

Chapter 1 : Tricks98 videos - Dailymotion

Skyscrapers have been a source of fascination to the expert and layman alike since the emergence of this building type in the nineteenth century and this volume presents a selection of the most captivating examples ranging from the skyscrapers of the s to contemporary projects. Following a.

Definition[edit] The Home Insurance Building in Chicago , completed in , was the first steel-frame skyscraper; it was demolished in . The term "skyscraper" was first applied to buildings of steel framed construction of at least 10 stories in the late 19th century, a result of public amazement at the tall buildings being built in major American cities like Chicago , New York City , Philadelphia , Detroit , and St. Even the scholars making the argument find it to be purely academic. Wikiquote has quotations related to: Skyscraper What is the chief characteristic of the tall office building? It must be tall. The force and power of altitude must be in it, the glory and pride of exaltation must be in it. It must be every inch a proud and soaring thing, rising in sheer exaltation that from bottom to top it is a unit without a single dissenting line. Note that this criterion fits not only high-rises but some other tall structures, such as towers. The word skyscraper often carries a connotation of pride and achievement. The skyscraper, in name and social function, is a modern expression of the age-old symbol of the world center or axis mundi: However, being uninhabited, none of these structures actually comply with the modern definition of a skyscraper. High-rise apartments flourished in classical antiquity. Ancient Roman insulae in imperial cities reached 10 and more stories. The residential Towers of 12th century Bologna numbered between 80 and at a time, the tallest of which is the Nasir Khusraw in the early 11th century described some of them rising up to 14 stories, with roof gardens on the top floor complete with ox-drawn water wheels for irrigating them. Shibam was made up of over tower houses, [20] each one rising 5 to 11 stories high, [21] with each floor being an apartment occupied by a single family. The city was built in this way in order to protect it from Bedouin attacks. Due to the restricted land area available for development, the houses increased in height instead. Buildings of 11 stories were common, and there are records of buildings as high as 14 stories. Many of the stone-built structures can still be seen today in the old town of Edinburgh. The oldest iron framed building in the world, although only partially iron framed, is The Flaxmill also locally known as the "Maltings" , in Shrewsbury , England. Built in , it is seen as the "grandfather of skyscrapers", since its fireproof combination of cast iron columns and cast iron beams developed into the modern steel frame that made modern skyscrapers possible. In funding was confirmed to convert the derelict building into offices. The stone mullions are decorative. The Wainwright Building , a story red brick office building in St. Louis, Missouri , built in Main article: Early skyscrapers In Elisha Otis introduced the safety elevator, allowing convenient and safe passenger movement to upper floors. Another crucial development was the use of a steel frame instead of stone or brick, otherwise the walls on the lower floors on a tall building would be too thick to be practical. An early development in this area was Oriel Chambers in Liverpool , England. It was only five floors high. The building of tall buildings in the s gave the skyscraper its first architectural movement the Chicago School , which developed what has been called the Commercial Style. In this building, a steel frame supported the entire weight of the walls, instead of load-bearing walls carrying the weight of the building. This development led to the "Chicago skeleton" form of construction. In addition to the steel frame, the Home Insurance Building also utilized fireproofing, elevators, and electrical wiring, key elements in most skyscrapers today. Louis, Missouri, , was the first steel-framed building with soaring vertical bands to emphasize the height of the building and is therefore considered to be the first early skyscraper. Most early skyscrapers emerged in the land-strapped areas of Chicago and New York City toward the end of the 19th century. A land boom in Melbourne, Australia between and spurred the creation of a significant number of early skyscrapers, though none of these were steel reinforced and few remain today. Height limits and fire restrictions were later introduced. London builders soon found building heights limited due to a complaint from Queen Victoria , rules that continued to exist with few exceptions. Concerns about aesthetics and fire safety had likewise hampered the development of skyscrapers across continental Europe for the first half of the twentieth century. Completed in , the Empire

