cross section and 6 inches long. Volume measurements are made by an immersion method (fig. 39). The specimens when oven dry are dipped in hot paraffin before immersion to prevent the absorption of moisture, the oven-dry weight being taken before the paraffin is applied. These final measurements afford data for computing specific gravity based on volume when oven dry.

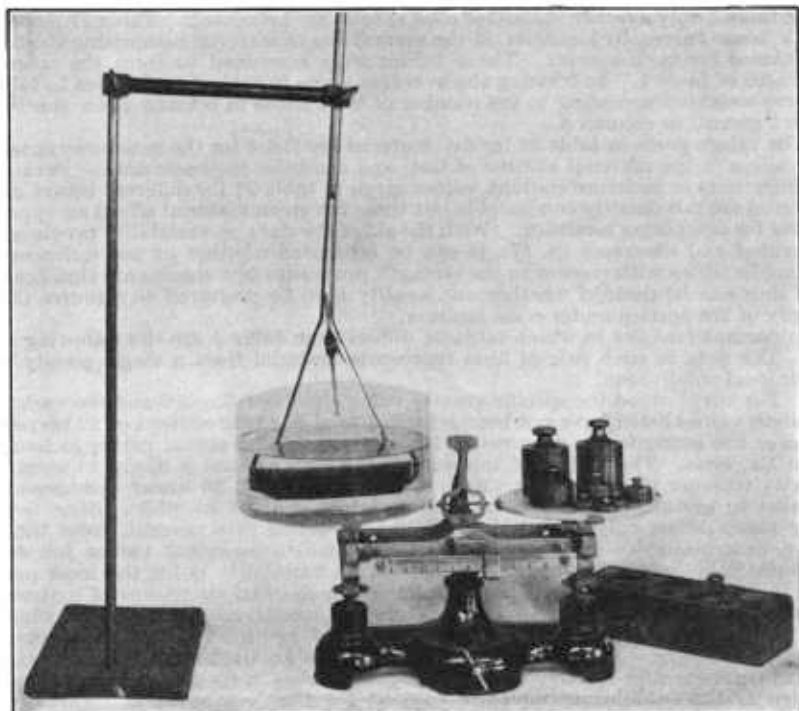


FIGURE 39.—Method of determining volume by means of immersion.

Form 554
Rev. July, 1917

SPECIFIC GRAVITY AND VOLUMETRIC SHRINKAGE

SHIP NO. L-315 STICK NO. S-6 LAB. NO. 101197

PIECE NO. 1 MARK d-8 STATION Madison DATE AUG. 20 PROJECT NO. 124

SPECIES DOUGLAS FIR

NOMINAL SIZE OF SPECIMEN 2 IN. X 2 IN. X 6 IN. % SAP 0 % SUMMER WOOD 40

	DATE	RINGS PER INCH	WEIGHT, GRAMS	% MOIST	VOLUME C. C.	SPECIFIC GRAVITY	WEIGHT, LBS. PER CU. FT.	X % VOL. SHRINKAGE
GREEN	<u>AUG. 20.</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>253</u>	<u>33.2</u>	<u>398</u>	<u>0.477</u>	<u>39.6</u>	<u>13.8</u>
AIR DRY								
KILN DRY								
OVEN DRY	<u>SEP. 25.</u>		<u>190</u>		<u>343</u>	<u>0.554</u>	<u>34.5</u>	

X BASED ON ORIGINAL VOLUME (GREEN, AIR-DRY, KILN-DRY)
NOTE—USE BACK OF CARD FOR CARBON IMPRESSIONS

REMARKS: _____

1ST WT. _____
2D WT. _____
Vol. _____

FIGURE 40.—Sample computation card for specific gravity and volumetric shrinkage determinations.

From formula 24 (p. 99), the shrinkage in volume for the specimen represented by figure 40 is

$$F_B = \frac{398 - 343}{398} \times 100 = 13.8 \text{ percent.}$$

STRENGTH AND RELATED PROPERTIES, BY LOCALITIES, OF WOODS GROWN IN THE UNITED STATES

In table 1 only average values for each species are presented. Table 21 records the average values, by localities, of the several lots of material comprising the test specimens for each species. These values were combined to form the species averages of table 1. In forming the averages given in table 1 each value in table 21 was weighted according to the number of trees listed in column 5 on the line with "green" in column 4.

The values given in table 21 for dry material are those for the moisture content prevailing in the material at time of test, and comprise the basic data. Because of differences in moisture content, values given in table 21 for different lots of dry material are not directly comparable but those for green material afford an opportunity for comparing localities. With the aid of the data on variability previously presented and discussed (p. 17), it can be estimated whether or not differences among localities with respect to the strength properties of a species are significant and thus can be decided whether one locality is to be preferred as a source of a supply of the species under consideration.

Important features in which table 21 differs from table 1 are the following:

1. The data in each pair of lines represents material from a single county or other local subdivision.

2. For "dry" wood the specific-gravity value given in column 9 and the various strength values listed have not been adjusted to a moisture content of 12 percent as have the corresponding figures in table 1 but are the actual values as found from the tests. The values of moisture content in column 8 apply to specific gravity (column 9) and to the values in columns 24 and 25 under compression parallel to grain. The actual value of moisture content at which other tests were made differs only slightly, usually by a fraction of a percent, from those given in column 8. As may be noted, the moisture-content values for dry material vary over a considerable range. This variability is for the most part due to variations in the conditions under which the various groups of material were dried. These moisture-content values are accordingly not those to which the various species or groups of material would be dried by any one set of drying conditions. Under continued exposure to an unchanging combination of temperature and relative humidity wood reaches a fixed moisture content known as the equilibrium moisture content for that combination. Values of equilibrium moisture content vary only slightly among different species.

NOMENCLATURE OF COMMERCIAL WOODS

The names of lumber used by the trade are not always identical with those adopted as official by the Forest Service. Where the names are not identical some confusion may result. Table 22 has therefore been prepared to show the standard commercial names for softwood lumber as prescribed in American lumber standards and the hardwood lumber names current in the trade together with the corresponding botanical names and official Forest Service names used in this bulletin.

TABLE 22.—Nomenclature of commercial woods

Commercial name	Botanical name	Forest Service name used in this bulletin
HARDWOODS		
Red alder.....	<i>Alnus rubra</i>	Red alder.
White ash.....	<i>Alnus rhombifolia</i>	White alder.
	<i>Fraxinus americana</i>	White ash.
	<i>Fraxinus biltmoreana</i>	Biltmore white ash.
	<i>Fraxinus pennsylvanica lanceolata</i>	Green ash.
	<i>Fraxinus pennsylvanica</i>	Red ash.
	<i>Fraxinus quadrangulata</i>	Blue ash.
Black ash.....	<i>Fraxinus nigra</i>	Black ash.
Oregon ash.....	<i>Fraxinus oregona</i>	Oregon ash.
Aspen.....	<i>Populus tremuloides</i>	Aspen.
	<i>Populus grandidentata</i>	Largetooth aspen.
Basswood.....	<i>Tilia glabra</i>	Basswood.
	<i>Tilia heterophylla</i>	White basswood.
Beech.....	<i>Fagus grandifolia</i>	Beech.
Birch.....	<i>Betula lutea</i>	Yellow birch.
	<i>Betula lenta</i>	Sweet birch.
	<i>Betula nigra</i>	River birch.
Paper birch.....	<i>Betula papyrifera</i>	Paper birch.
	<i>Betula populifolia</i>	Gray birch.
Alaska birch.....	<i>Betula kenaica</i>	Kenai birch.
Buckeye.....	<i>Aesculus octandra</i>	Yellow buckeye.
	<i>Aesculus glabra</i>	Ohio buckeye.
Butternut.....	<i>Juglans cinerea</i>	Butternut.
Catalpa.....	<i>Catalpa speciosa</i>	Hardy catalpa.
Cherry.....	<i>Prunus serotina</i>	Black cherry.
Chestnut.....	<i>Castanea dentata</i>	Chestnut.
	<i>Castanea pumila</i>	Chinquapin.
Chinquapin.....	<i>Castanopsis chrysophylla</i>	Golden chinquapin.
Black cottonwood.....	<i>Populus trichocarpa</i>	Black cottonwood.
	<i>Populus trichocarpa hastata</i>	Northern black cottonwood.
	<i>Populus macdougalii</i>	Maddougal cottonwood.
	<i>Populus fremontii</i>	Cottonwood.
Cottonwood.....	<i>Populus deltoides virginiana</i>	Southern cottonwood.
	<i>Populus heterophylla</i>	Swamp cottonwood.
	<i>Populus balsamifera</i>	Balsam poplar.
	<i>Populus deltoides</i>	Eastern cottonwood.
	<i>Populus sargentii</i>	Cottonwood.
Cucumber.....	<i>Magnolia acuminata</i>	Cucumber magnolia.
Dogwood.....	<i>Cornus florida</i>	Dogwood.
Pacific dogwood.....	<i>Cornus nuttallii</i>	Pacific dogwood.
Rock elm.....	<i>Ulmus racemosa</i>	Rock elm.
Soft elm.....	<i>Ulmus americana</i>	American elm.
	<i>Ulmus fulva</i>	Slippery elm.
Black gum.....	<i>Nyssa sylvatica</i>	Black gum.
	<i>Nyssa biflora</i>	Swamp black gum.
Red gum (heartwood only).....	<i>Liquidambar styraciflua</i>	Red gum.
Sap gum (sapwood only).....	<i>Liquidambar styraciflua</i>	Do.
Hackberry.....	<i>Celtis occidentalis</i>	Hackberry.
	<i>Celtis laevigata</i>	Sugarberry.
Hickory.....	<i>Hicoria oata</i>	Shagbark hickory.
	<i>Hicoria laciniata</i>	Bigleaf shagbark hickory.
	<i>Hicoria alba</i>	Mockernut hickory.
	<i>Hicoria glabra</i>	Pignut hickory.
	<i>Hicoria cordiformis</i>	Bitternut hickory.
	<i>Hicoria cordiformis elongata</i>	Do.
Holly.....	<i>Ilex opaca</i>	Holly.
Ironwood.....	<i>Ostrya virginiana</i>	Hophornbeam.
Black ironwood.....	<i>Krugiodendron ferreum</i>	Black ironwood.
Black locust.....	<i>Robinia pseudoacacia</i>	Black locust.
Honeylocust.....	<i>Gleditsia triacanthos</i>	Honeylocust.
Madrona.....	<i>Arbutus menziesii</i>	Pacific madrone.
Magnolia.....	<i>Magnolia grandiflora</i>	Evergreen magnolia.
Hard maple.....	<i>Acer saccharum</i>	Sugar maple.
	<i>Acer nigrum</i>	Black maple.
Soft maple.....	<i>Acer saccharinum</i>	Silver maple.
	<i>Acer rubrum</i>	Red maple.
White maple (unstained sapwood).....	<i>Acer saccharum</i>	Sugar maple.
Oregon maple.....	<i>Acer macrophyllum</i>	Bigleaf maple.
Red oak.....	<i>Quercus borealis maxima</i>	Red oak.
	<i>Quercus borealis</i>	Do.
	<i>Quercus velutina</i>	Black oak.
	<i>Quercus shumardii</i>	Shumard red oak.
	<i>Quercus texana</i>	Texas red oak.
	<i>Quercus palustris</i>	Pin oak.
	<i>Quercus phellos</i>	Willow oak.
	<i>Quercus laurifolia</i>	Laurel oak.
	<i>Quercus rubra</i>	Southern red oak.
	<i>Quercus rubra pagodaefolia</i>	Swamp red oak.
	<i>Quercus nigra</i>	Water oak.
	<i>Quercus ellipsoidalis</i>	Jack oak.
	<i>Quercus coccinea</i>	Scarlet oak.
	<i>Quercus marilandica</i>	Blackjack oak.

