STATE OF GEORGIA
CONSTRUCTION LAW
COMPENDIUM

Prepared by
Roger S. Sumrall
Stephen Snow
W. Jason Pettus
Sean Gill
Hall, Booth, Smith & Slover, P.C.
1180 W. Peachtree Street
Suite 900
Atlanta, GA 30309
(404) 954-5000
www.hbss.net
This outline is intended to provide a general overview of Georgia’s construction law. The discussion on any particular topic is not necessarily an indication of the total law related to an area of Georgia’s construction law. Most construction disputes are governed by contract law. With a few variations, the law applicable to construction disputes in Georgia is similar to that found in other states.

Georgia has recently enacted sweeping tort reform legislation. While this legislation does not contain provisions that apply exclusively to construction cases, the effects are far reaching. Changes generally favorable to defendants have been made to venue provisions. Joint and several liability has been abolished such that verdicts for future causes of action will reflect a precise amount recovered against each individual liable party. Georgia now has a provision for offers of judgment which can result in a shift of liability for attorneys’ fees. The “junk science” provision of the new legislation makes Georgia’s law concerning expert qualifications similar to federal law resulting in much greater scrutiny by the courts with respect to admissibility of potential expert witnesses.

For negligence-based claims, Georgia is a modified comparative negligence state. In order for a defendant to be liable in tort, the plaintiff must have been more negligent than the defendant(s). This means that in cases where the plaintiff’s negligence is greater than or equal to the combined negligence of the defendants, the plaintiff is denied recovery.

As noted above, Georgia recently passed a comprehensive tort reform statute which has changed the rules on joint and several liability. For cases arising on or prior to February 16, 2005, the rule is that defendants are jointly and severally liable for all personal injuries received by a plaintiff, with a right of contribution among them to equalize payment of the judgment or settlement. Apportionment of liability among defendants is available, though not required, in cases involving purely property damages. Under the statutory scheme, the jury determines whether to apportion liability. O.C.G.A. § 51-12-31; Hightower v. Landrum, 109 Ga. App. 510, 136 S.E.2d 425 (1964). For cases arising on or after February 17, 2005, Georgia has abolished joint and several liability. From this point forward, defendants are only responsible for their own proportion of negligence, with no right of contribution.

I. BREACH OF CONTRACT/WARRANTY

Typically, a construction project involves many parties. Even the simplest projects involve a property owner, a general contractor, and one or more subcontractors. The parties are tied together by a complex web of contracts, each containing conditions regarding the method of or materials to be used in construction. The contracts will generally also contain express warranties promising that the materials and workmanship will be free from defect for a specific, limited period of time. Failing to perform renders one susceptible to a breach of contract and/or a breach of warranty claim. In either case, privity of contract must exist (subject to the exception noted below). O.C.G.A. § 9-2-20, § 51-1-11 (a). A claim sounding in breach of contract or breach of warranty is generally subject to a six (6) year statute of limitations. Wilks v. Overall Constr., Inc., 2009 Ga. App. LEXIS 32, No. A08A2077, at *1, 674 S.E.2d 320 (Ga. App. Jan. 13, 2009).

While a party not in privity of contract with another typically cannot maintain an action for breach of the contract, O.C.G.A. § 9-2-20(b) provides a right of action where third-party beneficiary status to the contract is implicated. In this regard, O.C.G.A. § 9-2-20(b) states that “[t]he beneficiary of a contract made between other parties for his benefit may maintain an action against the promisor on
the contract.” Id. In the construction context, an owner/developer may try to assert standing as a third-party beneficiary to a written contract between the general contractor and a subcontractor on a project where the owner/developer is not a named party to the subcontract, did not sign the subcontract, and did not become obligated in any way under the subcontract. In order to do so, the subcontract must clearly show that it was intended for the owner/developer’s benefit. The mere fact that an owner/developer might incidentally benefit from a subcontractor’s performance of any particular provision of the subcontract will not suffice to entitle the owner to claim the right to secure enforcement of that provision as a third-party beneficiary. There instead must be a promise by the promisor to the promisee to render some performance to a third person, and it must appear that both the promisor and the promisee intended that the third person should be the beneficiary. To determine whether such a promise has been made to benefit to the owner, the court will look to the terms of the contract.  

III. NEGLIGENCE

Builders who perform defective construction work may be liable in tort under Georgia law. “[N]o privity is necessary to support a tort action; but, if the tort results from the violation of a duty which is itself the consequence of a contract, the right of action is confined to the parties and those in privity to that contract, except in cases where the party would have a right of action for the injury done independently of the contract.” O.C.G.A. § 51-1-11. However, Georgia does recognize an independent tort duty to design and/or construct property in a workmanlike manner, so privity of contract is not necessary to maintain a construction defect claim. Stancliff v. Brown & Webb Builders, 254 Ga. App. 224, 226, 561 S.E.2d 438, 449 (2002). Note that a construction company’s corporate officers can be held personally liable for negligent construction where that person took part in the negligent act, specifically directed the act to be done, or participated in its commission. Dave Lucas Co. v. Lewis, 293 Ga. App. 288, 292, 666 S.E.2d 576, 580.

To assert a claim for negligent construction, one must demonstrate that the builder or designer breached the applicable standard of care. The standard of care for contractors in Georgia is defined as “that degree of care and skill as is ordinarily employed by other contractors under similar conditions and like circumstances.” Rentz v. Brown, 219 Ga. App. 187, 188, 464 S.E.2d 617, 619 (1995). While expert testimony is utilized during litigation to establish whether the contractor’s performance on the project met the standard of care, an expert affidavit does not have to be filed along with the complaint. O.C.G.A. § 9-11-9.1 (a). An expert affidavit must be filed along with the complaint, when the construction defect claim is asserted against certain design professionals such as architects, professional engineers, and land surveyors who are being sued in the individual capacity. O.C.G.A. § 9-11-9.1(f).

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1 O.C.G.A. § 9-11-9.1(a) prescribes that “in any actions alleging professional malpractice against a professional licensed by the state of Georgia and listed in subsection (f) of this code section… the plaintiff shall be required to file with the complaint an affidavit of an expert… which… set[s] forth specifically at least one negligent act or omission… and the factual basis for each such claim.” Contractors are not professionals to which O.C.G.A. § 9-11-9.1(a) applies.
A claim of negligent construction is an action for damage to realty, and thus, the claim should be brought within four (4) years after the right of action accrues. O.C.G.A. § 9-3-30, § 9-3-31; Colormatch Exteriors, Inc. v. Hickey, 275 Ga. 249, 251, 569 S.E.2d, 497, 499 (2002); Howard v. McFarland, 237 Ga. App. 483, 486, 515 S.E.2d 629, 632 (1999). A discussion as to when the right of action accrues follows below.

III. ACCRUAL OF THE RIGHT OF ACTION

In order to determine when the statute of limitations expires, it is necessary to know when the cause of action first ripened. This is known as the date of accrual of the right of action. “In situations where a plaintiff owns property being improved by a contractor, damage to the property arising out of faulty construction is considered to occur at the time of substantial completion…, because such damage normally is ascertainable to the plaintiff at that time.” Scully v. First Magnolia Homes, 279 Ga. 336, 338, 614 S.E.2d 43, 46 (2005). However, “in cases where it is alleged that a new house was defectively constructed by an owner/builder for the purpose of sale…and the property actually is sold, the applicable period of limitations for claims of damage to realty does not begin to run until the sale of the improved property [i.e., the date of purchase], regardless of the date of ‘substantial completion.’” Id. at 338-39.