State Building in New York City was the tallest building in the world for nearly 40 years. Finally, skyscrapers also began to be constructed in cities of Africa, the Middle East and Oceania mainly Australia from the late 19th century on. A revival occurred with structural innovations that transformed the industry, [36] making it possible for people to live and work in "cities in the sky". Many buildings designed in the 1970s lacked a particular style and recalled ornamentation from earlier buildings designed before the 1950s. These design plans ignored the environment and loaded structures with decorative elements and extravagant finishes. Moreover he considered the work to be a waste of precious natural resources. LEED is a current green building standard. Design and construction[edit] Modern skyscrapers in downtown Los Angeles The design and construction of skyscrapers involves creating safe, habitable spaces in very tall buildings. The buildings must support their weight, resist wind and earthquakes, and protect occupants from fire. Yet they must also be conveniently accessible, even on the upper floors, and provide utilities and a comfortable climate for the occupants. The problems posed in skyscraper design are considered among the most complex encountered given the balances required between economics , engineering , and construction management. One common feature of skyscrapers is a steel framework from which curtain walls are suspended, rather than load-bearing walls of conventional construction. Most skyscrapers have a steel frame that enables them to be built taller than typical load-bearing walls of reinforced concrete. Skyscrapers usually have a particularly small surface area of what are conventionally thought of as walls. Because the walls are not load-bearing most skyscrapers are characterized by surface areas of windows made possible by the concept of steel frame and curtain wall. However, skyscrapers can also have curtain walls that mimic conventional walls and have a small surface area of windows. The concept of a skyscraper is a product of the industrialized age , made possible by cheap fossil fuel derived energy and industrially refined raw materials such as steel and concrete. The construction of skyscrapers was enabled by steel frame construction that surpassed brick and mortar construction starting at the end of the 19th century and finally surpassing it in the 20th century together with reinforced concrete construction as the price of steel decreased and labour costs increased. The steel frames become inefficient and uneconomic for supertall buildings as usable floor space is reduced for progressively larger supporting columns. This reduces the usage of material more efficient in economic terms " Willis Tower uses a third less steel than the Empire State Building yet allows greater height. It allows fewer interior columns, and so creates more usable floor space. It further enables buildings to take on various shapes. Elevators are characteristic to skyscrapers. In 1853 Elisha Otis introduced the safety elevator, allowing convenient and safe passenger movement to upper floors. Advances in construction techniques have allowed skyscrapers to narrow in width, while increasing in height. Some of these new techniques include mass dampers to reduce vibrations and swaying, and gaps to allow air to pass through, reducing wind shear. This presents a paradox to civil engineers: But the only way to know of all modes of failure is to learn from previous failures. Thus, no engineer can be absolutely sure that a given structure will resist all loadings that could cause failure, but can only have large enough margins of safety such that a failure is acceptably unlikely. When buildings do fail, engineers question whether the failure was due to some lack of foresight or due to some unknowable factor. Loading and vibration[edit] The load a skyscraper experiences is largely from the force of the building material itself. In most building designs, the weight of the structure is much larger than the weight of the material that it will support beyond its own weight. In technical terms, the dead load , the load of the structure, is larger than the live load , the weight of things in the structure people, furniture, vehicles, etc. As such, the amount of structural material required within the lower levels of a skyscraper will be much larger than the material required within higher levels. This is not always visually apparent. Vertical supports can come in several types, among which the most common for skyscrapers can be categorized as steel frames, concrete cores, tube within tube design, and shear walls. The wind loading on a skyscraper is also considerable. In fact, the lateral wind load imposed on super-tall structures is generally the governing factor in the structural design. Wind pressure increases with height, so for very tall buildings, the loads associated with wind are larger than dead or live loads. Other vertical and horizontal loading factors come from varied, unpredictable sources, such as earthquakes. Its malleability allowed it to be formed into a variety of shapes, and it could be riveted, ensuring strong connections. This becomes inefficient and uneconomic for buildings above 40 stories tall as