TABLE 22.—Nomenclature of commercial woods—Continued

Commercial name	Botanical name	Forest Service name used in this bulletin
HARDWOODS—continued		
Red oak	<i>Quercus kelloggii</i>	California black oak.
	<i>Quercus catesbaei</i>	Turkey oak.
White oak	<i>Quercus alba</i>	White oak.
	<i>Quercus stellata</i>	Post oak.
	<i>Quercus lyrata</i>	Overcup oak.
	<i>Quercus bicolor</i>	Swamp white oak.
	<i>Quercus muhlenbergii</i>	Chinquapin oak.
	<i>Quercus garryana</i>	Oregon white oak.
	<i>Quercus prinus</i>	Swamp chestnut oak.
	<i>Quercus montana</i>	Chestnut oak.
	<i>Quercus macrocarpa</i>	Bur oak.
	<i>Quercus utahensis</i>	Rocky mountain white oak.
Live oak	<i>Quercus wislizenii</i>	Highland live oak.
	<i>Quercus agrifolia</i>	Coast live oak.
	<i>Quercus chrysolepis</i>	Canyon live oak.
	<i>Quercus virginiana</i>	Live oak.
Osage-orange	<i>Taxylon pomiferum</i>	Osage-orange.
Pecan	<i>Hicoria pecan</i>	Pecan.
	<i>Hicoria cordiformis</i>	Bitternut hickory.
	<i>Hicoria cordiformis elongata</i>	Do.
Persimmon	<i>Diospyros virginiana</i>	Persimmon.
Sassafras	<i>Sassafras variifolium</i>	Sassafras.
Silverbell	<i>Ilex carolina</i>	Silverbell.
Sycamore	<i>Platanus occidentalis</i>	Sycamore.
Tupelo	<i>Nyssa aquatica</i>	Tupelo gum.
Black walnut	<i>Juglans nigra</i>	Black walnut.
Willow	<i>Salix nigra</i>	Black willow.
Yellow poplar	<i>Liriodendron tulipifera</i>	Yellow poplar.
SOFTWOODS		
Alaska cedar	<i>Chamaecyparis nootkatensis</i>	Alaska cedar.
Eastern red cedar	<i>Juniperus virginiana</i>	Eastern red cedar.
	<i>Juniperus lucayana</i>	Southern red cedar.
	<i>Juniperus mexicana</i>	Mountain cedar.
Incense cedar	<i>Libocedrus decurrens</i>	Incense cedar.
Northern white cedar	<i>Thuja occidentalis</i>	Northern white cedar.
Port Orford cedar	<i>Chamaecyparis lawsoniana</i>	Port Orford cedar.
Southern white cedar	<i>Chamaecyparis thyoides</i>	Southern white cedar.
Western juniper	<i>Juniperus utahensis</i>	Utah juniper.
	<i>Juniperus pachyphloea</i>	Alligator juniper.
	<i>Juniperus scopulorum</i>	Rocky mountain red cedar.
	<i>Juniperus occidentalis</i>	Western juniper.
Western red cedar	<i>Thuja plicata</i>	Western red cedar.
Red cypress (coast type)	<i>Taxodium distichum</i>	Southern cypress.
Yellow cypress (inland type)	<i>Taxodium distichum</i>	Do.
White cypress (inland type)	<i>Taxodium distichum</i>	Do.
Douglas fir	<i>Pseudotsuga taxifolia</i>	Douglas fir.
Red fir (intermountain type)	<i>Pseudotsuga taxifolia</i>	Do.
Red fir (Rocky Mountain type)	<i>Pseudotsuga taxifolia</i>	Do.
Alpine fir	<i>Abies lasiocarpa</i>	Alpine fir.
	<i>Abies arizonica</i>	Corkbark fir.
Balsam fir	<i>Abies balsamea</i>	Balsam fir.
	<i>Abies fraseri</i>	Southern balsam fir.
Golden fir	<i>Abies magnifica</i>	California red fir.
Noble fir	<i>Abies hobbsii</i>	Noble fir.
Silver fir	<i>Abies amabilis</i>	Silver fir.
White fir	<i>Abies concolor</i>	White fir.
	<i>Abies grandis</i>	Lowland white fir.
Eastern hemlock	<i>Tsuga canadensis</i>	Eastern hemlock.
	<i>Tsuga caroliniana</i>	Carolina hemlock.
Mountain hemlock	<i>Tsuga mertensiana</i>	Mountain hemlock.
West coast hemlock	<i>Tsuga heterophylla</i>	Western hemlock.
Western larch	<i>Larix occidentalis</i>	Western larch.
Arkansas soft pine	<i>Pinus echinata</i>	Shortleaf pine.
	<i>Pinus taeda</i>	Loblolly pine.
Idaho white pine	<i>Pinus monticola</i>	Western white pine.
Jack pine	<i>Pinus banksiana</i>	Jack pine.
Loblolly pine	<i>Pinus taeda</i>	Loblolly pine.
Lodgepole pine	<i>Pinus contorta</i>	Lodgepole pine.
Longleaf pine	<i>Pinus palustris</i>	Longleaf pine.
North Carolina pine	<i>Pinus taeda</i>	Loblolly pine.
	<i>Pinus echinata</i>	Shortleaf pine.
	<i>Pinus virginiana</i>	Virginia pine.
	<i>Pinus strobus</i>	Northern white pine.
Norway pine	<i>Pinus resinosa</i>	Norway pine.
Pond pine	<i>Pinus rigida serotina</i>	Pond pine.
Ponderosa pine	<i>Pinus ponderosa</i>	Ponderosa pine.
Pondosa pine	<i>Pinus ponderosa</i>	Do.

TABLE 22.—Nomenclature of commercial woods—Continued

Commercial name	Botanical name	Forest Service name used in this bulletin
SOFTWOODS—continued		
Shortleaf pine.....	<i>Pinus echinata</i>	Shortleaf pine.
Slash pine.....	<i>Pinus caribaea</i>	Slash pine.
Southern pine.....	<i>Pinus taeda</i>	Loblolly pine.
	<i>Pinus palustris</i>	Longleaf pine.
	<i>Pinus rigida serotina</i>	Pond pine.
	<i>Pinus echinata</i>	Shortleaf pine.
	<i>Pinus caribaea</i>	Slash pine.
	<i>Pinus rigida</i>	Pitch pine.
	<i>Pinus glabra</i>	Spruce pine.
Sugar pine.....	<i>Pinus lambertiana</i>	Sugar pine.
Redwood.....	<i>Sequoia sempervirens</i>	Redwood.
Eastern spruce.....	<i>Picea mariana</i>	Black spruce.
	<i>Picea rubra</i>	Red spruce.
	<i>Picea glauca</i>	White spruce.
Engelmann spruce.....	<i>Picea engelmannii</i>	Engelmann spruce.
	<i>Picea pungens</i>	Blue spruce.
Sitka spruce.....	<i>Picea sitchensis</i>	Sitka spruce.
Tamarack.....	<i>Larix laricina</i>	Tamarack.
Pacific yew.....	<i>Taxus brevifolia</i>	Pacific yew.

FORMULAS USED IN COMPUTING

LEGEND

- S_{CL} = strength in cleavage, pounds per inch of width.
 S_{PL} = stress at proportional limit, pounds per square inch.
 S_{TP} = stress in tension perpendicular to grain, pounds per square inch.
 S_{TPA} = stress in tension parallel to grain, pounds per square inch.
 P' = load at proportional limit, pounds.
 P = maximum load, pounds.
 R = modulus of rupture, pounds per square inch.
 S_s = shear stress, pounds per square inch.
 M = bending moment, in inch-pounds.
 S = computed unit stress, pounds per square inch.

$$I = \text{moment of inertia, inches}^4 \left(\text{for a rectangular beam } I = \frac{b \times d^3}{12} \right).$$

- c = distance from neutral axis of beam to extreme fiber, inches.
 V = total vertical shear at any cross section of a beam, pounds.
 L = length, inches; in static bending, L = span, inches.
 b = breadth, inches.
 d = depth, inches.
 y = deflection, inches.
 b_1 = width of specimen when green, inches.
 b_2 = width of specimen when oven-dry, inches.
 K_1 = volume of specimen when green, cubic inches.
 K_2 = volume of specimen when oven-dry, cubic inches.
 G = specific gravity.
 W = work, inch-pounds per cubic inch.
 W_{PL} = work to proportional limit, inch-pounds per cubic inch.
 W_{ML} = work to maximum load, inch-pounds per cubic inch.
 W_T = total work, inch-pounds per cubic inch.
 E = modulus of elasticity, pounds per square inch.
 A = area under direct stress, square inches.
 H = head or total drop of hammer, plus impact deflection, inches.
 W = weight of hammer, impact bending test, pounds.
 Δ = impact deflection plus static deflection (0.01 inch).
 F_R = radial shrinkage from green to oven-dry condition.
 F_T = tangential shrinkage from green to oven-dry condition.
 F_V = volumetric shrinkage from green to oven-dry condition.

BENDING (SQUARE OR RECTANGULAR BEAMS)

LOAD APPLIED AT CENTER

$$S_{PL} = \frac{3 \times P' \times L}{2 \times b \times d^2} \quad (1)$$

$$R = \frac{3 \times P \times L}{2 \times b \times d^2} \quad (2)$$

$$E = \frac{P' \times L^3}{4 \times b \times d^3 \times y} \quad (3)$$

$$S_s = \frac{3 \times P}{4 \times b \times h} \quad (4)$$

$$W_{PL} = \frac{P' y}{2 \times b \times d \times L} \quad (5)$$

$$W_{ML} = \frac{\text{area under curve to maximum load in inch-pounds}}{b \times d \times L} \quad (6)$$

$$W_T = \frac{\text{total area under curve in inch-pounds}}{b \times d \times L} \quad (7)$$

UNIFORMLY DISTRIBUTED LOAD

$$S_{PL} = \frac{3 \times P' \times L}{4 \times b \times d^2} \quad (8)$$

$$R = \frac{3 \times P \times L}{4 \times b \times d^2} \quad (9)$$

$$E = \frac{5 \times P' \times L^3}{32 \times b \times d^3 \times y} \quad (10)$$

ANY LOADING

$$M = \frac{SI}{c} \quad M_{max} = \frac{RI}{c} \quad (11)$$

$$S_s = \frac{3 \times V}{2 \times b \times d} \quad (12)$$

IMPACT BENDING

$$S_{PL} = \frac{3WHL}{bd^2\Delta} \quad (13)$$

$$W_{PL} = \frac{WH}{Lbh} \quad (14)$$

COMPRESSION PARALLEL TO GRAIN

$$S_{PL} = \frac{P'}{A} \quad (15)$$

$$S_c = \frac{P}{A} \quad (16)$$

$$E = \frac{P'L}{Ay} \quad (17)$$

COMPRESSION PERPENDICULAR TO GRAIN

$$S_{PL} = \frac{P'}{A}, \text{ where } A = \text{area of specimen under plate, square inches} \quad (18)$$

SHEAR PARALLEL TO GRAIN

$$S_s = \frac{P}{A}, \text{ where } A = \text{area under shear, square inches} \quad (19)$$

CLEAVAGE PARALLEL TO GRAIN

$$S_{CL} = \frac{P}{b} \quad (20)$$

TENSION PERPENDICULAR TO GRAIN

$$S_{TP} = \frac{P}{A} \quad (21)$$

TENSION PARALLEL TO GRAIN

$$S_{TPA} = \frac{P}{A} \quad (22)$$

LINEAR SHRINKAGE (PERCENT)

$$F_R \text{ or } F_T = \frac{b_1 - b_2}{b_1} \times 100 \quad (23)$$

VOLUMETRIC SHRINKAGE (PERCENT)

$$F_V = \frac{K_1 - K_2}{K_1} \times 100 \quad (24)$$

SPECIFIC GRAVITY

$$G = \frac{\text{weight in grams}}{\left(1 + \frac{\text{percent moisture}}{100}\right) \times \text{volume in cubic centimeters}} \quad (25)$$

TABLE 21.—Strength and related properties, by localities, of woods grown in the United States