“Substantial completion” means the date when construction was sufficiently completed, in accordance with the contract as modified by any change order agreed to by the parties, so that the owner could occupy the project for the use for which it was intended. O.C.G.A. § 9-3-50(2). The court in Colormatch recognized, “[s]ubstantial completion’…does not require that the improvement can be occupied ‘legally,’ but simply applies in instances where ‘the owner [could] occupy the project for the use for which it was intended.’” Colormatch Exteriors, Inc., 275 Ga. 249, 254, 569 S.E.2d 495, 498 (2002).

When components that are integral and essential to the structure are at issue, there is some authority to support an argument that the limitations period commences at an earlier date than that of substantial completion of the building. Under such circumstances, the date of accrual is, arguably, the date of substantial completion of the component in question. See, Hanna v. McWilliams, 213 Ga. App. 648, 446 S.E.2d 741 (1994).

Unlike other states, Georgia does not have a “discovery rule” for lawsuits involving pure property damage, notwithstanding actions involving synthetic stucco (EIFS), bodily injury, or an allegation of fraud. Mitchell v. Contractors Specialty Supply, Inc., 247 Ga. App. 628, 629, 544 S.E.2d 533, 535 (2001). With regard to causes of action related to the “manufacture of or the negligent design or installation of synthetic exterior siding,” which include EIFS, the cause of action “shall accrue when the damage to the dwelling is discovered or, in the exercise of reasonable diligence, should have been discovered, whichever first occurs.” O.C.G.A. § 9-3-30(b)(1).

Furthermore, O.C.G.A. § 9-3-51 provides an eight (8) year statute of ultimate repose for construction defect claims. Presumably, this statute of repose was enacted with construction defect claims involving synthetic stucco, fraud and bodily injury in mind. O.C.G.A. § 9-3-51 does not establish a new eight (8) year statute of limitations, but simply sets forth the outermost time in which any action for construction defect can be asserted. O.C.G.A. § 9-3-30, § 9-3-53. The Georgia Court of Appeals

IV. FRAUD

In the case of latent defects where a contractor makes false representations concerning the construction or intentionally conceals a material fact, fraud may exist. See, *Ramey v. Leisure, Ltd.*, 205 Ga. App. 128, 421 S.E.2d 555 (1992). The five elements of fraud are (1) False representations; (2) made with knowledge of the falsity of the representation; (3) made with the intent to induce the plaintiff to act or to refrain from acting; (4) justifiable reliance by the plaintiff; and (5) damages proximately caused by such reliance in the representation. *Bowen & Bowen Constr. Co. v. Fowler*, 265 Ga. App. 274, 276, 593 S.E.2d 668, 671 (2004). However, “actionable fraud cannot be predicated upon promises to perform some act in the future, nor does actionable fraud result from a mere failure to perform promises made. Otherwise, any breach of a contract would amount to fraud. An exception to the general rule exists where a promise as to future events is made with a present intent not to perform or where the promisor knows that the future event will not take place.” *Ins. Indus. Consultants, LLC v. Alford*, 294 Ga. App. 747, 753, 669 S.E.2d 724, 730.

Fraud claims are subject to a four (4) year statute of limitations. O.C.G.A. § 9-3-30. However, where reasonable diligence has been exercised, actual fraud involving moral turpitude tolls the limitations period until plaintiff’s discovery of the fraud. O.C.G.A. § 9-3-96; *Gantt v. Bennett*, 231 Ga. App. 238, 244, 499 S.E.2d 75, 81 (1998).

Like other actions related to property damage, the limitations period associated with fraud begins to run when the right of action accrues, not when the act or omission occurs. *Colormatch Exteriors, Inc.*, 275 Ga. 249, 250, 569 S.E.2d 495, 497 (2002).

V. IMPLIED WARRANTIES AND STRICT LIABILITY

Implied in every contract by building contractors is the obligation to perform in a fit and workmanlike manner. This contract duty is breached “when the builder fails to exercise a reasonable degree of care, skill, and ability under similar conditions and like surrounding circumstances as is ordinarily employed by others in the same profession.” *Schofield Interior Contrs. Inc. v. Std. Bldg. Co.*, 293 Ga. App. 812, 814 (App. 2008); 668 S.E.2d 316, 318 (Ga. App. 2008).

VI. MITIGATION OF DAMAGES

Generally, when one is injured by the negligence of another, the injured party is obligated to minimize the damages to the fullest extent practicable through the use of ordinary care and diligence, except in the case of a willful tort. O.C.G.A. § 51-12-11. In breach of contract actions, one is also obligated to minimize the damages to the fullest extent practicable through the use of ordinary care and diligence. O.C.G.A. § 13-6-5; *Boone v. Atlantan Independent School System*, 235 Ga. App. 131 (App. 2008); 619 SE.2d 708 (Ga. App. 2008). This rule, however, is only applicable where the damages can be lessened by reasonable efforts and expense. See, *Reid v. Whisenant*, 161 Ga. 503, 131 S.E. 904 (1926) (finding no requirement to mitigate damages by paying off security
Mitigation of damages is not a principle to apply in every case and Georgia courts have held that the general requirement to mitigate damages does not apply. For example, where there is a breach of an absolute promise to pay, the principle does not apply. See, J.C. Penney Cas. Ins. Co. v. Woodard, 190 Ga. App. 727, 380 S.E.2d 282 (1989) (finding failure of insured to take advantage of other insurance coverage cannot be used by defendant insurer to escape its obligation to otherwise provide coverage).

In the case of negligent construction, it has been held that a homeowner has no duty to mitigate his damages since the measure of damages in cases of this sort is the difference in value of the house as finished and the value of the house as it should have been finished. Piedmont Builders, Inc. v. Fullerton, 157 Ga. App. 126, 276 S.E.2d 277 (1981). Piedmont Builders, however, has not been cited for this proposition in subsequent negligent construction cases and appears limited to instances where the injured party only seeks recovery of the difference in value of the house as finished and the value of the house as it should have been finished. Id. at 127.

Although one is only required to expend reasonable efforts and expenses to mitigate damages, recovery for lost profits is not available where appropriate mitigation steps have not been taken. Smith v. A. A. Wood & Son Co., 103 Ga. App. 802, 805, 120 S.E.2d 800, 803 (1961). The party raising the defense of failure to mitigate must support the contention with sufficient evidence from which a jury could reasonably estimate the amount by which damages could have been mitigated. Considine Co. v. Turner Comm. Corp., 155 Ga. App. 911, 914, 273 S.E.2d 652, 656 (1980).

VII. INDEMNITY CLAIMS

The purpose of an indemnification clause is to allocate the risks among parties. Many types of contracts contain an indemnification clause, including those used in the construction industry.

The general rule under Georgia law is that indemnity clauses are enforceable as written, including those that indemnify against a party’s own negligence. Batson-Cook v. Georgia Marble Setting Co., 112 Ga. App. 226, 144 S.E.2d 547 (1965). To indemnify a party against its own acts of negligence, the indemnity provision must contain explicit language expressing the intention to indemnify. Georgia In State Tel. Co. v. Scarboro, 148 Ga. App. 390, 251 S.E.2d 309 (1978); Benson Paint Co. v. Williams Constr. Co., 128 Ga. App. 47, 195 S.E.2d 671 (1973); Reliance Ins. Co. of Ill. v. Richfield Hospitality Servs., 92 F. Supp.2d 1329 (N.D. Ga. 2000). Those indemnification agreements which attempt to indemnify against the indemnitee’s own negligence are allowed, but require an explicit undertaking. Allstate Ins. Co. v. City of Atlanta, 202 Ga. App. 692, 415 S.E.2d 308 (1992). Therefore, if this explicit language is absent or to the contrary, courts will not interpret an indemnity agreement as a promise by the indemnitor to save the indemnitee harmless on account of the indemnitee’s own negligence. Id.