usable floor spaces are reduced for supporting column and due to more usage of steel. Tube structure The Willis Tower in Chicago showing the bundled tube frame design A new structural system of framed tubes was developed in Fazlur Khan and J. Rankine defined the framed tube structure as "a three dimensional space structure composed of three, four, or possibly more frames, braced frames, or shear walls, joined at or near their edges to form a vertical tube-like structural system capable of resisting lateral forces in any direction by cantilevering from the foundation. Horizontal loads primarily wind are supported by the structure as a whole. Framed tubes allow fewer interior columns, and so create more usable floor space, and about half the exterior surface is available for windows. Where larger openings like garage doors are required, the tube frame must be interrupted, with transfer girders used to maintain structural integrity. Tube structures cut down costs, at the same time allowing buildings to reach greater heights. The tubular systems are fundamental to tall building design. Khan pioneered several other variations of the tube structure design. This concept reduced the lateral load on the building by transferring the load into the exterior columns. This allows for a reduced need for interior columns thus creating more floor space. This concept can be seen in the John Hancock Center, designed in and completed in This idea is one of the architectural techniques the building used to climb to record heights the tubular system is essentially the spine that helps the building stand upright during wind and earthquake loads. This X-bracing allows for both higher performance from tall structures and the ability to open up the inside floorplan and usable floor space if the architect desires. The John Hancock Center was far more efficient than earlier steel-frame structures. Where the Empire State Building , required about kilograms of steel per square metre and Chase Manhattan Bank Building required , the John Hancock Center required only

*Skyscrapers--An Urban Type [Mario Campi, R. Benson] on calendrierdelascience.com *FREE* shipping on qualifying offers. Skyscrapers have been a source of fascination to the expert and layman alike since the emergence of this building type in the nineteenth century and this volume presents a selection of the most captivating examples ranging from the skyscrapers of the s to contemporary projects.*

See Article History Skyscraper, very tall, multistoried building. The name first came into use during the s, shortly after the first skyscrapers were built, in the United States. The development of skyscrapers came as a result of the coincidence of several technological and social developments. The term skyscraper originally applied to buildings of 10 to 20 stories, but by the late 20th century the term was used to describe high-rise buildings of unusual height, generally greater than 40 or 50 stories. Monadnock BuildingA discussion of the different structural systems used in the construction of the Monadnock Building, Chicago. Although the earliest skyscrapers rested on extremely thick masonry walls at the ground level, architects soon turned to the use of a cast- iron and wrought-iron framework to support the weight of the upper floors, allowing for more floor space on the lower stories. James Bogardus built the Cast Iron Building , New York City with a rigid frame of iron providing the main support for upper-floor and roof loads. It was, however, the refinement of the Bessemer process , first used in the United States in the s, that allowed for the major advance in skyscraper construction. As steel is stronger and lighter in weight than iron, the use of a steel frame made possible the construction of truly tall buildings. Structurally, skyscrapers consist of a substructure of piers beneath the ground, a superstructure of columns and girders above the ground, and a curtain wall hung on the girders. The skyscraper, which was originally a form of commercial architecture, has increasingly been used for residential purposes as well. Rocky88 The design and decoration of skyscrapers have passed through several stages. There was, however, some retention of, and regression to, earlier styles as well. As part of the Neoclassical revival, for instance, skyscrapers such as those designed by the firm of McKim, Mead, and White were modeled after Classical Greek columns. Even the Art Deco carvings on such towers as the Chrysler Building , the Empire State Building , and the RCA Building in New York City, which were then considered as modern as the new technology , are now viewed as more related to the old ornate decorations than to truly modern lines. The stark verticality and glass curtain walls of this style became a hallmark of ultramodern urban life in many countries. During the s, however, attempts were made to redefine the human element in urban architecture. Zoning ordinances encouraged the incorporation of plazas and parks into and around the bases of even the tallest skyscrapers, just as zoning laws in the first decades of the 20th century were passed to prevent city streets from becoming sunless canyons and led to the shorter, stepped skyscraper. Office towers, such as those of the World Trade Center in New York City and the Sears Tower ; now called Willis Tower in Chicago, continued to be built, but most of them, such as the Citicorp Center in New York City, featured lively and innovative space for shopping and entertainment at street level. Khan, ; photograph, See also high-rise building. Tallest buildings in the world rank.

Chapter 3 : Skyscraper - Wikipedia

The first thing you will be impressed with this book is the fine photograph on the cover. It would have been impossible to choose one skyscraper from all those covered to put on the cover.