Ship-ment no.	Species (common and botanical names)	Place of growth of material tested	Moisture condition	Trees tested	Rings per inch	Summer wood	Moisture content	Specific gravity, oven-dry, based on volume—		Weight per cubic foot	Shrinkage from green to oven-dry condition based on dimensions when green			Static bending						Impact bending			Compression parallel to grain		Hardness; load required to embed a 0.444-inch ball to ½ its diameter		Shear parallel to grain; maximum shearing strength	Cleavage; load to cause splitting	Tension perpendicular to grain; maximum tensile strength	
								At test	When oven-dry		Volumetric	Radial	Tangential	Stress at proportional limit	Modulus of rupture	Modulus of elasticity	Work			Stress at proportional limit	Work to proportional limit	Height of drop causing complete failure (50-pound hammer)	Stress at proportional limit	Maximum crushing strength	Compression perpendicular to grain; stress at proportional limit	End				Side
																	Proportional limit	Maximum load	Total											
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31
	HARDWOODS			Number	Number	Percent	Percent			Pounds	Percent	Percent	Percent	Lb. per sq. in.	Lb. per sq. in.	1,000 lb. per sq. in.	In.-lb. per cu. in.	In.-lb. per cu. in.	In.-lb. per cu. in.	Lb. per sq. in.	In.-lb. per cu. in.	Inches	Lb. per sq. in.	Lb. per sq. in.	Lb. per sq. in.	Pounds	Pounds	Lb. per sq. in.	Lb. per in. of width	Lb. per sq. in.
263	Alder, red (<i>Alnus rubra</i>)	Snohomish County, Wash.	Green	2	10.8	98.2	98.2	0.368	0.434	46	12.6	4.4	7.3	3,750	6,540	1,167	0.70	8.0	15.3	8,040	2.6	22	2,620	2,960	313	554	440	770	217	394
746	Apple (<i>Malus pumila</i> var.)	Botetourt County, Va.	Green	10	5.8	46.5	46.5	.606	.745	55	17.6	6.6	10.1	3,640	7,400	1,047	.75	15.7	36.4	7,590	3.0	33	3,990	3,000	854	1,041	1,088	1,636	476	905
257	Ash, biltmore white (<i>Frazinus biltmoreana</i>)	Overton County, Tenn.	Green	5	18.6	49	41.5	.507	.584	45	12.6	4.2	6.9	5,530	9,270	1,335	1.31	11.6	27.4	11,930	4.9	30	3,530	3,980	875	953	853	1,232	343	536
219	Ash, black (<i>Frazinus nigra</i>)	Ontonagon County, Mich.	Green	6	23.1	53	90.6	.447	.526	53	15.2	5.0	7.8	12,110	15,560	1,760	4.60	11.7	17.2	19,850	16.4	46	7,360	10,370	2,020	2,060	1,900	1,972	452	813
5	do.	Marathon County, Wis.	Green	1	25.0	78.9	9.1	.590		51				2,580	6,000	967	.40	13.1	35.0	7,230	2.5	35	1,720	2,340	409	610	552	806	266	490
222	Ash, blue (<i>Frazinus quadrangulata</i>)	Bourbon County, Ky.	Green	5	12.5	49	39.3	.532	.603	46	11.7	3.9	6.5	6,310	11,620	1,395	1.64	13.1	27.3	12,160	5.3	27	3,950	5,590	893	1,101	792	1,660	492	696
75	Ash, green (<i>Frazinus pennsylvanica lanceolata</i>)	Richland Parish, La.	Green	5	20.6	60	47.4	.516	.590	47	11.7			5,700	9,650	1,241	1.47	14.7	38.2	11,140	5.0	43	3,580	4,180	994	1,140	1,028	1,544	353	584
223	do.	New Madrid County, Mo.	Green	1	18.7	56	48.3	.536	.631	50	13.3	4.6	7.1	8,950	13,690	1,615	2.92	12.6	23.0	15,860	7.3	32	3,240	4,040	801	842	732	1,202	349	614
318	Ash, Oregon (<i>Frazinus oregona</i>)	Lane County, Oreg.	Green	3	12.5	63	48.5	.497	.575	46	13.2	4.1	8.1	6,110	10,040	1,480	1.42	13.0	31.6	11,150	4.4	37	3,890	4,360	1,012	1,073	1,007	1,318	345	564
223	Ash, pumpkin (<i>Frazinus profunda</i>)	New Madrid County, Mo.	Green	2	21.0	46	51.4	.485	.551	46	12.0	3.7	6.3	9,970	15,110	1,768	3.48	14.6	18,990	9.0	30	5,520	7,850	2,220	1,870	1,362	2,336	564	740	
101	Ash, white (<i>Frazinus americana</i>)	Stone County, Ark.	Green	5	14.8	51	38.2	.550	.640	47	12.6	4.3	6.4	4,230	7,570	1,132	.92	12.2	33.3	8,920	3.0	39	2,760	3,510	653	851	790	1,191	309	587
214	Ash, white (second growth) (<i>Frazinus americana</i>)	Oswego County, N. Y.	Green	5	8.8	63	40.3	.532	.708	51	14.0	5.3	8.7	7,960	14,540	1,426	2.68	15.1	20.0	15,000	6.2	31	4,610	7,120	1,998	1,666	1,236	2,092	461	775
256	Ash, white (<i>Frazinus americana</i>)	Pocahontas County, W. Va.	Green	5	17.2	49	48.1	.495	.565	46	12.2	4.1	6.6	4,470	7,600	1,043	1.08	9.4	18.4	8,760	3.7	32	2,850	3,360	969	885	752	1,214	357	574
904	Ash, white (second growth) (<i>Frazinus americana</i>)	Bennington County, Vt.	Green	8	10.2	52	40.4	.556	.639	49	13.9	5.5	9.1	6,950	11,810	1,312	2.11	7.8	14.8	15,150	7.9	21	4,220	6,320	1,995	1,535	1,028	1,893	459	828
300	Aspen (<i>Populus tremuloides</i>)	Hampshire County, Mass.	Green	2	8.5	63	40.3	.532	.708	51	14.0	5.3	8.7	4,720	9,340	1,482	.88	20.8	51.6	16,780	6.9	35	2,750	3,840	842	940	968	1,316	340	658
465	do.	Rusk County, Wis.	Green	5	8.5	106.6	5.2	.360	.422	46	11.1	3.3	6.9	10,770	17,650	1,942	3.42	16.8	30.9	14,920	4.9	33	6,240	7,900	1,315	2,065	1,416	2,315	598	863
211	Aspen, largetooth (<i>Populus grandidentata</i>)	Oswego County, N. Y.	Green	5	8.8	63	40.3	.532	.708	51	14.0	5.3	8.7	13,010	18,650	1,965	4.90	17.0	36.9	23,840	12.8	46	8,050	9,420	2,090	2,440	1,083	1,604	440	785
904	Aspen, largetooth (second growth) (<i>Populus grandidentata</i>)	Pocahontas County, W. Va.	Green	5	17.2	49	48.1	.495	.565	46	12.2	4.1	6.6	13,010	18,650	1,965	4.90	17.0	36.9	23,840	12.8	46	8,050	9,420	2,090	2,440	1,083	1,604	440	785
165	Basswood (<i>Tilia glabra</i>)	Bennington County, Vt.	Green	5	8.1	100.7	12.3	.350	.411	43	11.9	3.5	7.9	4,600	8,310	1,285	.96	13.6	32.4	11,620	5.1	37	2,870	3,390	705	872	785	1,183	336	590
111	Beech (<i>Fagus grandifolia</i>)	Marathon County, Wis.	Green	3	21.8	15.1	9.2	.348	.374	42	14.5	6.2	8.4	9,580	15,860	1,694	3.16	13.4	25.9	19,050	11.0	38	5,540	8,450	1,762	1,833	1,224	2,008	316	897
197	do.	Potter County, Pa.	Green	5	17.3	98.9	7.9	.404	.412	41	16.5	6.8	9.9	4,720	9,340	1,482	.88	20.8	51.6	16,780	6.9	35	2,750	3,840	842	940	968	1,316	340	658
904	Beech (second growth) (<i>Fagus grandifolia</i>)	Hendricks and Morgan Counties, Ind.	Green	5	16.9	60.9	13.1	.620	.669	56	16.5	4.6	10.5	7,740	15,500	1,762	1.97	20.6	39.2	16,290	7.2	36	5,720	7,520	1,364	1,635	1,312	1,877	556	1,090
197	do.	Potter County, Pa.	Green	5	21.0	63.6	9.3	.531	.641	54	15.8	5.1	10.6	2,940	5,280	840	.65	6.9	16.0	6,880	2.5	28	1,600	2,160	503	296	318	625	116	182
904	Beech (second growth) (<i>Fagus grandifolia</i>)	Bennington County, Vt.	Green	7	10.4	42.1	11.7	.601	.693	52	16.5	5.4	11.6	7,600	10,770	1,290	2.43	7.3		10,470	4.0	24	4,320	6,440	202	262	420	890	224	350
904	Beech, blue (<i>Carpinus caroliniana</i>)	San Miguel County, N. Mex.	Green	6	7.3	84.3	7.0	.344	.383	40	11.8	3.6	6.6	3,340	5,000	877	.73	5.9	11.2	7,010	2.8	18	1,720	2,130	239	289	286	683	152	276
939	Birch, Alaska white (<i>Betula neolaskana</i>)	Sauk County, Wis.	Green	5	8.2	96.4	8.0	.354	.412	43	11.6	3.1	7.9	7,150	10,560	1,410	2.67	9.1	13.5	9,690	3.6	18		5,520	718	567	338	1,023	239	339
865	Birch, gray (<i>Betula populifolia</i>)	Bennington County, Vt.	Green	5	8.1	100.7	12.3	.350	.411	43	11.9	3.5	7.9	3,190	5,850	1,185	.60	6.1	10.6	7,600	2.7	17	2,210	2,720	269	443	366	819	216	394
300	Birch, paper (<i>Betula papyrifera</i>)	Bennington County, Vt.	Green	5	8.1	100.7	12.3	.350	.411	43	11.9	3.5	7.9	7,140	10,590	1,635	1.93	6.7	13.5	15,100	7.0	27	5,100	7,050	646	710	462	1,395	235	396
865	do.	Marathon County, Wis.	Green	3	21.8	15.1	9.2	.348	.374	42	14.5	6.2	8.4	2,660	4,950	1,056	.38	5.2	14.5	7,220	2.3	19	1,830	2,280	239	352	374	651	164	280
197	do.	Potter County, Pa.	Green	5	17.3	98.9	7.9	.404	.412	41	16.5	6.8	9.9	5,390	8,920	1,345	1.19	8.9	15.1	9,990	3.9	20	3,960	4,930	596	643	402	974	216	406
111	Beech (<i>Fagus grandifolia</i>)	Hendricks and Morgan Counties, Ind.	Green	5	16.9	60.9	13.1	.620	.669	56	16.5	4.6	10.5	2,370	4,440	852	.89	5.9	8.6	5,760	2.0	15	1,180	1,830	191	283	220	554	146	266
197	do.	Potter County, Pa.	Green	5	21.0	63.6	9.3	.531	.641	54	15.8	5.1	10.6	5,640	7,280	1,096	1.95	3.2	4.4	6,390	1.8	8	3,420	4,800	540	461	364	1,432	278	406
904	Beech (second growth) (<i>Fagus grandifolia</i>)	Bennington County, Vt.	Green	7	10.4	42.1	11.7	.601	.693	52	16.5	5.4	11.6	2,840	5,270	1,149	.41	4.9	11.3	6,590	2.1	17	2,000	2,460	221	292	263	626	149	282
904	Beech, blue (<i>Carpinus caroliniana</i>)	Franklin County, Mass.	Green	12	15.2	47.8	13.7	.677	.717	53	19.1	5.7	11.4	8,120	11,860	1,529	2.46	11.1	13.7	14,360	6.3	21	5,760	6,709	591	672	508	1,074	260	360
939	Birch, Alaska white (<i>Betula neolaskana</i>)	Bennington County, Vt.	Green	5	16.9	60.9	13.1	.620	.669	56	16.5	4.6	10.5	4,490	8,610	1,353	.96	14.1	30.9	11,760	5.1	43	2,750	3,480	605	1,012	908	1,264	433	801
865	Birch, gray (<i>Betula populifolia</i>)	Bennington County, Vt.	Green	5	16.9	60.9	13.1	.620	.669	56	16.5	4.6	10.5	8,140	14,530	1,820	2.31	16.4	40.2											

TABLE 21.—Strength and related properties, by localities, of woods grown in the United States—Continued