A. O.C.G.A. § 13-8-2(b): Georgia’s Anti-Indemnification Statute

Many states, including Georgia, have passed anti-indemnification statutes in response to public policy concerns in the construction arena. These statutes provide an exception to the general rule discussed above. Georgia’s version of an anti-indemnification statute, O.C.G.A. § 13-8-2(b), prohibits indemnification clauses where the indemnitee (or promisee) is indemnified for acts caused
solely by its own negligence in contracts involving construction or the maintenance of a building structure:

[a] covenant, promise, agreement, or understanding in or in connection with or collateral to a contract or agreement relative to the construction, alteration, repair, or maintenance of a building structure, appurtenances, and appliances, including moving, demolition, and excavating connected therewith, purporting to require that one party to such contract or agreement shall indemnify, hold harmless, insure, or defend the other party to the contract or other named indemnitee, including its, his, or her officers, agents, or employees, against liability or claims for damages, losses, or expenses, including attorney fees, arising out of bodily injury to persons, death, or damage to property caused by or resulting from the sole negligence of the indemnitee, or its, his, or her officers, agents, or employees, is against public policy and void and unenforceable. This subsection shall not affect any obligation under workers’ compensation or coverage or insurance specifically relating to workers’ compensation, nor shall this subsection apply to any requirement that one party to the contract purchase a project specific insurance policy, including an owner’s or contractor’s protective insurance, builder’s risk insurance, installation coverage, project management protective liability insurance, an owner controlled insurance policy, a contractor controlled insurance policy


There are two threshold issues which Georgia courts examine in determining whether this statute is applicable to a particular contract. The first is whether the agreement pertains to the “construction, alteration, repair, or maintenance” of a “building structure, appurtenance or appliance.” The second is whether the indemnity clause attempts to indemnify against the indemnitee’s own, sole negligence. National Candy Wholesalers v. Chipurnoi, Inc. 180 Ga. App. 664, 350 S.E.2d 303 (1986); Smith v. Seaboard Coast Line R.R., 639 F.2d 1235 (5th Cir. 1981).

It is difficult to state with certainty when a court will deem a contract to involve the “construction, alteration, repair or maintenance” of a “building structure, appurtenance, or appliance,” except to say that the statute has been applied liberally. See, World Championship Wrestling, Inc. v. City of Macon, 229 Ga. App. 248, 493 S.E.2d 629 (1997) (applying § 13-8-2(b) to lease of arena for

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As for the second inquiry, Georgia statute prohibits indemnity clauses which seek to indemnify a party from their own sole negligence. However, the statute does not prohibit indemnification for joint and several liability. Therefore, if a party is partly (but not solely) negligent, he can receive indemnity for his portion of the negligence that resulted in the loss.

Georgia courts have determined that the obligation of the indemnitee to indemnify does not turn on whether the indemnitor was somewhat negligent. It instead hinges on whether the indemnitee was solely negligent. Stafford Enterprises v. American Cyanamid Co., 164 Ga. App. 646, 297 S.E.2d 307 (1982); Nat’l Gypsum of Ga. v. Ploof Carriers Corp., 2004 Ga. App. LEXIS 427 (Ga. App. 2004). Georgia courts have thus rejected arguments asserted by indemnitors that they did not owe a duty to indemnify because the evidence failed to show they were negligent. Id. Stated another way, an indemnitee need only show that some other entity was negligent – even if that other entity is not a defendant in the case. Binswanger Glass Co. v. Beers Constr., 141 Ga. App. 715, 719, 234 S.E.2d 363 (1977).

The next pertinent question which has developed into a complex area under Georgia law is what types of clauses are considered to incorporate an indemnification for the sole negligence of the indemnitee. Indemnity clauses are typically written in the broadest possible terms, so that claims from all possible sources are indemnified against it. However, when used in the contracts subject to O.C.G.A. § 13-8-2(b), this broad language usually runs afoul of the statute. For example, the phrase “any claim” will be interpreted to include claims for the indemnitee’s sole negligence, even if the agreement does not expressly cover sole negligence, and therefore voids the indemnity clause. See, Frazer v. Albany, 245 Ga. 399, 265 S.E.2d 581 (1980); Federal Paper Bd. Co. v. Harbert-Yeargin, Inc., 53 F. Supp. 2d 1361, (N.D. Ga. 1999); Watson v. Union Camp Corp., 861 F. Supp. 1086, 1091 (S.D.Ga. 1994); National Candy Wholesalers, Inc. v. Chipurnoi, Inc., 180 Ga. App. 664 (1986); World Championship Wrestling, Inc. v. City of Macon, 229 Ga. App. 248, 493 S.E.2d 629 (1997); Kemira, Inc. v. A-C Compressor Corp., 755 F. Supp. 1059 (S.D. Ga. 1991). An interpretation of the “all-claims” language to include the combined negligence of the parties, which would take the indemnity clause out of the statute, has been flatly rejected. Federal Paper Bd. Co., 53 F. Supp. 2d at 1371. This effectively means that this type of indemnification clause is void irrespective of whether the indemnitee is solely or jointly responsible for the damages. National Candy Wholesalers v. Chipurnoi, Inc., 180 Ga. App. 664, 350 S.E.2d 303 (1986).
One solution to this problem is “severability.” In cases where contracts include several indemnity provisions, some of which do not offend the statute, the non-offending provisions can be enforced. See, Hartline-Thomas, Inc. v. Arthur Pew Constr. Co., 151 Ga. App. 598, 260 S.E.2d 744 (1979); Frazer v. Albany, 245 Ga. 399, 265 S.E.2d 581 (1980).

In contracts not subject to O.C.G.A. § 13-8-2(b), Georgia courts have held that the same broad language does not include claims arising out of the sole negligence of the indemnitee. See, Batson-Cook Co. v. Ga. Marble Setting Co., 112 Ga. App. 226, 144 S.E.2d 547 (1965); Georgia In State Tel. Co. v. Scarboro, 148 Ga. App. 390, 251 S.E.2d 309 (1978); Allstate Ins. Co. v. City of Atlanta, 202 Ga. App. 692, 415 S.E.2d 308 (1992); Reliance Ins. Co. of Ill. v. Richfield Hospitality Servs., 92 F. Supp. 2d 1329 (2000). In order for the indemnitee to be indemnified for claims arising out of its own negligence, there must be explicit language in the contract expressing this intention. Id.

Despite these seeming inconsistencies, the two rules of construction really serve the same purpose and achieve the same end. That is, they limit the ability of a party to transfer responsibility for his/her own negligence to another party. In the construction context, the court is looking for ways to include the case within the reach of the statute since the statute outlaws the attempted transfer of liability. Therefore, the “all claims” language is deemed to include the party’s own negligence, with the result that the clause in unenforceable and there is no transfer of liability. In those contracts not subject to the statute, although the court construes the same language differently, the same result is reached. That is, liability for a party’s own negligence is not transferred. Of course, the one overriding distinction between the two scenarios is that in those contracts not subject to the act, the simple inclusion of the requisite language will effectively transfer the indemnitee’s risk.

