



Advisory Circular

Subject: Airport Terminal Planning and Design

Date: DRAFT (7/22/16)

AC No: 150/5360-13A

Initiated By: APP-400

1 **1 Purpose.**

2 This advisory circular (AC) provides updated guidance on the process of planning and designing airport
3 terminal facilities. This update reflects the many changes that have occurred in the aviation industry
4 and to planning and design practices for airport terminal facilities since the previous versions of the ACs
5 were drafted.

6 **2 Distribution.**

7 This AC is located on the Federal Aviation Administration (FAA) Office of Airports [website](#) where it is
8 available to all interested parties.

9 **3 Cancellation.**

10 This AC cancels the following two ACs:

- 11 • AC 150/5360-13, Planning and Design Guidelines for Airport Terminal Facilities, dated April 22,
12 1988; and
- 13 • AC 150/5360-9, Planning and Design Guidelines for Airport Terminal Facilities at Non-hub
14 locations, dated April 4, 1980

15 **4 Application.**

16 This AC provides guidance as a reference document and starting point for anyone initiating the planning
17 and design of airport terminal facilities, typically post-master plan or during the master planning
18 process. The focus of the AC is on the process of airport terminal facility planning and design and key
19 considerations that should be made during the process. For more detailed information, references are
20 made to relevant ACs, orders, Transportation Research Board (TRB) reports and industry guidance. For
21 information on Airport Improvement Program (AIP) or Passenger Facility Charge (PFC) eligibility and
22 justification, refer to [Section 1.3](#) in this AC, [FAA Order 5100.38](#), [Airport Improvement Program Handbook](#)
23 and the [Passenger Facility Charge Handbook, FAA Order 5500.1](#).

24 **5 Principal Changes.**

25 This AC:

- 26 1. Combines ACs: 150/5360-13, *Planning and Design Guidelines for Airport Terminal Facilities*
27 and AC 150/5360-9, *Planning and Design Guidelines for Airport Terminal Facilities at Non-*
28 *hub locations.*
- 29 2. Provides initial planning considerations that should be made before and during the
30 terminal planning and design process.
- 31 3. Presents the framework of a basic terminal planning and design process and key
32 considerations for each step.
- 33 4. Incorporates a chapter on the fundamentals of sustainability in terminal planning and
34 design.
- 35 5. Provides references to relevant ACs, Orders, TRB reports and industry guidance on
36 terminal planning and design.
- 37 6. Refrains from providing quantitative guidance for sizing terminal components that is
38 already provided elsewhere in federal, TRB, and industry guidance. Terminal sizing is
39 evaluated on a case-by-case basis.
- 40 a. Note: The previous version of this AC provided a more quantitative approach to guide
41 end users (e.g. using simplified ratios between passenger enplanements and terminal
42 component sizing). Substantial review and study was conducted to assess the
43 previous guidance and to define the scope of this AC. Given the unique nature of
44 each airport environment and site specific considerations, the approach of the
45 previous AC was found to be inflexible for the site specific nature of planning and
46 designing terminal facilities.

47 **6 Feedback on this AC.**

48 If you have suggestions for improving this AC, you may use the Advisory Circular Feedback form at the
49 end of the document.

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1 CHAPTER 1. USE OF THE ADVISORY CIRCULAR

2 1.1 Intended Audience

3 This document is written to provide guidance as a reference document and starting point for anyone
4 initiating the planning and design of an airport terminal facility, including (but not limited to) the
5 following:

- 6 • Airport operators.
 - 7 • Airport leadership.
 - 8 • Airport planning staff.
 - 9 • Airport engineering staff.
 - 10 • Public stakeholders.
 - 11 • FAA field personnel.
- Consultants.
 - Airport planners.
 - Terminal planners.
 - Architects.

12 1.2 Organization and Use of this Advisory Circular

13 The 11 chapters in this AC are presented in three main parts:

- 14 1. Initial Planning Considerations (Chapter 2) – Identifies key considerations that should be
15 made prior to any terminal planning or design project.
- 16 2. Terminal Planning and Design Process (Chapter 3) – Discusses an approach to the planning
17 and design process with emphasis on flexibility.
- 18 3. Terminal Planning and Design Methodologies and Tools (Chapters 4 through 11)
 - 19 ○ Covers the three main functional elements in the terminal area (terminal building,
20 terminal apron, terminal landside); provides considerations that should be made for
21 each element and applicable reference documents and tools for each.
 - 22 ○ Discusses the topic of sustainability in terminal planning and design.
 - 23 ○ Discusses non-hub terminal facilities and other considerations that should be made.

24 Using the framework process presented in the following chapters, the user is provided a basic
25 explanation for each key subject and functional area and then referred to more in depth resources.

26 It should be noted that this guidance combines AC 150/5360-13, *Planning and Design Guidelines for*
27 *Airport Terminal Facilities* and AC 150/5360-9, *Planning and Design Guidelines for Airport Terminal*
28 *Facilities at Non-hub locations*. The processes for hub and non-hub terminal facilities planning and
29 design were found to be the same and not warranting two separate discussions. However, given the
30 relative differences in scale between hub and non-hub facilities, it was determined that some key
31 considerations should be highlighted for non-hub facilities. Please refer to Chapter 10 for additional
32 considerations on non-hub airport terminal facilities.

33 1.3 **Use of this Advisory Circular and Financial Considerations**

34 This AC presents a wide range of information on the topic of planning and designing terminal facilities.
35 The discussion presented here is independent from guidance on Airport Improvement Program (AIP) or
36 Passenger Facility Charge (PFC) eligibility and justification. This AC and the use of this AC does not
37 establish or ensure project eligibility or justification for AIP or PFC funding. For information on AIP or
38 PFC eligibility and justification, refer to [FAA Order 5100.38, Airport Improvement Program Handbook](#)
39 and the [Passenger Facility Charge Handbook, FAA Order 5500.1](#).

40 Specific information on the allocation of public-use space and non-public use space are not part of this
41 AC, but are covered in detail in [FAA Order 5100.38, Airport Improvement Program Handbook](#). For
42 airports in the National Plan of Integrated Airport Systems ([NPIAS](#)), airport operators should coordinate
43 with FAA Office of Airports [Regional or Airports District Office](#) staff to discuss the project.

44

45 1.4 **Use of Other Industry Publications**

46 The focus of this AC is on the process of planning and designing airport terminal facilities. As such, there
47 are many publications that appropriately focus, in significantly more depth, on the detailed quantitative
48 elements of terminal planning and design for each respective discipline encountered within the terminal
49 area. To avoid duplicative guidance and recognize the natural evolution of terminal planning factors and
50 practices, this AC provides references to other relevant resources. References are provided within the
51 text in the following sections, and are also summarized in **Appendix B**, Reference Materials.

52 CHAPTER 2. INITIAL PLANNING CONSIDERATIONS

53 2.1 General

54 This chapter presents and discusses key considerations that need to be made before and during the
55 formal terminal planning and design process. Particular emphasis should be placed on this early stage of
56 the process as the outcome will form the scope of work for the project.

57 2.2 Situation Assessment and Strategic Planning

58 Before initiating a terminal planning and design process, airport operators should conduct a situation
59 assessment to identify the problems and decide what the process is specifically intended to address. A
60 situation assessment can include asking the following questions:

- 61 • What problem(s) needs to be solved in regards to the existing terminal facility?
- 62 • Has the existing terminal infrastructure (or components thereof) reached the end of its useful
63 life?
- 64 • Does the overall terminal complex (or any of its individual components) no longer meet current
65 or evolving operational needs and require renovation, expansion, or replacement?
- 66 • Is the overall terminal complex (or any of its individual components) simply too small, or too
67 large, to accommodate current or projected demand?
- 68 • Are there changes or expected changes in the operational fleet or to airline tenants?
- 69 • Does the terminal need overall modernization or aesthetic improvements to meet changing user
70 and community expectations?
- 71 • What specific passenger or tenant complaints about the facility need to be addressed?
- 72 • Are there multiple problems representing a combination of the above?
- 73 • Has the terminal facility (or any of its individual components) suffered significant damage or
74 closed due to storms, electrical outages, flooding or other external factors?
- 75 • Have previous planning studies (e.g. an Airport Master Plan or related planning study) explored
76 the questions above or identified terminal related projects?
- 77 • Are any environmental impacts anticipated as part of the project? It is critical early in the
78 process to anticipate and include the appropriate level of NEPA review and coordination.

79 Documentation and communication of the outcomes of the situation assessment are important parts of
80 the process. Documentation of the exact problems that need to be resolved is necessary to define the
81 goals and objectives and ensure there is consensus among stakeholders and others who will play an
82 integral role in the planning and design process.

83 2.3 Establishing Goals and Objectives

84 Once the situation assessment is completed, it is important at the outset of the terminal planning
85 process to have a clear understanding of the goals and objectives so that the effort is addressing the
86 appropriate problems and issues. The goals and objectives should define the purpose and motivation

87 behind the need for the new, expanded, or renovated terminal facility. Goals and objectives should be
88 prioritized and align with: (a) the airport operator’s overall vision and mission for the terminal facility
89 and airport enterprise, (b) the airport operator’s funding capabilities, and (c) the motivations and needs
90 of primary stakeholders such as governmental leadership, airline tenant(s) and users of the facility.

91 It is the responsibility of the planners and designers to clearly articulate this vision in a written set of
92 goals and objectives. Goals and objectives also provide an early coordination opportunity for
93 stakeholders and others to agree that the project is needed in the first place, as well as providing a
94 benchmark against which the options developed for the project may be tested or evaluated. Evaluation
95 criteria for the project should relate to, or draw from, the established goals and objectives.

96 2.4 Airport Master Plans

97 Airport master plans are studies prepared to document and support the long-term development and use
98 of an airport’s land and facilities. The goal of a master plan is to provide the framework needed to guide
99 future airport development that will cost-effectively satisfy aviation demand and provide a balance of
100 capacity among airport functions, while considering potential safety, environmental and socioeconomic
101 impacts. [AC 150/5070-6, Airport Master Plans](#), provides comprehensive guidance on this topic.

102 In general, an airport master plan should establish the overall context within which detailed terminal
103 planning will occur. In most cases, the terminal planning process should align with the broader
104 framework and guidelines established in the airport master plan.

105 Airport master plans normally contain basic information useful to the terminal planning process, such
106 as: an inventory of relevant data pertaining to the service area and existing airport facilities, aviation
107 activity forecasts, capacity analyses, estimates of facility requirements, environmental considerations,
108 and various plans on the airport layout, land use, terminal area, and intermodal surface access.

109 The terminal facility analysis contained in an airport master plan is normally limited to layouts and
110 drawings delineating general location, overall area, and basic configuration of the terminal area
111 development envelope. However, some airport operators develop master plans with a strong emphasis
112 on terminal planning and may provide documentation to a more detailed level.

113 2.5 Other Factors for Initial Consideration

114 The following summarizes additional factors associated with a successful airport terminal planning
115 process.

116 2.5.1 Project Team

117 It is important in the initial phase of the process that a project team is assembled that will interact for
118 the duration of the planning process. This team typically identifies the lead person for the planning
119 effort for both the airport and the planning consultant team, along with their key team members. The
120 airport may or may not include stakeholders outside of airport staff for the project team, however
121 involving stakeholders early in the process is always encouraged. Key stakeholders can include: airlines,
122 airport tenants, the consultant team, the FAA (Air Traffic and the Office of Airports), other federal
123 agencies such as the Transportation Security Administration (TSA), Department of Homeland Security
124 (DHS), Customs and Border Protection (CBP), other regulatory stakeholders, local government, local
125 business groups, and community planning groups.

126

127 2.5.2 Consultant Selection

128 Airport operators typically hire a consultant to assist in passenger terminal planning studies. As a
129 general rule, consultant support is procured to provide subject matter expertise and additional labor
130 resources to complete tasks within a given schedule. For information on the selection and engagement
131 of architectural, engineering, and planning consultants see [AC 150/5100-14, Architectural, Engineering
132 and Planning Consultant Services for Airport Grant Projects](#). Another useful reference is [Guidelines to
133 Selecting Airport Consultants](#) published by the Airport Consultants Council, an aviation industry trade
134 association.

135 2.5.3 Financial Considerations

136 A number of financial considerations must be addressed early in the process. For example, it is
137 important that airport operators have a realistic sense of their funding capacity as this is a key driver in
138 determining what is ultimately affordable or feasible. A review of airport finances to determine cash on
139 hand, ability to incur debt, revenue streams and potential for grant participation (at the federal, state or
140 other levels) should be conducted early in the process. It is also valuable for the airport operator and
141 key stakeholders to recognize the costs of operating a new or expanded facility and include such
142 information in overall financial feasibility calculations. Additionally, the cost of the terminal
143 improvements to major tenants, such as airlines who may also be financially responsible, should be
144 calculated and given careful consideration.

145 This AC and the use of this AC does not establish or ensure project eligibility or justification for AIP or
146 PFC funding. For information on AIP project eligibility and justification, please refer to the [Airport
147 Improvement Program Handbook, FAA Order 5100.38](#). For information on the PFC program, please
148 refer to the [Passenger Facility Charge Handbook, FAA Order 5500.1](#).

149 2.6 **Terminal Planning Study Design**

150 A key output of the initial considerations that are described in this chapter is a scope of work that
151 articulates the types of analyses and level of effort needed to address the key issues. For airports in the
152 [NPIAS](#), airport operators should coordinate with their local FAA Office of Airports contacts (in [Regional
153 or Airports District Offices](#)) to discuss the project, timeframe, basis for the project, key assumptions (e.g.
154 the forecast of aviation activity used to define facility requirements), level of effort, preliminary NEPA
155 considerations and ultimately to tailor the scope of the effort. The airport operator should develop a
156 scope of work that is appropriate for the circumstances and addresses the identified goals and
157 objectives.

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170 **CHAPTER 3. TERMINAL PLANNING AND DESIGN PROCESS**

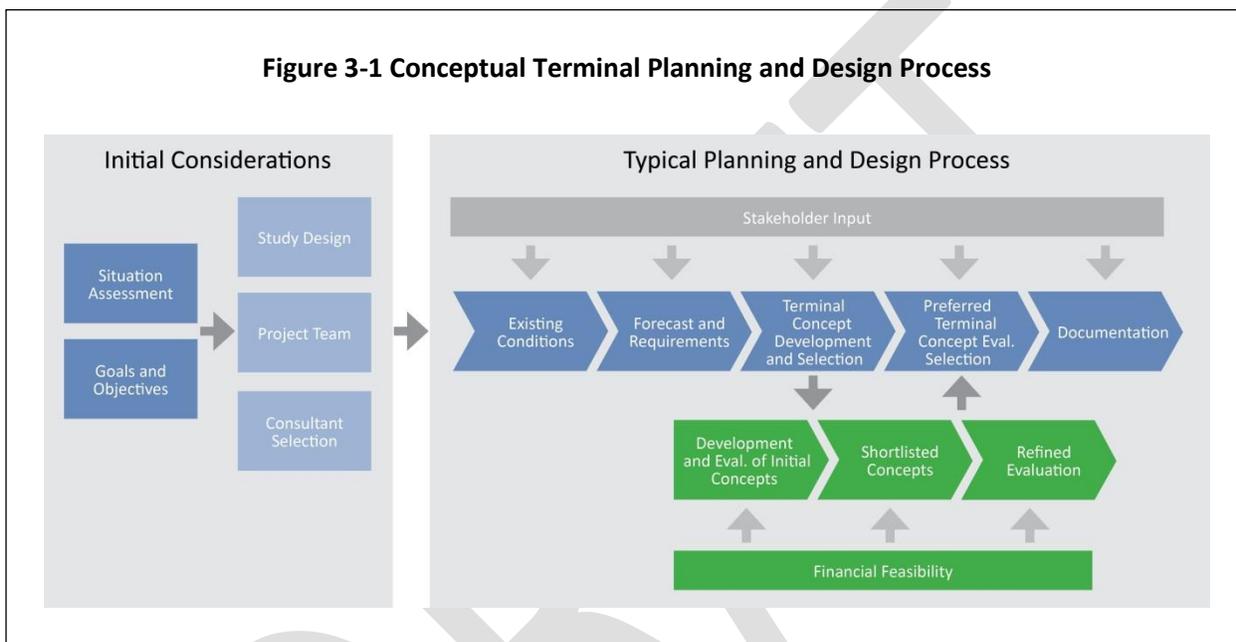
171 **3.1 General**

172 Following the completion of steps identified in Chapter 2 and the development of a scope of work, this
173 chapter describes an approach to a typical planning process with emphasis on flexibility and adaptation.

174 **3.2 Typical Terminal Planning and Design Process**

175 A typical terminal planning and design process is depicted in **Figure 3-1**. Each of the steps identified in
176 the process diagram are described in the following sections with information on each step as well as key
177 considerations that should be made.

178 **Figure 3-1 Conceptual Terminal Planning and Design Process**



179

180 **3.2.1 Initial Planning Considerations**

181 As discussed in Chapter 2 and depicted in **Figure 3-1**, a number of factors should be considered by an
182 airport operator prior to formally initiating the terminal planning process. These steps include assessing
183 the situation and identifying problems to be resolved, establishing goals and objectives, forming the
184 right project team and developing the study scope of work.

185 **3.2.2 Stakeholder Involvement**

186 The process of planning an airport terminal facility requires considerable coordination and input from a
187 number of airport users and other interested parties. Participants in such a process may include, but are
188 not limited to the following:

- 189 • Airport management and airport staff from key departments (landside/airside operations,
190 finance, commercial development, airport fire department/local fire department/ airport
191 emergency response staff, airport police, etc.) as well as other airport departments, which can
192 provide valuable perspective and project support.

- 193 • Tenant airlines, concessionaires, and other service providers and tenants.
- 194 • The terminal planning consultant and other consultants indirectly involved or working on other
195 aspects of the facility.
- 196 • The FAA and other federal agencies such as the TSA, DHS, and CBP.
- 197 • Relevant local governmental agencies, municipal planning, transportation departments, local
198 business groups, community planning groups etc.
- 199 • Other airport users.

200 Stakeholder involvement runs parallel to the entirety of the process presented in this chapter.
201 Stakeholders or the project advisory committee should be engaged to review terminal planning and
202 design information and provide input at key project milestones. Additionally, it is important to engage
203 the general public as part of the planning process. Public input and information dissemination can take
204 place via workshops, public meetings, project websites, and other methods. For specific information on
205 public participation, see [AC 150/5050-4, Citizen Participation in Airport Planning](#).

206 3.2.3 Existing Conditions

207 A foundational step in the planning process is the documentation of existing conditions. Documentation
208 of existing conditions refers to the physical characteristics of the facility, as well as the non-physical
209 elements including operational activity, political, demographic, and airport financial conditions.

210 A base set of plans, documents and photo documentation of existing conditions should be assembled,
211 depicting the appropriate level of information required to support planning efforts and to document key
212 issues identified in the situation assessment. Consideration of the physical characteristics of the existing
213 facility should include a walk-through of the facility, review of the Airport Layout Plan (ALP), the most
214 recent airport master plan, airport layout plan update, other relevant and/or related planning studies,
215 and all existing conditions documents the airport has on file specific to terminal facilities and the
216 surrounding areas (such as electronic drawings of terminal plans, site surveys, utility drawings, and
217 property maps). Additionally, any relevant operational data on functional elements in the terminal
218 complex should be gathered to document demand levels, processing rates, and any other applicable
219 data. A wide range of data (passenger enplanements, aircraft operations, etc.) are available from the
220 FAA [Operations Network \(OPSNET\)](#) website. Data are also available from the FAA [Terminal Area
221 Forecast](#) website in a variety of formats. For the purposes of documenting existing conditions, historical
222 data are summarized by year for each facility. The TAF databases may be downloaded in zipped .dbf
223 format through the Download Data link.

224 Deficiencies in information should be documented by the consultant, and consensus established with
225 the airport operator on how to address them (e.g., will additional work be necessary to obtain basic
226 data, or can assumptions be made on which the planning effort will be based). Throughout the planning
227 process all assumptions used should be clearly documented, including their underlying rationale.

228 3.2.4 Forecasts and Facility Requirements

229 Forecast activity levels and related facility requirements are key inputs for the planning process.
230 Aviation activity forecasts are estimations of demand – expressed in passenger activity levels
231 (enplanements and total passengers), aircraft operations, or other factors – expected to be generated
232 for a specified planning period in the future. These two elements are typically conducted during the
233 master planning process or as part of a more focused terminal planning study. Future projections of
234 demand are used to determine the extent and type of development needed to accommodate the

235 expected traffic (e.g., facility requirements). Forecasts provide the basis for estimating the type, level,
236 and approximate timing for airport capital investments and for assessing the environmental and fiscal
237 consequences associated with the required improvements and levels of activity.

238 In reality, actual passenger and operations activity never follows a straight path, and usually
239 demonstrate “ups and downs.” For this reason, facility requirements and other planning
240 recommendations should be linked to activity milestones (or triggers) defined in terms of planning
241 activity levels, rather than actual future years, which establishes the level of activity that warrants the
242 improvement. This linking enables capital improvements to be delayed or accelerated as actual activity
243 dictates. In addition, base, low, and high growth scenarios can be prepared to “bracket” the potential
244 facility requirements and the resultant terminal development plans. It is critical that the planning
245 process be viewed as dynamic and that potential changes in the aviation industry such as aircraft fleet
246 mix, technology, airport and airline business models, and passenger demographics be considered in the
247 development of forecasts. Flexibility to adapt to changing aviation industry conditions and the economy
248 is one of the most important considerations in terminal planning efforts.

249 Facility requirements are primarily based on the forecast demand and provide the programmatic input
250 (or sizes) for all of the functional components of the terminal facility. Functional areas are described in
251 detail in Chapter 5, *Functional Relationships and Terminal Concepts*. Requirements and the sizing of the
252 various functional components, and the methods for determining them, are addressed in Chapter 6,
253 *Terminal Building Space Programming*.

254 Forecasts should conform to FAA requirements per [AC 150/5070-6, Airport Master Plans](#).

255 Finally, at the conclusion of the Forecast and Facility Requirements step, it is critical to establish
256 consensus regarding the outcome and the resulting recommendations with the Project Team and
257 advisory committee before proceeding with the development of concepts.

258 3.2.5 Terminal Concept Evaluation and Selection

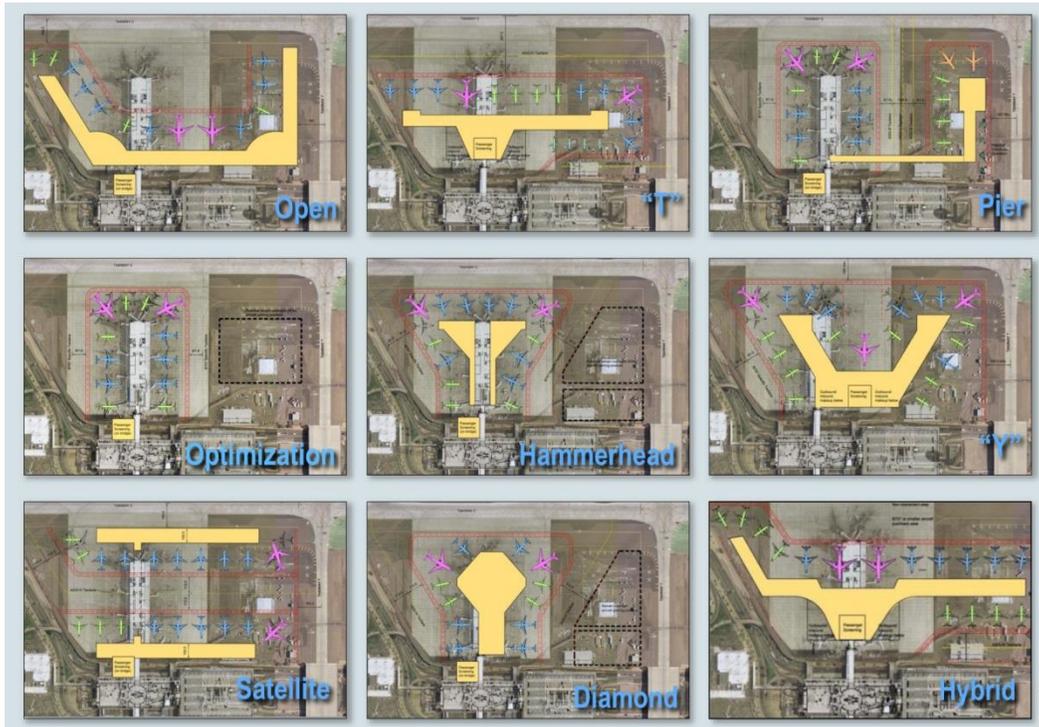
259 Methods for evaluating and selecting a preferred passenger terminal concept are described in the
260 following sections.