Ship-ment no.	Species (common and botanical names)	Place of growth of material tested	Moisture condition	Trees tested	Rings per inch	Summer wood	Moisture content	Specific gravity, oven-dry, based on volume—		Weight per cubic foot	Shrinkage from green to oven-dry condition based on dimensions when green			Static bending						Impact bending			Compression parallel to grain		Compression perpendicular to grain; stress at proportional limit	Hardness; load required to embed a 0.444-inch ball to 1/2 its diameter		Shear parallel to grain; maximum shearing strength	Cleavage; load to cause splitting	Tension perpendicular to grain; maximum tensile strength			
								At test	When oven-dry		Volumetric	Radial	Tangential	Stress at proportional limit	Modulus of rupture	Modulus of elasticity	Work			Stress at proportional limit	Work to proportional limit	Height of drop causing complete failure (50-pound hammer)	Stress at proportional limit	Maximum crushing strength		Lb. per sq. in.	Pounds				Pounds	Lb. per sq. in.	Lb. per in. of width
																	Proportional limit	Maximum load	Total														
HARDWOODS—continued																																	
197	Maple, red (<i>Acer rubrum</i>)	Potter County, Pa.	Green	5	11.5		70.0	0.464	0.539	49	12.5	3.8	8.1	3,770	7,470	1,395	0.60	11.3	23.6	9,900	3.7	31	2,370	3,090	458	715	603	1,084	334	765			
865	do.	Strafford County, N. H.	Green	5	8.8		51.4	.494	.552	47	13.7	4.2	8.3	3,620	7,410	1,330	.76	12.9	29.4	9,030	2.9	35	2,100	3,160	461	850	746	1,154	256	635			
211	Maple, silver (<i>Acer saccharinum</i>)	Sauk County, Wis.	Green	5	7.1		65.7	.439	.506	45	12.0	3.0	7.2	3,120	5,820	943	.61	11.0	22.3	6,830	2.6	29	1,930	2,490	456	671	592	1,053	302	564			
904	Maple, striped (<i>Acer pennsylvanicum</i>)	Hampshire County, Mass.	Green	4	11.6		35.3	.438		37	12.3	3.2	8.6	3,620	7,230	1,080	.68	10.9	13.4	8,740	2.3	36	1,790	2,920	496	500							
111	Maple, sugar (<i>Acer saccharum</i>)	Bennington County, Vt.	Dry	3			13.2	.462		34				5,110	10,760	1,352	1.06	11.3	16.7	11,310	5.0	27	5,200	754		970	699						
		Hendricks and Morgan Counties, Ind.	Green	4	19.4		55.4	.553	.649	54	14.4	4.9	9.1	4,780	9,090	1,496	.92	12.7	30.3	12,060	4.8	35	3,020	3,780	631	1,006	928	1,373	447	742			
197	do.	Potter County, Pa.	Green	6	22.2		67.1	.554	.671	58	14.7	4.8	9.2	5,710	9,490	1,524	1.25	13.6	35.6	12,370	5.3	42	3,200	3,870	704	1,035	920	1,380	436	796			
			Dry	2			9.1	.642		22				11,760	16,700	1,736	4.54	14.6	22.8	23,270	11.9	40	7,620	9,790	1,893	2,110	1,584	2,784	648	813			
904	Maple, sugar (second growth) (<i>Acer saccharum</i>)	Bennington County, Vt.	Green	7	9.5		49.7	.581	.695	54	15.3	4.9	10.0	5,240	9,960	1,672	1.02	15.9	45.7	13,550	4.7	51	3,430	4,270	917	1,200	1,095	1,612	430	785			
			Dry	4			13.7	.644		49				8,650	16,040	1,856	2.17	18.9	37.5			49	4,420	7,340	2,018	1,776	1,532	2,554	703	1,062			
5	Maple, sugar (<i>Acer saccharum</i>)	Marathon County, Wis.	Green	4	22.0		62.5	.560		57				4,620	8,820	1,437	.85	9.6	17.1			29	4,020	870	965	1,434							
			Dry	1			12.5	.621	1.034	77	11.7	6.1	7.5	9,110	14,830	1,930	2.41	13.8	21.3	17,440	8.5	28	5,360	7,370	1,755	1,909	1,342	2,112	603				
752	Mastic (<i>Sideroxylon foetidissimum</i>)	Dade County, Fla.	Green	5			38.6	.886		77	11.7	6.1	7.5	7,070	10,360	1,576	1.79	8.1	19.8	18,000	8.7	52	3,950	5,580	2,079	1,667	1,706	1,667	428	1,034			
			Dry	2			10.8	.936		72				6,550	10,200	1,784	1.36	6.0	6.0	13,900	4.9	22	4,550	7,040	2,842	2,560	1,796	1,451	350	628			
5	Oak, black (<i>Quercus velutina</i>)	Marathon County, Wis.	Green	2	19.0		54.5	.538		62				3,720	7,650	1,121	.71	13.2	33.4	12,250	5.6	35	3,080	802	847	1,060	1,292						
			Dry	1			11.4	.583		63	14.2	4.5	9.7	8,220	14,670	1,641	2.31	14.2	24.4	15,470	7.3	30	4,650	7,120	1,246	1,598	1,208	2,118	488	894			
101	do.	Stone County, Ark.	Green	5	12.5	71	76.7	.569	.669	63	14.2	4.5	9.7	5,060	8,570	1,219	1.20	11.7	28.1	10,840	4.4	43	2,900	3,700	912	1,093	1,057	1,179	424	828			
			Dry	1			11.8	.625		63	14.2	4.5	9.7	4,640	13,700	1,662	2.11	13.4	23.6	13,700	5.8	47	4,640	6,390	1,112	1,275	1,208	1,890	383	773			
211	Oak, bur (<i>Quercus macrocarpa</i>)	Sauk County, Wis.	Green	5	12.1	59	69.6	.583	.671	62	12.7	4.4	8.8	3,640	7,180	877	.89	10.7	26.1	10,020	4.7	44	2,380	3,290	836	1,158	1,108	1,354	428	804			
			Dry	2			10.2	.653		62				7,000	10,900	1,660	2.79	8.6	16.2	15,340	8.6	27	3,510	6,640	1,672	1,460	1,419	1,918	312	653			
294	Oak, California black (<i>Quercus kelloggii</i>)	Butte County, Calif.	Green	5	20.1	48	106.9	.491	.547	63	13.6	4.1	6.4	3,210	5,740	786	.81	7.5	12.1	8,320	3.1	28	1,800	2,530	696	807	728	967	334	609			
			Dry	1			5.3	.665		63	13.6	4.1	6.4	10,890	12,950	1,264	5.31	7.3	13.1	8,780	4.0	12	5,020	9,320	1,692	1,237	1,331	1,641	323	908			
319	do.	Douglas County, Ore.	Green	5	11.9	55	104.7	.529	.608	68	10.6	3.1	6.8	3,640	6,630	684	1.25	10.2	20.0	8,050	3.6	31	1,960	3,070	1,093	1,020	980	1,298	360	784			
			Dry	2			5.2	.629		68	10.6	3.1	6.8	6,900	8,100	1,053	2.14	4.1	4.2	9,650	4.5	12	4,040	7,520	2,030	1,480	1,234	1,782	412	844			
294	Oak, canyon live (<i>Quercus chrysolepis</i>)	Butte County, Calif.	Green	3	12.9		61.8	.702	.838	71	16.2	5.4	9.5	6,330	10,550	1,340	1.70	14.4	30.9	11,150	3.9	47	3,940	4,690	1,475	1,592	1,570	1,696	525	974			
			Dry	1			5.0	.522		71	16.2	5.4	9.5	11,900	14,660	1,810	4.67	7.8	17.0	14,280	6.7	32	7,880	13,360	2,890	3,568	3,146	2,740	728				
226	Oak, chestnut (<i>Quercus montana</i>)	Sevier County, Tenn.	Green	5	23.4	50	71.8	.573	.674	61	16.7	5.5	9.7	4,630	8,030	1,372	.90	9.4	22.4	12,010	4.6	35	2,890	3,520	657	971	894	1,212	383	686			
			Dry	1			9.5	.676		61	16.7	5.5	9.7	10,600	15,040	1,645	3.85	11.5	18.8	21,200	9.0	42	4,830	7,840	1,178	1,336	1,209	1,600	382				
258	Oak, laurel (<i>Quercus laurifolia</i>)	Winn Parish, La.	Green	5	11.0	61	54.3	.564	.703	65	19.0	4.0	9.9	4,520	7,940	1,393	.86	11.2	28.3	10,350	3.4	39	2,650	3,170	707	1,019	996	1,182	374	770			
			Dry	1			9.5	.645		65	19.0	4.0	9.9	8,680	14,050	1,770	2.47	12.0	28.6	15,210	5.9	39	5,220	8,230	1,490	1,275	1,260	2,026	351	792			
751	Oak, live (<i>Quercus virginiana</i>)	Marion County, Fla.	Green	2	8.2		49.7	.810	.977	76	14.7	6.6	9.5	8,440	11,930	1,575	2.54	12.3	26.0	17,200	8.5	57	4,170	5,430	2,517	1,674	1,882	2,210	518	1,041			
			Dry	2			13.4	.879		76	14.7	6.6	9.5	8,730	18,090	1,956	2.20	18.6	38.4	21,000	11.0	34	5,000	8,400	3,525	3,020	2,618	2,674	550	1,012			
319	Oak, Oregon white (<i>Quercus garryana</i>)	Douglas County, Ore.	Green	10	16.3	49	71.6	.644	.748	69	13.4	4.2	9.0	4,630	7,720	792	1.51	13.7	29.8	10,260	4.8	49	2,480	3,570	1,375	1,432	1,392	1,634	449	943			
			Dry	4			6.6	.760		69	13.4	4.2	9.0	7,780	11,740	1,267	2.73	8.5	14.6	12,720	5.7	23	4,880	8,570	2,558	2,090	1,783	2,210	360	810			
904	Oak, pin (<i>Pinus palustris</i>)	Hampshire County, Mass.	Green	5	9.0	58	75.2	.577	.677	63	14.5	4.3	9.5	4,000	8,330	1,318	.71	14.0	35.2	11,920	4.2	45	4,770	3,680	883	996	1,074	1,293	470	804			
			Dry	5			11.4	.629		63	14.5	4.3	9.5	8,360	14,480	1,754	2.37	14.9	30.2	12,280	3.6	48	4,770	7,090	1,289	1,642	1,536	2,126	628	1,062			
101	Oak, post (<i>Quercus stellata</i>)	Stone County, Ark.	Green	5	30.4	61	64.5	.590	.732	61	16.0	5.7	10.6	4,720	7,380	913	1.39	9.1	18.0	11,260	4.4	38	2,750	3,330	1,148	1,130	1,074	1,299	420	819			
			Dry	1			11.2	.677		61	16.0	5.7	10.6	7,860	12,480	1,321	2.68	10.0	19.2	16,160	7.3	44	3,240	6,660	1,970	1,364	1,296	1,888	454	820			
258	do.	Winn Parish, La.	Green	5	21.2	47	73.6	.602	.745	65	16.5	5.2	8.9	5,230	8,780	1,259	1.23	13.0	32.8	10,570	3.7	49	2,930	3,620	964	1,172	1,182	1,256	405	756			
			Dry	1			11.2	.683		65	16.5	5.2	8.9	7,810																			

TABLE 21.—Strength and related properties, by localities, of woods grown in the United States—Continued