Sommigen zullen waarschijnlijk moeite hebben met de stelling dat behoud van oude gebouwen tot een minimum beperkt moet worden, maar het artikel legt de vinger op de prijs ervan. Tenslotte ook heel interessant is het idee om het systeem van vergunning met gedetailleerde vereisten te vervangen door een systeem van vergoedingen ten voordele van zij die de nadelen ondervinden van nieuwe ontwikkelingen. How Skyscrapers Can Save the City Besides making cities more affordable and architecturally interesting, tall buildings are greener than sprawl, and they foster social capital and creativity. Yet some urban planners and preservationists seem to have a misplaced fear of heights that yields damaging restrictions on how tall a building can be. Edward Glaeser Feb 9 , 9: And let us make a name for ourselves, lest we be scattered upon the face of the whole earth. But God punished them for monumentalizing terrestrial, rather than celestial, glory. In the late Middle Ages, the wool-making center of Bruges became one of the first places where a secular structure, a foot belfry built to celebrate cloth-making, towered over nearby churches. But elsewhere another four or five centuries passed before secular structures surpassed religious ones. At almost the same time, Paris celebrated its growing wealth by erecting the 1,foot Eiffel Tower, which was feet taller than the Cathedral of Notre-Dame. Since that tower in Babel, height has been seen both as a symbol of power and as a way to provide more space on a fixed amount of land. They were massive monuments to God and to French engineering, respectively. For centuries, ever taller buildings have made it possible to cram more and more people onto an acre of land. Yet until the 19th century, the move upward was a moderate evolution, in which two-story buildings were gradually replaced by four- and six-story buildings. Until the 19th century, heights were restricted by the cost of building and the limits on our desire to climb stairs. Church spires and belfry towers could pierce the heavens, but only because they were narrow and few people other than the occasional bell-ringer had to climb them. Tall buildings became possible in the 19th century, when American innovators solved the twin problems of safely moving people up and down and creating tall buildings without enormously thick lower walls. And Louis XV is said to have had a personal lift installed in Versailles so that he could visit his mistress. But before the elevator could become mass transit, it needed a good source of power, and it needed to be safe. Matthew Boulton and James Watt provided the early steam engines used to power industrial elevators, which were either pulled up by ropes or pushed up hydraulically. As engines improved, so did the speed and power of elevators that could haul coal out of mines or grain from boats. But humans were still wary of traveling long distances upward in a machine that could easily break and send them hurtling downward. Otis, tinkering in a sawmill in Yonkers, took the danger out of vertical transit. He had himself hoisted on a platform, and then, dramatically, an axman severed the suspending rope. The platform dropped slightly, then came to a halt as the safety brake engaged. The Otis elevator became a sensation. Pancras Station was taller even than the Tribune Building. But the fortress-like appearance of St. It lacks the critical cost-reducing ingredient of the modern skyscraper: Traditional buildings, like St. Pancras or the Tribune Building, needed extremely strong lower walls to support their weight. The higher a building went, the thicker its lower walls had to be, and that made costs almost prohibitive, unless you were building a really narrow spire. The load-bearing steel skeleton, which pretty much defines a skyscraper, applies the same engineering principles used in balloon-frame houses, which reduced the costs of building throughout rural 19th-century America. A balloon-frame house uses a light skeleton made of standardized boards to support its weight. The walls are essentially hung on the frame like a curtain. Skyscrapers also rest their weight on a skeleton frame, but in this case the frame is made of steel, which became increasingly affordable in the late 19th century. It just had two iron-reinforced walls. Other tall buildings in Chicago, such as the Montauk Building, designed by Daniel Burnham and John Root and built two years earlier, had already used steel reinforcement. Ouen dock warehouse near Paris, had used iron frames decades before. Other builders, like Burnham and Root, their engineer George Fuller, and Louis Sullivan, a former Jenney apprentice, then further developed the idea.