261 3.2.5.1 Development and Evaluation of Initial Concepts

262 The initial investigation of alternative terminal concepts should include a high-level consideration of
263 various terminal concepts and their variations and combinations (see Chapter 5, *Functional*
264 *Relationships and Terminal Concepts*). The purpose of this step is to identify the full range of potential
265 options, rather than explore concepts in detail. For comparative purposes, alternatives should be
266 developed using consistent criteria, including: aircraft fleet mix and wingtip spacing, terminal and
267 concourse dimensions, relationship to the airfield, roadway network, other support facilities, and other
268 site-specific criteria. Each alternative should be accompanied by a brief summary of the main points of
269 consideration related to it. Alternative concepts at this stage in the planning process may be developed
270 using criteria which could be revisited later and modified based upon input and discussions with
271 stakeholders. **Figure 3-2** shows a variety of common conceptual terminal redevelopment alternatives.

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Figure 3-2 Example of Initial Conceptual Terminal Alternatives

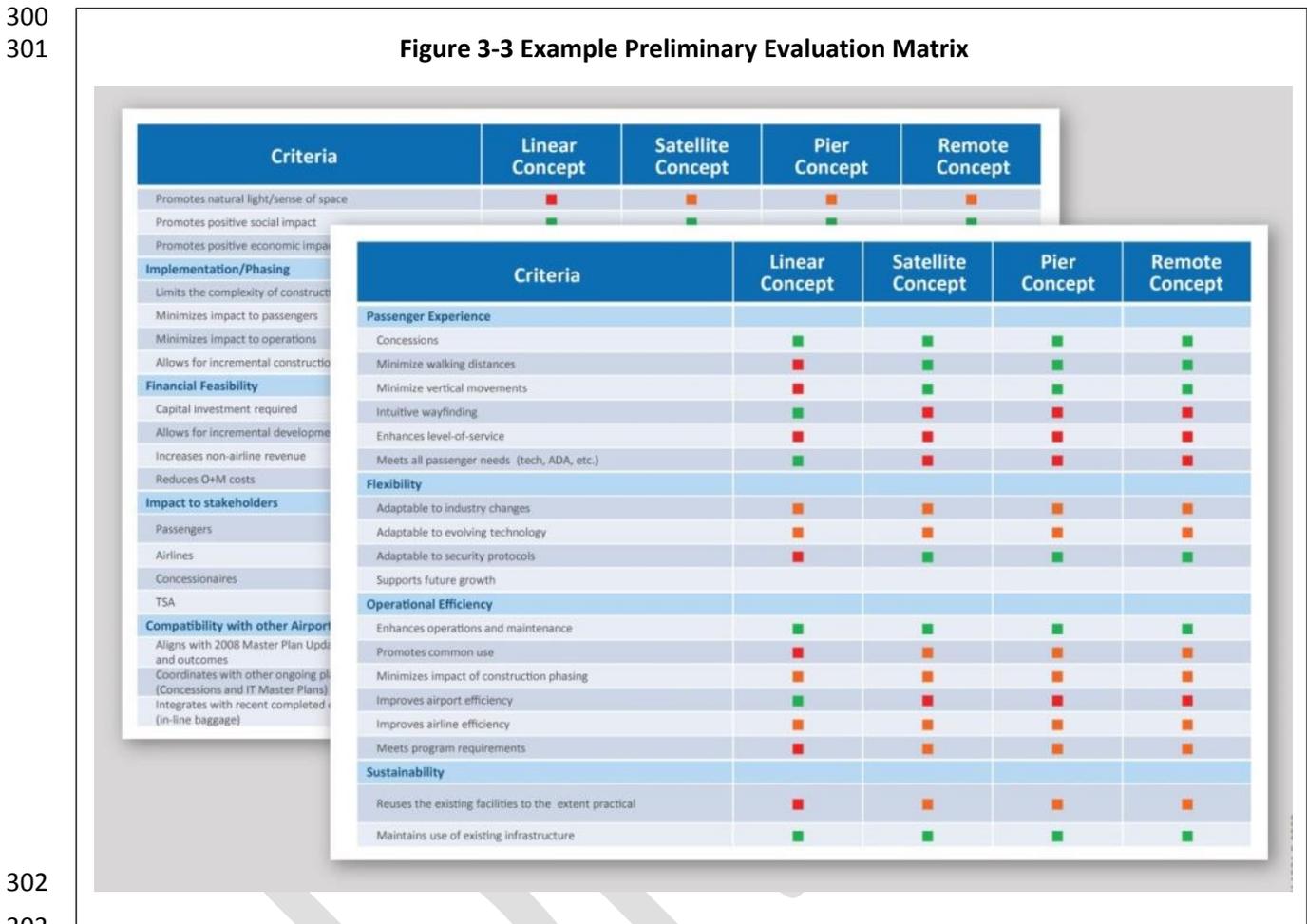
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276 The following three-step process can be used to objectively evaluate the concepts against one another
 277 and reduce the number of conceptual terminal alternatives to a smaller group of shortlisted concepts
 278 for further refinement and evaluation:

- 279 1. **Identify Evaluation Criteria.** Develop evaluation criteria that represent the *essential* factors to
 280 be considered in determining the preferred replacement, new terminal, and rehabilitation or
 281 expansion alternatives for the airport. The criteria and definitions should be carefully tailored to
 282 match the goals, objectives, and other parameters established earlier in the project. Initial
 283 criteria may include economic viability, airside access, ability to accommodate terminal growth
 284 and expansion, walking distances, landside access availability, operational flexibility, site
 285 availability, airspace impacts, Airport Traffic Control Tower (ATCT) line-of-sight, environmental
 286 issues, constructability, schedule, and order-of-magnitude costs.
- 287 2. **Establish Weighting.** Next, develop weighting factors, which may be assigned to each
 288 evaluation criterion according to relative importance. The weighting should be developed with
 289 input from stakeholders and consider priorities in relation to goals and objectives identified
 290 earlier in the process.
- 291 3. **Perform a Technical Ranking.** Develop a matrix or other framework for ranking the concepts
 292 against each criterion. The ranking should represent majority consensus among stakeholders.
 293 One possible ranking scheme utilizes rankings of positive, neutral or negative for each criterion.

294 The score for each alternative is the sum of all weighted factors identified for the criteria listed. This
 295 process can be repeated with more direct weighting or second tier criteria in order to reduce a large
 296 number of potential alternatives to a more manageable number.

297 A concept evaluation matrix which includes generalized evaluation criteria and definitions used in the
 298 preliminary evaluation process is presented in **Figure 3-3**. In the example provided, positive, neutral, and
 299 negative rankings are indicated by green, orange, and red squares, respectively.



304 3.2.5.2 Shortlisted Concepts

305 Following the identification of shortlisted terminal alternatives, the conceptual terminal plans should be
 306 redrawn at a larger scale (greater level of detail) with specific functional areas shown in order to provide
 307 additional detail and allow a more detailed evaluation of each concept. This refinement is prudent
 308 because of the following:

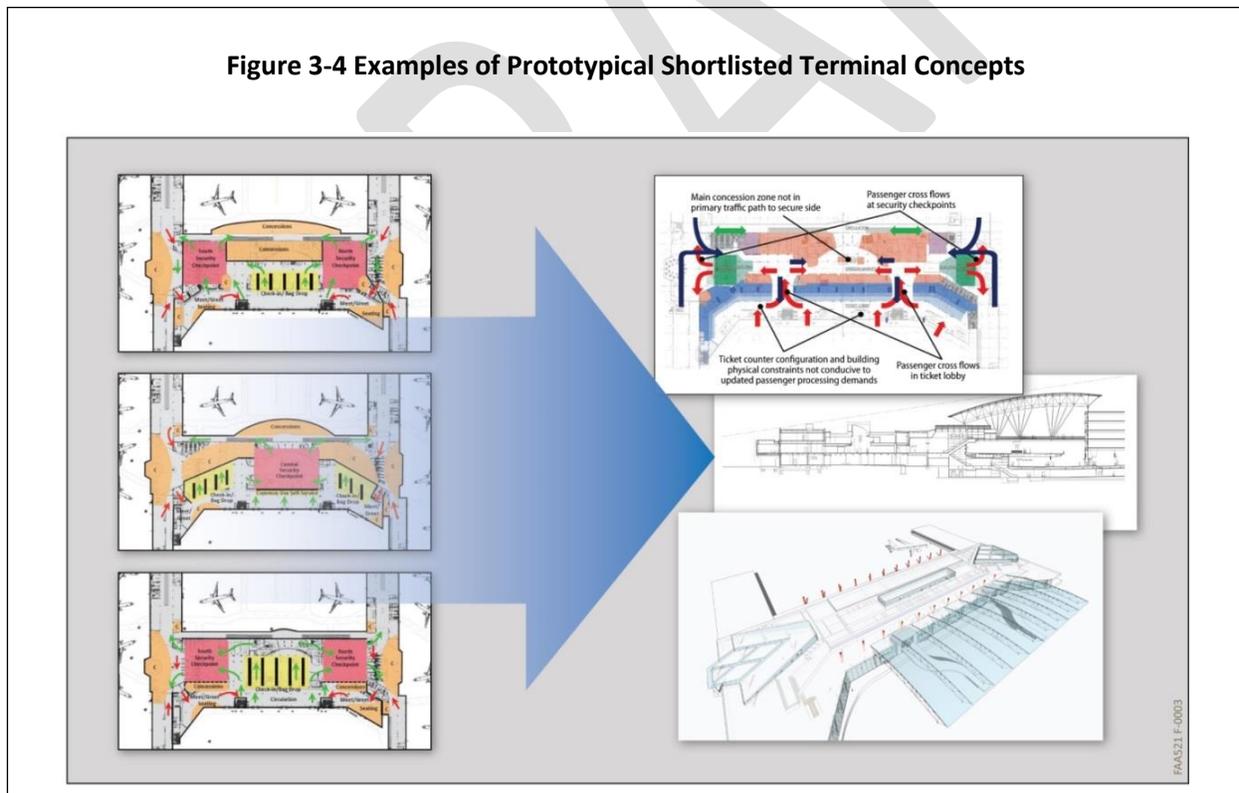
- 309
- Establishes the conformity of each concept to the goals and objectives.
 - 310 • Closely examines the ability of each concept to satisfy demand and the functional and
 311 operational requirements of airlines, passengers, tenants, automobiles, and other elements.
 - 312 • Ensures each concept can be sufficiently phased without causing significant disruption to airport
 313 operations.
 - 314 • Allows for the preparation of order-of-magnitude costs and financial feasibility assessments of
 315 each concept.

316 Brief narrative descriptions of each shortlisted terminal concept (and potential variations) should be
 317 written. A cross section of each alternative may also be prepared to define the process of passenger
 318 movement, baggage routing, and other information. An example of this detail is shown in **Figure 3-4**.

319 Phasing is a key component of the evaluation process and requires careful attention and effort. The
 320 ability to phase a proposed conceptual terminal plan is essential to the concept's viability. The
 321 evaluation of phasing will require coordinated input from airport staff and the critical stakeholders as
 322 any flaw in the logic or acceptance of the phasing plan could jeopardize the concept and planning
 323 investment. This analysis should include team members with design, construction, and operational
 324 experience, as their input can help determine the feasibility of phasing plans.

325

Figure 3-4 Examples of Prototypical Shortlisted Terminal Concepts



326 3.2.5.3 Refined Evaluation

327 For each of the shortlisted terminal concepts that are developed in additional detail, the initial
 328 evaluation criteria should be revisited and reassembled in a new matrix (potentially with new or refined
 329 criteria) to complete the evaluation. A simplified scoring system may be used in this secondary concept
 330 evaluation. The system could be simple – such as assigning positive, neutral, or negative labels to each
 331 alternative based on specific criteria; or more elaborate systems could be developed, such as allocating
 332 points to each alternative based on the criteria. **Figure 3-5** shows an example of a secondary evaluation
 333 matrix.

334
 335

Figure 3-5 Example Secondary Evaluation Matrix

Criteria	Concept A: Dual Checkpoint	Concept B: Centralized Checkpoint	Criteria	Concept A: Dual Checkpoint	Concept B: Centralized Checkpoint
Passenger Experience			Promotes natural light/sense of space	■	■
Concessions	■	■	Promotes positive social impact	■	■
Minimize walking distances	■	■	Promotes positive economic impact	■	■
Minimize vertical movements	■	■	Implementation/Phasing		
Intuitive wayfinding	■	■	Limits the complexity of construction	■	
Enhances level-of-service	■	■	Minimizes impact to passengers	■	■
Meets all passenger needs (tech, ADA, etc.)	■	■	Minimizes impact to operations		
Flexibility			Allows for incremental construction/phases	■	■
Adaptable to industry changes	■	■	Financial Feasibility		
Adaptable to evolving technology	■	■	Capital investment required	■	■
Adaptable to security protocols	■	■	Allows for incremental development	■	
Supports future growth			Increases non-airline revenue		
Operational Efficiency			Reduces O+M costs		
Enhances operations and maintenance	■	■	Impact to stakeholders		
Promotes common use	■	■	Passengers		■
Minimizes impact of construction phasing	■	■	Airlines		
Improves airport efficiency	■	■	Concessionaires		
Improves airline efficiency	■	■	TSA		
Meets program requirements	■	■	Compatibility with other Airport projects		
Sustainability			Aligns with 2008 Master Plan Update objectives and outcomes		
Reuses the existing facilities to the extent practical	■	■	Coordinates with other ongoing planning efforts (Concessions and IT Master Plans)		■
Maintains use of existing infrastructure	■	■	Integrates with recent completed or proposed projects (in-line baggage)		

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339 The result of the evaluation process should be represented graphically so that the recommended
 340 development concept, phasing, schedule and other key details can be readily understood. This is
 341 particularly important if the recommended approach combines several elements of the shortlisted
 342 alternatives.

343 3.2.5.4 Financial Feasibility

344 Using rough order of magnitude (ROM) cost estimates, the planning team should considerer financial
 345 planning factors to confirm the economic viability of terminal concepts. An analysis of the financial
 346 feasibility of each proposed concept investigated in parallel with the development of alternatives and
 347 evaluation will be a key factor in selecting the preferred alternative. A second round of financial
 348 feasibility should occur once the preferred alternative is selected as part of the evaluation process.

349 3.2.6 Preferred Terminal Development Concept

350 Once a preferred terminal development concept is identified, the concept should be clearly delineated
351 in plans, cross-sections, perspectives, program fit, and descriptive narrative. This delineation should
352 also address the original planning parameters, site constraints, and other criteria set out at the initiation
353 of the study. A narrative prepared for the preferred terminal concept should describe the process, the
354 resulting recommendation and cover major points, such as:

- 355 • Achieving balanced capacities (e.g., the passenger curbside should support the number of
356 passengers that the aircraft gates can accommodate).
- 357 • Overall flexibility of space within the terminal building.
- 358 • Revenue enhancement opportunities.
- 359 • Operational flexibility for airlines and concessionaires.
- 360 • Flexibility to adapt to industry changes and future considerations.
- 361 • Ease of ground transportation access.
- 362 • Phasing of terminal improvements.

363 The implementation of the preferred terminal concept may need to be a multi-phased development
364 extending over a significant period of time. A multi-phased approach may be necessary for several
365 important reasons including, but not limited to:

- 366 • The need to retain a minimum number of operational aircraft gates at all times during
367 construction.
- 368 • The need to maintain existing terminal building systems and equipment in operation during all
369 phases.
- 370 • The potential requirement that a substantial portion of the new terminal may need to be built
371 on the same site as the existing terminal facility.
- 372 • The need to preserve the safety of passengers, vehicles, personnel, and aircraft during all phases
373 of construction.
- 374 • Other factors related to cost, affordability, climate, and seasonal construction variables.

375 Finally, there are a number of elements which will continue to be evaluated as the planning evolves. As
376 the terminal concept moves into design this evolutionary evaluation process will continue until all of the
377 elements are set. Elements which may continue to be considered within the preferred terminal concept
378 are alternative plans for baggage processing, concessions, passenger processing, concourse phasing,
379 aircraft parking and departure holdrooms.

380

381 3.2.7 Documentation

382 Clear and concise documentation is critical to the success of the overall planning process and ultimately
383 to the successful transition to design and implementation phases. There are four primary objectives of
384 the documentation process:

- 385 1. **Clearly document the understanding and consensus of all planning team members.** This
386 documentation should include all of the initial assumptions, and a clear record of the process
387 steps and decisions. Clear documentation of changes in direction during the process should also
388 be documented as stakeholders will need to understand the rationale for the conclusions. The
389 final recommendations will need to be thoroughly documented in a final report. This document
390 will be used by project teams in the implementation phases that may or may not include
391 members of the planning team, although ideally the planning team would continue to be
392 involved in an advisory capacity through the design and implementation phases.
- 393 2. **Provide communication tools to convey, educate, and advocate with parties outside of the**
394 **planning team.** These tools will be derived from the detailed documentation described above,
395 but will be a simplification or executive summary that conveys the fundamental program goals
396 and direction to parties outside of the planning team. Typical approaches to outreach can
397 include executive briefing documents, presentation brochures, social media, project websites
398 and other multi-media formats. The exhibits for these documents will require a more polished,
399 less technical approach for successful communication to audiences with less knowledge of
400 terminal and airport facilities.
- 401 3. **Establish a “living” base document as the schedule for the program.** Airport development
402 projects can potentially continue for decades depending on the outcome of the planning
403 process. Critical to the implementation of the proposed program, documentation must be
404 produced that focuses on the assumptions and decisions made during the planning process,
405 open issues that remain regarding the proposed preferred alternative, and future options,
406 alternatives and key decisions that will be necessary as the project moves forward. Due to the
407 continually changing dynamics of the aviation industry as discussed above, the ‘owners’ of the
408 program as it progresses will need to be provided with a roadmap that has sufficient flexibility to
409 adapt the recommendations to future conditions without sacrificing the goals and objectives of
410 the airport operator.
- 411 4. **Define the preferred alternative sufficiently to enable follow-on work necessary to implement**
412 **the improvements.** Sufficient definition will allow subsequent work such as environmental
413 review and permitting, as well as architectural/engineering design to proceed without revisiting
414 major planning parameters. A planning step referred to as “program definition” is oftentimes
415 used following a terminal planning study, to establish firm planning, design, schedule and
416 budget parameters for the designers to follow. This can be an extensive process, but one that
417 can save the airport owner significant amounts of time, money, and confusion. Documentation
418 should be prepared in alignment with what is needed for NEPA review.

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435 CHAPTER 4. PLANNING AND DESIGN METHODOLOGIES AND TOOLS

436 4.1 General

437 This chapter provides a discussion of methods and tools used to support the terminal planning and
438 design process. Key items described in this chapter include demand characteristics and analytical tools.
439 Demand levels and characteristics are generally researched and established early on in the process, as
440 they represent basic data needed to conduct a terminal planning or design effort. Analytical tools are
441 used later in the process to determine terminal facility needs and sizing.

442 4.2 Demand Characteristics

443 Demand forecasts are developed to estimate future passenger activity and aircraft operations levels.
444 Preparation of annual activity and the conversion of demand into planning activity levels are addressed
445 in Chapter 3, *Terminal Planning and Design Process* (facility requirements and other terminal space
446 programs should be linked to annual “activity milestones” that are defined in terms of planning activity
447 levels rather than future calendar years). Peak demand levels (e.g., busiest day of the year, Peak Hour of
448 the Average Day of the Peak Month) are derived from annual activity and are the basis upon which
449 terminal space programs are normally developed. It is important to ensure that activity being forecast is
450 related to the problem being addressed. The following describes basic activity characteristics and
451 traditional methodologies to determine them.

452 4.2.1 Annual Activity

453 Annual activity can be used to determine order-of-magnitude facility requirements. Annual forecast
454 data relevant to the terminal planning process includes the following:

- 455 • Passenger enplanements – the annual number of departing passengers using a terminal facility.
456 Enplanements can be subcategorized by domestic and international, originating or connecting,
457 or any other category depending on project need. Annual enplanements can be used to
458 calculate order-of-magnitude facility requirements for terminal areas associated with departing
459 passengers.
- 460 • Passenger deplanements – the annual number of arriving passengers using a terminal facility.
461 Deplanements can be subcategorized by domestic and international, terminating or connecting,
462 or other categories depending on the project need. Annual deplanements can be used to
463 calculate order-of-magnitude facility requirements for terminal areas associated with arriving
464 passengers.
- 465 • Aircraft operations – the annual number of arriving and departing aircraft that utilize the
466 terminal facility. Aircraft operations can also be subcategorized by domestic and international,
467 and wide-body versus narrow-body aircraft. Annual aircraft operations can be used to calculate
468 order-of-magnitude gate requirements.
- 469 • Aircraft fleet mix – the specific types of aircraft serving an airport. Fleet mix is important
470 because different aircraft have different passenger capacities (i.e., number of seats). Aircraft
471 fleet mix can be used to calculate order-of-magnitude gate requirements and determine the
472 flexibility of a proposed aircraft parking layout.

- 473 • Load factor – the percentage of seats utilized on an aircraft; can be determined and expressed
 474 individually for specific airlines or type of operation (e.g., international or domestic), or as an
 475 average of all aircraft operations at an airport.

476 To determine more refined requirements and other terminal space programs, annual forecasts are
 477 typically translated to peak daily and hourly demand.

478 4.2.2 Peak Activity

479 Peak activity refers to the highest level of passenger or operational activity that is projected to occur,
 480 and is normally expressed as peak month, day, or hour. Terminal facility planning requires knowledge of
 481 peak activity because the space program is based on projected peak volumes of passengers. For
 482 example, the number of lanes required for a security screening checkpoint is based on the maximum
 483 throughput of an individual screening lane. If there are 300 passengers in the peak hour and each lane
 484 can process 150 passengers per hour, then a minimum of two screening lanes are needed. Chapter 6,
 485 *Terminal Building Space Program* describes the relationship of peak activity to building a space program
 486 for each terminal functional area. Depending on the level of analysis required, peak activity data can be
 487 prepared for passenger enplanements and deplanements (and associated sub classifications), and
 488 aircraft operations.

489 Publications that provide guidance on forecasting and peaking calculations, include:

- 490 • [FAA Guidelines, Forecasting Aviation Activity by Airport](#)
- 491 • [ACRP Synthesis Report 2, Airport Aviation Activity Forecasting](#)
- 492 • [ACRP Report 82, Preparing Peak Period and Operational Profiles—Guidebook](#)

493 Average Day of the Peak Month (ADPM) is a common methodology used to identify existing and forecast
 494 future peak activity. The peak month is the month representing the highest percentage of total annual
 495 activity; and ADPM is determined by dividing the peak month's activity by the total number of days in
 496 that month. Future ADPM is determined by multiplying forecast annual activity by the historic
 497 percentage of total activity in the peak month, and again, dividing by the total number of days in that
 498 month. The process of determining existing and forecast ADPM is shown in **Figure 4-1** below.

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Figure 4-1 Determination of Average Day Peak Month Activity

Month	Activity	% of total	Determination of Existing ADPM	
January	10,000	6%	Peak month activity =	16,000
February	12,000	7.8%	Average day activity =	516
March	11,000	7.1%	(16,000 / 31 days)	
April	12,500	8.1%		
May	13,000	8.4%		
June	14,000	9.1%		
July	16,000	10.4%		
August	15,500	10.1%		
September	15,000	9.7%		
October	12,000	7.8%		
November	12,000	7.8%		
December	11,000	7.1%		
Annual total	154,000	100%	Determination of Forecast ADPM	
			Forecast annual activity =	200,000
			Forecast peak month activity =	20,800
			(200,000 x 10.4%)	
			Forecast average day activity =	671
			(20,800 / 31 days)	

501 4.2.3 Design Day Flight Schedules

502 Another method used to determine future peak activity is through the development of a “design day”
503 flight schedule. A design day flight schedule differs from a calculated peak activity number derived from
504 annual activity because it is based on an actual theoretical day, or rather, based on existing/current
505 airline and passenger characteristics, such as:

- 506 • Airline flights – scheduled commercial aviation activity, by each airline.
- 507 • Airline fleet mix – aircraft types used by each airline.
- 508 • Airline load factors – historical data that represents percentages of seats occupied, per each
509 airline flight.
- 510 • Passenger type – percentage of passengers types such as families, business travelers, leisure
511 travelers, prescreened travelers, and passengers with elite airline status.

512 An existing design day flight schedule provides a distribution of passengers on an hourly basis
513 throughout the design day. The peak hour can therefore be identified as the hour in the schedule that
514 includes the highest passenger volumes for a given function, such as enplaning passengers, connecting
515 passengers, and international passengers.

516 Future peak hour volumes are thereby determined by applying appropriate growth rates to the existing
517 design day flight schedule and increasing the activity levels to match forecast demand. This can be
518 accomplished via a combination of “up-gauging” (utilizing larger aircraft with higher numbers of seats
519 per plane) aircraft types and/or the introduction of additional flights, depending on the strategies most
520 likely to be deployed by the individual airlines at the airport. Coordinate with air carriers to validate and
521 tailor assumptions used in the development of the future schedule.