Ship- ment no.	Species (common and botanical names)	Place of growth of material tested	Moisture condition	Trees tested	Rings per inch	Sum- mer wood	Mois- ture con- tent	Specific gravity, oven dry, based on volume—		Weight per cubic foot	Shrinkage from green to oven dry condition based on dimen- sions when green			Static bending						Impact bending			Compression parallel to grain		Com- pression perpen- dicular to grain;		Hardness; load required to em- bed a 0.444-inch ball to ½ its diameter		Shear parallel to grain; maxi- mum shearing strength	Cleav- age; load to cause splitting	Tension perpen- dicular to grain; maxi- mum tensile strength
								At test	When oven- dry		Volu- metric	Radial	Tangential	Stress at pro- portional limit	Modu- lus of rupture	Modu- lus of elas- ticity	Work			Stress at pro- portional limit	Work to pro- portional limit	Height of drop causing complete failure (50-pound hammer)	Stress at pro- portional limit	Maxi- mum crushing strength	Com- pression perpen- dicular to grain; stress at proportional limit	End	Side				
																	Proportional limit	Maxi- mum load	Total									Proportional limit			
HARDWOODS—continued																															
75	Oak, white (<i>Quercus alba</i>)	Richland Parish, La.	Green	5	16.0	67	78.5	0.596	0.708	66	16.0	4.8	9.2	Lb. per sq. in.	Lb. per sq. in.	Lb. per sq. in.	In.-lb. per cu. in.	In.-lb. per cu. in.	In.-lb. per cu. in.	In.-lb. per cu. in.	Inches	Lb. per sq. in.	Lb. per sq. in.	Lb. per sq. in.	Pounds	Pounds	Lb. per sq. in.	Lb. per in. of width	Lb. per sq. in.		
101	do.	Stone County, Ark.	Dry	1	22.1	65	58.0	.591	.704	58	15.8	6.2	8.3	4,410	7,760	1,194	0.94	8.9	20.2	17,750	5.2	35	3,000	3,490	1,004	1,183	1,155	1,253	422	805	
111	do.	Hendricks, Marion, and Morgan Counties, Ind.	Green	5	15.6	60	62.5	.603	.696	61	14.3	4.9	9.0	4,320	8,000	1,137	.95	12.1	31.4	9,860	3.8	44	5,100	7,580	1,085	1,590	1,528	2,045	488	672	
258	do.	Winn Parish, La.	Dry	1	14.7	49	71.8	.695	.732	63	16.9	5.4	9.5	7,480	13,900	1,585	2.02	11.3	32.3	14,600	6.4	40	2,980	3,520	829	1,113	986	1,194	420	680	
258	Oak, willow (<i>Quercus phellos</i>)	do.	Green	5	13.7	56	94.3	.550	.688	67	18.9	5.0	9.6	4,780	8,640	1,311	1.18	13.3	31.4	10,950	4.3	28	4,620	7,580	1,456	1,622	1,275	2,060	484	818	
111	Osage-orange (<i>Toxylon pomiferum</i>)	Morgan County, Ind.	Dry	1	6.5	82	31.2	.761	.838	62	8.9			7,700	16,400	2,043	3.18	16.0	41.3	17,450	9.3	44	4,920	8,230	1,040	1,534	1,620	1,504	404	760	
751	Palmetto, cabbage (<i>Sabal palmetto</i>)	Marion County, Fla.	Green	5			133.5	.372	.453	54	25.0			1,910	3,750	485	.45	4.0	15.8	5,000	2.7	15	1,410	1,750	186	333	281	571	114	224	
752	Paradise-tree (<i>Simarouba glauca</i>)	Dade County, Fla.	Dry	2			11.4	.359	.359	38	8.6	2.2	5.2	3,240	4,930	571	1.07	4.5	20.2	6,350	2.9	10	1,450	2,280	173	298	375	377	72	114	
368	Pecan (<i>Hicoria pecan</i>)	Pemiscot County, Mo.	Green	5	12.1	63	62.9	.601	.684	61	13.6	4.9	8.9	1,910	3,490	696	.40	1.8	2.4	6,400	1.9	7	1,260	1,810	265	349	245	711	149	308	
368	Persimmon (<i>Diospyros virginiana</i>)	do.	Dry	2	13.8		6.2	.697	.776	63	18.3	7.5	10.8	4,320	5,660	877	.99	3.4	4.4	5,510	1.5	7	2,550	3,310	466	684	368	593	378	638	
752	Pigeon-plum (<i>Coccolobis laurifolia</i>)	Dade County, Fla.	Green	5			58.5	.639	.776	63	18.3	7.5	10.8	5,600	10,030	1,367	1.35	13.0	31.2	12,120	5.0	41	6,630	10,890	3,348	2,370	2,142	2,536	566	770	
752	Poisonwood (<i>Metopium toxiferum</i>)	do.	Dry	2			11.3	.686	.784	63	16.9	5.4	9.5	15,450	23,700	2,460	5.70	16.0	13.9	31.4	22,420	11.7	35	3,160	4,170	1,110	1,243	1,279	1,474	410	770
904	Poplar, balsam (second growth) (<i>Populus balsamifera</i>)	Bennington County, Vt.	Green	5	4.6		121.2	.301	.331	42	8.0	2.0	5.4	5,030	9,830	1,299	1.17	11.6	24.7	15,970	6.8	40	4,260	4,940	1,500	1,734	1,722	1,616	399	525	
939	Poplar, balsam (<i>Populus balsamifera</i>)	Near Girdwood, Alaska.	Dry	3			103.8	.296	.363	38	13.0	4.0	8.7	7,800	13,270	1,292	2.82	10.8					15	1,220	1,160	398	1,997	298	908	183	353
226	Poplar, yellow (<i>Liriodendron tulipifera</i>)	Sevier County, Tenn.	Green	5	14.0		64.0	.371	.419	38	11.4	4.1	6.9	3,150	5,570	1,207	1.48	5.6	9.2	8,050	2.6	17	2,030	2,550	310	418	338	788	250	476	
634	do.	Breathitt County, Ky.	Dry	6			63.9	.381	.434	39	13.0	4.0	7.2	8,360	11,850	1,410	2.52	7.5	10.6	18,620	3.9	22	4,680	7,430	740	590	448	1,174	309	572	
226	Rhododendron, great (<i>Rhododendron maximum</i>)	Sevier County, Tenn.	Green	5	27.9		98.8	.501	.601	62	16.2	6.3	8.7	6,350	9,630	1,406	1.49	7.0	12.4	13,190	5.4	19	2,310	3,560	361	359	341	1,710	202	442	
226	Sassafras (<i>Sassafras variifolium</i>)	do.	Dry	2	19.4	48	67.4	.424	.473	44	10.3	4.0	6.2	4,650	6,900	872	1.38	12.1	32.4			26	5,470	9,360	1,916	1,000	864	1,240	288	529	
226	Service berry (<i>Amelanchier canadensis</i>)	do.	Green	5	19.4		67.4	.424	.473	44	10.3	4.0	6.2	8,410	14,390	1,270	3.09	12.5	19.0	9,180	3.3	37	5,510	9,360	1,916	609	524	852	303	582	
226	Silverbell (<i>Halesia carolina</i>)	do.	Dry	2	20.5		70.3	.418	.475	44	12.6	3.8	7.6	7,700	10,650	1,221	2.71	9.5	25.9	11,860	6.1	31	3,720	6,060	1,469	670	658	1,366	302	621	
226	Sourwood (<i>Oxydendrum arboreum</i>)	do.	Green	5	23.8		68.7	.504	.593	53	15.2	6.3	8.9	13,350	20,010	1,962	4.83	19.8	53.0	24,460	12.3	63	3,250	4,080	783	1,249	1,244	1,256	402	729	
752	Stopper, red (<i>Eugenia confusa</i>)	Dade County, Fla.	Dry	3			40.9	.814	.918	72	13.3	6.2	9.1	3,510	6,490	1,163	.62	8.8	16.1	9,100	3.3	23	4,620	6,890	860	1,057	648	1,310	348	484	
368	Sugarberry (<i>Celtis laevigata</i>)	Pemiscot County, Mo.	Green	5	17.2	38	61.6	.473	.545	48	12.7	5.0	7.3	4,440	7,680	1,316	.82	9.8	20.0	10,770	4.1	38	2,700	3,250	678	859	728	1,157	400	713	
211	Sumach, staghorn (<i>Rhus hirta</i>)	Sauk County, Wis.	Dry	3	8.6	61	44.7	.449	.449	41				10,880	13,820	1,645	3.87	11.4	22.4	20,600	11.5	34	5,430	6,190	1,370	1,684	1,060	1,380	374	446	
111	Sycamore (<i>Platanus occidentalis</i>)	Hendricks County, Ind.	Green	5	19.2		81.1	.454	.528	51	13.5	4.9	7.3	14,970	19,942	2,143	4.8	18.8	48.3			64	6,140	9,940	2,793	2,598	1,862	2,598	571	915	
226	do.	Sevier County, Tenn.	Dry	1	14.5		84.9	.458	.552	53	14.8	5.2	7.9	16,170	20,040	2,143	4.8	18.8	48.3			33	1,980	2,800	842	739	1,049	377	658		
386	Walnut, black (<i>Juglans nigra</i>)	Kentucky	Green	5	12.2		81.1	.513	.582	58	11.3	5.2	7.1	3,030	5,840	809	.67	10.8	14.4	14,140	7.4	37	5,930	8,450	2,008	1,642	1,108	1,450	374	574	
463	Walnut, little (<i>Juglans rupestris</i>)	Coconino County, Ariz.	Dry	1			66.8	.532	.613	55	10.7	4.4	4.6	10,450	12,110	1,350	4.50	7.8	15.6			24	5,660	7,750	1,568	965	718	1,117	345	660	
211	Willow, black (<i>Salix nigra</i>)	Sauk County, Wis.	Green	5	4.2		148.4	.330	.409	51	13.3	2.2	8.2	2,820	6,300	964	.51	7.1	14.2	8,180	3.2	24	2,310	2,790	433	684	580	1,001	345	660	
368	do.	Pemiscot County, Mo.	Dry	2	6.3		120.1	.345	.408	49	14.3	2.8	7.4	5,680	9,350	1,365	1.41	6.1	8.8	11,050	4.0	17	3,260	5,340	885	957	814	1,554	420	750	
319	Willow, western black (<i>Salix lasiandra</i>)	Douglas County, Oreg.	Green	5	5.3		104.7	.394	.473	50	13.8	2.9	9.0	3,730	6,640	1,166	.70	7.9	17.6	10,500	3.4	29	2,480	3,060	468	729	638	990	319	603	
226	Witch-hazel (<i>Hamamelis virginiana</i>)	Sevier County, Tenn.	Dry	2	14.1		70.2	.558	.714	59	18.8			9,460	13,180	1,650	3.00	11.9	35.9	11,860	4.5	39	5,260	7,220	1,142	992	500	800	210	357	
SOFTWOODS																															
939	Cedar, Alaska (<i>Chamaecyparis nootkatensis</i>)	Near Ketchikan, Alaska.	Green	3	22.8		34.7	.442	.509	37	11.4	4.2	7.7	5,360	9,630	1,122	1.29	19.5	56.8	12,440	6.3	40	6,410	10,000	2,172	2,555	1,946	1,118	1,411	142	426
318	do.	Lane County, Oreg.	Dry	1	30.6		39.9	.399	.439	35	7.9	1.9	5.0	8,640	13,830	1,730	2.28	13.4	16.5	12,660	4.2	30	6,390	7,950	965	988	710	1,413	226	363	

TABLE 21.—Strength and related properties, by localities, of woods grown in the United States—Continued

Ship-ment no.	Species (common and botanical names)	Place of growth of material tested	Moisture condition	Trees tested	Rings per inch	Sum-mer wood	Moisture content	Specific gravity, oven-dry, based on volume—		Weight per cubic foot	Shrinkage from green to oven-dry condition based on dimensions when green			Static bending						Impact bending			Compression parallel to grain		Compression perpendicular to grain; stress at proportional limit		Hardness; load required to embed a 0.444-inch ball to 1/2 its diameter		Shear parallel to grain; maximum shearing strength	Cleavage; load to cause splitting	Tension perpendicular to grain; maximum tensile strength
								At test	When oven-dry		Volumetric	Radial	Tangential	Stress at proportional limit	Modulus of rupture	Modulus of elasticity	Work			Stress at proportional limit	Work to proportional limit	Height of drop causing complete failure (50-pound hammer)	Stress at proportional limit	Maximum crushing strength	Stress at proportional limit	End	Side				
																	In.-lb. per cu. in.	In.-lb. per cu. in.	In.-lb. per cu. in.									Lb. per sq. in.			
SOFTWOODS—continued																															
318	Cedar, incense (<i>Libocedrus decurrens</i>)	Lane County, Oreg.	Green	4	17.4	30	135.8	0.332	0.365	49	7.7	3.3	5.2	3,920	6,800	1,497	59	7.8	24.1	9,330	2.7	25	2,980	3,280	385	555	475	881	154	240	
	do.	Weed, Calif.	Dry	2	16.0		80.0	0.365	0.360					3,920	6,400	926	0.94	6.4	8.8	7,320	2.4	17	2,940	3,270	393	570	389	834	160	284	
	do.	do.	Green	5	23.6	25	52.0	0.411	0.470	39	10.7	5.2	8.1	3,920	6,800	1,497	59	7.8	24.1	9,330	2.7	25	2,980	3,280	385	555	475	881	154	240	
	do.	do.	Dry	1	22.4	39	38.2	0.454	0.423	34	9.7	4.2	6.3	3,980	5,840	2,285	12.1	7.2	23.6	17,660	7.2	39	7,300	7,750	1,025	948	696	1,496	358	631	
532	do.	Coos County, Oreg.	Green	9	10.1		400	0.375	0.382					3,980	5,840	1,375	0.8	7.2	19	9,080	3.2	19	2,650	3,040	332	414	354	808	78	142	
	do.	do.	Dry	9	10.1		400	0.375	0.382					3,980	5,840	1,375	0.8	7.2	19	9,080	3.2	19	2,650	3,040	332	414	354	808	78	142	
904	Cedar, eastern red (<i>Juniperus virginiana</i>)	Bennington County, Vt.	Green	5	12.0		442	0.402	0.492	37	7.8	3.1	4.7	3,430	7,030	1,634	2.20	8.0	34.7	12,300	4.4	23	2,300	2,740	931	707	588	824	215	300	
	do.	do.	Dry	3	15.3		464	0.402	0.492	37	7.8	3.1	4.7	3,430	7,030	1,634	2.20	8.0	34.7	12,300	4.4	23	2,300	2,740	931	707	588	824	215	300	
751	Cedar, southern red (<i>Juniperus sp.</i>)	Marion County, Fla.	Green	5	13.4		25.6	0.421	0.453	33	7.0	2.2	4.0	5,050	8,350	923	1.08	15.0	34.7	6,990	2.7	35	2,540	3,570	864	760	646	1,008	176	331	
	do.	do.	Dry	2	12.9		440	0.421	0.453	33	7.0	2.2	4.0	5,050	8,350	923	1.08	15.0	34.7	6,990	2.7	35	2,540	3,570	864	760	646	1,008	176	331	
224	Cedar, western red (<i>Thuja plicata</i>)	Missoula County, Mont.	Green	5	20.9	42	32.8	0.294	0.327	24	7.6	2.5	4.6	2,890	4,750	1,169	1.54	4.5	10.7	9,270	4.3	17	5,080	6,370	998	809	580	1,188	208	398	
	do.	do.	Dry	1	19.5		7.3	0.319	0.327					2,890	4,750	1,169	1.54	4.5	10.7	9,270	4.3	17	5,080	6,370	998	809	580	1,188	208	398	
263	Cedar, western (<i>Thuja plicata</i>)	Snohomish County, Wash.	Green	5	19.5	31	45.2	0.326	0.360	30	8.6	2.5	5.6	5,440	9,080	1,220	1.37	4.9	7.6	6,360	3.8	10	2,850	2,630	278	394	246	698	132	216	
	do.	do.	Dry	1	17.5		7.5	0.356	0.360					5,440	9,080	1,220	1.37	4.9	7.6	6,360	3.8	10	2,850	2,630	278	394	246	698	132	216	
939	do.	Near Ketchikan, Alaska.	Green	5	23.4	36	55.0	0.293	0.315	28	7.0	2.1	4.7	2,600	4,250	1,061	2.07	5.7	13.1	8,320	3.6	19	4,590	5,560	794	796	414	908	152	379	
	do.	do.	Dry	2	23.4		9.8	0.330	0.315					2,600	4,250	1,061	2.07	5.7	13.1	8,320	3.6	19	4,590	5,560	794	796	414	908	152	379	
185	Cedar, northern white (<i>Thuja occidentalis</i>)	Shawano County, Wis.	Green	5	20.0		37.1	0.320	0.380	27	7.5	3.2	5.0	2,090	4,490	641	1.84	6.3	15.6	5,220	1.8	15	1,490	1,990	288	321	226	616	144	238	
	do.	do.	Dry	2	20.0		11.2	0.311	0.380					2,090	4,490	641	1.84	6.3	15.6	5,220	1.8	15	1,490	1,990	288	321	226	616	144	238	
865	Cedar, southern white (<i>Chamaecyparis thyoides</i>)	Rockingham County, N. H.	Green	5	11.8		33.4	0.299	0.345	25	9.4	2.5	5.4	2,940	4,980	863	5.7	5.4	11.4	6,730	2.5	16	2,600	4,770	697	567	372	758	136	230	
	do.	do.	Dry	5	11.8		11.6	0.323	0.345					2,940	4,980	863	5.7	5.4	11.4	6,730	2.5	16	2,600	4,770	697	567	372	758	136	230	
891	do.	Pasquotank County, N. C.	Green	4	24.8	38	79.4	0.452	0.513	51	11.5	3.8	6.0	4,430	7,110	1,378	0.6	5.1	14.3	8,290	2.7	22	3,440	4,560	326	394	278	690	131	208	
	do.	do.	Dry	5	24.8		13.6	0.330	0.513					4,430	7,110	1,378	0.6	5.1	14.3	8,290	2.7	22	3,440	4,560	326	394	278	690	131	208	
175	Cypress, southern (<i>Taxodium distichum</i>)	St. John the Baptist Parish, La.	Green	4	9.6	26	92.4	0.473	0.489	46	10.1			8,400	11,340	1,725	2.73	7.8	18.0	11,070	4.6	24	5,160	3,960	548	460	354	818	160	246	
	do.	do.	Dry	1	9.6		12.1	0.473	0.489					8,400	11,340	1,725	2.73	7.8	18.0	11,070	4.6	24	5,160	3,960	548	460	354	818	160	246	
368	do.	Pemiscot County, Mo.	Green	6	23.9	52	89.6	0.443	0.510	52	10.7	3.9	6.2	4,230	6,600	1,181	0.93	5.4	12.8	9,340	3.8	26	3,770	3,170	1,034	930	564	1,134	178	310	
	do.	do.	Dry	2	23.9		12.8	0.484	0.510					4,230	6,600	1,181	0.93	5.4	12.8	9,340	3.8	26	3,770	3,170	1,034	930	564	1,134	178	310	
553	do.	St. Bernard Parish, La.	Green	5	22.9	26	98.3	0.415	0.457	51	10.0	3.7	6.4	4,470	6,750	1,182	0.96	9.0	9.8	9,240	3.5	25	3,770	3,170	1,034	930	564	1,134	178	310	
	do.	do.	Dry	5	22.9		12.8	0.484	0.457					4,470	6,750	1,182	0.96	9.0	9.8	9,240	3.5	25	3,770	3,170	1,034	930	564	1,134	178	310	
734	do.	Ascension Parish, La.	Green	8	12.3	32	30.6	0.474	0.544	40	12.3	5.0	8.3	5,320	8,040	1,627	0.98	6.8	21.3	9,470	2.8	26	3,780	4,130	558	510	480	906	162	232	
	do.	do.	Dry	2	12.3		6.6	0.440	0.544					5,320	8,040	1,627	0.98	6.8	21.3	9,470	2.8	26	3,780	4,130	558	510	480	906	162	232	
318	Douglas fir (coast type) (<i>Pseudotsuga taxifolia</i>)	Lewis County, Wash.	Green	5	19.8	36	35.2	0.461	0.536	39	13.2	5.7	7.6	4,860	7,860	1,879	0.80	7.0	20.4	9,850	3.1	27	3,440	4,080	948	868	1,340	209	161	296	
	do.	do.	Dry	2	19.8		6.0	0.526	0.536					4,860	7,860	1,879	0.80	7.0	20.4	9,850	3.1	27	3,440	4,080	948	868	1,340	209	161	296	
325	do.	Chehalis County, Wash.	Green	5	8.8	39	39.7	0.414	0.473	36	12.5	4.4	7.4	4,280	7,010	1,407	0.74	6.1	15.7	8,890	2.7	22	2,780	3,410	485	594	427	940	150	206	
	do.	do.	Dry	1	8.8		5.9	0.436	0.473					4,280	7,010	1,407	0.74	6.1	15.7	8,890	2.7	22	2,780	3,410	485	594	427	940	150	206	
354	do.	Humboldt County, Calif.	Green	5	10.1	36	45.7	0.444	0.503	40	10.7	4.9	7.7	4,580	7,900	1,508	0.79	6.8	19.6	10,710	4.1	25	3,520	3,830	1,144	888	776	1,253	232	202	
	do.	do.	Dry	1	10.1		6.6	0.500	0.503					4,580	7,900	1,508	0.79	6.8	19.6	10,710	4.1	25	3,520	3,830	1,144	888	776	1,253	232	202	
523	do.	Clatsop County, Oreg.	Green	5	17.2	47	29.2	0.429	0.490	35	10.9			4,640	7,400	1,452	0.88	7.4	15.4	9,630	3.1	22	3,200	3,770	490	440	449	858	134	172	
	do.	do.	Dry	1	17.2		12.2	0.461	0.490					4,640	7,400	1,452	0.88	7.4	15.4	9,630	3.1	22	3,200	3,770	490	440	449	858	134	172	
729	do.	Washington County, Oreg.	Green	4	15.2	28	29.8	0.460	0.533	37	12.8			4,840	7,720	1,704	0.81	7.4	9.8	9,980	4.0	24	4,260	4,990	681	481	472	1,144	187	321	
	do.	do.	Dry	4	15.2		11.9	0.486	0.533					4,840	7,720	1,704	0.81	7.4	9.8	9,980	4.0	24	4,260	4,990	681	481	472	1,144	187	321	
606	do.	Clark County, Wash.	Green	3																											