Both federal and Georgia state courts have held that a claim for the enforcement of a contractual indemnification obligation can not be maintained where the indemnitee had a complete defense to the underlying action. Federal Paper Bd. Co. v. Harbert-Yeargin, Inc., 53 F. Supp. 2d 1361, 1366 (N.D. Ga. 1999) (citing Foster v. Nix, 173 Ga. App. 720, 727, 327 S.E.2d 833 (1985)). The courts reasoned that “in the absence of a legal compulsion to suffer a loss, there is no right to sue a third party for indemnification for that loss.” GAF Corp. v. Tolar Constr. Co., 246 Ga. 411, 271 S.E.2d 811 (1980)). The term “complete defense” had been defined to mean defense as a matter of law. Id. at 1376-79. This approach was criticized in City of Albany v. Pippin, 269 Ga. App. 22, 602 S.E.2d 911 (2004). The court rejected the argument that a contribution defendant should only be able to raise against contribution claims defenses which are defenses as a matter of law. Although the issue in the Pippin case was contribution and not indemnity, the ruling tells us that any defense showing the lack of a legal compulsion to pay would be sufficient to defeat a claim based on an indemnification provision.

B. Insured Contract and Additional Insureds

The “additional insured” clause requires one party to purchase insurance for the benefit of the other party. All of the above complex legal analysis is made completely irrelevant in most cases subject to O.C.G.A § 13-8-2(b) by the usually included insurance clause. This clause frequently provides that the risk associated with the negligence of either party is to be shifted to the insurer of one or both parties.
Where there is an additional insured clause in the contract, the parties must look solely to the insurance clause in the event of a loss and not to the liability of one of the parties. See, Tuxedo Plumbing & Heating Co., Inc. v. Lie-Nielsen, 245 Ga. 27, 262 S.E.2d 794 (1980); McAbee Constr. Co. v. Ga. Kraft Co., 178 Ga. App. 496, 498, 343 S.E.2d 513 (1986); Vasche v. Habersham Marina, 209 Ga. App. 264, 433 S.E.2d 671 (1993). Clauses such as this shift the risk of the loss to the insurance company regardless of fault.

The result is that the indemnity clause will be upheld as written in contracts containing an insurance clause in conjunction with an indemnity clause. Tuxedo Plumbing & Heating Company, Inc. et al v. Lie-Nielsen, 245 Ga. 27, 262 S.E.2d 794 (1980). Even in cases where there is not a mandatory insurance clause, but the court can glean from other portions of the contract that the parties intended to shift the loss to an insurer, the indemnity provision will be enforced. See, Glazer et al. v. Crescent Wall coverings, Inc., 215 Ga. App 492, 451 S.E.2d 509 (1994) (upholding subrogation clauses which waived recovery for losses arising out of “any cause insured against under the standard form of fire insurance policy”). A clause requiring that one party insure a stated loss will also be enforced even where the indemnitor fails to retain the proper insurance. See, Myers v. Texaco Refining & Co., 205 Ga. App. 292, 422 S.E.2d 216 (1992); Everett v. Everett, 256 Ga. 632, 633, 352 S.E.2d 370 (1987) (deciding failure to obtain agreed-upon insurance coverage renders one a self-insurer in such amount). See, also Great Atl. & Pac. Tea Co. v. F.S. Assocs., 257 Ga. App. 534, 537 (2002) (failure to require proof of insurance does not infer a waiver of such requirement). The Court of Appeals has recently noted that the presence in a construction contract or agreement of a “requirement that insurance be purchased is not automatically a panacea for the dangers proscribed by the enactment of O.C.G.A. § 13-8-2 (b).” Federated Dep’t Stores v. Superior Drywall & Acoustical, 264 Ga. App. 857, 862 (2003). Instead, the type of insurance and the intent of the parties in mandating the purchase of insurance must play a part in the analysis. Id.

Today, parties involved in a construction project have two options with regard to obtaining insurance coverage for an indemnification provision. The first is to require that the indemnitor (party providing the indemnity promise) provide liability insurance for their own negligence, and then seek coverage under the “insured contract” provisions found in most general commercial liability policies. This will generally provide coverage for indemnification contingent on certain conditions being met. The preferred option, however, is to require the indemnitor to list the indemnitee as an “additional insured” on their policy of liability insurance. There are many advantages that additional insured status provides which cause it to be the preferred method of insuring the indemnity obligation found in most construction contracts.

VIII. PRE-LITIGATION PROCEDURES IN RESIDENTIAL CONSTRUCTION DEFECT CASES

In an effort to reduce litigation and to promote alternative methods for resolving construction disputes, in 2004 the Georgia Legislature passed the Right to Repair Act (O.C.G.A. § 8-2-35, et seq.). The Act requires that prior to bringing an action, a claimant alleging construction defects must provide the contractor responsible for the defect with a written notice of a claim and allow the contractor the opportunity to resolve the claim without litigation.
As the Right to Repair Act is primarily designed to assist in resolving legitimate disputes without the need for litigation, the Act does not altogether bar claims where the Act’s procedures have not been followed. Rather, the Act simply requires the court or arbitrator to stay the action until the claimant has complied with the requirements of the Act. To the extent that the action includes a cause of action for damages due to personal injury or death, such cause of action are permitted to proceed without being subject to a stay. O.C.G.A. § 8-2-37. The requirements and timelines in the Act will not revive any limitation period which expired before filing the notice of claim or extend any applicable statute of repose. O.C.G.A. § 8-2-38(o). Accordingly, if filing suit prior to compliance with the Act’s provisions is necessary to preserve a claim from being time barred, a claimant may do so and the action will be stayed while the claimant satisfies the Act’s requirements.

If it is found that after sending the necessary notice the claimant refuses to allow the contractor to repair the defect or to otherwise settle the claim, the Act then still allows the action to proceed, but it limits the claimant’s maximum recovery to the amount of the settlement offer or the actual cost of the repairs. In addition, the Act prohibits a court or arbitrator from awarding the claimant attorney’s fees (if applicable) incurred after the claimant has rejected the contractor’s reasonable offer to repair or settle. O.C.G.A. § 8-2-38(l).

Although the Right to Repair Act is not intended to impose severe penalties upon claimants who fail to follow the pre-suit procedures designed to resolve construction defect claims without resorting to litigation, the Act is still an effective means for protecting contractors from frivolous suits and other litigation that they could easily avoid if given the opportunity. However, the Act can be a two-edged sword, as the failure of a contractor to remedy a defective condition when given the opportunity could potentially serve as the basis for bad-faith claims or other arguments for which additional damages could be awarded to a claimant. As such, it is imperative that contractors respond to notices of claims in a timely manner and that they either make a good-faith effort to correct the alleged defect, or else articulate very clearly in their rejection letter their good-faith grounds for refusing to address the claimant’s concerns.

A. NOTICE OF CLAIM

At least ninety (90) days prior to bringing an action for construction defects, the Right to Repair Act requires claimants to serve a written notice of claim upon the contractor(s) they believe are responsible for the defective condition. It does not matter whether the contractor is a general contractor or a subcontractor; if the person or entity is required to be licensed under Georgia law, a claimant cannot file suit without first having satisfied the Act’s requirements. O.C.G.A. § 8-2-38(l).

The written notice of claim has several basic requirements. First, it must indicate that it is a notice of claim served pursuant to the Right to Repair Act. Second, it must describe the alleged defects with sufficient detail to explain the nature of the defects and the results of the defects. O.C.G.A. § 8-2-38(a). Third, the notice must provide to the contractor any evidence that depicts the nature and cause of the construction defect, including expert reports, photographs, and videotapes. Id.
B. CONTRACTOR’S OPTIONS

Each contractor who has been served a notice of claim has thirty (30) days in which to provide a written response to the claimant and to any other contractors/subcontractors who were also served the notice of claim. O.C.G.A. § 8-2-38(b). The contractor’s written response can take one of three forms: (1) The contractor may reject the claimant’s demands; (2) the contractor may offer to repair the defect(s), settle the claim, or a combination of the two; or (3) the contractor may request to inspect the property to further assess the alleged defect before deciding the manner in which he or she will respond to the claim. Id.