Louis, a skyscraper free from excessive ornamental masonry. Sullivan and Wright are depicted as lone eagles, Gary Cooper heroes, paragons of individualism. They were great architects deeply enmeshed in an urban chain of innovation. Wight, who produced great innovations in fireproofing. Their collective creation—the skyscraper—enabled cities to add vast amounts of floor space using the same amount of ground area. Given the rising demand for center-city real estate, the skyscraper seemed like a godsend. The problem was that those city centers already had buildings on them. Except in places like Chicago, where fire had created a tabula rasa, cities needed to tear down to build up. The demand for space was even stronger in New York than in Chicago, and skyscrapers were soon springing up in Manhattan. In 1890, the Park Row Building soared over the World Building, to 283 feet, supported by a steel skeleton. Those tall buildings were not mere monuments. They enabled New York to grow and industries to expand. They gave factory owners and workers space that was both more humane and more efficient. Lefcourt, made that possible. Like a proper Horatio Alger figure, Lefcourt was born poor and started work as a newsboy and bootblack. Treasury bond, which he kept pinned inside his shirt. In 1898, Lefcourt began a new career as a real-estate developer, putting all of his capital into a story loft building on West 25th Street for his own company. He built more such buildings, and helped move his industry from the old sweatshops into the modern Garment District. Transportation technologies shape cities, and Midtown Manhattan was built around two great rail stations that could carry in legions of people. Over the next 20 years, Lefcourt would erect more than 30 edifices, many of them skyscrapers. He used those Otis elevators in soaring towers that covered acres, encased million cubic feet, and contained as many workers as Trenton. In the early 1900s, the New York of slums, tenements, and Gilded Age mansions was transformed into a city of skyscrapers, as builders like Lefcourt erected nearly 100,000 new housing units each year, enabling the city to grow and to stay reasonably affordable. He celebrated by opening a national bank bearing his own name. I suspect that Lefcourt, like many developers, cared more about his structural legacy than about cash. Those structures helped house the creative minds that still make New York special. By building up, Lefcourt made the lives of garment workers far more pleasant and created new spaces for creative minds. The anti-growth activists argued that unless heights were restricted to 100 feet or less, Fifth Avenue would become a canyon, with ruinous results for property values and the city as a whole. Similar arguments have been made by the enemies of change throughout history. The chair of the commission was a better architect than prognosticator, as density has suited Fifth Avenue quite nicely. In 1901, between Broadway and Nassau Street, in the heart of downtown New York, the Equitable Life Assurance Society constructed a monolith that contained well over a million square feet of office space and, at about 283 feet, cast a seven-acre shadow on the city. The building became a rallying cry for the enemies of height, who wanted to see a little more sun. The code changed the shape of buildings, but it did little to stop the construction boom of the 1900s. Really tall buildings provide something of an index of irrational exuberance. The builders of the Chrysler Building, 40 Wall Street, and the Empire State Building engaged in a great race to produce the tallest structure in the world. New York slowed its construction of skyscrapers after 1916, and its regulations became ever more complex. In 1916, the City Planning Commission passed a new zoning resolution that significantly increased the limits on building. The resulting zoning code replaced a simple classification of space—“business, residential, unrestricted”—with a dizzying number of different districts, each of which permitted only a narrow range of activities. There were 13 types of residential district, 12 types of manufacturing district, and no fewer than 41 types of commercial district. Each type of district narrowly classified the range of permissible activities. Commercial art galleries were forbidden in residential districts but allowed in manufacturing districts, while noncommercial art galleries were forbidden in manufacturing districts but allowed in residential districts. Art-supply stores were forbidden in residential districts and some commercial districts. Parking-space requirements also differed by district. In an R5 district, a hospital was required to have one off-street parking spot for every five beds, but in an R6 district, a hospital had to have one space for every eight beds. The picayune detail of the code is exemplified by its control of signs: For multiple dwellings, including apartment hotels, or for permitted non-residential buildings or other structures, one identification sign, with an area not exceeding 12 square feet and indicating only the name of the permitted use, the name or address of the building, or the name of the management thereof, is permitted. The code also removed the system of setbacks and replaced it with a complex system

based on the floor-to-area ratio, or FAR, which is the ratio of interior square footage to ground area. A maximum FAR of two, for example, meant that a developer could put a two-story building on his entire plot or a four-story building on half of the plot. In residential districts R1, R2, and R3, the maximum floor-to-area ratio was 0. In R9 districts, the maximum FAR was about 7. The height restriction was eased for builders who created plazas or other public spaces at the front of the building. While the standard building created by the code was a wedding cake that started at the sidewalk, the standard building created by the code was a glass-and-steel slab with an open plaza in front. After World War II, New York made private development more difficult by overregulating construction and rents, while building a bevy of immense public structures, such as Stuyvesant Town and Lincoln Center. In , Jacobs published her masterpiece, *The Death and Life of Great American Cities*, which investigates and celebrates the pedestrian world of midth-century New York. She argued that mixed-use zoning fostered street life, the essence of city living. But Jacobs liked protecting old buildings because of a confused piece of economic reasoning. She thought that preserving older, shorter structures would somehow keep prices affordable for budding entrepreneurs. Protecting an older one-story building instead of replacing it with a story building does not preserve affordability. Indeed, opposing new building is the surest way to make a popular area unaffordable. An increase in the supply of houses, or anything else, almost always drives prices down, while restricting the supply of real estate keeps prices high.