522 Industry resources that provide additional information for determining annual and peak activity include:

- 523 • [ACRP Report 23, Airport Passenger-Related Processing Rates](#)
- 524 • [ACRP Report 25, Airport Passenger Terminal Planning and Design](#)

525 4.3 **Analytical Tools**

526 A variety of analytical tools are available to assist in developing a terminal building space program.
527 Three general levels of analysis – quick-estimation methods, macroscopic methods, and microsimulation
528 methods – can be used to generate requirements. Each of these three methods differs in terms of the
529 level of effort to perform the analysis: the level of accuracy or reliability of the results, and the required
530 level of user expertise. The following briefly describes each method and when each should be applied.

531 4.3.1 Quick-Estimation Methods

532 Quick-estimation methods are best applied in early, conceptual stages of planning. They are used to
533 develop a high-level terminal space program. Generally, broad assumptions or rules-of-thumb are
534 inputs to a simplistic model that are used to determine facility requirements. At this low level of detail,
535 a physical design is not needed. Typically, the outputs are in tabular form and the methods are used as
536 initial screening criteria to determine whether or not a space program can be accommodated within the
537 allowable development area; and therefore, if further analysis is warranted. The [International Air
538 Transport Association \(IATA\), Airport Development Reference Manual](#) contains rules-of-thumb for the
539 following facilities: check in, passport control, centralized security check, gate area hold rooms, bag
540 claim units and arrival hall. Gross area terminal planning factors are also contained in [ACRP Report 25,](#)

541 [Airport Passenger Terminal Planning and Design, Volume 1](#), which can be a useful tool to consider rough
542 terminal sizing.

543 4.3.2 Macroscopic Methods

544 Macroscopic methods are used to understand overall passenger, baggage, and vehicular flows. This
545 level of modeling typically requires a design or concept which can be represented in a model
546 environment, along with logical assumptions assigned to passenger activities. Model outputs can
547 include renderings of the simulation, including passenger routes, flows at processing points, and
548 numerical outputs. Macroscopic methods can be used to generate a reasonable planning or design-level
549 space program. These methods are fairly sophisticated, but require less time and experience than
550 microsimulation methods. Macroscopic methods are most useful during a terminal planning conceptual
551 design phase when developing a comprehensive space program, as opposed to a detailed focus on one
552 specific functional area. [ACRP Report 25, Airport Passenger Terminal Planning and Design – Volume 2](#)
553 [Spreadsheet Models and User’s Guide](#), includes a spreadsheet model that is useful for this level of
554 analysis, covering many of the functional terminal components.

555 4.3.3 Microscopic Methods

556 Microscopic methods involve sophisticated computer software that simulates individual passenger,
557 baggage, and vehicle movements and their interaction with each other. This level provides the most
558 realistic passenger movement simulations and includes passenger interactions, detailed
559 queuing/movements and other passenger characteristics and behaviors that increase the level of
560 accuracy. Outputs from this method can be 3-dimensional visualization images or videos for use in
561 presentations. Microscopic methods are the most complex; and therefore require the highest level of
562 experience to use and the maximum level of effort to produce results. These methods are best applied
563 for analyzing micro-operational improvements such as solving security checkpoint congestion issues
564 when expansion outside the building envelope is not an alternative. This method can also be useful in
565 producing materials for high-profile presentations.

566 4.3.4 Other Tools

567 There are a variety of proprietary analytical models that have been developed over the last few decades
568 that fit into one or more of the analytical categories above. Each terminal planning or design project is
569 unique and the advantages, disadvantages, and desired outputs of each analytical tool should be
570 understood prior to their application.

571 A few recognized analytical tools for terminal space programs are described in:

- 572 • [ACRP Report 23, Airport Passenger-Related Processing Rates](#)
- 573 • [ACRP Report 25, Airport Passenger Terminal Planning and Design](#)

574 There are also a variety of proprietary tools for producing an efficient terminal layout. Most of these are
575 computer aided design software programs. These programs are dimensionally accurate and graphically
576 show spatial relationships inside the terminal building. These programs can also be used for aircraft
577 parking and simulation or 3-dimensional visualization. These tools can be used at all stages of terminal
578 planning and design.

579 **CHAPTER 5. FUNCTIONAL RELATIONSHIPS AND TERMINAL CONCEPTS**

580 5.1 **General**

581 This chapter describes; how the passenger terminal has evolved over time, the various passenger
582 terminal components and their functional relationships, and basic terminal concepts and configurations.

583 From the perspective of the terminal planning and design process, it is advantageous for an airport
584 owner/operator, or those who are assisting in the process, to form some understanding early in the
585 process how terminals have evolved. This understanding provides context for the project they are
586 about to initiate. It is also important to understand the various functional components of a terminal
587 complex and how passengers, vehicles, etc. move through the terminal complex. Finally, since some of
588 those functions and processes are constantly evolving, it is important for those involved in planning and
589 design to learn about those changes and how they may affect the plan.

590 5.2 **Evolution of the Passenger Terminal**

591 Airport terminal facilities have evolved considerably, along with the air travel industry. This section
592 describes these changes (providing context for older terminals) and suggests how current trends are
593 influencing modern facilities.

594 Airport terminals have evolved in step with the demands of the commercial aviation industry, which is
595 over 100 years old. Despite their relative “newness,” airport terminals have assumed a significant place
596 in the lives of United States citizens, many of whom travel regularly by air. Expectations of the scale and
597 grandeur of airport terminals grew as local governments came to increasingly regard airports as iconic
598 symbols of their status and economic power, fulfilling a position much as did grand railway stations of
599 the 19th Century.

600 The earliest terminals in the United States date from the late 1920s, when commercial aviation was in its
601 infancy. The relatively high price and limited availability of air travel meant that it primarily served the
602 wealthy elite. Most commercial flights provided a level of service well into the 1950s that would now be
603 considered “First Class.” This was the same era when airports were major civic and even national
604 symbols. Designs were often tailored to meet the needs of a particular airline, and aesthetic
605 considerations predominated over functionality and flexibility – a trend that would reverse in the 1960s.

606 Between 1960 and 1970, the number of air passengers in the United States increased 173%, the largest
607 percentage increase ever for a single decade in United States aviation history. At the same time most
608 airline fleets converted to jets. Jet aircraft evolved from the B707/DC-8/CV880-990 in the early 1960s
609 (typical capacity of 125 to 150 passengers) to the B747-100 in 1969 (typical capacity of 350 to 450
610 passengers depending on the cabin configuration).

611 Larger capacity jet aircraft increased demands on terminal buildings. Greater efficiency and flexibility
612 were needed to accommodate more passengers and baggage. Terminal buildings had to move beyond
613 niche designs to vast “processors” capable of handling thousands of passengers and their baggage
614 during peak periods. Airport terminal planners of the 1960s had few guidelines to follow, so
615 experimentation was the rule. From the perspective of the early 21st Century we are able to look back
616 and see which terminal designs worked and which did not; which proved flexible enough to grow with
617 demand, and which were inflexible to change.

618 The Airline Deregulation Act of 1978, which removed restrictions on entry, pricing, and routes, had the
619 greatest impact on the commercial aviation industry and ultimately on the planning and design of

620 terminal facilities. Between 1978 and 1985, the number of non-commuter airlines increased from 43 to
621 87; the number of revenue passenger miles almost doubled; and the share of total traffic of the
622 incumbent major airlines declined from 94% to 77%. Commuter and regional airlines (operating aircraft
623 with fewer than 60 seats) increased their revenue passenger miles by a factor of seven between 1979
624 and 1989.

625 Deregulation also saw the emergence of two trends that directly affected terminal planning: the
626 development of airline hubs and the introduction of low-cost carriers. While hubbing did exist prior to
627 deregulation, building routes through hubs was a slow bureaucratic process. After deregulation, hub
628 routing could be established quickly and the impact on terminals was dramatic. Hubs had to
629 accommodate much higher peak volumes of passengers than originally planned, and most of these
630 passengers needed to connect to other flights. The development of “banks” of flights (busy times of the
631 day when many flights arrive and depart in a short window), significantly impacted aircraft maneuvering
632 in the terminal area as well as airfield capacity. Passenger security screening, already required prior to
633 deregulation, had to be redesigned in order to avoid connecting passengers having to go through
634 screening again at a hub.

635 Deregulation also saw the advent of low-cost carriers, which is an airline business model based on short-
636 haul, high-frequency service that bypasses hubs, and the use of a single aircraft type. Although some
637 low-cost carriers establish “focus cities,” which allow passengers to make connections, the scheduling of
638 flights is not based on concentrated banks of flights. This resulted in more continuous use of the
639 terminal facilities throughout the day. In addition, these carriers’ insistence on low costs caused some
640 airport operators to reconsider how they designed and operated terminals. Many low-cost carrier
641 operating concepts, such as not serving in-flight meals, came to be adopted by legacy carriers. As a
642 result airports have increased food concessions throughout the terminal.

643 During the early 1990s, higher fuel costs combined with a global recession and increased industry
644 capacity caused the financial failure of a number of new and long-established airlines. Airlines also
645 continued to consolidate after 2000 as competitive price pressure intensified. These actions, combined
646 with the introduction of smaller capacity regional jet aircraft and the new large capacity A380 caused
647 dramatic changes to the airline industry, airport terminals, and terminal planning.

648 The industry landscape is expected to continue to shift as airlines change their operating procedures and
649 markets. This likelihood places a premium on flexibility in terminal design. Terminal planning and
650 design guidelines will always have a limited life and need to be re-evaluated periodically to reflect
651 developing trends. On a cautionary note, history shows that not all trends survive; terminal planners
652 and designers need to look at the latest “next big thing” carefully before basing a terminal concept on it.

653 5.3 **Originating and Destination Versus Hub / Connecting Markets**

654 There are vast differences between a passenger terminal that is primarily suited for originating and
655 destination passengers (O&D), and one that is suited for accommodating connecting or airline hub
656 operations. In the United States, O&D markets typically have high peak hour enplanements in the
657 morning hours, and high peak hour deplanements in evening hours. Since the terminal size is driven by
658 peak activity, the terminal facility can be relatively underutilized during the remainder of the day. Since
659 it is not practical to keep aircraft at the gate overnight, O&D markets also include high demand for
660 Remain Overnight (RON) aircraft parking positions that can impact the planning and design of airside
661 facilities. This RON requirement also tends to facilitate maintenance operations at O&D airports and
662 therefore hangar space becomes an important planning component nearby the terminal complex.

663 Finally, O&D airports generally also require more curbside and parking facilities, particularly close to the
664 terminal, to accommodate the enplaning and deplaning peaks.

665 Airports with significant connecting or hubbing operations have O&D morning and evening peaks that
666 accommodate the local market, but also significant mid-day activity when connecting activity generally
667 peaks. For this reason, hub airport terminals generally have higher levels of passenger activity
668 throughout the day and therefore, better efficiency in the use of facilities. Concessions also play a more
669 important role in passenger service and revenue generation due to the longer time passengers spend in
670 the terminal while connecting. Compared to O&D markets, demand for curbside and parking facilities is
671 reduced since a large percentage of passengers are not local; and demand for RON parking positions is
672 also diminished because aircraft are generally positioned at the O&D facilities overnight.

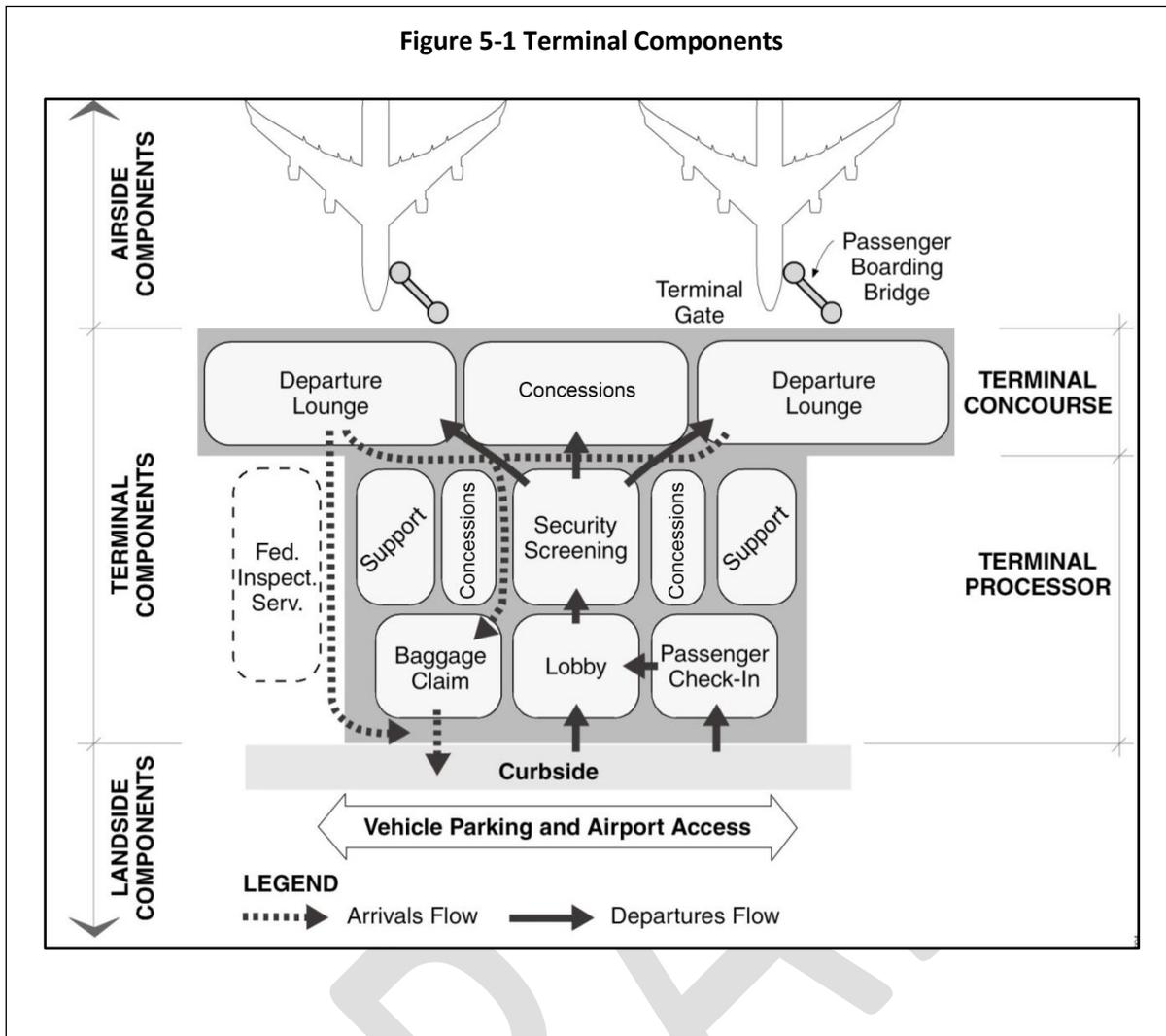
673 5.4 Terminal Components and Functional Relationships

674 The terminal complex can be defined as the interface between aircraft, travelers, and the landside
675 transportation, which cohesively work to efficiently convey passengers to and from their origins and
676 destinations. Viewed this way, the terminal complex can be divided into three primary components:
677 airside, terminal building and landside. **Figure 5-1** shows the sequence of flow between the various
678 components in a typical terminal complex from curbside to aircraft parking. It should be noted that not
679 every terminal provides for all of these functions or that each function must have a separate area. For
680 example, at low-activity airports, one general space may contain multiple functions, such as a lobby,
681 ticket counters, and waiting lounge.

682 The primary users of airport terminals are airlines, travelers, well-wishers, meeters/greeters, and a wide
683 range of employees of air carriers, concessionaires, government regulatory authorities, airport
684 management, and other airport tenants. While terminal facilities must accommodate all these users,
685 the planning and design of a terminal facility is primarily influenced by the activities within the terminal
686 building, which can be categorized into the following functions: (1) processing and servicing passengers,
687 (2) handling and processing of belly cargo (including passenger baggage), (3) aircraft servicing, and (4)
688 facility support and utility functions. Consequently, good terminal design requires a layout that locates
689 the various components in a sequence or pattern that reflects the natural movement and services each
690 requires, and those activities and operations that functionally depend on each other. Such a design
691 minimizes passenger walking distances, airline servicing and processing times, and congestion that can
692 be caused by the convergence of unrelated activities.

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697 5.4.1 Airside Components

698 Airside terminal facilities (see **Figure 5-1**) primarily include the area and facilities required to
 699 accommodate aircraft parking and aircraft support and servicing operations. They include:

- 700
- 701 • Terminal gates or “contact” parking positions – this portion of the apron is used for parking
 702 aircraft to enplane and deplane passengers via passenger boarding bridges (PBB) that are part of
 the gate position and connected to the terminal building.
 - 703 • Remote aircraft parking positions – used for parking aircraft to enplane and deplane passengers;
 704 passengers are transferred from the terminal to the aircraft (or vice versa) via bus or other
 705 passenger transport vehicle, secure pedestrian walkway, or simply by walking to the aircraft.
 - 706 • Aircraft deicing positions – deicing operations can be conducted at the terminal gate, in a
 707 position pushed back from the gate, at a remote location (i.e. a hardstand) or on a dedicated
 708 aircraft deicing apron. Dedicated areas accommodate the aircraft and typically have space
 709 available for the staging of deicing equipment for efficient and safe operations and also have a
 710 system to recapture deicing fluid overspray on the ground (e.g. trench drains, glycol recovery
 711 vehicles, etc.).

- 712 • Aircraft service areas – on or adjacent to the aircraft parking position used by service personnel
713 for servicing aircraft and for the staging of baggage, freight, and other ground service equipment
714 (GSE) for loading and unloading the aircraft.
- 715 • Taxilanes – portion of the apron area that provides taxiing aircraft with access between airfield
716 elements (e.g., taxiway and runway) and aircraft parking positions.
- 717 • Aircraft maneuvering and pushback areas and necessary wingtip clearances.
- 718 • Service/security/and emergency response areas – reserved areas or rights-of-ways for hydrant
719 fueling systems, GSE and emergency response vehicles, fire suppression devices, maneuvering,
720 staging and storage, security, and blast fences.
- 721 • Vehicle Service roads – enable the safe movement of vehicles around the airfield minimizing
722 interaction with aircraft.
- 723 • Other equipment - aircraft waste dump/triturator station, electric vehicle charging stations, etc.

724 The airside’s large spatial requirements and fixed requirements for aircraft wingtip separations and
725 maneuvering clearances typically drive the layout of the terminal complex more than either the
726 passenger processing requirements within the terminal building, or its adjacent landside components.
727 For most terminal planning and design projects, it is important from the outset to formulate solutions
728 based on the airside component. This requires identifying gate requirements and locating aircraft
729 parking positions and their supporting taxilanes so that the overall efficiency of the airfield is optimized
730 prior to planning the internal layout of the terminal building and the landside curb and terminal
731 roadway systems.

732 5.4.2 Terminal Components

733 Terminal components (see **Figure 5-1**) include two main elements – the terminal “processor” and the
734 terminal concourse. The terminal processor typically includes these components:

- 735 • Public circulation and lobbies – public areas for passenger circulation, services, and
736 passenger/visitor waiting; also can include areas for general circulation which include stairways,
737 escalators, elevators, and corridors.
- 738 • Passenger check-in – areas used for ticket transactions, baggage check-in, flight information,
739 and space for airline administrative functions.
- 740 • Security screening – a control point for passenger and carry-on baggage inspection, and
741 controlling public access to sterile areas of the terminal. This area also typically includes offices
742 and support areas for administration, security staff, airport police and emergency response
743 staff. Checkpoints are typically situated after the passenger check-in/ticketing lobby. However,
744 some facilities have “front-of-house” security screening checkpoints, where airport users must
745 clear security prior to entering the building.
- 746 • Federal Inspection Services (FIS) – a control point for processing passengers arriving on
747 international flights.
- 748 • Baggage processing – a nonpublic area for sorting, processing, and screening baggage for
749 departing flights and baggage transfers from one flight to another.
- 750 • Inbound baggage facility – divided by a nonpublic area for receiving and sorting baggage from
751 arriving flights, and public areas for baggage pickup by arriving passengers (e.g., baggage claim)
752 and airline baggage service offices.

- 753 • Other tenant space – areas reserved for ground operators, rental car agencies, United Service
754 Organizations (USO), etc.

755 In a simplified definition, the terminal concourse is essentially a passageway between the terminal
756 processor and the aircraft gates. However, the concourse is the area of the terminal complex where
757 passengers spend the majority of their time. The following elements typically comprise the terminal
758 concourse:

- 759 • Passenger boarding bridge – the structure(s) and/or facilities normally located between the
760 aircraft gate position and the concourse structure, enabling the enplaning and deplaning of
761 passengers.
- 762 • Departure lounge – an area for assembling and holding passengers prior to a flight departure.
- 763 • Circulation corridors – public areas that facilitate the movement of passengers from the
764 terminal processor to the departure lounge; the area and movement of passengers can often be
765 facilitated via moving walkways, elevators, escalators, or people movers.

766 The following elements can be located in both the terminal processor and the concourse:

- 767 • Airline operational areas – areas set aside for airline personnel, equipment, and servicing
768 activities related to aircraft arrivals and departures.
- 769 • Passenger amenities – areas normally provided in both the terminal processor and concourse,
770 particularly at larger airports. These amenities can include restrooms, concessions such as food
771 and beverage and news/gift shops, airline lounges, children’s play areas, pet relief areas, etc.
- 772 • Building maintenance and utilities – areas reserved for terminal building maintenance and
773 janitorial functions, mechanical, electrical and plumbing (MEP) systems, information technology
774 storage, etc.
- 775 • Terminal services – facilities, both public and nonpublic, which provide services incidental to
776 aircraft flight operations, including food preparation and storage, truck service docks, and
777 miscellaneous storage.
- 778 • Airport administration and services – areas dedicated to airport management, operations, and
779 maintenance functions.

780 5.4.3 Landside Components

781 Landside terminal components (see **Figure 5-1**) primarily include the facilities and space required to
782 enable ground ingress and egress to and from the airport terminal facility. These include:

- 783 • Curbside – platforms and curb areas (including median strips) which provide passengers and
784 visitors with vehicle loading and unloading areas adjacent to the terminal processor; includes
785 areas reserved for both private and commercial vehicles.
- 786 • Pedestrian walkways – designated lanes and walkways for crossing airport roads, including
787 tunnels and bridges which provide access between curbs, auto parking areas and the terminal.
- 788 • Automobile parking – short- and long-term parking for passengers, visitors, employees, and
789 rental car concessionaires; can also include quick-stop cell phone lots for vehicles awaiting
790 passenger arrivals and staging areas for taxis and rideshare vehicles.
- 791 • Access roadways – vehicular roadways providing access to the terminal curb, public and
792 employee parking, and to the regional roadway/highway system.

- 793
- 794
- Rail and transit right of ways – access corridors that provide access to and from the terminal facility, airport parking, and associated airport facilities.
- 795
- Airport service roads – public and nonpublic roadways and fire lanes providing access to other elements of the terminal complex and other airport facilities, such as air freight, fuel facilities, taxi/limo, airport-related commercial development (e.g., airport hotel or gas stations), and security/maintenance areas.
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799 5.5 Terminal Concepts and Configurations

800 Four basic terminal concepts are illustrated in **Figure 5-2** and described in the following sections. These

801 concepts primarily differ in the way passengers move from the terminal processor to the aircraft gates.

802 Specific dynamics of each include overall size, physical space and land configuration, as well as cost to

803 operate. Although the following discussion focuses on the four basic concepts, many existing and

804 planned airport terminals represent a “hybrid concept” where multiple combinations are utilized. The

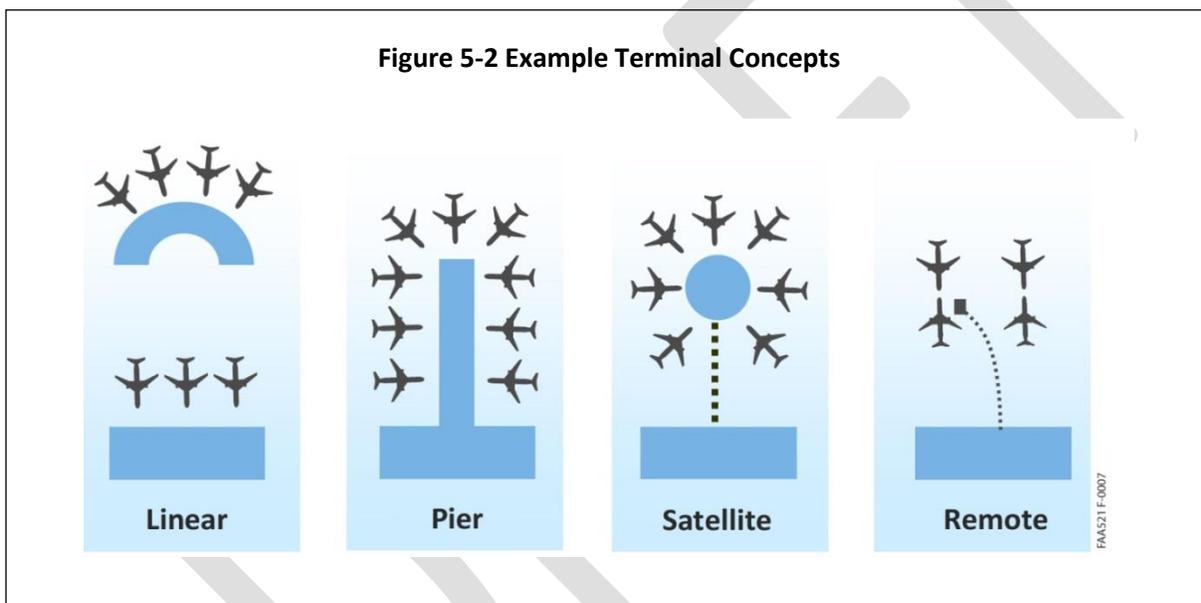
805 planning team would typically begin exploring the various concepts once the sizes of the functional

806 components are determined and as they look at the realities of the building site and what fits. Efficiency

807 in the operation of the terminal complex is an overarching concept at this stage of the process.