It is imperative for the contractor to respond to the notice of claim within the time permitted, as a contractor who fails to provide a written response within the time permitted may not allege deficiencies in the notice of claim, such as insufficient detail, lack of evidence showing the defect, and so forth. O.C.G.A. § 8-2-38(c). In addition, if a contractor fails to respond to a notice of claim, the claimant may immediately bring an action against the contractor and will likely seek to use the contractor’s lack of response against the contractor at trial. Id.

1. Contractor Rejects Claimant’s Demand

If the contractor fails to respond or otherwise rejects the claimant’s demand, the claimant has satisfied his or her requirements under the Right to Repair Act and is free to file an action against the contractor. Id. The claimant, however, must still follow any legal requirements dictating the manner in which an action is brought. For example, if the claimant and contractor had entered into a construction contract containing an arbitration clause, the claimant would still be required to arbitrate the matter pursuant to the contract.

2. Contractor Offers to Repair the Defect(s) or Settle the Claim

If the contractor has offered to repair the defect, settle the claim, or any combination of the two, the claimant may either accept or reject the offer. The written offer and a written acceptance create a rebuttable presumption of a contractually binding settlement agreement that can be enforced at a future date, if necessary. Special rules apply to both options.

a. Acceptance of Contractor’s Offer

Where a claimant chooses to accept the contractor’s offer to repair the defect(s), or where the claimant fails to respond within thirty (30) days (whereby the acceptance is automatic), the claimant must provide the contractor with access necessary to perform the repairs. O.C.G.A § 8-2-38(m). In addition, the claimant must allow the contractor a reasonable amount of time in which to complete the repairs. If the contractor fails to repair the defect(s) as promised or fails to complete the repair within the agreed timetable, the claimant is free to bring an action against the contractor as if the contractor had refused to repair the defect. O.C.G.A. § 8-2-38(g).
b. Rejection of Contractor’s Offer

Should the claimant be dissatisfied with the contractor’s offer, the claimant must provide the contractor (and the contractor’s attorney, if applicable) with a written notice of rejection within thirty (30) days of receiving the offer. O.C.G.A. § 8-2-38(d). The notice of rejection must set forth the reasons for which the claimant is rejecting the offer. Specifically, the claimant must set forth in detail any items of the claim that were not addressed in the contractor’s offer, as well as any items set forth in the contractor’s offer that the claimant believes are unreasonable. Id.

This notice of rejection is intended to further assist the contractor in avoiding unnecessary litigation by providing the contractor an opportunity to submit a supplemental offer that is agreeable to the claimant. The contractor has fifteen (15) days from receipt of the claimant’s notice of rejection in which to provide the claimant with a supplemental offer. O.C.G.A. § 8-2-38(j).

It is important to note that the Right to Repair Act sets forth penalties against a claimant who brings an action against a contractor after rejecting a reasonable offer. If a claimant files suit after having rejected what the fact finder (judge, arbitrator, or jury) deems to be a reasonable offer, the claimant’s recovery is limited to the actual cost of making the repairs or the value of the settlement offer. In addition, the claimant may not receive compensation for any attorney’s fees incurred after the claimant had rejected the reasonable offer. O.C.G.A. § 8-2-38(l).

c. Contractor Requests to Inspect the Alleged Defect(s)

If the contractor requests to inspect the alleged defect(s), the claimant has thirty (30) days in which to provide the contractor reasonable access to perform the inspection. In addition, the claimant must allow the contractor to perform all tests necessary for determining the nature, extent, and cause of the claimed defects, as well as the nature and extent of any needed repairs. O.C.G.A. § 8-2-38(e). The contractor may engage in both destructive and non-destructive testing, but where destructive testing is required, the contractor must give the claimant advanced notice and must restore the property to its pre-test condition once the testing is completed. Id. In addition, where the structure at issue includes individual units with separate owners, such as condominium complexes, the claimant (usually the association) must allow the contractor to inspect each unit that appears to be affected by the alleged defect. Id.

The contractor is required to complete all testing within thirty (30) days of providing the claimant with a written request to inspect the defect(s). If circumstances make it unreasonable to require the contractor to complete the necessary testing within thirty (30) days, the Act allows the contractor whatever time is reasonably necessary to complete the tests. Id.

Within fourteen (14) days of completing an inspection of the alleged defect(s), the contractor must provide the claimant with a definitive, written response to the notice of claim. O.C.G.A. § 8-2-38(f). As when the contractor first received the notice of claim, the contractor may offer to repair the defect, detailing the specific work to be done. The contractor may also offer to settle the claim or propose a combination of repairs and settlement. Lastly, the contractor may refuse to make any repairs, detailing the reasons for the refusal. As discussed above, where the contractor offers to
repair the defect(s) and the claimant accepts the offer, the contractor must complete the repairs within the timetable that is agreed upon by parties, or else the claimant is free to bring an action against the contractor.

C. CONTRACTOR’S OBLIGATIONS

Although the Right to Repair Act is intended to assist contractors in avoiding unnecessary litigation costs, in order to benefit from the Act’s provisions contractors must satisfy notice requirements of their own. Specifically, they must have previously put the claimant on notice that certain obligations may have to be satisfied before the claimant may bring an action against them. O.C.G.A. § 8-2-41(a). To ensure that contractors provide the necessary notice and receive the protections afforded to them under the Right to Repair Act, it is strongly advised that every contractor include in each of his or her construction contracts the following sample contract clause (See, O.C.G.A. § 8-2-41(b)), printed in all-caps exactly as it appears below:

GEORGIA LAW CONTAINS IMPORTANT REQUIREMENTS YOU MUST FOLLOW BEFORE YOU MAY FILE A LAWSUIT OR OTHER ACTION FOR DEFECTIVE CONSTRUCTION AGAINST THE CONTRACTOR WHO CONSTRUCTED, IMPROVED, OR REPAIRED YOUR HOME. NINETY DAYS BEFORE YOU FILE YOUR LAWSUIT OR OTHER ACTION, YOU MUST SERVE ON THE CONTRACTOR A WRITTEN NOTICE OF ANY CONSTRUCTION CONDITIONS YOU ALLEGED ARE DEFECTIVE. UNDER THE LAW, A CONTRACTOR HAS THE OPPORTUNITY TO MAKE AN OFFER TO REPAIR OR PAY FOR THE DEFECTS OR BOTH. YOU ARE NOT OBLIGATED TO ACCEPT ANY OFFER MADE BY A CONTRACTOR. THERE ARE STRICT DEADLINES AND PROCEDURES UNDER STATE LAW, AND FAILURE TO FOLLOW THEM MAY AFFECT YOUR ABILITY TO FILE A LAWSUIT OR OTHER ACTION.

D. SPECIAL RULES FOR CONDOMINIUMS

Effective April 28, 2006, the Georgia legislature amended the Right to Repair Act, primarily as to how the Act applies to condominiums. The 2006 Amendment singles out condominium complexes and provides additional criteria applicable to defect claims arising out of the design, construction, alteration, and/or repair of those structures.

Under the 2006 Amendment, in order for an association to bring an action against a contractor to recover damages resulting from construction defects in the common area of a common interest community (condominium), the association must first overcome three procedural hurdles. First, the members of the association must vote on the matter and must approve the proposal to commence an action against the contractor by at least two-thirds of the votes. O.C.G.A. § 8-2-42(e)(1). In addition, the 2006 Amendment to the Right to Repair Act also requires that at least three (3) business days in advance of the meeting at which the association members vote or at the time a statutory
written ballot is circulated to the members, the association must provide each owner a copy of the notice of claim provided to the contractor and an additional written description of claims and the reasons the board of the association is recommending consideration of the litigation. O.C.G.A. § 8-2-42(f).