Chapter 4 : Kenzington Photos: Pictures of New York City

Glossary Some terminology that may be used in this description includes: New A new book is a book previously not circulated to a buyer. Although a new book is typically free of any faults or defects, "new.

Paperback The first thing you will be impressed with this book is the fine photograph on the cover. It would have been impossible to choose one skyscraper from all those covered to put on the cover. Each skyscraper was reproduced in wood at a scale of 1: It was to be built in Chicago, but was never constructed. One day, its time will surely come. The model on the cover dramatically shows what a gargantuan structure this would be compared with anything built to date. As you go through the book you will be treated with photographs of all the skyscrapers, the context in which it was built, descriptions and illustrations detailing their structural design, typical floor-plans, circulation and facade details. Each structure is accompanied with some of its noteworthy design features. Since these structures were built to accommodate man; it is fascinating to see how man and these structures inter-relate. It is hard to pick a favorite from so many excellent designs; but there is one particular building that interested me, more as an oddity than anything else. This is a structure composed of mobile residential units, of 20 cubic meters. That converts to square feet. Assuming a ceiling height of 8 feet; that would result in a tiny room of 88 sq. I find it unimaginable how one can think of magnificent skyscrapers and at the same time accept living in such a cubby hole. Such a tenant could ask himself only one question "With all this progress, where did I go wrong? This reminds me of the apartment complex built in Russia many years ago. The Architect did not equip it with any elevator. When the tenants raised a huge fuss over that; the government made the Architect move to the top floor. I think it would be poetic justice if Kisho Kurokawa was were to call one of these modules his abode. When we first saw the proposal, we were nothing short of flabbergasted. Our first thought was that it resembled a Chippendale dresser. Little did we think at the time, that Mr Johnson, who we realized to be the best of the best, was going to have such an impact on skyscraper design, as he did with this building.

Chapter 5 : calendrierdelascience.com: Customer reviews: Skyscrapers--An Urban Type

It isn't often that we think of buildings as works of art. We have a word to describe the art of designing buildings and structures? architecture? but to most of us, buildings are things of purpose, not things to be admired.

This presents a paradox to civil engineers: But the only way to know of all modes of failure is to learn from previous failures. Thus, no engineer can be absolutely sure that a given structure will resist all loadings that could cause failure, but can only have large enough margins of safety such that a failure is acceptably unlikely. When buildings do fail, engineers question whether the failure was due to some lack of foresight or due to some unknowable factor. Substructure[edit] One of the many things, that make skyscrapers special, is their substructure. For example, the depth of the pit that holds the substructure, has to reach all the way to bedrock. In most building designs, the weight of the structure is much larger than the weight of the material that it will support beyond its own weight. In technical terms, the dead load , the load of the structure, is larger than the live load , the weight of things in the structure people, furniture, vehicles, etc. As such, the amount of structural material required within the lower levels of a skyscraper will be much larger than the material required within higher levels. This is not always visually apparent. Vertical supports can come in several types, among which the most common for skyscrapers can be categorized as steel frames, concrete cores, tube within tube design, and shear walls. The wind loading on a skyscraper should also be considered. In fact, the lateral wind load imposed on super-tall structures is generally the governing factor in the structural design. Wind pressure increases with height, so for very tall buildings, the loads associated with wind are larger than dead or live loads. Other vertical and horizontal loading factors come from varied, unpredictable sources, such as earthquakes. Shear walls[edit] A shear wall, in its simplest definition, is a wall where the entire material of the wall is employed in the resistance of both horizontal and vertical loads. A typical example is a brick or cinderblock wall. Since the wall material is used to hold the weight, as the wall expands in size, it must hold considerably more weight. Due to the features of a shear wall, it is acceptable for small constructions, such as suburban housing or an urban brownstone, to require low material costs and little maintenance. In this way, shear walls, typically in the form of plywood and framing, brick, or cinderblock, are used for these structures. For skyscrapers, though, as the size of the structure increases, so does the size of the supporting wall. Large structures such as castles and cathedrals inherently addressed these issues due to a large wall being advantageous castles , or able to be designed around cathedrals. Since skyscrapers seek to maximize the floor-space by consolidating structural support, shear walls tend to be used only in conjunction with other support systems. Steel frame[edit] The classic concept of a skyscraper is a large steel box with many small boxes inside it. By eliminating the inefficient part of a shear wall, the central portion, and consolidating support members in a much stronger material, steel, a skyscraper could be built with both horizontal and vertical supports throughout. This method, though simple, has drawbacks. Chief among these is that as more material must be supported as height increases , the distance between supporting members must decrease, which actually, in turn, increases the amount of material that must be supported. This becomes inefficient and uneconomic for buildings above 40 stories tall as usable floor spaces are reduced for supporting column and due to more usage of steel. Tube structure The Willis Tower showing the bundled tube frame design A new structural system using framed tubes was developed in the early s. Fazlur Khan and J. Rankine defined the framed tube structure as "a three dimensional space structure composed of three, four, or possibly more frames, braced frames, or shear walls, joined at or near their edges to form a vertical tube-like structural system capable of resisting lateral forces in any direction by cantilevering from the foundation. Horizontal loads primarily wind are supported by the structure as a whole. About half the exterior surface is available for windows. Framed tubes allow fewer interior columns, and so create more usable floor space. Where larger openings like garage doors are required, the tube frame must be interrupted, with transfer girders used to maintain structural integrity. Tube structures cut down costs, at the same time allow buildings to reach greater heights. A variation on the tube frame is the bundled tube, which uses several interconnected tube frames. The Willis Tower in Chicago used this design, employing nine tubes of varying height to achieve its distinct