TABLE 21.—Strength and related properties, by localities, of woods grown in the United States—Continued

Ship- ment no.	Species (common and botanical names)	Place of growth of material tested	Moisture condition	Trees tested	Rings per inch	Summer wood	Moisture con- tent	Specific gravity, oven dry, based on volume		Weight per cubic foot	Shrinkage from green to oven- dry condition based on dimen- sions when green			Static bending						Impact bending			Compression parallel to grain		Com- pression perpen- dicular to grain; stress at proportional limit	Hardness; load required to em- bed a 0.444-inch ball to 1/2 its diameter		Shear parallel to grain; maxi- mum shearing strength	Cleav- age; load to cause splitting	Tension perpen- dicular to grain; maxi- mum tensile strength	
								At test	When oven- dry		Volum- etric	Radial	Tan- gen- tial	Stress at pro- portional limit	Modu- lus of rupture	Modu- lus of elasticity	Work			Stress at proportional limit	Work to proportional limit	Height of drop causing complete failure (50-pound hammer)	Stress at proportional limit	Maxi- mum crushing strength		End	Side				Lb. per sq. in.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	
SOFTWOODS—continued					Number	Number	Percent	Percent		Pounds	Percent	Percent	Percent	Lb. per sq. in.	Lb. per sq. in.	1,000 lb. per sq. in.	In.-lb. per cu. in.	In.-lb. per cu. in.	In.-lb. per cu. in.	Lb. per sq. in.	In.-lb. per cu. in.	Inches	Lb. per sq. in.	Lb. per sq. in.	Lb. per sq. in.	Pounds	Pounds	Lb. per sq. in.	Lb. per width	Lb. per sq. in.	
551	Fir, California red (<i>Abies magnifica</i>)	Plumas County, Calif.	(Green—	5	10.8	39	108.1	0.372	0.421	48	11.8	3.8	6.9	4,140	5,980	1,065	0.95	6.7	12.6	8,650	2.8	22	4,410	4,810	441	387	380	923	191	340	
263	Fir, silver (<i>Abies amabilis</i>)	Snohomish County, Wash.	(Dry—	4	12.5	26	65.8	.351	.415	36	14.1	4.5	10.0	3,410	9,850	1,461	1.64	8.0	13.9	12,090	4.4	23	3,740	4,930	484	991	514	1,080	180	358	
142	Fir, white (<i>Abies concolor</i>)	Madera County, Calif.	(Green—	5	9.9	30	156.5	.350	.388	56	10.2	3.4	7.0	3,930	5,970	1,131	.60	6.0	12.6	7,830	2.2	21	2,380	2,670	289	362	471	1,150	240	258	
465	do.	San Miguel County, N. Mex.	(Dry—	1	10.6	20	122.8	.375	.360	43	9.0	3.1	6.9	3,880	9,800	1,490	1.73	10.3	24.6	11,930	5.3	24	2,510	2,900	578	731	484	1,054	176	258	
571	do.	Plumas County, Calif.	(Green—	5	12.0	37	90.7	.312	.420	43	9.3			2,940	4,920	1,211	.77	5.2	15.7	7,230	2.2	18	4,070	4,400	445	516	328	732	166	258	
165	Hemlock, eastern (<i>Tsuga canadensis</i>)	Marathon County, Wis.	(Dry—	10	24.4	31	129.0	.340	.394	49	8.2	2.3	5.0	6,240	9,440	1,043	1.02	5.1	7.4	5,400	2.9	15	1,810	2,210	290	359	278	754	150	252	
226	do.	Sevier County, Tenn.	(Green—	1	16.6	36	90.5	.368	.501	48	11.6	3.8	7.8	3,410	5,770	917	.73	6.6	12.7	6,330	2.2	17	2,140	2,750	351	403	344	802	160	297	
865	do.	Strafford County, N. H.	(Dry—	1	17.8	36	119.3	.465	.398	49	8.6	3.0	7.1	5,380	7,519	1,048	1.65	8.9	8,228	3.6	13	3,570	5,740	736	810	392	1,148	119	160	217	
904	Hemlock, eastern (second growth) (<i>Tsuga canadensis</i>)	Bennington County, Vt.	(Green—	5	10.8	45	114.1	.392	.431	52	9.5	3.0	7.4	4,900	7,600	1,330	1.02	6.9	23.4	9,490	3.4	24	3,350	3,790	574	558	468	951	160	200	
224	Hemlock, mountain (<i>Tsuga mertensiana</i>)	Missoula County, Mont.	(Dry—	1	22.6	45	70.1	.418	.480	44	10.8	4.4	7.1	9,070	11,930	1,567	2.99	6.7	15.0	16,710	8.3	35	7,370	8,350	1,400	910	584	1,166	162	142	206
930	do.	Near Girdwood, Alaska.	(Green—	5	29.3	36	54.1	.450	.531	43	11.9	4.4	7.6	3,400	5,910	1,014	.64	5.2	14.5	7,240	2.4	20	2,540	2,890	382	485	432	800	142	206	
325	Hemlock, western (<i>Tsuga heterophylla</i>)	Chehalis County, Wash.	(Dry—	2	10.3	27	71.1	.376	.431	40	11.6	4.5	7.9	5,440	8,280	1,115	1.66	7.4	10.2	11,390	5.1	18	3,590	5,400	918	892	515	842	166	356	
939	do.	Near Cordova, Alaska.	(Green—	5	21.0	36	78.6	.360	.417	40	11.4	3.9	7.9	3,450	5,910	1,217	.80	9.1	12.0	15,690	7.9	36	4,460	7,510	1,419	1,289	690	1,263	166	356	
939	do.	Near Ketchikan, Alaska.	(Dry—	2	21.0	36	65.8	.407	.472	42	12.5	4.5	7.8	8,500	12,580	1,522	2.79	8.4	13.0	12,320	5.0	28	5,340	7,720	1,078	1,252	852	1,265	156	304	
563	do.	Oregon	(Green—	2	11.8	40	91.5	.440	.436	45	11.8			3,450	6,070	1,192	.58	6.0	13.5	7,800	2.4	20	2,320	2,890	350	543	432	808	168	256	
463	Juniper, alligator (<i>Juniperus pachyphloea</i>)	Coconino County, Ariz.	(Dry—	3		37	39.6	.477	.545	42	7.8	2.7	3.6	8,010	10,800	1,524	2.48	6.1	16.1	13,030	6.0	26	7,730	7,910	833	1,020	621	1,172	170	334	
276	Larch, western (<i>Larix occidentalis</i>)	Missoula County, Mont.	(Green—	1	36.2	37	66.2	.496	.587	51	13.2	4.2	8.1	3,750	6,580	1,316	.62	7.3	21.0	8,510	3.0	23	4,890	5,810	636	916	527	1,178	207	357	
300	Pine, jack (<i>Pinus banksiana</i>)	Barron County, Wis.	(Dry—	1	7.1	30	105.0	.394	.461	50	10.4	3.4	6.5	6,030	9,340	1,396	1.56	7.4	13.6	12,160	5.4	23	3,240	3,810	458	559	484	840	207	331	
294	Pine, jeffrey (<i>Pinus jeffreyi</i>)	Plumas County, Calif.	(Green—	8	18.3	23	101.1	.371	.425	47	9.9	4.4	6.7	3,760	6,180	1,273	.62	6.6	17.0	7,700	2.7	21	2,460	2,790	388	449	376	769	191	334	
465	Pine, limber (<i>Pinus flexilis</i>)	San Miguel County, N. Mex.	(Dry—	1	14.4	24	87.8	.410	.420	39	8.2	2.4	5.1	5,740	6,769	680	2.94	5.9	18.2	9,380	2.4	11	4,220	4,810	1,844	1,330	1,200	917	158	229	
314	Pine, loblolly (<i>Pinus taeda</i>)	Nassau County, Fla.	(Green—	5	8.6	42	71.8	.504	.593	54	12.6	5.5	7.5	4,270	7,250	1,310	3.06	8.2	18.6	17,000	8.6	34	8,170	9,840	1,280	1,385	866	1,533	165	336	
1010	do.	Wicomico County, Md.	(Dry—	10	8.5	32	88.2	.455	.536	53	12.9	4.9	8.0	5,890	10,230	1,565	.55	5.9	21.0	7,850	3.3	30	4,170	5,940	378	378	366	759	176	308	
1016	do.	Beaufort County, N. C.	(Green—	10	9.5	36	106.6	.465	.545	61	12.6	4.8	7.4	6,540	9,679	1,405	1.81	5.1	8.8	13,100	5.6	37	7,770	7,770	1,150	866	736	216	449		
1066	do.	Greenwood County, S. C.	(Dry—	6	9.6	31	81.3	.463	.533	52	11.3	5.0	7.0	3,170	4,960	982	.60	4.7	14.1	7,150	2.6	21	2,050	2,370	353	319	342	694	156	258	
1324	do.	Nansemond County, Va.	(Green—	10	9.8	32	75.3	.462	.539	51	12.0	4.6	6.8	8,820	10,890	1,313	3.42	7.1	10.9	14,250	6.2	29	5,190	6,980	998	742	562	1,452	278	410	
1326	do.	Bertie County, N. C.	(Dry—	10	8.7	32	60.9	.448	.517	45	11.9	4.3	7.2	3,860	5,250	795	1.08	5.2	8.3	7,140	2.6	18	1,850	2,410	315	299	312	737	170	268	
23	Pine, lodgepole (<i>Pinus contorta</i>)	Johnson County, Wyo.	(Green—	5	30.3	14	58.3	.371	.407	37	10.1	3.6	5.9	8,030	11,240	1,360	2.76	7.5	8.8	13,090	6.3	19	7,060	917	619	488	826	288	280		
27	do.	Grand County, Colo.	(Dry—	2	21.0	29	44.0	.370	.415	33	11.3	4.2	7.1	4,680	7,620	1,431	.89	8.0	26.0	9,490	3.1	32	2,870	3,670	548	405	452	904	186	294	
323	do.	Jefferson County, Mont.	(Green—	5	17.4	25	100.2	.372	.418	47	11.9	4.6	6.8	5,940	14,360	1,868	2.52	11.7	17.6	12,760	4.3	33	5,550	7,090	1,018	746	729	1,360	316	538	
332	do.	Gallatin County, Mont.	(Dry—	2	23.8	22	66.6	.392	.453	41	11.8	5.0	6.5	4,000	7,440	1,415	.66	8.8	25.2	8,580	2.8	26	8,270	11,300	1,595	1,029	836	1,725	236	370	
333	do.	Granite County, Mont.	(Green—	5	16.5	37	63.3	.528	.699	54	12.8	6.0	7.6	3,810	7,610	1,465	.59	8.5	28.3	10,120	3.9	31	2,450	3,670	421	439	360	956	154	166	
176	Pine, longleaf (<i>Pinus palustris</i>)	Taughpsha Parish, La.	(Dry—	1	17.3	34	130.0	.522	.694	42	11.0	4.8	7.5	8,380	13,590	1,827	2.16	10.9	17.6	14,120	5.5	31	4,980	7,500	1,029	816	749	1,382	276	513	
308	do.	Near Hattiesburg, Miss.	(Green—	1	16.1	39	29.0	.549	.642	45	12.8	5.4	7.8	4,280	7,220	1,382	.76	8.4	24.4	9,510	3.3	34	3,390	3,870	559	466	452	917	158	229	
309	do.	Near Lake Charles, La.	(Dry—	1	16.1	39	29.0	.549	.642	45	12.8	5.4	7.8	10,980	14,300	2,022	2.76	12.4	22.2	15,360	6.2	31	6,040	8,140	1,413	924	798	1,688	210	374	