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809



812 5.5.1 Linear Terminal Concept

813 Linear terminals are long buildings with aircraft parked perpendicularly along the airside face of the

814 main terminal processor. There is expansion potential to either side, with the length primarily driven by

815 the number of gates and their sizing requirements, but limited by walking distances. Typically, a

816 concourse may be located parallel to or within the terminal face nearest the apron, with access to the

817 terminal and aircraft gate positions at regular intervals. Linear terminal concepts provide easy

818 passenger orientation, close-in public parking, long curb frontage, and flexible gate assignments (when

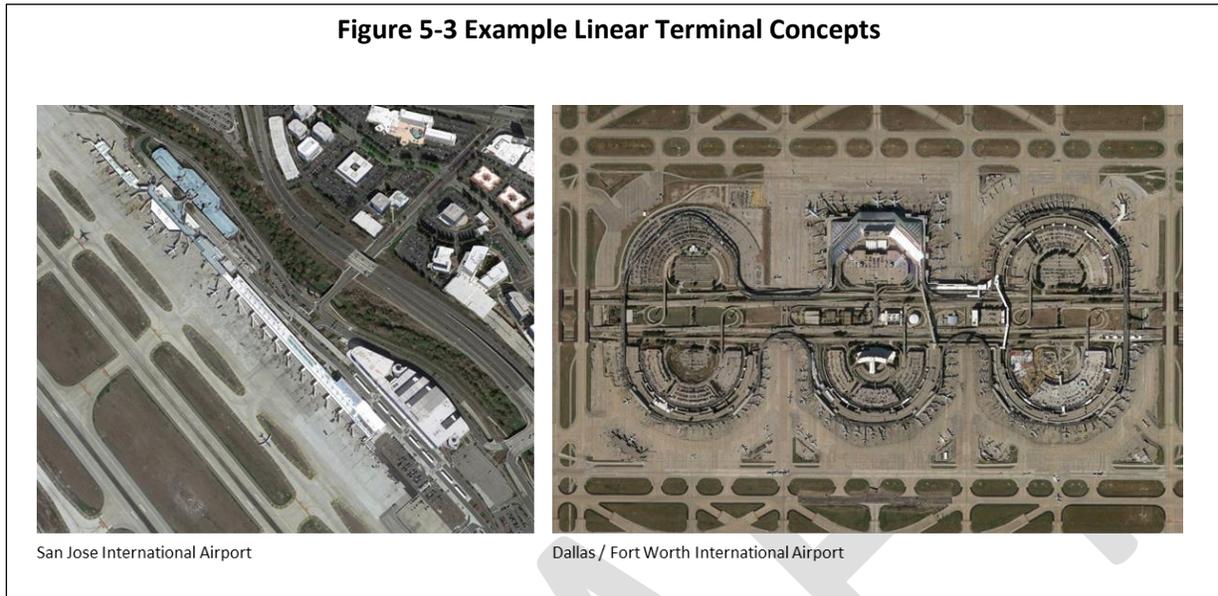
819 module width is adequate). The layout usually minimizes walking distances for originating and

820 terminating passengers, but not necessarily for connecting passengers.

821 With the advent of security checkpoints, the linear concept lost one of its main advantages – easy access
822 and relatively short curb-to-gate walking distances for originating and/or terminating passengers. It is,
823 however, still ideal for certain airports, primarily smaller terminal facilities serving largely O&D activity.

824 Airports with linear terminal concepts include San Jose and Dallas-Fort Worth international airports. See
825 **Figure 5-3.**

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831 5.5.2 Pier Concept

832 In the pier concept aircraft are parked along piers or concourses extending from the terminal processor.
833 Access to the terminal processor is provided at the base of the concourse or pier. Piers can have various
834 shapes and aircraft can use both sides of the piers. Aircraft are usually arranged around the axis of the
835 pier in a perpendicular nose-in position. Each pier typically has rows of aircraft gate positions on one or
836 both sides, with circulation space running along the axis of the pier for enplaning and deplaning
837 passengers.

838 In situations where available land is constrained, pier concepts utilize space efficiently although they
839 may also cause longer passenger walking distances, potential conflicting passenger movements between
840 arriving and departing passengers, and limited curbside space. However, the evolving downsizing of
841 passenger processing space and the inherent efficiency of double-loaded concourses result in the pier
842 configuration having relatively efficient terminal layouts.

843 Examples of pier concepts are found at La Guardia International, Washington Reagan National, Miami
844 International, and Phoenix-Sky Harbor International airports. See **Figure 5-4**.

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Figure 5-4 Example Pier Terminal Concepts



Miami International Airport



New York LaGuardia International Airport

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850 5.5.3 Satellite Concept

851 The satellite concept consists of a concourse (or concourses) and aircraft gates that are physically
852 located apart from the main terminal processor. Since enplaning and deplaning of the aircraft is
853 accomplished remote from the processor, satellite concepts require some type of connection between
854 the concourse and terminal processor for the movement of passengers, baggage, and other materials.
855 This connection can be accomplished via surface (e.g., busses, bridges, or Automated People Movers
856 (APM)), underground (e.g. tunnel), or above-grade connections (e.g. bridge or APM). The provision of
857 underground facilities for mechanical conveyance systems to move passengers, baggage, and other
858 materials can add significant costs to the concept. On the other hand, the movement of passengers,
859 baggage, and other goods via surface or above grade means can complicate and hinder the movement
860 of aircraft and other vehicles on the airside.

861 The satellite concept provides good space utilization and is compatible with airports that have a high
862 percentage of connecting traffic. Connecting operations do not require landside facilities, and therefore
863 less passenger processing and curbside facilities are needed. However, satellite concepts can be
864 inconvenient for connecting passengers who must connect between multiple satellites; and curbside
865 congestion can also be a problem if the balance of O&D and connecting passengers is not properly taken
866 into consideration.

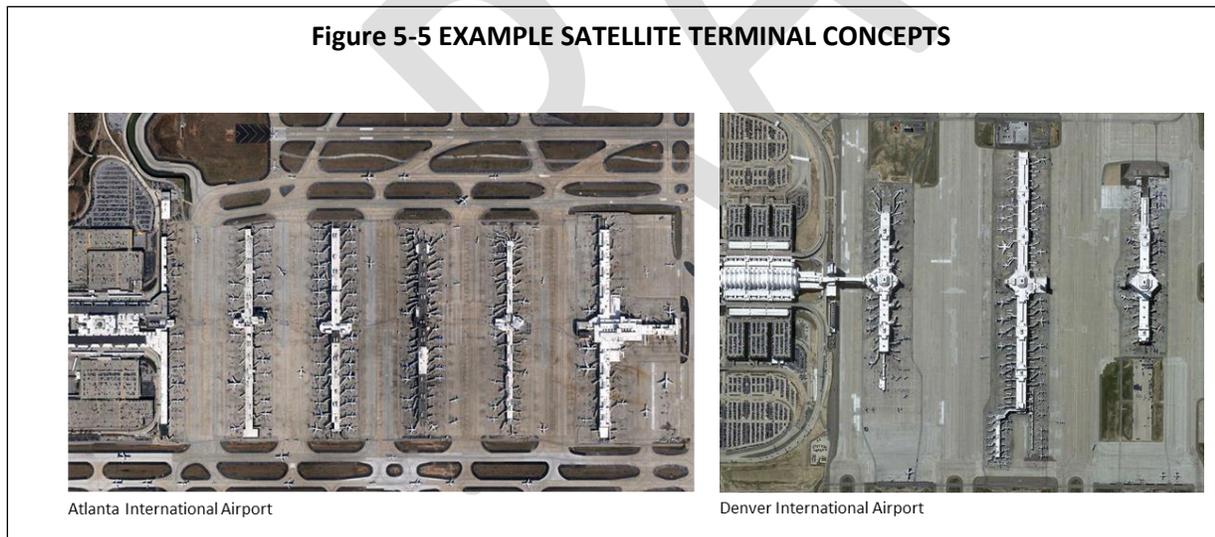
867 Satellite concourses are also typically associated with higher operating and maintenance costs because
868 redundant functions and facilities are required in both the terminal processor and auxiliary satellites
869 (e.g., concessions, airline office space), and because of the physical distance between the processor and
870 concourses. Satellite configurations also tend to be less intuitive with regard to wayfinding, which can
871 challenge less experienced travelers.

872 Airports with satellite terminal concepts include Hartsfield-Jackson Atlanta International, Denver
873 International, and Chicago O'Hare international airports. See **Figure 5-5**.

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Figure 5-5 EXAMPLE SATELLITE TERMINAL CONCEPTS



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879 5.5.4 Remote Concept

880 In the remote concept, aircraft and aircraft-servicing functions are accommodated in a remote location
881 whereby the aircraft is not “connected” to a physical terminal or concourse. The connection between
882 the aircraft and the terminal is provided by vehicular transport for enplaning and deplaning passengers,
883 baggage, and other goods and personnel. Although this concept is common in European and South
884 American airports, the use of the remote concept in the United States is fairly uncommon. The original
885 remote concept envisioned the use of the transporter vehicle as the departure lounge although the
886 common application today is a busing operation.

887 This concept provides a lower level of passenger service than the linear, pier, and satellite terminal
888 concepts. However, the remote concept can be employed in conjunction with another terminal concept
889 to increase short-term/temporary or permanent aircraft parking capacity. Due to the inherent reduced
890 concourse requirements of the remote concept, it does result in an efficient terminal area configuration.
891 The increased operating costs of the remote concept can, however, overshadow efficiencies provided by
892 a smaller terminal facility.

893 5.5.5 Centralized and Decentralized Terminals

894 The main terminal processor for each of the above configurations may either be centralized or
895 decentralized, depending upon how the concourse connector is extended or linked to the terminal
896 processor. In a centralized concept, there is a single main terminal processor that accommodates all
897 passengers, baggage, security, and other “processing”-related activities. In a decentralized concept,
898 there are multiple terminal processors, often one serving each concourse, pier, or satellite concourse.
899 Often a dominant carrier at an airport will dictate a multiple processor configuration to allow
900 independent control of their facilities and operations. A significant international operation at an airport
901 may also be a driver for a separate terminal due to the unique requirements and facility demands of
902 international travel. However, changes in pre-clearance alternatives are beginning to blur the line
903 between domestic and international operations at some airports and should be considered when
904 planning for international operations. Multiple terminal facilities may present long-term challenges for
905 the airport in that they are inherently less efficient due to the redundancy of space and functions, and
906 lack of flexibility for airlines to grow, downsize, or relocate within the terminal complex.

907 5.6 **Terminal Siting Considerations**

908 In the case of a new airport or major airport redevelopment, the determination of a new terminal site
909 may be necessary or desirable. There are a number of basic considerations which will affect the
910 ultimate terminal site selection:

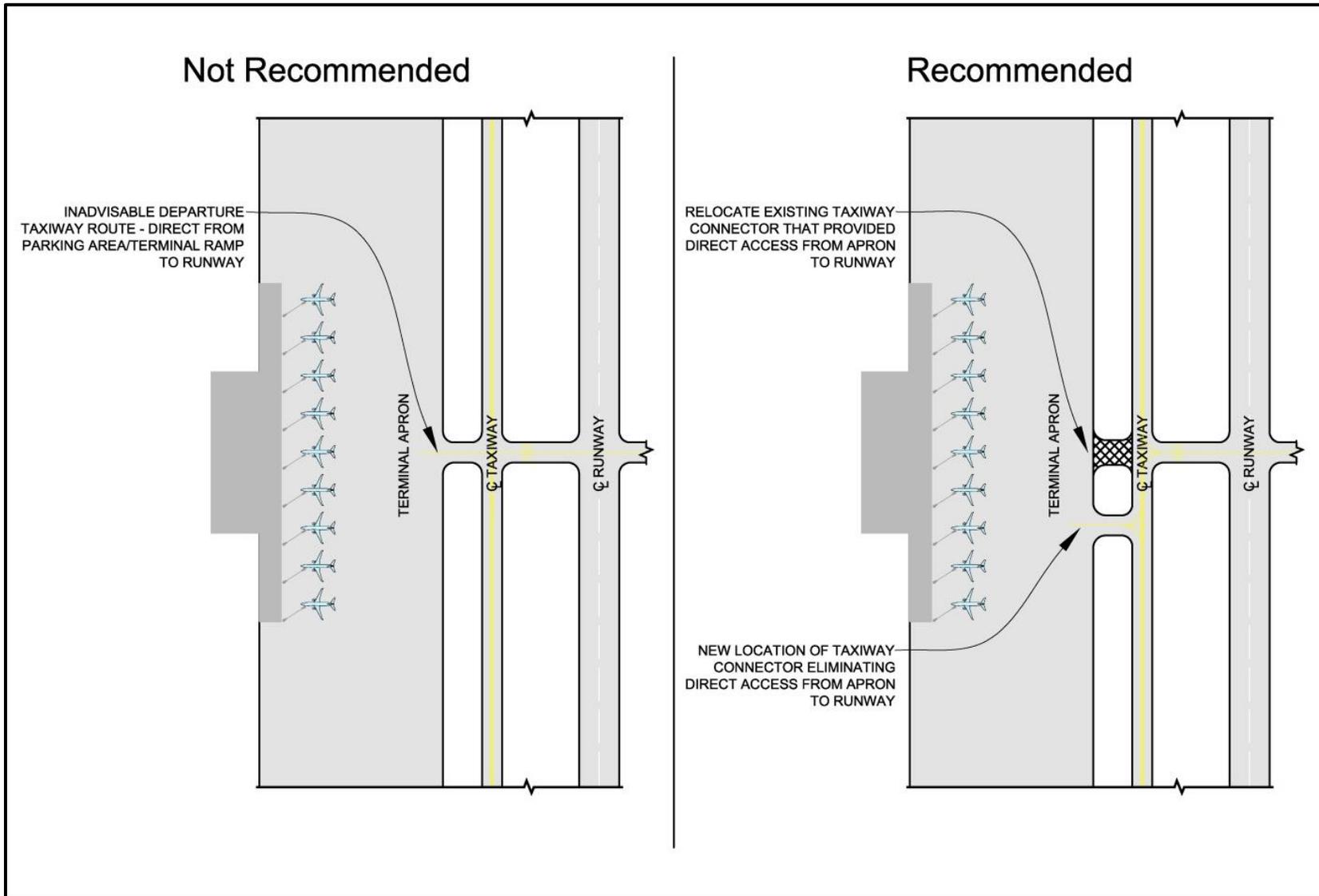
- 911 • **Runway Configuration.** The runway configuration at an airport has a significant impact on the
912 location of the apron-terminal complex. The terminal site should be located to minimize aircraft
913 taxiing distances and active runway crossings. In general, it is most practical to locate the
914 terminal centrally with respect to the primary runway(s). At airports with more complex runway
915 configurations, siting may require detailed analyses to determine runway use, predominant
916 landing and takeoff directions, location and configuration of existing taxiways, and the most
917 efficient taxiway routings. The runway configuration may also restrict ground access to certain
918 areas of the airport and thus limit alternative terminal sites.
- 919 • **Airfield Access.** Another critical consideration in the siting of terminal facilities is the layout of
920 terminal aprons and access taxilanes or taxiways. While, minimizing taxi distances is desirable,

921 safety considerations are of the utmost importance. It is important to apply recommended
922 airfield design standards to reduce the probability of runway incursions. See **Figure 5-3** for an
923 example of proper and improper taxiway design. The example provided is per guidance in FAA
924 [AC 150/5300-13, Airport Design](#), which contains additional examples, rationale and guidance on
925 taxiway and taxiway Design.

- 926 • FAA Geometric Design Standards and Airspace. Terminal facilities require a location which will
927 assure adequate distances from present and future aircraft operational areas in order to satisfy
928 FAA airport geometric design standards and remain clear of imaginary airspace surfaces. These
929 standards include such minimum separation distances as those between a runway centerline
930 and aircraft parking aprons, buildings, and airport property lines; and those between a taxiway
931 centerline and fixed/movable objects and other taxiways. Refer to [AC 150/5300-13, Airport
932 Design](#) for information on FAA airport geometric design standards, and [14 CFR Part 77 - Safe,
933 Efficient Use, and Preservation Of The Navigable Airspace](#) and [United States Standard for
934 Terminal Instrument Procedures \(TERPS\)](#) for information on airport imaginary surfaces.
- 935 • Access to Highway Network. The passenger terminal should be located, when possible, to
936 provide the most direct/shortest routing to the access transportation system (s).
- 937 • Expansion Potential. Whether the initiative is an expansion project or the development of a
938 new terminal, the terminal layout should be developed with flexibility in mind and provide
939 reasonable allowances for growth and changes in operation beyond forecasted needs.
- 940 • Existing and Planned Facilities. Existing and planned structures and utilities should be carefully
941 inventoried and taken into account when planning new or expanded terminal facilities. In all
942 cases, existing or planned locations of a FAA control tower, navigational aids, weather
943 equipment, etc., should be analyzed to ensure that terminal development will not interfere with
944 line-of-sight or other operational restrictions associated with these facilities.
- 945 • Terrain. Topographical conditions and the site's relation to the areas prone to flooding should
946 be considered in the selection of a terminal building site.

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Figure 5-3 Examples of Non Recommended and Recommended Taxiway Design (per AC 150/5300-13)



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963 **CHAPTER 6. TERMINAL BUILDING SPACE PROGRAMMING**964 6.1 **General**

965 This chapter provides guidance on the process of terminal building space programming. Programming
966 defines the overall terminal size as well as the size of individual terminal components necessary to meet
967 projected activity levels. Terminal space programs can be developed for a variety of project types,
968 ranging from high-level strategic plans to more detailed design of new or expanded facilities, with the
969 level of detail dictated by the required outcome. Terminal building space programming is addressed
970 following the development of the forecast and related facility requirements.

971 6.2 **Level of Service**

972 Level of Service (LOS) is defined as a qualitative and quantitative measurement of comfort experienced
973 by passengers using the airport terminal facility. LOS is a key parameter to address at the onset of the
974 spatial programming process. LOS is typically rated on a six-point scale of A through F, excellent to
975 unacceptable, based on a number of factors. The LOS of each element of a terminal facility can vary
976 depending on the level of crowding and/or processing time that is considered acceptable, walking
977 distances, or other factors. A terminal should be designed to maintain a certain LOS, even during the
978 peak periods of the day. The choice of what LOS goal to use for a facility is a balance or compromise
979 between customer service, cost and available space. Some factors that influence LOS for terminal
980 planning include passenger queuing space, crowding, personal space requirements related to cultural
981 considerations, climate, target maximum queue times, average number of bags per passenger, and
982 linear baggage claim frontage.

983 Guidance on LOS and accepted industry standards for LOS can be found in the following resources:

- 984 • [ACRP Report 55, Passenger Level of Service and Spatial Planning for Airport Terminals](#)
- 985 • [ACRP Report 25, Airport Passenger Terminal Planning and Design](#)
- 986 • [IATA, Airport Development Reference Manual](#)

987 6.3 **Gross Terminal Area Estimates**

988 Gross terminal area estimates are appropriate early in the planning process to determine orders of
989 magnitude and sizing of key terminal components. Estimating generalized, gross terminal building sizes
990 can be accomplished using the following methodologies:

- 991 • Benchmarking other terminal facilities with similar functions, passenger activity levels, and
992 passenger demographics (e.g., a high percentage of international or connecting passengers).
- 993 • Calculating ratios based on demand and capacity (e.g., overall terminal area per required units
994 such as gates and passengers).
- 995 • Estimating seat capacity per gate using equivalent aircraft (EQA) factors.

996 Guidance for the above calculations can be found in the following resources:

- 997 • [ACRP Report 25, Airport Passenger Terminal Planning and Design](#)
- 998 • [IATA, Airport Development Reference Manual](#)

999 6.4 **Terminal Building Space Allocation**

1000 A planning level terminal building space program should focus on the individual functional areas and
1001 terminal components identified in Chapter 5, *Functional Relationships and Terminal Concepts*. When
1002 developing a space program it is important to consider inputs from a variety of stakeholders, including
1003 airlines and tenants, FAA, and other users. Ultimately, however, the level of stakeholder engagement is
1004 at the discretion of the airport owner/operator.

1005 The following sections describe major functional components, key variables and necessary inputs, and
1006 industry-accepted resources to calculate space requirements. Supporting areas, such as structural or
1007 mechanical systems are also briefly discussed herein, but these areas are generally identified and
1008 planned in later phases of design.

1009 6.4.1 Check-in Lobby

1010 The check-in lobby is historically where departing passengers check-in for a flight, drop off checked
1011 baggage, and obtain boarding passes and other information for the flight. Traditionally, check-in lobbies
1012 were designed to be grand public spaces – the “front door” of an important public facility. Until around
1013 2001, most check-in lobbies were long, linear spaces with large areas reserved for airline ticket counters,
1014 passenger queuing and waiting, airline ticket office space, and supporting areas such as restrooms and
1015 concessions.

1016 Technology and evolved security requirements have significantly changed the way passengers use the
1017 check-in lobby, which has impacted space requirements. First, the advent of self-service check-in and
1018 baggage drop kiosks allows passengers to bypass the traditional check-in counters, as well as allows the
1019 check-in process to take place anywhere inside or outside the terminal building, such as the curb or
1020 parking garage. In addition, home computers and personal electronic devices allow passengers to
1021 check-in off-airport. Interactions with airline personnel are now largely reserved to drop off bags or to
1022 resolve problems. The result is a significant change in passenger and airline approaches to the check-in
1023 process and potential for reduced space requirements in the lobby. As the check-in process continues
1024 to evolve, airline processes and airport policy are likely to create more options for the traveler, some of
1025 which may result in the need for less building space allocated to the check-in lobby.

1026 The primary components that comprise the check-in lobby are:

- 1027 • Curbside check-in/baggage drop – a location outside of the terminal building, typically along the
1028 departure curbside, where passengers can perform the check-in and baggage drop function
1029 before entering the building.
- 1030 • Lobby check-in/baggage drop – a location or zone inside the terminal building where passengers
1031 can perform the check-in and baggage drop function either via a self-serve kiosk or traditional
1032 airline counter; the area can be a single consolidated space or divided into segments by function
1033 (e.g., for boarding passes only or traditional check-in with an agent) or passenger classification
1034 (e.g., first class, economy, etc.); typically this area also includes airline office space.
- 1035 • Passenger queuing – areas designated for passengers waiting to check in or check baggage
1036 either via self-serve kiosk or traditional airline counters.
- 1037 • Public circulation – open areas from the entry vestibules to the check-in zones and from the
1038 check-in zones to the security checkpoints that allow passengers and others to efficiently move
1039 throughout the lobby, as well as vertical circulation between levels and life safety egress.

1040 • Concessions –concessions space is warranted in the check-in lobby area to provide access to
 1041 basic needs such as food and beverages and news/gifts for passengers who are delayed, may
 1042 have a long pre-security wait, or are spending time with well-wishers not allowed beyond
 1043 security; concessions also provide basic amenities to airport employees who do not have access
 1044 to post-security areas.

1045 • Support areas – areas allocated for support functions such as restrooms, public seating, public
 1046 information kiosks, and mechanical spaces.

1047 To develop check-in lobby space requirements, key information is required in order to make accurate
 1048 assessments. Each airport and airline situation is different, but there are common variables which
 1049 influence spatial requirements for the check-in lobby.

1050 • Airport environment – are check-in lobby facilities (ticket counters or kiosks) for common use or
 1051 preferential use; is there a single dominant hub airline or are there multiple airlines?