Second, the board of directors of the association must meet the contractor in person and engage in a good faith attempt to resolve the association’s claim. O.C.G.A. § 8-2-42(e)(2). This requirement is satisfied where the directors have attempted to meet with the contractor and the contractor has definitively declined or ignored the requests to meet with the board of directors of the association. Id. Third, the association must satisfy all of the Right to Repair Act’s other pre-suit requirements as discussed in detail above. O.C.G.A. § 8-2-42(e)(3).

Finally, to further protect contractors and condominium owners from fly-by-night inspectors seeking to encourage litigation or who might themselves create property damage, the Act provides that an association or an attorney for an association may not employ a person to perform destructive tests to determine any damage or injury to a dwelling or common area caused by a construction defect unless: (1) The person is licensed as a contractor pursuant to law; (2) the association has obtained the prior written approval of each owner whose dwelling will be directly affected by such testing; (3) the association or the person so employed obtains all permits required to conduct such tests and to repair any damage resulting from such tests; and (4) reasonable prior notice and opportunity to observe the tests is given to the contractor against whom an action may be brought as a result of the tests. O.C.G.A. § 8-2-42(g).

IX. STATUTE OF REPOSE / STATUTE OF LIMITATION

See, Sections II and III, above.

X. ECONOMIC LOSS DOCTRINE

Georgia has adopted the economic loss rule, which prevents recovery in tort when a defective product has resulted in the loss of the value or use of the thing sold, or the cost of repairing it. Vulcan Materials, Inc. v. Driltech, Inc., 251 Ga. 383, 306 S.E.2d 253 (1983). Under such circumstances, the duty breached is generally a contractual one and the plaintiff is merely suing for the benefit of his bargain. Id. Georgia’s statutory product liability law, O.C.G.A § 51-1-11 provides that no recovery in tort is allowed when damage is to a product only, unless there is personal injury or damage to “other property.” Busbee v. Chrysler Corp., 524 S.E.2d 539 (Ga. App. 1999). This exception is so because the duty to not cause physical injury or harm others generally arises independent of the contract. Id. Another exception exists for misrepresentation relied on by the purchaser. Robert & Co. Assoc. v. Rhodes-Haverty Partnership, 250 Ga. 680, 300 S.E.2d 503 (Ga. 1983).

XI. RECOVERY FOR INVESTIGATIVE COSTS

There are no reported cases in Georgia specifically addressing whether investigative costs are recoverable in a construction defect case.
XII. ECONOMIC WASTE


The fair market value of the real property is one factor the jury may use to measure the reasonableness and proportionality of claimed damages; however fair market value is not a necessary element of a claim for damages. John Thurmond & Assocs., 284 Ga. at 471-472. Courts have held that repair costs are an appropriate measure of damages even though the repair costs exceed the diminution in value of the property caused by the defect. Georgia Northeastern R.R., 277 Ga. at 247, citing NEDA Constr. Co. v. Jenkins, 137 Ga. App. 344 (1976). However, the cost of restoration may not be disproportionate to the diminution in the property’s value. The defendant has the burden of presenting any contradictory evidence challenging the reasonableness or proportionality of those damages and, where appropriate, evidence of an alternative measure of damages for the jury’s consideration. John Thurmond & Assocs., 284 Ga. at 471-472. Whether the repair constitutes an “absurd undertaking” is a question of fact for the jury. Id. See, American Pest Control v. Pritchett, 201 Ga. App. 808, 810 (1991); Corbin on Contracts, § 60.1 (2005).

XIII. RECOVERABLE DAMAGES

In Georgia, the general rule for recovery of damages for breach of contract reads as follows:

§ 13-6-2. Measure of damages -- Generally

Damages recoverable for a breach of contract are such as arise naturally and according to the usual course of things from such breach and such as the parties contemplated, when the contract was made, as the probable result of its breach. O.C.G.A. § 13-6-2 (2004).

A. Direct Damages

As a general rule, damages for defective construction, whether those damages are the result of a breach of contract or negligence of the contractor, are determined by measuring the cost of repairing the defect or restoring the property, unless the cost of repair is disproportionate to the property’s probable loss of value. John Thurmond & Associates, Inc. v. Kennedy, 284 Ga. 469, 668 S.E.2d 666. Where demanded by the facts of a case, courts also have determined damages by measuring the diminution in value of the property after the injury occurred. See, Ryland Group v. Daley, 245 Ga.
App. 496, 537 S.E.2d 732 (2000) (damages measured by diminution in value where defects are permanent). Frequently, both measures of damages are in evidence and are complementary to the other, inasmuch as proof of the cost of repair because of the defective construction is illustrative of the difference in value claimed as damages, and is more likely to represent the true damage suffered from the failure of a contractor to complete his contract than would the opinion of an expert as to the difference in values. Williams Tile, etc., Co. v. Ra-Lin & Assoc., 206 Ga. App. 750, 752, 426 S.E.2d 598 (1992).

Thus, under Georgia law, cost of repair and diminution in value are alternative, although oftentimes interchangeable, measures of damages in negligent construction and breach of contract cases. John Thurmond & Associates, Inc. v. Kennedy, 284 Ga. 469, 668 S.E.2d 666 (2008). An injured party may use either or both methods of measuring damages, depending on his particular circumstances. The burden to produce evidence supporting a claim for damages under either method rests, of course, on the injured party and this must be done by evidence which will furnish the jury data sufficient to enable them to estimate with reasonable certainty the amount of damages. David Enterprises v. Kingston Atlanta Partners, 211 Ga. App. 108, 111, 438 S.E.2d 90 (1993). In response, the defendant has the burden to present any contradictory evidence challenging the reasonableness or proportionality of those damages and where appropriate, evidence of an alternative measure of damages for the jury’s consideration. See, American Pest Control v. Pritchett, 201 Ga. App. 808, 412 S.E.2d 590 (1991).

B. Stigma Damages

In Georgia, stigma damages to realty, meaning those alleged damages stemming from the perception of an additional diminution of value even after repairs are made, are considered too remote and speculative to be recoverable. Hammond v. City of Warner Robins, 224 Ga. App. 684, 690 (1997); Ryland Group v. Daley, 245 Ga. App. 496, 503-504 (2000).

C. Delay Damages

Pursuant to O.C.G.A.§ 13-2-2(9), time is generally not of the essence of a contract; but by express stipulation or reasonable construction, it may become so. However, in the usual construction case, the parties will draft contractual provisions to expressly delineate the parties’ respective obligations for timely completion of the project, notice provisions for others’ failure to complete their portion of the project and/or “no-damages-for-delays” clauses. In such instances, Georgia courts will enforce the expression of the parties’ intentions. See, L&B Constr. Co. v. Regan Enter., Inc., 267 Ga. 809, 812-813 (1997).

D. Loss of Use

Georgia courts will allow a claimant to recover as an element of damages his or her loss of use of the real property in a construction defect case. “(F)or delay in the performance of a contract, damages usually are for loss of the use of the property involved, for which the injured party may recover damages based on interest on the value of the property.” Sanders v. Robertson, 196 Ga. App. 739, 739 (1990).
E. Punitive Damages

Generally speaking, punitive damages are not allowed in purely breach of contract cases. However, if there is fraud involved, there may be a claim for punitive damages in a construction defect case. Bowden & Bowden Constr. Co. v. Fowler, 265 Ga. App. 274, 277 (2004). Under O.C.G.A. § 51-12-5.1(b), punitive damages may be awarded in a tort action if the plaintiff proves by clear and convincing evidence that “the defendant’s actions showed willful misconduct, malice, fraud, wantonness, oppression, or that entire want of care which would raise the presumption of conscious indifference to consequences.” Id. (When applicable, such damages are capped at $250,000.00. See, O.C.G.A. § 51-12-5.1 (g)). Under the standard set forth in O.C.G.A § 51-12-5, “[n]egligence, even gross negligence, is insufficient to support [an award of punitive damages].” Durben v. American Materials, Inc., 232 Ga. App. 750, 503 S.E.2d 618 (1998).