TABLE 21.—Strength and related properties, by localities, of woods grown in the United States—Continued

Ship-ment no.	Species (common and botanical names)	Place of growth of material tested	Moisture condition	Trees tested	Rings per inch	Summer wood	Moisture content	Specific gravity, oven dry, based on volume		Weight per cubic foot	Shrinkage from green to oven-dry condition based on dimensions when green			Static bending						Impact bending			Compression parallel to grain		Compression perpendicular to grain; stress at proportional limit		Hardness; load required to embed a 0.444-inch ball to 1/2 its diameter		Shear parallel to grain; maximum shearing strength	Cleavage; load to cause splitting	Tension perpendicular to grain; maximum tensile strength				
								At test	When oven-dry		Volumetric	Radial	Tangential	Stress at proportional limit	Modulus of rupture	Modulus of elasticity	Work			Stress at proportional limit	Work to proportional limit	Height of drop causing complete failure (50-pound hammer)	Stress at proportional limit	Maximum crushing strength	Lb. per sq. in.	Lb. per sq. in.	Lb. per sq. in.	Pounds				Pounds	Lb. per sq. in.	Lb. per in. of width	Lb. per sq. in.
																	Proportional limit	Maximum load	Total																
SOFTWOODS—continued																																			
314	Pine, longleaf (<i>Pinus palustris</i>)	Nassau County, Fla.	Green	10	23.6	43	41.6	0.674	0.667	51	12.2	5.1	6.9	5,410	8,580	1,615	1.02	7.6	29.3	11,150	3.6	33	3,860	4,340	576	542	602	1,066	177	274					
343	do	Washington Parish, La.	Dry	9	14.4	38	63.8	.648	.650	56	12.4	5.5	7.8	13,400	18,540	2,422	4.20	11.8	24.6	18,620	7.5	34	9,630	12,720	1,920	1,220	1,886	246	418						
1059	do	St. Tammany Parish, La.	Green	2	13.0	41	70.8	.627	.661	60	12.3	5.5	7.7	14,120	19,360	2,458	4.47	11.8	25.6	16,310	6.5	35	10,400	13,210	1,740	1,184	1,604	1,618	324	428					
1063	do	Columbia County, Fla.	Dry	5	5.1	40	117.4	.623	.554	66	10.6	4.1	7.0	5,360	9,230	1,717	1.95	11.2	38.8	10,400	3.1	40	3,390	4,710	714	597	641	992	248	428					
1065	do	Charleston County, S. C.	Green	5	7.6	40	88.2	.501	.587	59	12.9	4.8	7.6	4,430	7,770	1,335	1.84	9.6	30.0	8,100	2.7	37	2,370	3,640	547	562	562	996	254	448					
226	Pine, mountain (<i>Pinus pungens</i>)	Sevier County, Tenn.	Dry	10	15.2	29	74.7	.494	.549	54	10.9	3.4	6.8	7,600	14,300	1,920	1.68	13.9	21.5	14,690	5.6	37	4,770	7,350	1,148	890	812	1,554	336	600					
185	Pine, northern white (<i>Pinus strobus</i>)	Shawano County, Wis.	Green	2	16.2	31	73.9	.563	.391	39	7.8	2.2	5.9	4,530	7,520	1,271	1.94	8.1	25.2	10,210	3.8	29	2,980	3,540	559	478	494	956	201	321					
615	do	Near Funkley, Minn.	Dry	2	13.0	28	74.7	.543	.371	37	8.7			3,210	4,830	980	1.61	4.9	6.7	9,280	3.7	18	1,600	2,350	268	296	298	674	154	363					
865	Pine, northern white (virgin growth) (<i>Pinus strobus</i>)	Strafford County, N. H.	Green	5	13.4	28	52.5	.540	.368	32	8.7	2.3	5.8	6,540	9,310	1,298	1.96	6.4	6.5	10,540	5.0	18	5,450	7,990	799	479	411	1,038	111	377					
865	Pine, northern white (second growth) (<i>Pinus strobus</i>)	do	Dry	2	10.5		75.1	.529	.362	36	7.8	2.4	6.3	3,070	5,160	1,004	1.52	5.3	11.0	6,810	2.1	16	1,870	2,470	296	303	300	608	141	258					
185	Pine, Norway (<i>Pinus resinosa</i>)	Shawano County, Wis.	Green	5	22.1	41	54.0	.440	.507	42	11.5	4.6	7.2	6,440	9,760	1,340	1.82	7.0	10.3	10,680	3.9	20	3,650	5,280	696	573	634	142	288						
226	Pine, pitch (<i>Pinus rigida</i>)	Sevier County, Tenn.	Dry	2	11.7	30	85.3	.478	.542	54	11.7	4.8	7.4	2,730	4,760	934	1.45	4.7	10.5	5,890	1.5	18	2,380	3,580	508	318	322	654	132	158					
904	Pine, pitch (second growth) (<i>Pinus rigida</i>)	Franklin County, Mass.	Green	5	11.7	27	72.3	.491	.504	46	10.1	3.3	6.7	6,060	9,300	1,223	1.65	7.9	10.8	9,660	4.1	18	4,860	7,060	893	696	342	776	161	330					
314	Pine, pond (<i>Pinus rigida serotina</i>)	Naussau County, Fla.	Dry	4	12.8	35	10.6	.483	.580	49	11.2	5.1	7.1	3,740	6,430	1,384	1.59	5.8	28.4	7,480	2.2	28	2,410	3,080	368	355	342	776	158	192					
28	Pine, ponderosa (<i>Pinus ponderosa</i>)	Douglas County, Colo.	Green	5	81.9	40	92.7	.591	.435	47	9.9	3.8	5.8	9,170	12,300	1,757	2.68	9.9	17.1	15,090	6.3	25	2,370	3,060	893	696	597	1,262	206	408					
31	do	Stevens County, Wash.	Dry	2	15.9		13.8	.411	.435	47	9.9	3.8	5.8	3,660	6,680	1,118	1.75	8.5	5.0	9,120	3.4	29	4,310	5,100	510	458	484	950	220	354					
140	do	Cocoonino County, Ariz.	Green	5	21.4	26	98.5	.353	.395	44	9.2	4.1	6.4	7,540	12,430	1,498	2.56	8.7	14.0	17,150	10.7	28	4,310	7,600	1,170	820	690	1,566	298	576					
142	do	Madera County, Calif.	Dry	1	13.0	31	125.3	.374	.433	53	11.5	4.3	7.3	3,540	6,980	1,281	1.60	9.8	25.3	8,520	3.1	26	1,530	2,860	390	373	459	772	154	202					
224	do	Missoula County, Mont.	Green	5	17.9	32	119.4	.371	.425	51	9.3	3.5	5.9	3,940	11,860	1,590	1.66	8.6	12.4	11,200	4.1	35	4,770	6,480	1,265	742	634	1,438	270	488					
655	do	Sierra County, Calif.	Dry	6	12.6	21	75.4	.370	.412	40	8.4			3,140	4,260	779	1.74	5.1	7.8	7,080	3.4	21	2,060	2,286	428	268	682	168	310						
751	Pine, sand (<i>Pinus clausa</i>)	Marion County, Fla.	Green	5	6.8	30	36.1	.451	.506	38	10.0	3.9	7.3	5,760	9,130	1,107	1.69	8.1	8.1	11,510	5.0	19	4,780	6,480	845	614	473	1,433	230	473					
41	Pine, shortleaf (<i>Pinus echinata</i>)	Near Malvern, Ark.	Dry	2	13.4		52.0	.477	.477	45				4,120	7,500	1,024	1.95	9.6	20.6	9,790	4.6	25	2,670	3,440	556	465	477	1,143	376						
342	do	Washington Parish, La.	Green	6	10.0	40	75.4	.518	.584	56	12.6	5.1	8.2	6,230	9,460	1,395	2.14	8.6	16.7	12,920	5.6	19	3,950	7,080	1,145	1,190	810	1,093	280	413					
1012	do	Burlington County, N. J.	Dry	2	14.8	26	70.8	.405	.474	43	11.4	3.5	7.2	3,390	7,710	1,395	1.76	7.0	12.9	10,540	3.7	26	3,570	5,280	708	400	400	1,093	708	280					
1020	do	Iredell County, N. C.	Green	10	11.4	31	90.5	.465	.547	55	12.6	4.3	7.6	4,680	8,210	1,506	1.82	8.7	36.8	11,210	4.0	39	3,560	4,050	550	494	558	1,071	214	330					
1064	do	Jackson County, Ga.	Dry	10	10.7	32	12.0	.511	.555	59	12.8	4.8	8.0	10,670	15,760	2,140	3.01	10.1	16.9	16,590	6.5	36	7,160	10,930	1,689	944	884	1,640	252	406					
314	Pine, slash (<i>Pinus caribaea</i>)	Nassau County, Fla.	Green	5	16.6	44	47.2	.622	.677	53	12.7	5.9	7.5	3,280	6,140	1,069	1.58	7.3	20.2	7,000	2.4	26	1,810	2,320	326	316	314	798	164	246					
752	do	Dade County, Fla.	Dry	2	10.7	50	32.4	.696	.836	58	12.7	5.8	8.8	6,430	11,420	1,358	1.76	10.8	14.6	11,940	4.3	28	4,220	5,690	796	594	562	1,166	278	461					
1059	do	St. Tammany Parish, La.	Green	10	7.0	39	73.0	.526	.626	57	12.6	5.6	7.6	3,330	7,500	1,505	1.43	8.8	24.2	8,300	2.7	28	2,140	3,480	425	410	457	878	218	360					
1063	do	Columbia County, Fla.	Dry	10	6.1	45	85.1	.521	.601	61	11.4	5.0	7.6	6,430	13,590	1,745	2.23	12.5	16.3	12,950	5.0	34	5,070	6,720	948	802	680	1,346	283	522					
142	Pine, sugar (<i>Pinus lambertiana</i>)	Madera County, Calif.	Green	5	11.9	34	123.2	.360	.386	50	8.4	2.9	5.6	4,330	7,450	1,525	2.03	8.2	27.6	8,780	2.9	30	2,540	3,780	494	398	414	830	210	356					
551	do	Plumas County, Calif.	Dry	4	14.5	29	154.2	.333	.368	53	7.3			7,290	12,860	1,949	1.54	10.7	16.7	15,040	5.7	34	5,020	7,230	956	744	720	1,317	274	484					
224	Pine, western white (<i>Pinus monticola</i>)	Missoula County, Mont.	Green	5	27.6	33	58.2	.393	.448	39	11.5	4.1	7.4	5,820	8,800	1,631	1.10	7.9	31.2	11,300	3.9	37	3,890	4,730	592	574	628	1,034	190	294					
570	do	Near Keeler, Idaho.	Dry	1	16.4		51.2	.432	.402	33	12.0	1.8	4.1	12,360	18,300	2,220	3.88	13.1	23.1	18,020	7.2	42	9,100	11,890	1,622	1,205	1,159	1,924	651	511					