1052 • Patrons and passengers – factors such as the ratio between originating and connecting
 1053 passengers, the characteristics and requirements of passengers who check-in and drop-off
 1054 baggage (e.g., elite airline passengers or passengers requiring assistance, the number of well-
 1055 wishers who see passengers off, earliness arrival profiles, etc.).

1056 • Processing rates objectives – acceptable processing rates, allowable wait times, maximum
 1057 queuing lengths, etc. to meet established level of service parameters; objectives need to be
 1058 balanced against facility and equipment capacities.

1059 • Airline processes – the unique characteristics, equipment, processes, and special requirements
 1060 of individual airline check-in and bag-drop policies.

1061 • Passenger volumes – estimated passenger volumes, typically expressed in peak hour numbers,
 1062 based on forecasted activity levels.

1063 There are a wide variety of methods used to calculate space requirements depending on the level of
 1064 detail required. Resources that provide in-depth explanations and tools to calculate check-in lobby
 1065 space requirements include:

- 1066 • [ACRP Report 25, Airport Passenger Terminal Planning and Design](#)
- 1067 • [ARCP Report 55, Passenger Level of Service and Spatial Planning for Airport Terminals](#)
- 1068 • [ACRP Report 10, Innovations for Airport Terminal Facilities](#)
- 1069 • [ACRP Report 23, Airport Passenger-Related Processing Rates](#)
- 1070 • [IATA, Airport Development Reference Manual](#)

1071 6.4.2 Outbound Baggage Processing

1072 Outbound baggage processing includes the area and equipment required to accommodate, sort,
 1073 security screen, and process checked baggage from the check-in lobby to the aircraft. Outbound
 1074 baggage processing includes the following main components:

1075 • Baggage conveyance system – automated conveyor belts that sort and connect baggage from
 1076 the check-in/drop-off point to the baggage security screening machines, and from the baggage
 1077 screening machines to outbound baggage makeup devices.

1078 • Primary baggage screening area – the area that accommodates screening equipment where all
 1079 bags are initially inspected; cleared bags proceed to outbound baggage make-up devices and

1080 “alarmed” bags (e.g., bags that are determined to contain suspicious contents) are either
1081 rescreened or sent to secondary screening.

1082 • Secondary baggage screening area – the area that accommodates screening equipment where
1083 alarmed bags are manually screened a second time.

1084 • Outbound baggage devices – automated devices that circulate and sort cleared baggage in
1085 preparation to be transported to the aircraft; these devices range from simple flat-plate run-out
1086 belts to sloped plate carousels.

1087 • Staff support areas – area necessary to accommodate baggage screening personnel

1088 Since the September 11, 2001 terrorist attacks and creation of the TSA, it is a federal mandate that all
1089 checked and carry-on baggage be screened. New airport terminals were built and existing terminals
1090 were substantially renovated to meet the new federal guidelines. Given differing passenger volumes
1091 and the complexity of baggage processing infrastructure, the following three variations of the screening
1092 process have been adopted:

1093 • Stand-alone screening – used for small airports where baggage is placed into screening
1094 machines and then onto the outbound processing system by hand.

1095 • Mini-inline systems – used at small to medium-sized airports or constrained terminals where
1096 one or multiple airlines share a single conveyor belt system that feeds a screening machine and
1097 outbound baggage device.

1098 • Fully automated inline system – used at all other airports where multiple conveyor belts feed
1099 outbound baggage into a consolidated screening area with multiple screening machines.

1100 The above screening processes are described in detail in [TSA, Planning Guidelines and Design Standards](#)
1101 [for Checked Baggage Inspection Systems](#).

1102 Individual airlines have different procedures to optimize their operations. Airlines should be consulted
1103 prior to design about space requirements of outbound baggage systems. To determine outbound
1104 baggage processing space requirements, an understanding of the key variables and types of input are
1105 needed. Each airport situation is different, but there are some common variables that influence space
1106 requirements for outbound baggage processing:

1107 • System type – the type of screening process (stand-alone, mini-inline, fully automated inline)
1108 most appropriate for a given airport.

1109 • Passenger baggage characteristics – data pertaining to the percentage of passengers checking
1110 bags, average number of bags per passenger, average traveling party size, etc.

1111 • Processing rate objectives – acceptable conveyance system speeds, screening machines
1112 processing rates, etc. to meet established level of service parameters; objectives need to be
1113 balanced against other facility and equipment capacities, and therefore, coordination between
1114 the airport, TSA, and airlines is paramount.

1115 • Design activity for equipment requirements – the passenger demand level that the baggage
1116 system and screening machines are designed to accommodate, and the equivalent estimated
1117 baggage demand.

1118 • Airline processes – individual airline outbound baggage makeup processes; can be “stacked” cart
1119 staging (parked perpendicular to a baggage belt) or “linear” cart staging (parked parallel to a
1120 baggage belt).

- 1121 • Passenger and baggage volumes – estimated passenger and baggage volumes, typically
1122 expressed in peak hour or numbers or bags per hour, based on forecast activity levels.

1123 There are a range of methods to calculate space requirements depending on the level of detail required.
1124 Resources that provide in-depth explanations and tools to calculate space requirements include:

- 1125 • [TSA, Planning Guidelines and Design Standards for Checked Baggage Inspection Systems](#)
1126 • [ACRP Report 25, Airport Passenger Terminal Planning and Design](#)
1127 • [IATA, Airport Development Reference Manual](#)

1128 6.4.3 Security Screening

1129 Security screening checkpoints are where commercial airline passengers and carry-on baggage are
1130 examined to ensure that illegal or harmful items are not carried onto aircraft. Commercial airports
1131 began to vet passengers through a security screening process beginning in the late 1960s, but it was not
1132 mandated by the FAA until 1973. However, after the September 11, 2001 terrorist attacks the Federal
1133 Government created the TSA to institute more rigorous screening procedures. Security screening
1134 procedures are complex and constantly evolving to address new threats and requirements, such as the
1135 need to screen airport employees and goods coming into the terminal building.

1136 The primary components that comprise the security screening area are:

- 1137 • Queuing area – the area reserved for passengers waiting to enter the screening area; typically
1138 segregated into multiple zones, including the main line (s) for passengers, elite airline
1139 passengers, airport employees, airline crew members.
- 1140 • Document check – location where TSA employees examine a passenger’s boarding pass and
1141 government issued identification to confirm authenticity and allow passengers to proceed to
1142 screening.
- 1143 • Divestiture area – zone where passengers must divest items such as metal objects, electronic
1144 devices, clothing items, and baggage onto a conveyor belt to be screened; also the area where
1145 passengers wait in queue to be screened.
- 1146 • Screening area – location where passengers pass through screening equipment, either via a full
1147 advanced imaging technology (AIT) or magnetometers (private, manual screening is provided
1148 remotely); baggage is screened through advanced technology machines; secondary baggage
1149 screening is located adjacent to the primary screening.
- 1150 • Recomposure area – seating area or vacant space at the end of the screening checkpoint for
1151 passengers to gather and re-pack divested items.
- 1152 • TSA administrative space – areas required to operate and monitor the security screening
1153 equipment located within or directly adjacent to the security screening checkpoints; space for
1154 detention rooms, training rooms, break rooms, and other administrative functions can be
1155 located remotely from the screening checkpoint.

1156 To determine security checkpoint space requirements, an understanding of the key variables and types
1157 of input are needed. Each airport situation is different, but there are some common variables that
1158 influence security checkpoint space requirements:

- 1159 • Location – where the security screening process occurs within the terminal; can be a single
1160 centralized location, or multiple checkpoints throughout the terminal(s).

- 1161 • Characteristics of airline passenger, employees, and tenants – the unique attributes and special
1162 requirements of individuals going through the checkpoint such as airport employees, airline
1163 crew, elite airline passengers versus non-elite passengers who need more time/assistance,
1164 percentage of prescreened passengers, etc.
- 1165 • Policy and regulations – current TSA and/or additional local guidelines and procedures.
- 1166 • Processing rates objectives – acceptable processing rates, allowable wait times, maximum
1167 queuing lengths, etc. to meet established level of service parameters; objectives need to be
1168 balanced against other facility and equipment capacities.
- 1169 • Passenger volumes – estimated passenger volumes, typically expressed in peak hour numbers,
1170 based on forecasted activity levels.

1171 There are a range of methods to calculate space requirements depending on the level of detail required.
1172 Resources that provide in-depth explanations and tools to calculate space requirements include:

- 1173 • [TSA, Checkpoint Design Guide](#)
- 1174 • [ACRP Report 10, Innovations for Airport Terminal Facilities](#)
- 1175 • [ACRP Report 23, Airport Passenger-Related Processing Rates](#)
- 1176 • [ACRP Report 25, Airport Passenger Terminal Planning and Design](#)
- 1177 • [ACRP Report 55, Level of Service and Spatial Planning for Airport Terminals](#)
- 1178 • [IATA, Airport Development Reference Manual](#)

1179 6.4.4 Departure Lounges / Gate Holdrooms

1180 A departure lounge or gate holdroom is where departing passengers wait for and ultimately board
1181 flights. The following are the primary components that comprise a departure lounge:

- 1182 • Waiting area – designated airline-specific space where passengers wait to board a flight. Area
1183 includes seating for passengers.
- 1184 • Airline gate podium and queuing – area where passengers queue and ultimately communicate
1185 with airline representatives regarding flight information.
- 1186 • Boarding and egress corridor – designated area near the gate that is used for queuing of
1187 passengers to board the aircraft, and for passenger egressing from the aircraft when it arrives at
1188 the gate; individual airlines have differing boarding and egress procedures.

1189 Departure lounges are typically sized according to the largest aircraft able to park at the gate being
1190 served. However, not all passengers arrive and wait at the gate prior to boarding a flight. Requirements
1191 are calculated based on a percentage of total passengers who could be at the gate at a given time. In
1192 recent years, airports and airlines have been attempting to minimize capital expenditures and operating
1193 costs. Space requirements for departure lounges are increasingly being determined based on: (a)
1194 assumptions regarding flight schedules, (b) shared space among adjacent gates, and (c) the percentage
1195 of passengers who wait for flights in adjacent concession areas.

1196 To develop departure lounge space requirements, an understanding of the key variables and types of
1197 input are needed in order to make accurate assessments. Each airport and airline situation is different,
1198 but there are common variables that influence spatial requirements for departure lounges:

- 1199 • Passenger volumes or aircraft types serving the gate holdrooms – estimated passenger volumes
1200 based on forecast activity levels or passenger loads from defined aircraft types serving the
1201 gate(s).

1202 • Airport or airline characteristics – airport policy applications (e.g., designated versus common
 1203 use gates) and unique boarding processes for the airlines projected to use the departure
 1204 lounges, and the physical footprint of the terminal building relative to gate location.

1205 • Processing rates objectives – acceptable processing rates, allowable wait times, etc., to meet
 1206 established level of service parameters.

1207 There are a range of methods to calculate space requirements depending on the level of detail required.

1208 Resources that provide in-depth explanations and tools to calculate space requirements include the
 1209 following:

1210 • [ACRP Report 25, Airport Passenger Terminal Planning and Design](#)

1211 • [IATA, Airport Development Reference Manual](#)

1212 6.4.5 Concessions

1213 Airport concessions are an important component in terminal space programs. The following are primary
 1214 concessions areas to be considered when developing space program requirements:

1215 • Leased space – areas leased by the concessionaire, including: (a) the space where patrons
 1216 consume food and beverages or shops for retail items, (b) food and beverage serving space or
 1217 retail shelf space, and (c) close-in, “back-of-house” preparation and/or storage space.

1218 • Duty free – retail areas exclusively reserved for departing international passengers where
 1219 certain goods can be purchased exempt of local and national taxes.

1220 • Decentralized in-terminal storage space – remote storage or food preparation areas leased by
 1221 the concessionaires to serve the primary leased space; the area can be located throughout the
 1222 terminal or near concessions nodes.

1223 • Centralized remote storage space – a centralized commissary, usually away from the terminal
 1224 that receives and stores incoming goods, and delivers the goods to the terminal locations on a
 1225 regularly scheduled basis; the areas are typically leased and operated by a third party logistics
 1226 provider.

1227 • Parking and access – employee conveyance, access, and parking need to be considered to
 1228 support concessions operations.

1229 • Loading dock – area where deliveries of concessions goods and other deliveries are unloaded
 1230 from trucks; this area can be in-terminal or at a remote location such as the “centralized remote
 1231 storage area” noted above.

1232 • Waste collection and removal – area dedicated to the collection and removal of trash, recycling,
 1233 compost, etc., from tenant spaces or the collective concessions’ tenant location, including back-
 1234 of-house non-public circulation to support this function.

1235 To develop concessions space requirements, an understanding of key variables is needed to make
 1236 accurate calculations and assessments. Although every airport situation is unique, there are some
 1237 common variables that influence the determination of space requirements:

1238 • Passenger volumes – estimated passenger volumes based on forecast activity levels, typically
 1239 expressed in annual or peak hour passengers; in general, higher passenger volumes can justify
 1240 more diversity in offerings.

- 1241 • Terminal geometry – the terminal layout that dictates the general flow of passengers between
1242 the check-in lobby and departure lounges; particular attention should be paid to location of the
1243 security checkpoint(s).
- 1244 • Split between pre- vs. post-security – the allocation of concessions between pre-security and
1245 post-security areas, depending on the terminal layout and other airport and passenger
1246 characteristics.
- 1247 • Patron types –passenger characteristics, including the numbers of business and leisure travelers,
1248 originating and connecting passengers, domestic and international passengers, etc.
- 1249 • Exposure – the physical location of concessions areas, e.g., directly adjacent to the security
1250 checkpoint(s), in a centralized concession node, or in a concourse among the departure lounges.
- 1251 • Concession types – the allocation of food and beverage concessions versus retail offerings
1252 including specialty retail or duty free retail.
- 1253 • Centralized or decentralized storage – dependent on an airport’s leasing agreements with a
1254 single or multiple concessionaires and policy regarding movement of goods through public vs.
1255 non-public areas.
- 1256 • Support space allocation – amount of space required to support concession operations including
1257 back-of-house non-public circulation to support this function; can vary depending on centralized
1258 or decentralized locations.
- 1259 Advertising and revenue generating signage should also be considered in the planning process in order
1260 to maximize revenue opportunities.

1261 There are a range of methods depending on the level of detail required. Resources that provide in-
1262 depth explanations and tools to calculate concession space requirements include the following:

- 1263 • [ACRP Report 25, Airport Passenger Terminal Planning and Design](#)
- 1264 • [ACRP Report 54, Resource Manual for Airport In-Terminal Concessions](#)
- 1265 • [IATA, Airport Development Reference Manual](#)

1266 6.4.6 Baggage Claim / Inbound Baggage Processing

1267 Baggage claim, or inbound baggage processing, includes the facilities and area required for arriving
1268 passengers to reclaim checked baggage. Baggage claim is also typically the area reserved for meeters
1269 and greeters, and where most passengers end the flight/aviation portion of their journey. Therefore, in
1270 addition to baggage claim devices and airline offices, baggage claim areas traditionally include city and
1271 transportation information, rental car counters, concessions space, and support areas such as restrooms
1272 and mechanical spaces.

1273 Baggage claim areas are provided in both domestic and international terminals. This section is focused
1274 on domestic baggage claim, while international baggage claim is discussed under Customs and Border
1275 Protection Facilities. Baggage claim and inbound baggage processing includes the following primary
1276 components:

- 1277 • Inbound baggage drop off – non-public areas where airline personnel place deplaned baggage
1278 onto conveyor belts that feed into the baggage claim devices
- 1279 • Baggage claim hall – general term for the area encompassing the baggage claim devices,
1280 circulation, and other support functions, such as public seating, baggage carts, ground
1281 transportation concessionaires, customer support, etc.
- 1282 • Baggage conveyance and delivery devices – devices that move and circulate deplaned passenger
1283 baggage for reclaiming.
- 1284 • Baggage service office – airline office space to assist passengers with lost baggage; also an area
1285 where airlines store unclaimed bags.

1286 To develop inbound baggage processing space requirements an understanding of key variables and
1287 types of input is needed. Some common variables which influence space requirements for inbound
1288 baggage processing are:

- 1289 • Baggage claim device type – flat plate or sloped plate devices; the latter has more baggage
1290 handling capacity and requires fewer carousels.
- 1291 • Baggage claim device usage/allocation – airline claim for device usage (e.g., preferential versus
1292 common use); the latter is more efficient because of sharing between airlines.
- 1293 • Passenger baggage characteristics – the percentage of passengers checking bags, average
1294 number of bags per passenger, and average traveling party size.
- 1295 • Processing rates objectives – acceptable conveyance system and claim device speeds, allowable
1296 wait times, etc. to meet established level of service parameters; objectives need to be balanced
1297 against other facility and equipment capacities.
- 1298 • Design activity for equipment requirements – a year linked to a passenger demand level that the
1299 baggage system and machines are designed to accommodate.

- 1300 • Passenger and baggage volumes – estimated passenger and baggage volumes, typically
1301 expressed in peak period or numbers of bags per hour, based on forecast activity levels.

1302 There are a range of methods to calculate space requirements depending on the level of detail required.
1303 Resources that provide in-depth explanations and tools to calculate space requirements include:

- 1304 • [ACRP Report 10, *Innovations for Airport Terminal Facilities*](#)
1305 • [ACRP Report 25, *Airport Passenger Terminal Planning and Design*](#)

1306 6.4.7 Customs and Border Protection Facilities

1307 The U.S. CBP operates Federal Inspection Stations (FIS), where arriving international passengers and
1308 their baggage are inspected to allow clearance into the United States. These facilities are commonly
1309 referred to as FIS facilities, and are only located in terminals that serve arriving international passengers.
1310 It is a sterile area and physically separated from arriving domestic passengers.

1311 The primary components of an FIS are:

- 1312 • Sterile corridor – circulation area used by arriving international passengers that connects the
1313 PBB to the FIS facility; the area is separated from the sterile public area of the terminal where
1314 passengers on domestic flights enplane and deplane.
- 1315 • Primary processing – a first inspection point where federal representatives authenticate the
1316 identity of arriving international passengers; the area is split into two queuing and processing
1317 zones, one for United States citizens and one for foreign nationals.
- 1318 • Baggage claim – area where arriving international passengers reclaim checked baggage.
- 1319 • Recheck facilities – check-in area adjacent to the FIS facilities where arriving international
1320 passengers can check-in or drop-off bag(s) for connecting domestic flights.
- 1321 • Secondary processing – additional inspection point at the exit of the baggage claim for issues
1322 that arise with passports/visas, baggage inspections, or interview and personal searches.
- 1323 • Administrative areas – space for CBP administrative functions including offices, monitoring
1324 rooms, interrogation rooms, private inspection rooms, equipment storage areas, waste or
1325 contraband disposal rooms, quarantine facilities, etc.
- 1326 • Public area – reserved area located at the exit of the FIS facility for meeters and greeters.

1327 CBP classifies airports into the following four categories:

- 1328 • Small airports – less than 800 arriving international passengers per hour.
1329 • Low volume mid-size airports – 800 to 1,400 arriving international passengers per hour.
1330 • High volume mid-size airports – 1,400 to 2,000 arriving international passengers per hour.
1331 • Large airports – 2,000 or more arriving international passengers per hour.

1332 This classification is a key variable in determining space requirements because passenger volumes
1333 determine staffing priorities. At smaller airports, not all functions may be needed, which can reduce the
1334 space program. In some cases, airports may implement a “swing gate” whereby the gate may be used
1335 for domestic or international arrivals by alternating the separation component. Airport operators
1336 should be proactive with CBP involvement when planning international arrivals facilities. The process
1337 that an airport operator should follow from planning through design and construction is delineated in
1338 U.S. CBP, *Airport Technical Design Standards, Passenger Processing Facilities*.

1339 To develop CBP space requirements, an understanding of key variables and types of input is needed.
1340 Each airport situation is different, but some common variables which influence CBP spatial requirements
1341 are:

- 1342 • Volume of and type of international aircraft arrivals and volume of passengers – estimated
1343 passenger volumes based on forecast activity levels, typically expressed in the number of peak
1344 hour passengers.
- 1345 • Processing rates objectives – acceptable processing rates, allowable wait times, queuing lengths,
1346 etc., to meet established level of service parameters.
- 1347 • Airline passenger characteristics – the characteristics of passengers processed through the FIS
1348 facility, including number of bags per passenger, percentage of foreign nationals, traveling party
1349 size, etc.
- 1350 • Administrative and operational program requirement inputs from CBP.
- 1351 • Connection to airports with use of preclearance facilities.

1352 Additional resources that provide in-depth explanations and tools to calculate space requirements
1353 include:

- 1354 • [U.S. CBP, Airport Technical Design Standards, Passenger Processing Facilities](#)
- 1355 • [ACRP Report 25, Airport Passenger Terminal Planning and Design](#)
- 1356 • [ACRP Report 10, Innovations for Airport Terminal Facilities](#)

1357 6.4.8 Restrooms

1358 A space program for terminal restrooms must be developed per local building code and Americans with
1359 Disabilities Act (ADA) standards. Additionally, there are number of airport-specific variables that should
1360 also be considered:

- 1361 • Passenger volumes – estimates of passenger volumes in specific terminal areas based on
1362 forecast activity levels, fleet mix, arrival/departure frequency, typically expressed in the number
1363 of peak hour or peak period passengers.
- 1364 • Airport-specific passenger processing and layout – understanding airport specific variables that
1365 define restroom catchment zones, such as the location of the security screening area,
1366 concessions areas, and amount of space dedicated to departure lounges, etc.
- 1367 • Sizing of restrooms and layout – programming adequate space to accommodate ambulatory
1368 travelers and travelers with disabilities (wheelchair-accessible) that have luggage. Consider out-
1369 swinging stall doors, open restroom entryways without doors, touch-free restroom
1370 environments, etc.
- 1371 • Male vs. female allocation – understanding the balance of demand for male and female
1372 restrooms and number and types of bathroom fixtures.
- 1373 • Related restroom facilities – companion and family restrooms, nursing stations separate from
1374 restrooms, baby diaper changing areas, and service animal relief areas (SARA).

1375

1376 For more information on the topic, see the following:

- 1377 • [ADA Standards for Accessible Design](#)

- 1378 • [ACRP Report 130, Guidebook for Airport Terminal Restroom Planning and Design](#)
- 1379 • [ACRP Report 25, Airport Passenger Terminal Planning and Design, Volume 1: Guidebook](#)
- 1380 • [ACRP Synthesis Report 64, Issues Related to Accommodating Animals Traveling Through Airports](#)
- 1381 • [AC 150/5360-14, Access to Airports by Individuals with Disabilities](#)

1382 6.4.9 Tenant and Airport Operations

1383 Airline, tenant, and airport operations areas are leased areas that support the operations and
 1384 management of tenants. In recent years, these entities have been reducing, consolidating, or
 1385 eliminating these areas to reduce operating costs. However, some areas are still required, including:
 1386 (a) office space for management personnel, (b) flight crew facilities, such as lounge/rest areas, and
 1387 (c) storage, and other support areas. Airline-specific input is needed to accurately define and locate
 1388 airline operations space.

1389 Airport operations and administration space is office space reserved for general airport management
 1390 and operations, emergency response, staff medical facilities, security offices, airport police, and other
 1391 similar functions. Other airport tenants such as concessionaires and the TSA may also lease similar
 1392 space depending on airport policy and facility layout. Input from airport management and other
 1393 operators or tenants or private clubroom operators who might use such space is necessary in
 1394 developing space requirements.

1395 Airline clubrooms are tenant spaces provided by airlines to cater to their frequent and elite travelers.
 1396 Typically, clubrooms are found at hub airports or at an airport with a large passenger volume or high-
 1397 yield passengers. At international airports, global airline alliances provide common use clubs for all
 1398 premium passengers within their alliance. Recently, some airports have been developing premium
 1399 lounges, sponsored and operated by a 3rd party, to cater to premium passengers who are not associated
 1400 with an alliance, but still want the experience. It is strongly recommended that airport operators
 1401 engage airline tenants to determine clubroom requirements, which can vary significantly.

1402 6.4.10 Public Amenities

1403 Public amenities are additional areas within the terminal building that facilitate passenger convenience
 1404 and facilitate level of service objectives. These areas may include the following:

- 1405 • Information centers – locations where passengers can ask questions about the airport or the
 1406 local environs; these tend to be booths or kiosks in the baggage claim or check-in lobby.
- 1407 • Computer and phone recharging stations – areas where passengers can recharge electronic
 1408 devices; such stations can be provided by the airport or a third-party operator and are typically
 1409 located near departure lounges.
- 1410 • United Service Organizations (USO) facilities for armed services personnel.
- 1411 • Passenger sanctuaries – non-denominational or interfaith areas within the terminal complex for
 1412 worship, meditation, or to offer passengers refuge.
- 1413 • Smoking facilities – contained indoor and sometimes outdoor areas for smoking.
- 1414 • Wheelchair storage – area where airport staff can store wheelchairs used for escorting
 1415 passengers who need assistance in the terminal.
- 1416 • Luggage carts – storage area for luggage carts usually in the check-in or baggage claim hall,
 1417 generally provided by a third-party operator.