appearance. The bundle tube design was not only highly efficient in economic terms, but it was also "innovative in its potential for versatile formulation of architectural space. Efficient towers no longer had to be box-like; the tube-units could take on various shapes and could be bundled together in different sorts of groupings. The tubular systems are fundamental to tall building design. The elevators in a skyscraper are not simply a necessary utility like running water and electricity, but are in fact closely related to the design of the whole structure. A taller building requires more elevators to service the additional floors, but the elevator shafts consume valuable floor space. If the service core which contains the elevator shafts becomes too big, it can reduce the profitability of the building. Architects must therefore balance the value gained by adding height against the value lost to the expanding service core. This allows architects and engineers to place elevator shafts on top of each other, saving space. Sky lobbies and express elevators take up a significant amount of space and add to the amount of time spent commuting between floors. Other buildings such as the Petronas Towers use double-deck elevators allowing more people to fit in a single elevator and reaching two floors at every stop. It is possible to use even more than two levels on an elevator although this has yet to be tried. The main problem with double-deck elevators is that they cause everyone in the elevator to stop when only people on one level need to get off at a given floor. Other difficulties when building skyscrapers[edit] Building skyscrapers can be difficult for factors other than complexity and cost. For example, in European cities like Paris, the difference between the appearance of old architecture and modern skyscrapers can make it hard to get approval from local authorities to construct new skyscrapers. Building skyscrapers in an old and famous town can drastically alter the image of the city. In cities like London, Edinburgh, Portland, and San Francisco there is a legal requirement called protected view , which limits the height of new buildings within or adjacent to the sightline between the two places involved.

Chapter 6 : Skyscraper design and construction - Wikipedia

Skyscrapers have been a source of fascination to the expert and layman alike since the emergence of this building type in the nineteenth century and this volume presents a selection of the most captivating examples ranging from the skyscrapers of the s to contemporary projects.

Chapter 7 : Skyscrapers--An Urban Type by R Mario; Benson - Paperback - - from BWS Fdn and calendrie

Etymologically, the word skyscraper comes from the direct translation of English "skyscraper." It is a "building whose height was well above average" or a "very tall building" (Hachette dictionary).

Chapter 8 : Skyscraper | building | calendrierdelascience.com

Yet some urban planners and preservationists seem to have a misplaced fear of heights that yields damaging restrictions on how tall a building can be. From New York to Paris to Mumbai, there's a.

Chapter 9 : Urban Communities

A skyscraper is a continuously habitable high-rise building that has over 40 floors and is taller than approximately m (ft). Historically, the term first referred to buildings with 10 to 20 floors in the s.