F. Emotional Distress

Negligent conduct, without more, will not support a recovery for emotional distress. H.J. Russell & Co. v. Jones, 250 Ga. App. 28, 550 S.E.2d 450 (2001). Damages are generally not available for mental pain, suffering, or emotional distress unless accompanied by physical or pecuniary loss or the result of malicious, willful, and wanton action directed at the complainant. Id. Furthermore, the type of pecuniary loss which will support a claim for emotional distress is one that occurs as a result of a tort involving an injury to the person even though this injury may not be physical. OB-GYN Assoc. of Albany v. Littleton, 259 Ga. 663, 386 S.E.2d 146 (1989). An injury to the reputation would be such an injury. Id. (Subsequently, Littleton was overruled in part, allowing a parent’s recovery for emotional distress caused by a personal injury to a child sustained in the presence of the parent. Lee v. State Farm Mut. Auto. Ins. Co., 272 Ga. 583, 533 S.E.2d 82 (2000)).

G. Attorney’s Fees, Expert Fees and Costs

Georgia follows the American Rule in that attorney’s fees and costs of litigation are generally not recoverable as damages. O.C.G.A. § 13-6-11; Friedrich v. Fidelity Nat’l Bank, 247 Ga. App. 704, 705 (2001). However, even in construction defect cases, a plaintiff is entitled to recover attorney fees and costs under O.C.G.A. § 13-6-11 if he can establish that the defendant has acted in bad faith in the underlying transaction, has been stubbornly litigious or has caused the plaintiff unnecessary trouble and expense. Morrison Homes of Florida v. Wade, 266 Ga. App. 598, 600 (2004).

The element of bad faith relates to the defendant’s conduct in entering into the contract or pertains to the transaction and dealings out of which the cause of action arose, not to the defendant’s conduct after the cause of action arose. Id. (citations omitted).

As a matter of law, stubborn litigiousness justifying an award of attorney fees cannot exist if there is a genuine dispute between the parties; and when the evidence shows the existence of a genuine factual dispute or legal dispute as to liability, the amount of damages, or any comparable issue, then attorney fees are not authorized. Brito v. Gomez Law Group, LLC., 289 Ga. App. 625, 658 S.E.2d 178 (2008). In other words, if there is a bona fide controversy, there can be no stubborn litigiousness as a matter of law. Steel Magnolias Realty, LLC v. Bleakley, 276 Ga. App. 155, 622 S.E.2d 481 (2005). Similarly, the concept of “causing the plaintiff unnecessary trouble and

XIV. INSURANCE COVERAGE FOR CONSTRUCTION CLAIMS

A. Interpretation of Insurance Policies

In Georgia, an insurance contract is governed by the ordinary rules of contract construction. Controlled Blasting Inc. v. Ranger Ins. Co., 225 Ga. App. 373, 374 (1997). The parties to an insurance policy are bound by its plain and unambiguous terms. Sapp v. State Farm Fire and Casualty Co., 226 Ga. App. 200, 201 (1997). Generally, courts interpret any ambiguity in policies in favor of the insured, consistent with the insured’s reasonable expectations. Id.; Tifton Machine Works Inc. v. Colony Insurance Co., 224 Ga. App. 19, 20 (1996). Genuine ambiguities arise “whenever the phrasing of an insurance policy is so confusing that an average person could not make out the boundaries of the coverage.” Id. All exclusions from coverage sought to be invoked must be strictly construed. Id. The insurer bears the burden of proof and persuasion to show that an exclusion applies. Id. Exceptions, limitations and exclusions to insurance agreements require a narrow construction on the theory that the insurer, having affirmatively expressed coverage through broad promises, assumes a duty to define any limitations on that coverage in clear and explicit terms. Alley v. Great Am. Ins. Co., 160 Ga. App. 597, 600 (1981).

B. Duties to Defend and Indemnify

An insurer’s duty to defend and its duty to indemnify are separate and independent obligations. Atlanta v. St. Paul Fire & Marine Ins., 231 Ga. App. 206, 209 (1998). Subject to the terms of the insurance contract, an insurer’s duty to defend its insured is triggered if the complaint asserts a claim which is arguably covered by the policy. Bituminous Casualty Corp. v. N. Ins. Co. of New York, 249 Ga. App. 532, 533 (2001). This is commonly referred to as the “8 Corners Rule,” as an insurer’s duty to defend arises out of the four corners of the complaint when compared to the four corners of the policy. Thus, the issue is not whether the insured is actually liable to the plaintiffs in the underlying action, but whether a claim has been asserted which falls within the policy coverage and which the insurer has a duty to defend. Id. Accordingly, an insurer’s duty to defend is typically broader than its duty to indemnify. See, Shafe v. Am. States Ins. Co., 288 Ga. App. 315 (2007). Where the underlying complaint asserts both covered and non-covered claims, the insurer will generally be obligated to defend the entire suit, regardless of the presence of non-covered claims.

Generally, a CGL policy provides that an insurer has a duty to indemnify the insured for sums it becomes legally obligated to pay as damages because of “bodily injury” or “property damage” to which the insurance applies, and further states that the policy applies to “bodily injury” or “property damage” caused by an occurrence on covered territory during the policy period. Nationwide Mut. Fire Ins. Co. v. Somers, 264 Ga. App. 421, 425-6 (2003). As noted above, where the policy language is ambiguous as to whether coverage exists for a particular claim, the courts generally resolve the ambiguity in favor of the insured, consistent with the insured’s reasonable expectations. Sapp v. State Farm Fire and Casualty Co., 226 Ga. App. 200, 201 (1997); Tifton Machine Works Inc. v. Colony Ins. Co., 224 Ga. App. 19, 20 (1996).
C. Coverage

As noted above, the typical CGL policy provides that the insurer has a duty to pay any sums the insured becomes legally obligated to pay as the result of “property damage” or “bodily injury” to which the insurance applies. The “property damage” must be caused by an “occurrence.” “Property damage” is typically defined as physical injury to tangible property including all resulting loss of use of that property, or loss of use of tangible property that is not physically injured. Glens Falls Ins. Co. v. Donmac Golf Shaping Co. Inc., 203 Ga. App. 508, 510 (1992). “Bodily injury” is generally defined as an injury, sickness or disease, sustained by any person during the policy period, including death at any time resulting therefrom. Wilmington Island Constr. Co., Inc. v. Cincinnati Ins. Co., 179 Ga. App. 477, 478 (1986). An “occurrence” is generally defined as an accident including continuous or repeated exposure to conditions, which results in bodily injury or property damage neither expected nor intended from the standpoint of the insured. Gary L. Shaw Builders, Inc. v. State Automobile Mutual Ins. Co., 182 Ga. App. 220, 222 (1987).

Breach of contract claims are generally not covered under a CGL policy. The contractor typically bears its own risk to replace or repair its own defective work and make it conform to the agreed contractual requirements. Glens Falls Ins. Co., 203 Ga. App. at 511. This is based on either the court’s interpretation of the definition of the policy term “occurrence” or “property damage” (as well as the business risk exclusions which are discussed below). However, where faulty workmanship causes damage to other property, there may be an “occurrence” or “property damage” within the policy meaning, which could create an issue of fact. Custom Planning & Dev. Inc. v. Am. Nat. Fire Ins. Co., 270 Ga. App. 8, 10 (2004).