1418 The above are common to all airports; however, the size and location should be determined on a case-
1419 by-case basis and varies depending on terminal and environmental characteristics. Another resource to
1420 define space requirements for public amenities is [ACRP Report 25, Airport Passenger Terminal Planning](#)
1421 [and Design](#).

1422 6.4.11 Building Services

1423 A portion of all terminal buildings is allocated to space is required for building operations and
1424 equipment. Examples include:

- 1425 • Maintenance and storage – areas allocated to airport maintenance staff and storage of
1426 maintenance equipment.
- 1427 • Operations – space allocated to general airport operations, emergency response, staff medical
1428 facilities, security offices, and other similar functions.
- 1429 • Mechanical system rooms– areas allocated to heating ventilation and air conditioning (HVAC)
1430 systems and other infrastructure needed for the building to operate.
- 1431 • Utilities – areas allocated to operate or provide access to major airport utilities, which can
1432 include electrical, technology related infrastructure, communications equipment, plumbing and
1433 many more systems needed for the building to operate.
- 1434 • Structural systems – areas allocated to the structural support of the building; usually 5% of the
1435 terminal’s total gross area.
- 1436 • Life safety egress – facilities allowing for the exit or evacuation of passengers in the terminal
1437 building during an emergency.

1438 The above areas are unique to each airport and should be calculated on a case-by-case basis. See [ACRP](#)
1439 [Report 25, Airport Passenger Terminal Planning and Design](#) for information on defining building services
1440 spatial requirements.

1441 6.4.12 Signage and Wayfinding

1442 Signage and wayfinding is an important airport terminal component that facilitates the movement of
1443 departing passengers from the airport access roadway (or transit system) through the terminal to the
1444 departure lounge; and vice-versa for arriving passengers. However, passenger demographics are
1445 diverse, and can include frequent business travelers, first time travelers, international passengers, aging
1446 passengers and passengers with disabilities. Therefore, it is important that signage and wayfinding is
1447 consistent and reliable throughout the airport, and meets all local and national code compliance
1448 standards.

1449 The following are factors to consider when developing a signage and wayfinding program:

- 1450 • Graphic standards – a uniform visual theme that complies with industry, international standards
1451 and local code is important and should be consistent in appearance, concept, and location;
1452 carefully considering font type, font size, character spacing, and signage illumination for a wide
1453 range of users. Note that it is good practice for temporary and tenant branded signage to be
1454 consistent with airport graphic standards.
- 1455 • Terminology – consistent and easy to understand wording is important.
- 1456 • Spacing – a consistent frequency of signage and placement is a value, considering building
1457 design and passenger flows.

- 1458 • Maintenance and fabrication – materials and site locations should optimize signage
1459 maintenance.
- 1460 • Code compliance – program should accommodate all special requirements, such as ADA
1461 Standards for Accessible design and local building codes.

1462 As a result of technology advances, signage and wayfinding have become more flexible, focused, and
1463 passenger friendly. Signage that used to be static can now be dynamic, meaning that messages
1464 displayed can change depending on requirements. For example, security checkpoint wait times can be
1465 displayed at a central terminal location to inform passengers of the location of the fastest checkpoints.
1466 In addition, mobile technology such as smart phones and tablets provide passengers accessible indoor
1467 maps and the capability to navigate through the entire airport. Such technology will continue to evolve
1468 as a component of the terminal environment. Airport operators should consider and incorporate new
1469 technology into the terminal program at the planning stage to maintain maximum flexibility and adapt
1470 to changing needs.

1471 [ACRP Report 52, Wayfinding and Signage Guidelines for Airport Terminals and Landside](#) provides
1472 detailed explanations and best practices for developing signage and wayfinding programs. For specific
1473 information on airport landside considerations for signage and wayfinding, see Section 8.8, Landside
1474 Signage and Wayfinding.

1475 6.4.13 Security Area Delineation and Control Systems

1476 There are three distinct security zones within the terminal: public areas for passengers and non-
1477 passengers, sterile areas for screened passengers, and secure non-public areas for airport and airline
1478 employees. There are numerous FAA, TSA, local law enforcement regulation definitions, and equally as
1479 many site specific regulations for airports.

1480 Security areas include:

- 1481 • Public area – the non-sterile area that is open to the general public, commonly referred to as
1482 “pre-security”.
- 1483 • Sterile area – public area for passengers who have been screened by the TSA, commonly
1484 referred to as “post-security”.
- 1485 • Secured area – the areas located outside the terminal or concourse where only approved airport
1486 or airline employees are permitted (e.g., the aircraft parking apron).
- 1487 • Security Identification Display Area (SIDA) – designated areas where only approved airport of
1488 airline employees, contractors, concession employees, FAA personnel and others are permitted
1489 (e.g., “back-of-house” concessions circulation corridors).
- 1490 • FIS sterile area – controlled area for arriving international passengers before they have been
1491 cleared by CBP to enter the country (e.g., “sterile” corridors that connects the aircraft boarding
1492 gate to the FIS facility).

1493 These areas have a variety of control systems to ensure the security of the terminal, including access
1494 controls and video surveillance. A key source of information on this topic is the TSA-developed
1495 document, [Recommended Security Guidelines for Airport Planning, Design and Construction](#).
1496 Additionally, an industry-recognized publication that provides extensive guidance is the [Integrated
1497 Security System Standards for Airport Access Control](#) (Radio Technical Commission for Aeronautics).

1498 6.5 Trends and Innovations

1499 Terminal planning and design followed industry-accepted processes and general layouts for many
1500 decades. Major events and developments that occurred around the turn of the century – such as the
1501 September 11, 2001 terrorist attacks and technological advances (e.g., mobile devices, self-service
1502 kiosks, etc.) – have significantly changed how airports and airlines operate. These events, and the
1503 impact of changing passenger demographics, continue to impact the evolution of the terminal building
1504 as well as terminal planning and space programming.

1505 6.5.1 Flexible Space Planning

1506 Given the evolution in terminal building spatial and functional needs, it is increasingly important to build
1507 facilities that can adapt over time. Flexible layouts are important to consider, as is the design of interior
1508 spaces. The concept of “programmable design” is one that has gained traction because it allows for
1509 interior functional components to be moved around and adapted to new passenger flows driven by
1510 technology or other innovations. Column-free space is one aspect that makes programmable space
1511 work. Another technique that helps owners adapt their buildings to changing needs is the location of
1512 certain mechanical infrastructure such as electrical and telecommunications elements that can be
1513 plugged into at locations throughout the building. The use of prefabricated, modular building elements
1514 can also be used to create systems that can be reconfigured and adapted to work as functions change.

1515 6.5.2 Passenger Demographics

1516 Airline passenger profiles are diverse, ranging from frequent business travelers to leisure or first-time
1517 travelers. In the past decade, the focus of the industry has shifted to frequent travelers who have an
1518 interest in self-service and use “smart” devices to facilitate the passenger processing experience.
1519 However, there are numerous other demographics that should be considered, including:

- 1520 • Aging population – an increasing aging population will require more space for such functions as
1521 vertical circulation, wayfinding, long walking distances, etc.; [ACRP Synthesis Report 51, Impact
1522 of Aging Travelers on Airports](#) provides an in-depth explanation and best practices for
1523 addressing this aspect of changing demographics.
- 1524 • Non-tech savvy passengers – not all passengers will adapt to self-service or mobile technologies.
1525 A portion of the traveling public will continue to require traditional face-to-face assistance in the
1526 airport terminal.
- 1527 • Language diversity – a growing number of domestic and international passengers require
1528 information to be available in multiple languages. The extent of language diversity varies
1529 geographically.

1530 6.5.3 Self-service Processing

1531 Airline passengers have come to expect that they will be able to receive help or process themselves with
1532 the assistance of technology in a variety of industries (e.g., banks, gas stations, grocery stores, video
1533 kiosks, etc.). This trend is being embraced in the airport environment with self-service kiosks and
1534 remote processing technologies, which enables passengers to check themselves in for a flight. Locating
1535 these devices outside the terminal building in parking garages, rental car return facilities, and
1536 intermodal transportation centers allows passengers to bypass the ticket counter entirely and proceed
1537 directly to security screening. Self-service processing can even begin through the Internet before they
1538 arrive at the airport. Using other innovations, passengers are able to buy tickets on the internet, check-

1539 in for a flight with smart devices, print baggage tags, and even purchase meals that will be ready when
1540 they arrive.

1541 The impact of self-service is freeing up traditional check-in lobby space for alternative uses. Inside the
1542 concourse, passengers can navigate to preferred concessions and departure lounge locations using
1543 smart phone applications, reducing the reliance on signage and wayfinding. Self-boarding is taking place
1544 at some international airports, and is being tested at some facilities in the United States. Automated
1545 Passport Control is a U.S. CBP program that expedites the entry process for United States, Canadian and
1546 eligible Visa Waiver Program international travelers by providing an automated process through CBP's
1547 Primary Inspection area. Travelers use self-service kiosks or via mobile application to submit their
1548 Customs declaration form and biographic information. Travelers using this program experience shorter
1549 wait times, less congestion, and faster processing.

1550 6.5.4 Passenger Experience

1551 Enhanced passenger security screening and other factors can contribute to an unpleasant passenger
1552 experience in some airport terminals. Hence, there has been a renewed effort by airport operators to
1553 provide a more positive passenger experience via some of the technological and self-serve advances
1554 noted above as well as through architectural design and other customer service improvements.

1555 Examples of these innovations are:

- 1556 • Open lounge waiting areas – traditional departure lounges are being replaced by large open,
1557 light-filled spaces with Wi-Fi connectivity, big-screen televisions, comfortable lounge seating,
1558 easily accessible power connections, and concessions, which together provide a place of
1559 comfort and relaxation for all classes of passengers.
- 1560 • Improved restroom facilities – one of the first and last things that passengers experience at
1561 airports are the restroom facilities and often represent one of the most significant sources of
1562 customer complaints. Improving restrooms to meet current passenger expectations is a high
1563 priority for many airports.
- 1564 • Performances and events – such activities can provide a sense of place and allows the airport to
1565 become a marketing tool for local tourism. Examples include free live music or theme events
1566 during the busiest travel periods, such as sidewalk sales and local product and food sampling.
- 1567 • Spa facilities and health clinics – to ease the burden of long layovers, some airports are
1568 implementing one-stop-shops for all things relaxing—massages, spa, sauna, and even fitness
1569 facilities. Other offerings include pharmacies and walk-in health clinics, which capture a sizable
1570 portion of passengers and employees who want access to basic health care such as the need to
1571 fill prescriptions while traveling.
- 1572 • Art and culture— some airports are offering in-terminal art or cultural museums to enhance the
1573 airport experience.

1574

1575 6.5.5 Cost Reduction and Revenue Enhancement

1576 Self-service processing and a renewed emphasis on the passenger experience are positive developments
1577 for the passenger, but they also benefit the airline operators. The 2008 financial crisis combined with
1578 rising fuel costs forced the airlines to seek cost reduction measures. Airlines turned to consolidation as
1579 one way to reduce costs, but they have also taken advantage of the same technologies that passengers
1580 are using to reduce costs. Recent and projected increases in self-service processing will lower airline

1581 staffing requirements. Reductions in staffing will reduce the space program for major functional
1582 elements and for back-of-house office space, thereby reducing capital expenditures for airport
1583 operators.

1584 Airports have also increased their emphasis on improving operations, reducing cost, and enhancing
1585 revenue generation. The most effective way to improve revenue is to improve or increase concessions
1586 in the terminal. In conjunction with self-service processing and enhanced passenger experiences,
1587 airports are increasing the impact and size of concessions programs. This can include:

- 1588 • Relocating concessions from pre-security to post security areas, and to locations where there is
1589 a high volume of passenger traffic.
- 1590 • Improving concessions quality by making local and high quality goods available.
- 1591 • Adding other “experiences” like music, etc., as noted in the section above. Other ways to
1592 improve financial performance are to improve terminal building operations and the efficiency of
1593 terminal building mechanical, electrical, and plumbing systems by upgrading infrastructure.

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CHAPTER 7. TERMINAL APRON AREAS1611 7.1 **General**

1612 This chapter describes key terminal apron elements and general guidelines for planning terminal apron
1613 areas.

1614 Planning these areas can occur at various stages, e.g.; for a new facility when the terminal building
1615 layouts and geometry are being drawn at a conceptual level, for an existing facility where the fleet mix
1616 has changed or during the planning of a terminal expansion, etc.

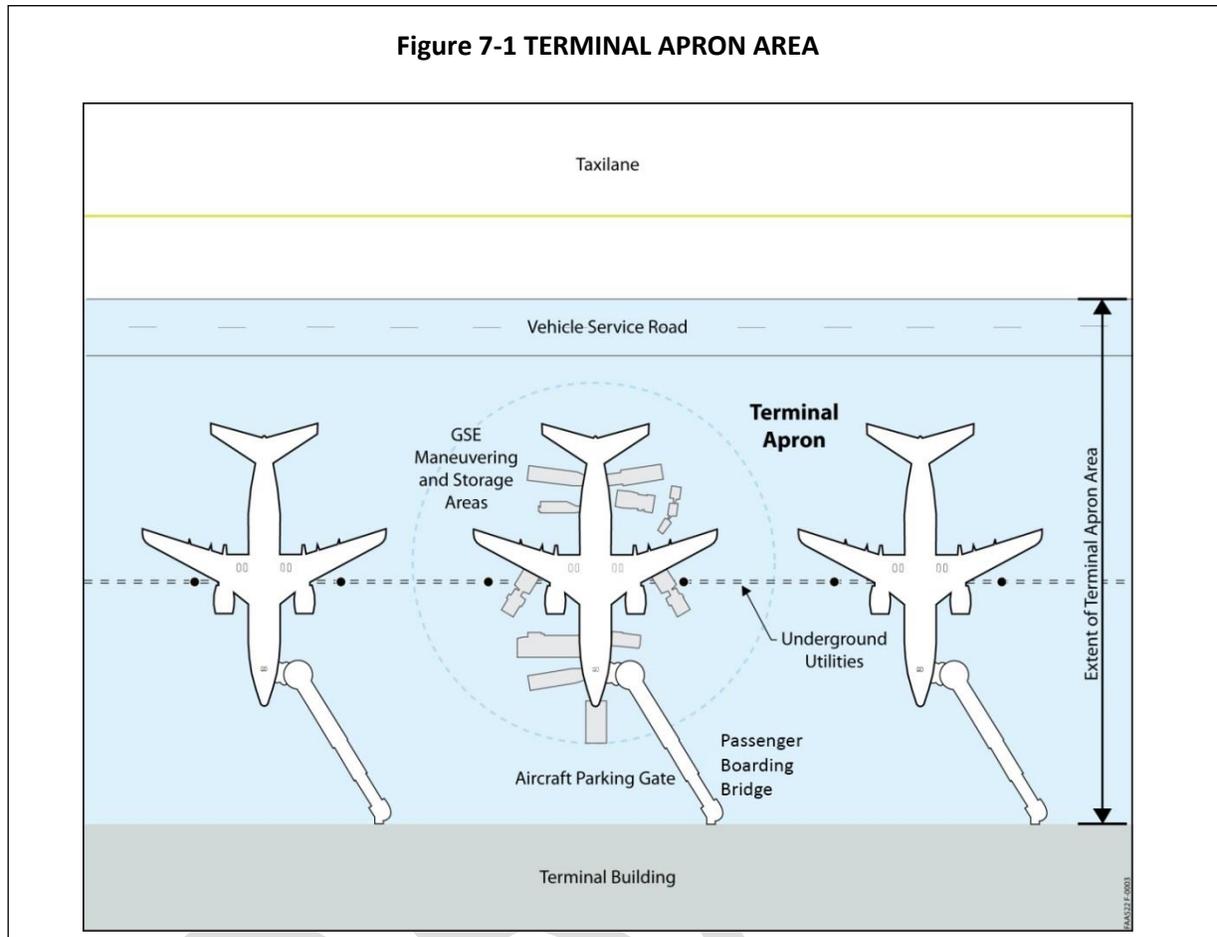
1617 The terminal apron area is the portion of pavement between the face of the terminal building and the
1618 movement area. The primary functions of the apron area are to: (a) provide a safe and efficient space
1619 for aircraft to maneuver from the airfield to the terminal building, (b) optimize aircraft parking flexibility
1620 and interaction with the terminal, and (c) accommodate maneuvering and staging of GSE for aircraft
1621 servicing. Key elements of the apron area are:

- 1622 • Apron pavement – surface area designed to provide a firm, stable, smooth, all-year, all-weather
1623 surface, adequate to support the design aircraft. See [AC 5320-6, Airport Pavement Design and](#)
1624 [Evaluation](#) for guidance on airport pavement design.
- 1625 • Aircraft parking gate – pavement area for aircraft parking; examples include contact gates with
1626 loading bridges, ground loaded, remote, and RON positions.
- 1627 • Passenger Boarding Bridge – enclosed structure that allows for the movement of passengers, in
1628 a controlled environment, to transition between the concourse and the aircraft; normally
1629 contains power and cooling systems that service the aircraft while parked at the gate.
- 1630 • GSE maneuvering and storage areas – apron area adjacent to the aircraft parking position that is
1631 used for maneuvering and parking aircraft servicing vehicles such as baggage tugs, fueling
1632 trucks, catering trucks, and maintenance equipment.
- 1633 • Vehicle service roads – marked pavement areas that provide GSE access to move about the
1634 apron or circulate around aircraft; typically two-way roads that are 20 to 25 feet wide.
- 1635 • Taxilanes – A taxiway designed for low speed and precise taxiing. Taxilanes are usually, but not
1636 always, located outside the movement area, providing access from taxiways to aircraft parking
1637 positions, other terminal areas, and other connector taxiways.
- 1638 • Utilities – infrastructure that allows servicing of aircraft while parked at an aircraft parking gate;
1639 examples include hydrant fueling, apron lighting, grounding systems, conditioned air and power,
1640 stormwater, deicing, and fire deluge systems.

1641 A generalized depiction of the terminal apron area is presented in **Figure 7-1**. The optimum apron
 1642 design for a specific airport will depend upon available space, aircraft fleet mix, and terminal building
 1643 configuration.

1644

1645



1646 7.2 Aircraft Parking Gates

1647 There are four types of aircraft parking gates: contact gates, ground loaded, remote, and RON positions.
 1648 An airport operator's choice between the various gate types depends on passenger level-of-service
 1649 objectives, aircraft fleet and operations, and the characteristics of the concourse geometry or other
 1650 physical constraints. The following provides a description of each gate type.

1651 7.2.1 Contact Gates

1652 A contact gate is an aircraft parking position that is connected directly to the concourse via a PBB.
 1653 Contact gates are the most common type of gate in the United States, and provide the highest level of
 1654 passenger service primarily because of the short distance between the holdroom and the aircraft, and
 1655 the controlled environment of the PBB. In certain constrained concourse geometries or uniquely shaped
 1656 terminal apron areas, a loading bridge is attached to a fixed bridge extension.

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1659 7.2.2 Ground Loaded and Remote Gates

1660 Ground loaded gates are located adjacent to the concourse, but the transition of passengers between
1661 the concourse and aircraft is via the apron pavement instead of a PBB. In typical ground loaded
1662 operations, passengers wait to board the aircraft from a holdroom and then access the aircraft through
1663 a covered walkway and stairs up to the aircraft. In the United States, ground loading is typically
1664 reserved for smaller capacity aircraft and/or aircraft with low door heights that do not work well with
1665 traditional PBBs, such as regional jets or turbo-prop aircraft. Compared to contact gates, ground loading
1666 is considered a lower level of passenger service because of longer walking distances, the need to climb
1667 stairs (normally with carry-on luggage), and exposure to weather.

1668 Remote gates are the same as ground loaded gates, but the gate is physically located remote from the
1669 concourse, and therefore, busses are required to transition passengers between the concourse and the
1670 aircraft. Remote gates represent a low cost alternative to construction of additional concourse
1671 infrastructure; and are often used in situations where passenger demand greatly exceeds terminal
1672 capacity or when rear deplaning of passengers is needed.

1673 7.2.3 Remain Overnight Positions

1674 RON positions are used for parking non-active aircraft away from the terminal, thereby freeing up
1675 contact or other gates for passenger operations. In the U.S, RON positions are commonly used for the
1676 overnight parking of aircraft not scheduled to depart until the next day. RON positions are essential at
1677 international airports where aircraft typically remain on the ground for longer periods of time, or at
1678 airports with heavy, frequent service peaks.

1679 7.3 **Aircraft Parking Gate Requirements**

1680 The number of aircraft parking gates required (in addition to their size) are a key element that define
1681 terminal building geometry and linear building requirements. There are various methods to calculate
1682 gate requirements depending on the level of detail required. At the master plan level, either annual
1683 gate utilization or peak hour utilization in combination with aircraft type are used to determine gate
1684 requirements. At a more detailed design level, peak hour utilization is necessary.

1685 Annual gate utilization is calculated by dividing the total number of annual average day aircraft
1686 departures by the total number of aircraft parking gates (number of turns per day at a gate). Future
1687 gate requirements are determined by applying this ratio (and/or adjusting it up or down) to forecast
1688 annual average day aircraft operations.

1689 As described in Chapter 4, *Planning and Design Methodologies and Tools*, peak hour utilization and
1690 resulting gate requirements can be determined through the development of a future “design day” flight
1691 schedule based on forecast growth. A design day flight schedule provides a distribution of flights and
1692 passengers on an hourly basis throughout the design day. The peak hour is identified as the hour in the
1693 schedule that includes the highest volumes of activity. Future peak hour volumes are determined by
1694 applying appropriate growth rates to the existing design day flight schedule and increasing activity levels
1695 to meet forecast demand. This is accomplished via a combination of “up-gauging” aircraft types
1696 (utilizing larger aircraft with higher numbers of seats per plane) and the introduction of additional flights
1697 (depending on the strategies most likely to be deployed by the airlines at the airport). Other operational
1698 factors like common use versus preferential use gates should be considered when determining peak
1699 hour gate requirements.

1700 In addition, irregular operations due to bad weather, special events, or emergency situations should also
1701 be considered in determining gate requirements. Although infrequent, such events may result in
1702 unusual demand for gates and congestion on the terminal apron. Strategies for accommodating
1703 irregular operations include provisions for ground loading passengers onto aircraft at remote gates or
1704 implementing common use contact or ground loaded gates.

1705 Detailed explanations of methodologies used to determine gate requirements can be found in:

- 1706 • [ACRP Report 23, Airport Passenger-Related Processing Rates](#)
- 1707 • [ACRP Report 25, Airport Passenger Terminal Planning and Design](#)

1708 7.3.1 Aircraft Parking Gate Layouts

1709 The layout of aircraft parking positions is an extremely important element that requires careful
1710 consideration during related terminal planning and design efforts. Aircraft parking position layouts can
1711 vary significantly depending on airport or airline practices, tenant and airline lease negotiations and such
1712 variances can impact many other requirements throughout the terminal facility. Basic criteria
1713 associated with parking position layouts are described below and illustrated in **Figure 7-2**.

- 1714 • Gate width – The width of the aircraft parking position envelope. It is one of the most critical
1715 factors, which influences the linear length of the terminal or concourse. There are three main
1716 approaches to determining the width of a gate or gates: by Airplane Design Group (ADG), by the
1717 most critical aircraft, or by grouping of critical aircraft. To ensure proper planning, the choice of
1718 aircraft, equipment specifics, and accurate aircraft dimensions must be determined with care. It
1719 is recommended that the aircraft type (s) and configuration (e.g. with or without winglets) used
1720 to size a gate is carefully coordinated and validated with all stakeholders using dimensions from
1721 the aircraft manufacturers to ensure adequate space is allocated.
- 1722 • Wingtip Clearance – The distance between an aircraft wingtip to adjacent parked aircraft
1723 wingtip or building façade. Adequate clearance between and around aircraft wingtips is
1724 necessary to allow safe and efficient movement of aircraft to and from aircraft parking positions,
1725 to prevent collision of maneuvering aircraft, to allow adequate GSE access and maneuverability
1726 and to allow unobstructed access for emergency response vehicles (e.g., Aircraft Rescue and Fire
1727 Fighting, emergency medical responders, and airport police). The industry-accepted distance for
1728 wingtip clearance dimensions to be used in planning or design of aircraft parking positions (for
1729 commercial service aircraft) are: 25-feet from one aircraft to another parked aircraft and 45-feet
1730 for inboard pier gates from the wingtip to the adjacent building façade. See **Figure 7-2** for a
1731 graphical depiction. It should be noted that the actual dimensions used by airlines can vary
1732 depending on their policies and operational preferences.
- 1733 • Nose to building clearance – distance from the nose of the aircraft to the concourse for
1734 pushback tug maneuvering and other safety requirements. The distance can also be driven by
1735 the required length of the PBB to meet ADA slop requirements for the design aircraft.
- 1736 • Gate depth – distance from the face of the concourse to the edge of the vehicle service roads or
1737 taxiway/taxilane object free area for parking aircraft. The depth of the gate is determined
1738 primarily by the length of the largest aircraft projected to be accommodated at the position and
1739 the nose to building clearance.
- 1740 • GSE parking and storage area– marked locations on the apron where GSE such as fueling trucks,
1741 baggage tugs, and other aircraft servicing equipment service the aircraft or are stored.