TABLE 21.—Strength and related properties, by localities, of woods grown in the United States—Continued

Shipment no.	Species (common and botanical names)	Place of growth of material tested	Moisture condition	Trees tested	Rings per inch	Summer wood	Moisture content	Specific gravity, oven-dry, based on volume—		Weight per cubic foot	Shrinkage from green to oven-dry condition based on dimensions when green			Static bending						Impact bending			Compression parallel to grain		Hardness; load required to embed a 0.444-inch ball to 1/4 its diameter		Shear parallel to grain; maximum shearing strength	Cleavage; load to cause splitting	Tension perpendicular to grain; maximum tensile strength		
								At test	When oven-dry		Volumetric	Radial	Tangential	Stress at proportional limit	Modulus of rupture	Modulus of elasticity	Work			Stress at proportional limit	Work to proportional limit	Height of drop causing complete failure (50-pound hammer)	Stress at proportional limit	Maximum crushing strength	Compression perpendicular to grain; stress at proportional limit	End				Side	
																	Proportional limit	Maximum load	Total												
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	
SOFTWOODS—continued																															
463	Piñon (<i>Pinus edulis</i>)	Coconino County, Ariz.	(Green)	3	17.3	22	63.3	0.502	0.567	51	9.9	4.6	5.2	2,610	4,820	649	0.61	7.6	23.0	8,190	4.2	21	1,810	2,590	475	512	596	918			462
550, 1265	Redwood (<i>Sequoia sempervirens</i>)	Mendocino County, Calif.	(Dry)	2	33.0	28	104.1	.398	.422	51	6.7	2.7	4.1	6,420	8,580	1,259	2.28	4.3	4.8	8,580	2.8	22	3,780	4,290	524	569	422	798	157	248	
1267	do.	Humboldt County, Calif.	(Green)	9	25.2		119.8	.386	.411	50	6.8	2.6	4.6	7,410	10,670	1,378	1.33	7.5	16.3	9,310	3.4	19	4,710	6,660	960	862	496	1,018	156	246	
1265	Redwood (second growth openly grown) (<i>Sequoia sempervirens</i>)	Mendocino County, Calif.	(Dry)	7	3.4		90.3	.300	.328	36	6.9	2.3	5.0	4,620	7,350	1,175	1.04	7.4	14.0	8,520	3.0	20	3,630	4,110	523	569	405	809	179	264	
1267	do.	Humboldt County, Calif.	(Green)	2	2.8		173.0	.272	.301	46	6.0			6,730	9,790	1,334	1.93	6.3	8.2	9,900	3.4	18	4,580	6,660	833	766	469	905	136	222	
1265	Redwood (second growth closely grown) (<i>Sequoia sempervirens</i>)	Mendocino County, Calif.	(Dry)	2	7.3		100.0	.347	.396	43	8.5	2.6	5.4	3,340	5,530	801	.80	6.1	7.2	6,590	2.6	14	2,160	2,740	444	448	304	716	179	288	
1267	do.	Humboldt County, Calif.	(Green)	4	6.2		119.0	.300	.340	41	6.7	2.2	4.7	5,220	7,710	931	1.64	5.6	6.0	8,420	3.3	13	3,340	4,660	616	690	381	1,018	174	288	
1265	do.	Humboldt County, Calif.	(Dry)	3	7.3		12.2	.373	.396	43	8.5	2.6	5.4	2,460	4,130	563	.62	4.7	5.8	5,500	2.2	14	1,640	2,100	248	357	274	604	144	254	
1267	do.	Humboldt County, Calif.	(Green)	5	6.2		119.0	.300	.340	41	6.7	2.2	4.7	3,970	5,940	690	1.30	4.2	4.2	6,120	2.4	10	2,410	3,580	564	557	322	920	144	320	
865	Spruce, black (<i>Picea mariana</i>)	Rockingham County, N. H.	(Green)	3	14.9	33	37.5	.376	.428	32	11.3	4.1	6.8	4,030	6,930	1,208	.78	6.7	10.7	8,060	2.8	19	3,360	3,780	376	522	384	764	178	271	
26	Spruce, Engelmann (<i>Picea engelmannii</i>)	Grand County, Colo.	(Dry)	5	17.1	33	45.0	.325	.359	29	10.5	3.7	6.9	6,240	9,420	1,340	1.64	6.6	10.2	9,570	3.0	19	4,430	5,980	676	767	443	968	156	293	
29	do.	San Miguel County, Colo.	(Green)	5	11.3	37	155.5	.299	.335	48	10.3	3.0	6.2	2,900	5,360	1,065	.45	7.4	20.4	6,800	1.8	24	1,540	2,570	175	430	370	662	117	104	
1	Spruce, red (<i>Picea rubra</i>)	Coos County, N. H.	(Dry)	2	21.4	27	34.9	.389	.412	33				6,740	10,290	1,523	1.33	10.5	16.1	13,400	6.2	23	5,510	6,070	1,086	762	556	1,086	170		
226	do.	Sevier County, Tenn.	(Green)	5	13.3	29	52.6	.367	.413	35	11.8	3.8	7.8	2,740	4,550	866	.50	4.8	6.0	6,300	2.1	13	1,820	2,170	302	272	264	616	122		
325	Spruce, Sitka (<i>Picea sitchensis</i>)	Chehalis County, Wash.	(Dry)	2	9.0	24	53.0	.342	.373	33	11.2	4.5	7.4	5,100	7,740	1,074	1.37	5.4	8.2	8,890	3.5	16	3,550	4,560	589	484	334	1,024	166		
504	do.	Clatsop County, Oreg.	(Green)	5	15.3		44.6	.340	.379	31	10.7	3.8	7.0	2,180	3,850	798	.36	5.0	6.5	5,350	1.8	15	1,530	1,800	279	231	221	569	136		
563	do.	Oregon	(Dry)	4	13.6	47	36.1	.384	.444	33	12.8			3,820	5,860	980	.81	5.4	6.5	7,710	2.8	14	2,480	3,060	447	295	244	802	191		
654	do.	do.	(Green)	3	9.6	41	34.0	.368	.412	31	11.2	4.4	7.9	3,550	5,960	1,166	.63	7.5		7,100	2.3	17		2,700	318	418	368	760	129	212	
939	do.	Near Girdwood, Alaska	(Dry)	2	23.3		39.2	.394	.456	34	11.4	4.4	7.6	6,760	10,260	1,564	1.64	8.7	16.1	11,330	4.4	23	5,120	5,700	523	639	502	1,214	173	345	
939	do.	Near Ketchikan, Alaska	(Green)	5	16.8		39.1	.384	.431	33	11.6	4.0	7.7	3,310	5,600	1,215	.52	6.2	14.6	7,220	2.3	19	2,340	2,600	368	446	346	764	146	223	
1	Spruce, white (<i>Picea glauca</i>)	Coos County, N. H.	(Dry)	2	11.2	22	52.4	.354	.384	34				8,080	11,420	1,519	2.40	8.5	11.1	13,570	5.5	28	5,500	7,310	744	700	615	1,068	184	416	
939	do.	Near Matanuska, Alaska	(Green)	5	22.1		50.2	.388	.461	36	12.6	5.8	9.1	3,020	5,490	1,185	.44	6.4	21.8	7,940	2.5	29	2,270	2,600	326	433	370	777	148	216	
300	do.	Rusk County, Wis.	(Dry)	4	17.1	29	48.4	.377	.431	35	14.8	3.7	7.3	7,220	11,250	1,612	1.78	10.4	21.6	13,890	5.2	25	5,100	5,770	1,010	780	532	1,210	165		
185, 165	Tamarack (<i>Larix laricina</i>)	Marathon and Shawano Counties, Wis.	(Green)	5	19.9	38	52.0	.491	.558	47	13.6	3.7	7.4	3,160	4,920	1,092	.53	5.4	15.3	7,810	2.7	20	1,920	2,180	222	350	280	696	108	172	
263	Yew, Pacific (<i>Taxus brevifolia</i>)	Snohomish County, Wash.	(Dry)	2	26.8		44.1	.601	.673	54	9.7	4.0	5.4	6,180	8,380	1,366	1.48	7.4		9,560	3.6	21		4,570	553	693	442	1,206	220	428	
			(Green)	3	13.6	47	36.1	.384	.444	33	12.8			3,680	6,020	1,458	.58	6.2	11.1	9,640	3.5	24		2,840	355	478	350	778	118	182	
			(Dry)	3	9.6	41	34.0	.368	.412	31	11.2	4.4	7.9	7,670	11,330	1,530	1.92	11.3		13,850	5.7	28		6,260	796	846	536	1,348	213	415	
			(Green)	3	9.6	41	34.0	.368	.412	31	11.2	4.4	7.9	3,640	5,880	1,311	.59	6.5		9,270	3.9	23		2,930	353	478	348	748	164	296	
			(Dry)	3	9.6	41	34.0	.368	.412	31	11.2	4.4	7.9	6,740	9,980	1,604	1.61	8.4	13.2	12,300	5.0	24		7,470	899	941	499	1,296	210	358	
			(Green)	5	23.3		39.2	.394	.456	34	11.4	4.4	7.6	3,350	5,830	1,138	.56	6.7	18.1	8,350	3.1	23		2,190	2,710	420	395	334	758	150	326
			(Dry)	2	23.3		39.2	.394	.456	34	11.4	4.4	7.6	7,040	11,780	1,662	1.69	10.3	16.1	11,100	3.8	23		5,170	6,620	714	664	540	1,160	262	346
			(Green)	5	16.8		39.1	.384	.431	33	11.6	4.0	7.7	3,340	5,880	1,295	.51	6.3	20.8	8,270	2.9	23		2,330	2,810	375	465	396	778	190	298
			(Dry)	2	16.8		16.0	.435	.484	33	11.6	4.0	7.7	7,700	11,440	1,632	2.05	10.1	19.9	10,250	3.9	30		5,310	6,580	782	1,050	617	1,133	265	439
			(Green)	11.2	22		52.4	.354	.384	34				3,290	5,670	1,090	.61	6.7		8,670	3.5	20		2,440	278	394	345	676	126	218	
			(Dry)	2	22.1		50.2	.388	.461	36	12.6	5.8	9.1	5,720	8,930	1,345	1.37	7.9	15.4	9,670	4.7	20		4,670	4,890	455	514	424	1,131	190	350
			(Green)	5	22.1		50.2	.388	.461	36	12.6	5.8	9.1	3,170	5,660	1,149	.51	5.8	17.4	7,580	2.7	22		2,230	2,720	330	371	352	710	170	231
			(Dry)	2	22.1		11.8	.435	.484	33	11.6	4.0	7.7	6,720	10,640	1,402	1.86	8.0	15.4	11,070	4.2	22		3,320	6,310	752	649	504	1,239	228	390
			(Green)	5	17.1	29	48.4	.377	.431	35	14.8	3.7	7.3	3,370	5,410	988	.69	5.4	14.2	6,750	2.0	20		2,140	2,550	267	290	278	691	134	198
			(Dry)	1	17.1	29	48.4	.377	.431	35	14.8	3.7	7.3	4,530	7,020	736	.84	7.2	28.8	7,750	2.7	28		4,530	7,020	736	884	690	806		
			(Green)	5	19.9	38	52.0	.491	.558	47	13.6																				

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