D. Coverage Triggers

If there is a length of time between construction on the property and the damage claimed by the plaintiff, it may be difficult to determine the time of the “occurrence” for purposes of coverage. Georgia state courts and the legislature have declined to directly address the issue of coverage triggers in any context, including construction. Arrow Exterminators, Inc. v. Zurich Am. Ins. Co., 136 F. Supp. 2d 1340, 1345 (N.D. Ga. 2001). There are five basic trigger theories which have developed in other states. These include an exposure trigger, an injury in fact trigger, a manifestation trigger, a continuous trigger, and a multiple trigger.

The exposure trigger focuses on the date the “injury-producing agent” first makes contact with the property. Id. The injury in fact trigger sets coverage when the actual injury first occurs. Id. at 1345-46. Where the manifestation trigger is applied, coverage is triggered when the damage occurs and is discovered, or when it “manifests itself as readily obvious,” within the policy period. Id. at 1346. With a continuous trigger, “All liability policies in effect from the exposure to manifestation provide coverage and are responsible for the loss.” Id. While the same analysis is used under the multiple trigger, the multiple trigger views all the other trigger tests (exposure, manifestation, injury in fact) as a continuity and not as individual tests. Id. Neither the Georgia Legislature nor the Supreme Court of Georgia have adopted any one standard “trigger” test, and each test is applied on a case-by-case basis.
The Georgia federal courts have addressed the issue of what triggers coverage in limited circumstances. The Middle District court has ruled in an environmental clean-up costs case that where the CGL policy at issue stated that it would pay for bodily injury and property damage caused by an “occurrence,” this language did not specifically require that any property damage be discovered in the policy period. The court thus found that the “exposure” trigger of coverage was applicable. Briggs & Stratton Corp. v. Royal Globe Ins. Co., 64 F. Supp. 2d 1346 (M.D. Ga. 1999) (holding that toxic chemical release occurring during policy period was “property damage” triggering coverage, regardless of whether the damage was discovered during the policy period.).

The Northern District court has adopted the continuous trigger theory and specifically rejected a manifestation trigger theory. The court noted that absent a specific provision in the insurance contract saying that an “occurrence” requires discovery or manifestation, the court must conclude that such a trigger does not apply. Furthermore, where a contract defines an “occurrence” as including “continuous or repeated exposure,” as was the case, the court must conclude that the appropriate trigger is a continuous one, giving rise to coverage under all policies in effect from exposure to manifestation. Arrow Exterminators, Inc. v. Zurich Am. Ins. Co., 136 F. Supp. 2d 1340 (N.D. Ga. 2001).

E. The Business Risk Exclusions and Faulty Workmanship

For a construction contractor, property damage claims are often a normal part of doing business. In this setting, the construction contractor’s main protection under the CGL coverage is to shield it from liability resulting from property damage (or bodily injury) caused by the contractor’s work (or, in some cases, product). However, the insurer typically does not want coverage under the CGL policy to extend to replacement or repair of the contractor’s own work (or product). Through the so-called “Business Risk Exclusions,” insurers attempt to limit exposure for these types of claims. Even though the CGL policy generally excludes coverage for a contractor’s “business risks,” it nonetheless continues to protect contractors against consequential damages to other areas of the project or property caused by their defective work or product. It is important to note that the business risk exclusions are not applicable to additional insureds, a situation often found in the construction context.

1. Faulty Workmanship Exclusions

Claims for defective and faulty workmanship are typically excluded by two clauses in the CGL policy. These exclusions seek to exclude liabilities arising out of damage to the insured’s own “workmanship.” In a typical CGL policy, exclusion (j), subsections (5) and (6) to the CGL, have particular relevance to construction contractors and subcontractors. Subsection (j)(5) excludes coverage for, “That particular part of real property on which you or any contractors or subcontractors working directly or indirectly on your behalf are performing operations, if the ‘property damage’ arises out of those operations.” This exclusion only applies to property damage while the insured is working on the property. Pinkerton & Law, Inc. v. Royal Ins. Co., 227 F. Supp. 2d 1348, 1356 (N.D. Ga. 2002). Based on this exclusion, the only property damage excluded is the exact portion of the real property on which the work is performed. Other parts, including other parts on which the contractor previously worked, are not covered by the exclusion.
The next exclusion generally lumped together as one of the faulty workmanship exclusions is section (j)(6), which excludes coverage for, “That particular part of any property that must be restored, repaired or replaced because ‘your work’ was incorrectly performed on it.” This exclusion does not apply to “property damage” included in the “products-completed operations hazard.” As with j(5), the only property damage excluded by j(6) is that “particular part” of the real property that must be “repaired or replaced” because the work was defective. This means that only the defective “component” of the work is covered by the endorsement, and other portions of the contractor’s work are not.


2. “Own Product” Exclusion

The next exclusion, typically considered one of the Business Risk Exclusions, is exclusion (k). Under paragraph (k) of Exclusions, the CGL policy excludes coverage for “[p]roperty damage to ‘your product’ arising out of it or any part of it.” This is sometimes referred to as the “Own Product” exclusion. The term “Your Product” is further defined to mean not only the goods manufactured, sold and handled by the insured, but also any warranties or representations as to the fitness, quality, durability, performance (and so on) of the product. In Georgia, case law has made it clear that the term “product” does not include a building or component unless it is a moveable piece of personal property. Stratton & Co. v. Argonaut Ins. Co., 220 Ga. App. 654, 469 S.E.2d 545, 548 (1996).

3. “Own Work” Exclusion

The most commonly cited Business Risk Exclusion is the so-called “own work” exclusion (also sometimes known as the “your work” exclusion). This exclusion is found at paragraph “l” of “Exclusions,” and excludes coverage for “‘property damage’ to ‘your work’ arising out of it or any part of it and included in the ‘products completed operations hazard.’” Importantly, this exclusion does not apply if the damaged work or the work out of which the damage arose was performed by a subcontractor since the terms “you” and “your” are defined under the policy as only the named insured. As such, the exclusion also does not apply to additional insureds.

Georgia seems to favor application of these exclusions, at least in the contractor cases. In several cases, Georgia courts have used the “own work” exclusion to avoid coverage. See, Gary Shaw Builders v. State Mut. Auto. Ins. Co., 182 Ga. App. 220, 355 S.E.2d 130 (1987) (finding that the claims by a homeowner against an insured contractor based on theories of breach of warranty, fraud, and negligence were excluded by the “own work” and “own product” exclusions); Reliance Ins. Co. v. Povia-Ballantine Corp., 738 F.Supp. 523 (S.D.Ga. 1990) (applying the “own product” exclusion to exclude claims for the damaged buildings, including the tort claims). In several other cases, the “own product” and “own work” exclusions have been lumped together with other Business Risk Exclusions and have either been held to apply because the claim was “clearly” a business risk (Sapp...

4. **Impaired Property Exclusion**

The “impaired property” exclusion (m), excludes liability insurance coverage where the insured’s “defective, deficient, inadequate, or dangerous” work is incorporated into another product, thus impairing or destroying the usefulness of the overall product. For the exclusion to apply, the “impaired property” of the third-party must also be capable of restoration by the “repair, replacement, adjustment or removal” of the insured’s product. The purpose of this exclusion is to exclude coverage when the cause of the loss is within the insured’s control, such as the quality and conformity of the product.


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