- 1742 • Vehicle service roadways – designated roadways for service vehicles to maneuver safely on and
1743 around the apron area; can be located behind the aircraft’s tail (back of stand), in front of the
1744 aircraft nose (head of stand), between wingtips or can be routed beneath the concourse. The
1745 limits of vehicle service roadways should be clearly marked to ensure lateral and vertical
1746 clearance are maintained between parked aircraft and vehicles traversing the service roads.
- 1747 • Airport traffic control tower and ramp control tower line-of-sight – it is critical to ensure that
1748 visibility from the ATCT cab is not compromised as a result of facility development. An
1749 unobstructed view of all controlled movement areas is required, including all runways, taxiways,
1750 and any other landing areas, and air traffic in the vicinity of the airport. See [AC 150/5300-13,](#)
1751 [Airport Design](#) and [Order 6480.4, Airport Traffic Control Tower Siting Process](#) for additional
1752 information.
- 1753 • Airport imaginary surfaces and airport design surfaces - must be carefully considered during
1754 facility development to ensure compatibility with existing and planned airport configurations.
1755 See [AC 150/5300-13, Airport Design](#), [14 CFR Part 77](#) and [Order 8260.3, United States Standard](#)
1756 [for Terminal Instrument Procedures \(TERPS\)](#) for information on airport imaginary surfaces and
1757 airport design surfaces.
- 1758 • Jet blast – considerations for jet blast are a critical design factor on aircraft parking aprons. This
1759 is critical to consider in order to protect passengers, operations staff, adjacent aircraft, airport
1760 facilities, etc. For guidance on the effects and treatment of jet blast and criteria for design and
1761 layout, see [AC 150/5300-13, Airport Design](#).
- 1762 • Utilities – The location of utilities is also a critical consideration when laying out or reconfiguring
1763 aircraft parking.

1764 Detailed information regarding the layout of aircraft parking positions, apron design and related
1765 considerations can be found in:

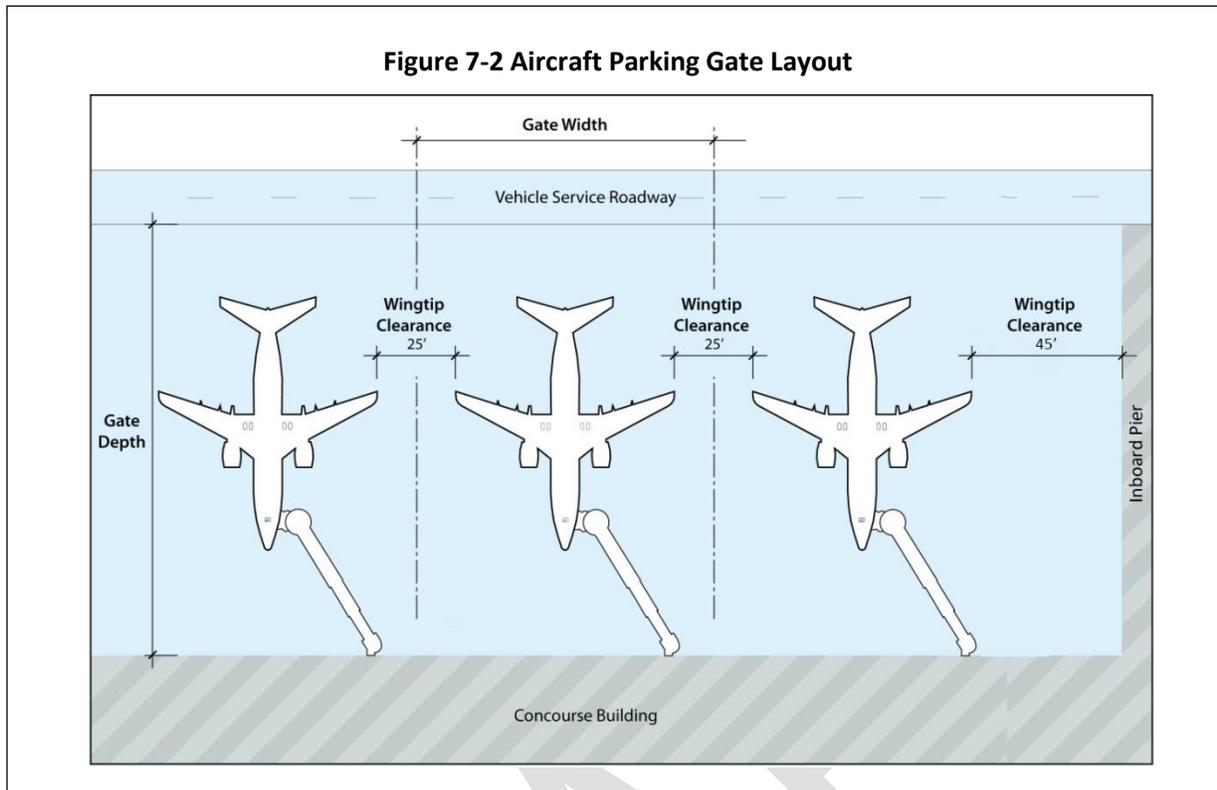
- 1766 • [FAA AC 150/5300-13, Airport Design](#)
- 1767 • [Order 6480.4, Airport Traffic Control Tower Siting Process](#)
- 1768 • [14 CFR Part 77 - Safe, Efficient Use, and Preservation Of The Navigable Airspace](#)
- 1769 • [ACRP Report 25, Airport Passenger Terminal Planning and Design, Volume 1](#)
- 1770 • [ACRP Report 96, Apron Planning and Design Guidebook](#)
- 1771 • [FAA Order 8260.3, United States Standard for Terminal Instrument Procedures \(TERPS\)](#)
- 1772 • [FAA AC 150/5340-1, Standards for Airport Markings](#)
- 1773 • [Airports Council International \(ACI\), Apron Markings and Signs Handbook](#)
- 1774 • [FAA AC 5320-6, Airport Pavement Design and Evaluation](#)

1775 7.3.2 Aircraft Parking Gate Operations

1776 The most common type of aircraft parking operation at United States airports is where aircraft taxi
1777 under engine power into the gate parking position, but are pushed back from the gate via a ground tug
1778 (taxi-in/push-back) before accessing the taxilane. Power-out operations, in which an aircraft leaves the
1779 gate position using its own power via either reverse engine thrust or forward movement, are much less
1780 common and normally acceptable at smaller, less congested airports. In addition, advanced docking
1781 systems are automated systems that can precisely guide aircraft to the aircraft parking position stop
1782 bars, as well as dock the PBB to the aircraft.

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1786 7.3.3 Boarding Bridges and Fixed Utilities

1787 The two most common PBBs are “fixed” and “apron drive.” Fixed PBBs are connected directly to the
 1788 concourse or to a fixed bridge extension. They are limited in flexibility (e.g., not able to rotate on a
 1789 pedestal) and can only expand and contract from a single point. Apron drive PBBs can expand and
 1790 contract like a fixed PBB but also rotate or move about from a static pedestal. Apron drive PBBs provide
 1791 maximum flexibility, which is desirable since aircraft types and other procedures often change.

1792 Aircraft fleet mix is a key factor in determining the number, location, and position of PBBs. Passenger
 1793 flow volumes associated with a single aisle, narrowbody aircraft (e.g., ADG-III or B757) can typically be
 1794 accommodated by a single PBB. Twin aisle, wide body aircraft (e.g., ADG-IV and larger) have greater
 1795 passenger flow volumes due to the number of seats and egress doors.

1796 PBBs should be positioned to maintain maximum flexibility to accommodate as many aircraft types as
 1797 possible. If there are two loading bridges at the same gate, they should be designed to accommodate
 1798 loading for both a large widebody aircraft and two narrowbody or smaller aircraft. PBBs should also be
 1799 located so that the slope of the bridge(s) is no greater than 12:1 for the gate’s intended aircraft mix, to
 1800 meet ADA requirements.

1801 PBBs and adjacent terminal apron areas contain many utilities that service an aircraft at a gate, including
 1802 ground power, conditioned air, potable water, and aircraft fueling. There are a number of industry
 1803 recognized publications that provide a detailed explanation of these utilities and planning considerations
 1804 associated with them. Comprehensive passenger boarding bridge and utility standards and
 1805 requirements can be found in the following industry recognized publications:

- 1806 • [FAA AC 150/5220-21C, Aircraft Boarding Equipment](#)
- 1807 • [FAA AC 150/5300-13, Airport Design](#)

- 1808 • [ACRP Report 25, Airport Passenger Terminal Planning and Design](#)
- 1809 • [ACRP Report 96, Apron Planning and Design Guidebook](#)

1810 National fire code regulations related to the apron area can be found in the [National Fire Protection](#)
1811 [Association \(NFPA\) 415, Standard on Airport Terminal Buildings, Fueling Ramp Drainage, and Loading](#)
1812 [Walkways](#) (Note: please review other related NFPA codes and standards which may also be applicable) ,
1813 and ADA compliance requirements can be found in [2010 ADA Standards for Accessible Design](#). [AC](#)
1814 [150/5360-14, Access to Airports by Individuals with Disabilities](#) provides additional information to assist
1815 airports in complying with the current laws and regulations regarding individuals with disabilities.

1816 7.4 Taxilanes and Aprons

1817 Taxilanes are paved areas designed for low speed and precise taxiing. Taxilanes are usually, but not
1818 always, located outside the movement area, providing access from taxiways (usually an apron taxiway)
1819 to aircraft parking positions and other terminal areas. Both single and multiple taxilanes should be
1820 considered for aircraft to maneuver around a concourse, parked aircraft, vehicles, etc. For drainage
1821 requirements, fire protection, and ease of aircraft movements apron gradients should meet
1822 recommended design criteria in AC 150/5300-13, *Airport Design* and always slope away from the
1823 concourse and fixed loading bridges.

1824 A comprehensive explanation of the principles and design standards for taxilanes and aprons can be
1825 found in:

- 1826 • [FAA AC 150/5300-13, Airport Design](#)
- 1827 • [ACRP Report 96, Apron Planning and Design Guidebook](#)

1828 7.5 Apron Lighting

1829 Most outdoor areas associated with the terminal apron require some degree of illumination during
1830 nighttime and low-visibility conditions. Lighting levels in the vicinity of aircraft parking areas and the
1831 terminal apron should be of sufficient intensity to provide a safe, secure and efficient operating
1832 environment for typical airport operations during normal nighttime conditions and during inclement
1833 weather (e.g. to permit deicing at the gate).

1834 Mounted floodlights are the usual preferred method of lighting the apron area. Floodlights should be
1835 sited, aimed and shielded to avoid glint and glare to pilots and air traffic controllers without reducing
1836 the level of illumination in critical areas. Additionally, to enhance visibility it is preferable to have
1837 uniform illumination across lighted areas using multiple overlapping light sources from different
1838 directions to minimize strong ground shadowing. Coordinate with airport operators (e.g., airline
1839 management and ground service providers) when designing or modifying apron lighting systems.

1840 For additional information on the topic of apron lighting see the following:

- 1841 • [AC 150/5300-14C - Design of Aircraft Deicing Facilities](#). The document includes a section
1842 specifically on lighting requirements for aircraft deicing facilities.
- 1843 • [ACRP Report 25, Airport Passenger Terminal Planning and Design](#)
- 1844 • [Illuminating Engineering Society \(IES\), Outdoor Lighting for Airport Environments \(RP-37-15\)](#)
- 1845 •
- 1846 •

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CHAPTER 8. AIRPORT GROUND ACCESS AND CIRCULATION1861 8.1 **General**

1862 This chapter provides guidance on planning airport ground access, circulation and automobile parking
1863 facilities. It describes these different elements within the terminal complex and the process used to
1864 plan these facilities. Included is a discussion of planning studies, key roadway and parking components
1865 (including key variables and inputs needed to plan for them), public transit and automated people
1866 movers, signage and wayfinding and emergency response vehicle routes.

1867 8.2 **Planning studies**

1868 Planning of new airport roadways and parking facilities should occur at the same time as planning and
1869 design of the terminal building, air cargo areas, general aviation terminals, and other land uses the
1870 roadways and parking facilities are intended to serve. Subsequent planning studies are frequently
1871 conducted to: (a) develop options to increase capacity, (b) address operational concerns, or
1872 (c) accommodate changes in the use of the terminal building or other land uses. It is important that the
1873 terminal roadways and parking facilities are integrated into the overall terminal planning process to
1874 ensure a balanced system. Such planning is often conducted within the context of an airport master
1875 plan.

1876 8.3 **Key Roadway and Parking Components**

1877 The components of an airport roadway and parking network are described below and depicted in
1878 **Figure 8-1.**

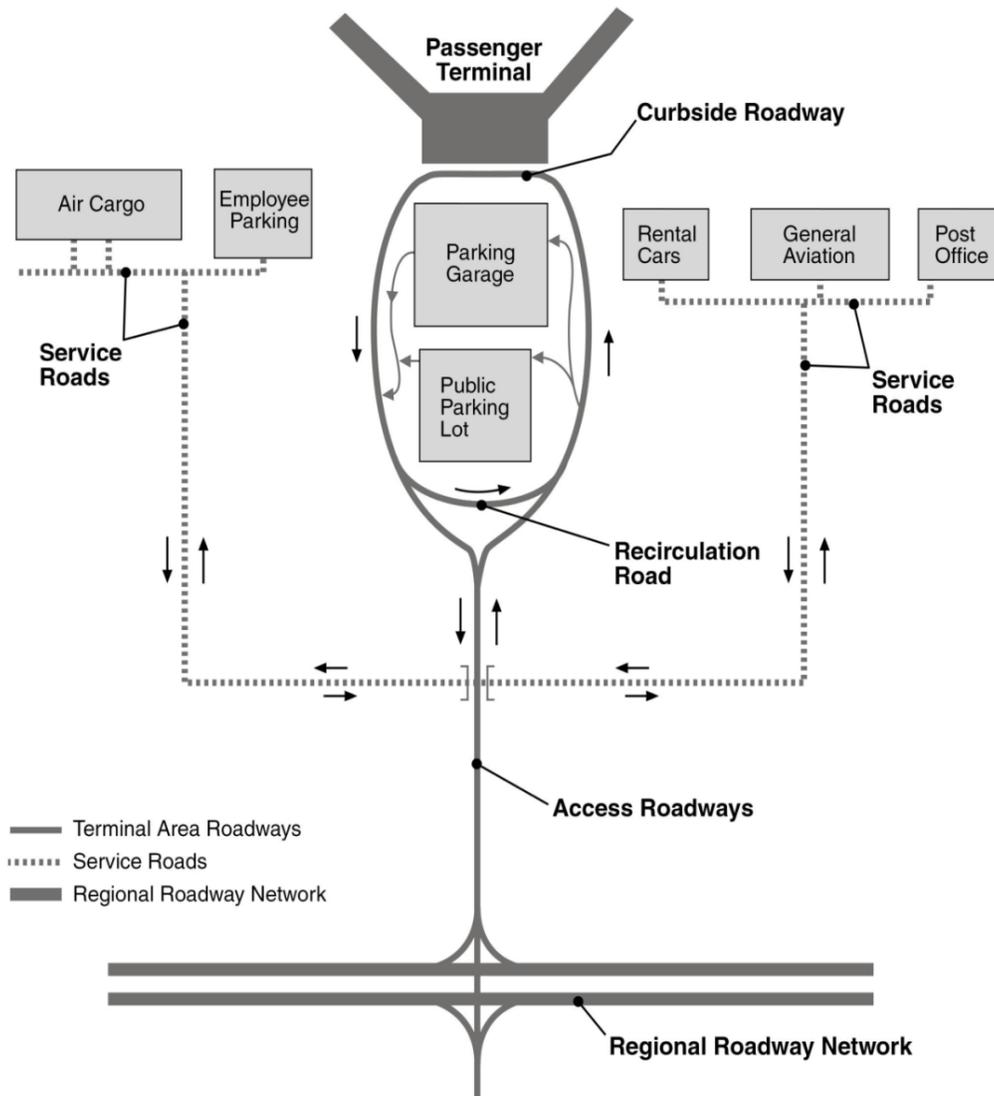
- 1879 • Access roadways – provide for the flow of traffic between the regional roadway network, local
1880 roadways and the terminal area and other major traffic generators located on the airport such
1881 as air cargo/freight terminals, general aviation terminals, and airline maintenance centers.
1882 Access for alternate modes, such as bicycle and pedestrian access may also be part of the
1883 transportation network.
- 1884 • Curbside roadways – located adjacent to the terminal ticket lobby and baggage claim areas, are
1885 used to drop off and pick up airline passengers and their baggage.
- 1886 • Recirculation roads – provide for motorists and commercial vehicles going back to the terminal
1887 or to a parking entrance after dropping off a passenger, or going to pick up a passenger after
1888 exiting a parking facility.
- 1889 • Public parking structures or lots – includes: (a) short-term parking, serving visitors such as
1890 meeters/greeters and well-wishers parking their vehicles for a short-term period, (b) long-term
1891 parking serving airline passengers parking for a day or more, and (c) other parking offerings such
1892 as remote/economy parking, cell phone lots, valet parking or corporate reserved parking, and
1893 bicycle parking (typically for airport employees).
- 1894 • Employee parking – reserved for persons working for the airport, airline employees (including
1895 based and non-based flight crews), and other tenants.

1896 • Employee Screening - this can be accomplished outside the terminal building (e.g., at the
 1897 curbfront) or inside the building either in an area dedicated to this function or adjacent the
 1898 normal passenger security screening areas.

1899 • Service roads – provide access to and circulation between non-terminal area land uses, and are
 1900 primarily used by air cargo, service/delivery, and airport operations/employee vehicles as
 1901 opposed to airline passengers and terminal visitors.

1902

Figure 8-1 AIRPORT ROADWAY AND PARKING COMPONENTS



Source: ACRP Report 40, Airport Curbside and Terminal Area Roadway Operations.

- 1903 • Airfield roads – located within the aircraft operating area and used only by authorized vehicles
1904 and drivers.
- 1905 • Rental car areas – used to facilitate rental and return of rental cars, car storage, and
1906 ready/return functions (fueling, washing, and light maintenance) of rental vehicles.
- 1907 • Commercial vehicle hold areas – used for brief parking or holding/staging of taxicabs,
1908 limousines, charter bus/vans, and other vehicles waiting for the arrival of airline passengers.
- 1909 • Rideshare vehicle hold areas – specifically designated areas for staging and picking up
1910 passengers (airports are handling these services in a variety of ways).
- 1911 • Loading docks – located in the terminal building where goods and products for food, beverage,
1912 and retail concessionaires are delivered and trash is removed.

1913 8.4 Roadways

1914 The planning and operation of airport roadways differs dramatically from the planning and operation of
1915 regional roadways. This is because motorists using regional roadways drive on the same roadways many
1916 times each week and are thoroughly familiar with the exit/entry locations, roadway directional signs,
1917 and likely points of congestion. In contrast, most motorists using airport roadways drive to the airport
1918 only a few times each year and are unfamiliar with the exit/entry locations, roadway signage, and likely
1919 points of congestion. In addition, due to concerns about potential delays, unfamiliarity with check-in
1920 procedures, or the desire to greet an arriving passenger on time, airline passengers are more stressed
1921 than typical commuters. This unfamiliarity and stress is aggravated by the complexity of airport
1922 roadways, which compared to regional roadways and arterials, contain more closely spaced decision
1923 points, more complex signs, and a higher proportion of taxicabs, limousines, scheduled and chartered
1924 buses/vans, shared-ride vans, and courtesy vehicles serving hotel/motels, and rental cars, (collectively
1925 referred to as commercial vehicles), and parking lots.

1926 Planning for airport roadways and parking facilities begins with estimates of existing and future
1927 requirements. These requirements are generated by the airline passengers and visitors using the
1928 terminal buildings and other facilities served by the roadway and parking facilities. The estimated
1929 requirements are compared with the calculated capacity of the proposed or existing roadway and
1930 parking facilities to establish the ratio between requirements (demand) and capacity. The
1931 demand/capacity ratio helps define the LOS* for each roadway segment or parking facility.

1932

* The [Highway Capacity Manual](#) presents a detailed description of the Level of Service (LOS) concept and the methods used to calculate LOS on roadways having uninterrupted traffic flows (e.g., limited access freeways and arterials) and interrupted flows (e.g., signalized and stop sign controlled roads and streets). LOS is a qualitative measure used to describe the quality of traffic flow experienced by a motorist (or other facility user). Six levels of service are defined with LOS A being the best operation (i.e., free flow conditions with no delays or congestion); while LOS F represents a facility where demand exceeds capacity, resulting in frequent delays and prolonged congestion. LOS C, which represents stable flows at or near free-flow conditions with drivers experiencing comfortable and safe operations, is frequently selected as a goal for the planning of airport roadways due to consequences of passenger delays and the customer experience desired by most airports.

1933 8.4.1 Roadway Level of Service

1934 Roadway LOS goals should be established at the outset of a planning effort. As the planning process
 1935 continues, the calculated LOS for each roadway segment and parking facility should be compared with
 1936 these goals. The plans for those facilities not providing satisfactory LOS will be modified to increase the
 1937 capacity and improve LOS (e.g., by adding roadway lanes, parking spaces, parking exit lanes, or
 1938 eliminating unsatisfactory weaving operations).

1939 8.4.2 Roadway Requirements

1940 Airport access and circulation roadways are designed to accommodate the peak hour traffic demands
 1941 projected for each roadway link or component. The peak hour volumes may be defined as the volumes
 1942 occurring during the peak hour of an average day during the peak month, the 30th highest hour, or the
 1943 peak hour occurring during a standard busy day. The peak hour for vehicles transporting originating
 1944 airline passengers to the airport typically precedes the peak aircraft departure hour by 1 to 2 hours,
 1945 while the peak hour for vehicles transporting terminating airline passengers from the airport typically
 1946 lags the peak aircraft arrival hour by the same amount. The amount of “lead” and “lag” time depends
 1947 upon the proportion of international/domestic passengers, business/leisure passengers, aircraft size and
 1948 load factors, and other factors.

1949 Two common methods to determine roadway requirements or peak hour roadway traffic volumes are
 1950 summarized below:

- 1951 1. **Volume and Mode Choice.** Calculate the volumes generated by each airport land use
 1952 (e.g., airline passenger terminal building, air cargo areas, and general aviation terminal)
 1953 and determine the access/egress routing patterns of these traffic volumes. Future
 1954 roadway traffic volumes can be calculated based upon estimates of the number of
 1955 originating and terminating airline passengers, number of employees, and volume of
 1956 cargo, adjusting for future travel patterns (e.g., changes in the proportion of traffic
 1957 approaching/departing the airport from different directions), mode choice (e.g.,
 1958 anticipated increase in the use of public transit), and other changes. However, this
 1959 method requires a large amount of input data to calculate the volume of traffic generated
 1960 by airline passengers, visitors and employees, and airport service and delivery vehicles,
 1961 and to determine the current circulation patterns of these vehicles.
- 1962 2. **Peak Hour.** Increase the existing peak hour traffic volumes on each roadway link in direct
 1963 proportion to the forecast growth of design hour airline passengers or other indices of
 1964 future growth. Existing peak hour traffic volumes can be determined through automated
 1965 traffic surveys or manual surveys if vehicle classification data are needed.

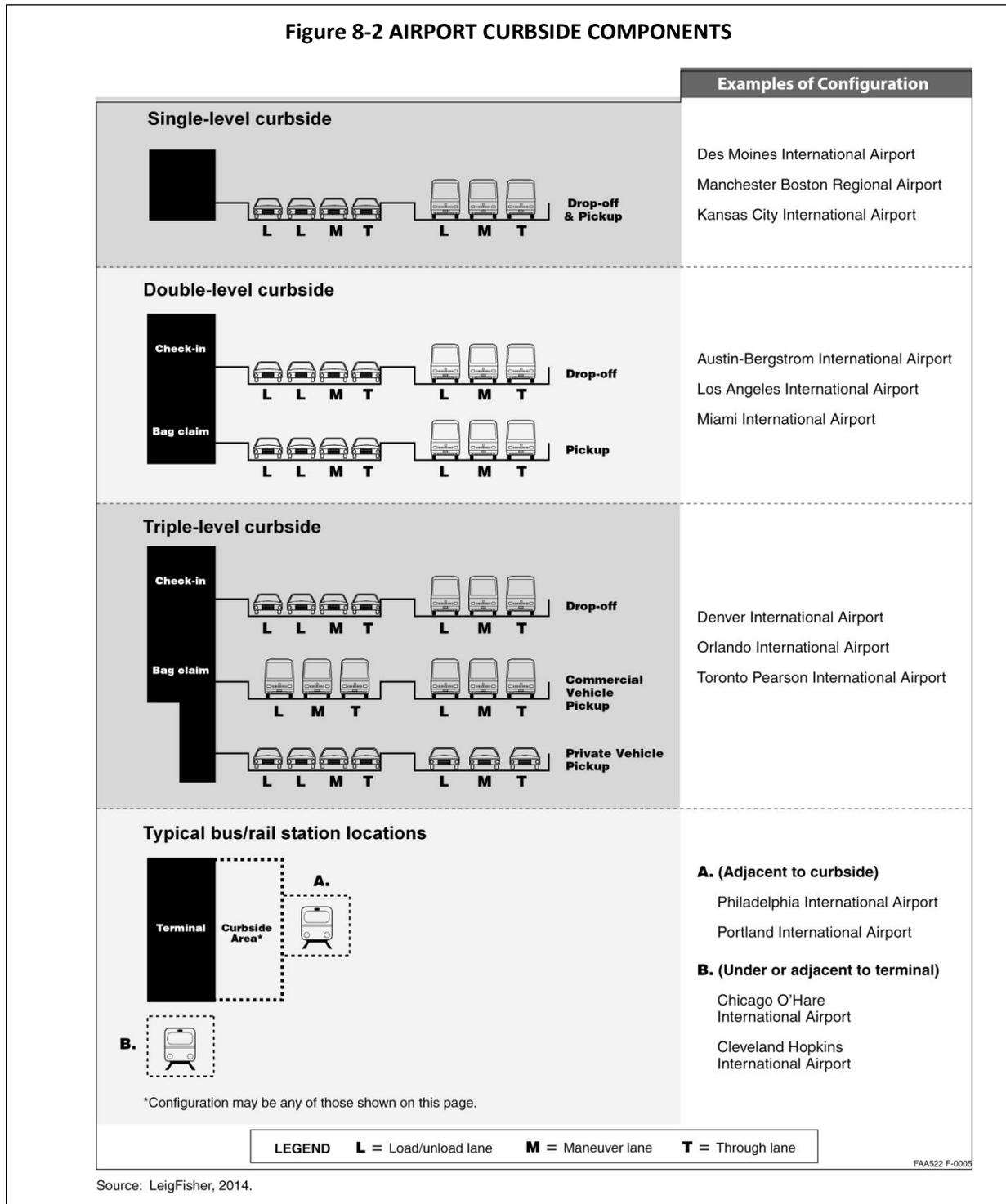
1966 [ACRP Report 40, Airport Curbside and Terminal Area Roadway Operations](#) presents detailed information
 1967 about calculating airport roadway requirements.

1968 8.5 **Terminal Curbside**

1969 Curbside roadways consist of inner lane(s) in which vehicles stop in a nose-to-tail manner to drop off or
 1970 pick up passengers, an adjacent maneuvering lane, and one or more bypass lanes. Usable curbside
 1971 space does not include space occupied by crosswalks, reserved for police, emergency, or other vehicles,
 1972 or otherwise not available to private or commercial vehicles. However, it is desirable to also consider
 1973 the extent of double parking at the inner lanes, the number of bypass lanes, and the interaction
 1974 between bypass traffic and traffic entering and exiting the curbside lanes. For example, three-lane

1975 curbside roadways are undesirable because when double-parking occurs, only a single by-pass lane
1976 remains. Traffic flow on the remaining single lane may be obstructed or delayed as double-parked
1977 vehicles enter and exit the bypass lane. A generalized depiction of the terminal curbside is presented on
1978 **Figure 8-2.**

1979



1980 8.5.1 Curbside Level of Service

1981 The LOS of a curbside roadway is determined by analyzing the demand/capacity or volume/capacity
 1982 ratio for both the inner curbside lanes and the maneuver lanes, with the lanes having the poorest level
 1983 of service governing. The LOS on the inner curbside lanes is defined by the proportion of double-parked
 1984 vehicles with a curbside having 30% of the vehicles double-parked (assuming the entire inner lane is
 1985 occupied) defined as LOS C. The volume/capacity of the bypass lanes is determined by comparing the

1986 volume of bypass traffic with the capacity of the bypass lanes, which varies depending on the LOS of the
1987 curbside lanes.

1988 8.5.2 Curbside Requirements

1989 Airport curbside roadway requirements are typically calculated to accommodate the volume of traffic
1990 occurring during the peak 15 to 20 minutes of the peak hour. This is because traffic flows are not
1991 distributed uniformly throughout the peak hour, and a sudden peak or burst of traffic can result in
1992 congestion and delays. In addition, curbside demand is not distributed uniformly along the face of the
1993 terminal and tends to be higher near sky cap bag check-in locations, doorways serving popular airlines,
1994 and in locations away from columns and the most distant curbside sections.

1995 The following key inputs used to calculate airport curbside roadway requirements.

- 1996 • Volume – refers to the number of vehicles stopping at each curbside to drop off or pick up
1997 airline passengers and number of “bypass” vehicles driving past but not stopping at a curbside.
- 1998 • Vehicle mix – the different types of private and commercial vehicles.
- 1999 • Vehicle dwell times – the length of time vehicles remain stopped at the curbside.
- 2000 • Curb space – the average length of curb space occupied by each type of vehicle including the
2001 space required to maneuver into and out of the curbside area.

2002 The level of enforcement an airport operator uses can also be a significant factor in determining
2003 curbside roadway requirements.

2004 Detailed information about airport roadway capacities, commercial ground transportation and LOS are
2005 contained in:

- 2006 • [ACRP Report 40, Airport Curbside and Terminal Area Roadway Operations](#)
- 2007 • [Intermodal Ground Access to Airports, a Planning Guide](#) (FAA, FHA, Bellomo-McGee, Inc., 1996)
- 2008 • [ACRP Report 146, Commercial Ground Transportation at Airports: Best Practices](#)

2009

2010 8.6 **Parking facilities**

2011 Parking facilities accommodate for the needs of airline passengers, airport visitors, and persons working
 2012 on the airport. The planning and operation of airport parking facilities is different from that of parking
 2013 facilities serving offices, retail centers, hospitals, or downtown areas. Airport parking facilities can be
 2014 very large. Some contain over 5,000 spaces, with a high percentage of the spaces occupied for 24 hours
 2015 or more – which is a key factor that is unlike parking facilities serving other uses. Airport parking
 2016 facilities are also an important source of airport generated revenue (representing as much as 25% of
 2017 total airport revenues) and an important contributor to the customer’s overall travel experience.

2018 8.6.1 Public Parking

2019 Public parking structures or lots include the following:

- 2020 • Short-term parking – serving visitors such as meeters/greeters and well-wishers parking their
 2021 vehicles for four hours or less; sometimes referred to as “Hourly Parking”.
- 2022 • Long-term parking – serving airline passengers parking for the duration of their trip in facilities
 2023 located within a convenient walking distance of the terminal or remotely located spaces
 2024 requiring a longer walk or the use of a shuttle bus; sometimes referred to as “Daily Parking”
 2025 while those located away from the terminal and requiring the use of shuttle bus are sometimes
 2026 referred to as “Economy” or “Remote Parking”.
- 2027 • Other parking products – includes other parking offering such as remote/economy parking, cell
 2028 phone lots, valet parking or premium- and corporate-reserved parking.

2029 8.6.2 Reserved Parking

2030 Parking facilities reserved for non-public use include:

- 2031 • Employee parking – for persons working for the airport, the airlines (including based and non-
 2032 based flight crews) or other tenants.
- 2033 • Rental car areas – used to store cars for customers renting or returning a car, store out-of-
 2034 service vehicles for short periods, and perform fueling, washing, and light maintenance of the
 2035 rental car vehicles.
- 2036 • Commercial vehicle hold areas – used for brief parking or holding/staging of taxicabs,
 2037 limousines, charter bus/vans and other vehicles that are waiting for the arrival of airline
 2038 passengers.
- 2039 • Rideshare vehicle hold areas – specifically designated areas for staging prior to passenger pick-
 2040 up.

2041 8.6.3 Parking Level of Service

2042 There are no formally accepted measures to define the optimum LOS of a parking facility. Key factors
 2043 typically considered include: (a) the ratio of peak period requirements to facility capacity with a ratio of
 2044 85% typically representing the limit of an acceptable LOS, and (b) the proportion of spaces located
 2045 within an unassisted walking distance of 600 to 800 feet of a terminal building entrance; ideally with all
 2046 close-in spaces located within this walking distance. Other factors include the length of peak period exit
 2047 delays, search time for an empty space, and passenger comfort which is affected by vertical clearance,
 2048 openness, illumination levels in parking aisles and pedestrian paths, and other design factors.

2049 8.6.4 Parking Requirements

2050 Airport terminal area and economy parking facilities are planned to accommodate requirements
2051 occurring on an average day of a peak month, or more commonly a standard busy day during the peak
2052 month. When data are available, planners often prepare histograms depicting the observed peak
2053 parking accumulation for every day (or hour) of an entire year in order to select the appropriate design
2054 day and its demands. Many airports have remote lots that are only used for overflow parking during
2055 holiday periods or other times of peak demand. Because it is not economical to build and operate
2056 spaces that are rarely used, these lots are often not developed to the same level of durability as
2057 regularly used parking facilities.

2058 Public parking requirements typically increase in direct proportion to increases in the volume of
2059 originating and terminating airline passengers, with allowances for anticipated changes in the travel
2060 mode choice, or other exceptions. For example, an anticipated increase in the proportion of airline
2061 passengers travelling by public transit could potentially result in a corresponding reduction in parking
2062 requirements. Short-term (hourly) parking requirements can be estimated considering the expected
2063 change in peak hour airline passengers, while long-term (Daily and Economy) parking can be estimated
2064 considering the expected change in monthly or annual passengers. Typically, 70% to 80% of the spaces
2065 are occupied by long-term parkers because the spaces they occupy turnover infrequently.

2066 Employee parking often is located in multiple surface lots adjacent to major employment centers, with
2067 very few airports providing multi-level parking structures solely for employee use. Parking adjacent to
2068 the terminal building may be reserved for senior employees of the airlines and other tenants, and
2069 employees of the Federal Government (e.g., the FAA, TSA, and CBP), with other employees working in
2070 the terminal building required to park in remote lots. These lots are sized to accommodate the peak
2071 demands which frequently occur at the time of employee shift changes.

2072 A large public or employee parking facility is typically planned to include a 10% circulation factor, which
2073 increases the space count (e.g., if 1,000 spaces are needed to accommodate demand, 1,100 spaces
2074 should be built). This factor allows for vehicles that circulate within the facility because it is difficult to
2075 find the last space in a large parking facility, and improperly parked vehicles that occupy two spaces.
2076 With single space parking detection systems, which make it possible to direct customers to every empty
2077 space, the circulation factor may be reduced to less than 10%.

2078 Local code requirements typically specify the number of parking spaces (and their size and location) that
2079 must be reserved for disabled passengers. Also, the location of parking facilities near a terminal building
2080 may be determined by federal security regulations and the policies of individual airports.

2081 8.7 **Public Transit and Automated People Movers**

2082 Public transit includes traditional fixed-route, multi-stop public bus service, express bus services, shared-
2083 ride vans, and scheduled rail service. Most airports are served by: (a) scheduled public buses;
2084 (b) express bus services linking the airport directly with downtown or other popular destinations, and
2085 (c) shared-ride van services that use 7 to 10-passenger vans and make multiple stops enroute to and
2086 from an airport. As a result, at most airports the transit facilities consist of dedicated curbside
2087 passenger drop-off and pick-up areas, with perhaps a bus shelter or an enclosed, weather-protected
2088 passenger waiting area.

2089

2090

2091 8.7.1 Rail Transit

2092 Several airports offer direct rail connections (e.g., one-seat rides on trains) between the airport terminal
 2093 and the downtown area. Other airports offer rail access but require a transfer using an intermediary
 2094 travel mode (e.g., a two-seat ride). Typically rail (and bus) services are planned in coordination with the
 2095 local transit operator and other agencies. The following are key considerations when planning rail
 2096 transit:

- 2097 • Ability to preserve future aviation related development opportunities and flexibility to
 2098 accommodate unforeseen development.
- 2099 • Walking distances and number of level changes between the transit stop/platform and the
 2100 airline ticket counters and baggage claim areas.
- 2101 • Ability for passengers with baggage to pass through turnstiles and enter/exit transit stations
 2102 both at the airport and other stations.
- 2103 • Ability to board the transit vehicle for passengers with several pieces of baggage.

2104 Additional information about the use of public transit and planning for public transit facilities at airports
 2105 can be found in:

- 2106 • [TCRP Report 62, Effects of TOD on Housing, Parking, and Travel](#)
- 2107 • [TCRP Report 83, Strategies for Improving Public Transportation Access to Large Airports](#)
- 2108 • [ACRP Report 4, Ground Access to Major Airports by Public Transportation](#)

2109 8.7.2 Automated People Mover Systems

2110 Automated People Mover (APM) systems at airports are used when a large number of passengers must
 2111 be transported on a frequent basis between two points or between multiple points. APM systems can
 2112 be classified by those that provide:

- 2113 • Transportation post security such as between a landside terminal building and a remotely
 2114 located airside concourse (e.g., the airports serving Atlanta, Denver, Miami, Orlando, Pittsburgh,
 2115 Seattle, Tampa, and Washington-Dulles) or at airports having unit terminal buildings (e.g., the
 2116 airports serving Dallas/Fort Worth, Detroit, and Houston Intercontinental).
- 2117 • Transportation pre-security such as between the terminal buildings and either (1) a consolidated
 2118 rental car center or parking structure (e.g., at Atlanta, Phoenix, San Francisco), and/or (2) other
 2119 unit terminal buildings at airports where some connecting passengers must exit security (e.g.,
 2120 Chicago O'Hare, John F. Kennedy, Minneapolis-St. Paul international airports).

2121 Key considerations when planning APM systems include:

- 2122 • The capacity of each car, since passengers on pre-security APM systems have more and larger
 2123 pieces of baggage per person than do passengers on post-security systems
- 2124 • Peak hour loads on the busiest guideway segment or station-to-station link. The number of
 2125 required cars (and train size) is a function of the peak load, the vehicle capacity, and the desired
 2126 headways.
- 2127 • Guideway geometry and alignment which is established by the type of APM system (e.g., self-
 2128 propelled vs cable pulled).

2129 • Station design to allow for the separation of boarding and alighting passengers, space for
2130 waiting passengers, and as well as escalators and elevators frequently needed to connect to
2131 elevated or underground stations. Design should also consider providing alternative walkways
2132 for passengers for times when the APM is inoperable.

2133 • Vehicle maintenance and storage yards which are often located at the end of the line.

2134 The choice of APM versus shuttle bus depends on the desired customer experience (flat boarding and
2135 alighting for an APM versus climbing steps for a shuttle bus), capacity required to accommodate the
2136 expected passenger demands, the travel distance (most APM systems are less than one mile in length),
2137 and costs with the life-cycle costs of an APM (capital costs plus operations & maintenance costs) being
2138 much more than a shuttle bus.

2139 [ACRP Report 37, Guidebook for Planning and Implementing Automated People Mover Systems at](#)
2140 [Airports](#) provides detailed information about the planning and design of APM systems and presents
2141 information about the various types of system configurations (e.g., shuttles, loops, and pinched loops)
2142 and equipment.

2143 8.8 Landside Signage and Wayfinding

2144 Roadway and parking facility signage includes warning signs (e.g., Stop and Yield), regulatory signs
2145 (e.g., No Parking, Speed Limit), and directional or wayfinding signs. A detailed description of the design
2146 and application of warning and regulatory signs can be found in the [Manual on Uniform Traffic Control](#)
2147 [Devices](#) (MUTCD) published by the Federal Highway Administration, which contains information about
2148 the planning and design of directional signs for regional roadways and streets. A detailed description of
2149 the planning and design of directional and wayfinding signs for airport roadways and parking facilities
2150 can be found in [ACRP Report 52, Wayfinding and Signage Guidelines for Airports](#).

2151 The planning of wayfinding signs for airport roadways and parking facilities begins when plans for these
2152 facilities are first developed. Wayfinding should be an integral part of the planning process, rather than
2153 being considered only after the design is complete.

2154 Airport roadways should be planned to simplify wayfinding by motorists. This can be accomplished by
2155 providing:

2156 • Adequate time for motorists between successive decision points so that they can recognize that
2157 they are approaching a decision point, read the signs, and safely react to the information
2158 provided.

2159 • Binary decision points and avoidance of three-way roadway splits.

2160 • Uniform roadway exit patterns (e.g., placing exits/entrance consistently on the same side of the
2161 road).

2162 • Simple messages that can be quickly read and understood, and which minimize confusion.

2163 • Adequate capacity for weaving maneuvers considering the number of lanes to be crossed,
2164 vehicle speed, the volume of traffic, and weaving distance.

2165 • Design standards to regulate or prohibit distractions near directional signs such as billboards,
2166 banners, or other devices.

2167 • Regulatory signs that enable law enforcement to manage roadways/curbs and prohibit
2168 unattended vehicles.

2169 The need for simple wayfinding signs is highlighted by the number and complexity of decisions
2170 encountered by motorists entering a major airport, and the high proportion of motorists who rarely use
2171 the airport and are unfamiliar with its roadways. When planning and signing a parking structure or lot,
2172 priority should be given to the needs of pedestrians rather than motorists. Motorists simply need to
2173 find an empty space and an exit. Customers on foot need to be reminded where they parked their car,
2174 as well as how to walk to/from the terminal.

2175 It is advisable to provide many reminders to help customers recall the level, aisle or section of a parking
2176 facility where they left their car. These reminders may include the use of a combination of colors,
2177 letters, symbols, and names, and repeating these devices along the path the customer follows when
2178 walking from their car to the terminal. Brightly lit aisles and pathways can help guide customers. Being
2179 able to see the terminal or other object/view through the parking parapet can help orient pedestrians.
2180 For safety and convenience it is desirable to provide good lines of sight and avoid locations where
2181 intruders can hide within a parking structure.

2182 CHAPTER 9. SUSTAINABILITY IN TERMINAL PLANNING

2183 9.1 General

2184 This chapter provides guidance on airport sustainability considerations that can be made for anyone
2185 initiating an airport terminal-related project. This includes an overview of sustainability practice and
2186 relevant practices.

2187 9.2 Airport Sustainability Practice

2188 Sustainability is a set of practices and principles that focuses on high and stable levels of economic
2189 growth, operational efficiency, preservation of natural resources, and social responsibility.¹ This is
2190 accomplished by evaluating the carrying capacity of regional, national, or Earth systems (the
2191 atmosphere, resource capacity, etc.) when planning, designing, building, and maintaining facilities,
2192 developing public policy, and running organizations.

2193 The goal of these efforts is to achieve sustainable growth – growth that assures high quality of life and
2194 environmental quality in our generation without compromising the needs of future generations, or
2195 damaging Earth systems. Global sustainable development principles are generally linked to a report
2196 produced by the Brundtland Commission, a commission formed by the United Nations.

2197 Airport sustainability incorporates economic, environmental, and social considerations into planning,
2198 design, construction, operations, and maintenance through a concept called the “Triple Bottom Line.”
2199 High and stable levels of economic growth, environmental quality, and social responsibility are the
2200 “three” pillars of sustainability. In addition to the three pillars, the airport industry adds “operational
2201 efficiency” as an equal consideration. This is called the EONS approach (economics, operations, natural
2202 resources, and social responsibility) to airport sustainability.² See **Figure 9-1**.

2203

¹ Sustainable Aviation Guidance Alliance (SAGA).

² Ibid.

2204

Figure 9-1 EONS Approach



2205

2206

Source: SAGA, <http://www.airportsustainability.org/>

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2208

2209 To some degree, airports already integrate some sustainability practices without explicitly identifying
 2210 them as such. Examples include energy efficiency and emissions reduction projects, solid waste
 2211 recycling, reusing construction and demolition materials, economic analysis of proposed development,
 2212 and community outreach. Sustainability practice institutionalizes these considerations by overtly
 2213 incorporating the concept into “traditional” processes such as airport planning. This approach results in
 2214 a discrete and robust set of sustainability goals and initiatives that can be tracked and easily
 2215 implemented. This also enables airports to identify sustainability benefits and report sustainability
 2216 accomplishments.

2217 Resources that provide in-depth explanations and information on airport sustainability include:

2218 • [ACRP Synthesis 10, Airport Sustainability Practices](#): This synthesis includes a list of focus areas
 2219 for each sustainability pillar, and corresponding sets of practices.

2220 • [The Sustainable Aviation Guidance Alliance \(SAGA\)](#): Established by a coalition of aviation
 2221 interests, SAGA has a website with specific airport sustainability projects. It includes airport
 2222 points of contact, and descriptions of the projects and benefits.

2223 • [ACRP Report 119, Prototype Airport Sustainability Rating System](#): This report outlines a
 2224 prototype airport-wide sustainability rating system that airport operators can use to improve
 2225 sustainability performance. This includes terminal buildings. The report also compares other
 2226 rating systems and sustainable design processes.

2227 • [Airport Recycling, Reuse, and Waste Reduction Plans](#): Provides information on airport recycling,
 2228 reuse and waste reduction. For federally obligated airports, see, [FAA Guidance on Airport
 2229 Recycling, Reuse, and Waste Reduction](#).

2230 There is an impression that sustainability is primarily focused on the environment. This is not the case.
 2231 In the “Triple Bottom Line” and EONs frameworks, environment, economics, social responsibility, and
 2232 operational efficiency are equally considered. It is possible to pursue airport initiatives that intersect
 2233 with multiple “sustainability pillars.” For instance, an energy efficient terminal can save money while
 2234 reducing environmental impacts. A low emissions vehicle can reduce harmful emissions while saving

2235 money on fuel and maintenance during the vehicle’s life cycle. Maximizing recycling capacity may
2236 provide opportunities to increase revenue while reducing material usage and operational costs.
2237 Evidence of this balance can be found in airport planning documents that incorporate sustainability.
2238 Some airports prioritize economics while others prioritize environmental aspects when outlining their
2239 sustainability vision. Despite the different initial orientations, the actual sustainability practices are
2240 roughly the same.

2241 The key is to identify measures that, either individually or collectively, will “sustain” the airport – as an
2242 economic engine in a region, a positive contributor to the community, and an attractive workplace for
2243 employees and tenants, all while proactively minimizing environmental effects. An effective
2244 sustainability approach achieves operational efficiency *while* minimizing environmental impacts,
2245 benefiting the community and contributing to the local economy. Through careful planning, it is
2246 possible to achieve all four objectives.

2247 9.3 Airport Sustainability Planning

2248 Airports typically consider sustainability in planning documents such as airport sustainability plans,
2249 through sustainability reporting, and in operations and maintenance. Sustainability plans can either be
2250 integrated with an airport master plan or stand-alone sustainable master plan. In general, these plans
2251 include baseline analyses of sustainability focus areas. Following are some examples:

- 2252 • Air quality and emissions reduction.
- 2253 • Recycling, reuse, and waste reduction.
- 2254 • Energy conservation, efficiency, and renewable energy.
- 2255 • Sustainable capital improvements (sustainability considerations of capital improvements during
2256 the master planning period).
- 2257 • Airport connectivity and multimodal development.
- 2258 • Sustainable land use.
- 2259 • Sustainable design and construction.
- 2260 • Climate adaptation and resilience.
- 2261 • Natural resources management.
- 2262 • Community outreach.
- 2263 • Employee well-being.

2264 Baseline analyses of these focus areas are used to identify sustainability initiatives or practices during
2265 the planning period, and establish a method to implement the objectives and track progress.³

³ For additional information on sustainability practices resulting from this approach, see ACRP Synthesis 10, the Sustainable Aviation Guidance Alliance (www.airportsustainability.org), and the FAA sustainability webpage (www.faa.gov/airports/environmental/sustainability). Several airport authorities also have robust sustainability programs.

2266 9.4 Sustainability in Terminal Development

2267 Aspects of terminal development that are relevant to sustainability include terminal siting and access,
2268 building design and characteristics, terminal power sources, energy efficiency, conservation and
2269 management, terminal emissions, and terminal recycling, reuse, and waste reduction. The following
2270 sections outline key sustainability considerations.

2271 9.4.1 Terminal Siting and Access

2272 When possible and in accordance with AC 150/5300-13, *Airport Design*, terminals should be sited to
2273 minimize taxi distances from runways and taxiways to reduce fuel consumption and emissions of taxiing
2274 aircraft, and minimize noise impacts to surrounding communities. Sustainable terminal design also
2275 prioritizes intermodal connectivity through rail and transport links, and an efficient layout of the
2276 terminal, parking areas, and airport-related facilities (such as rental car providers and other support
2277 facilities). Sustainability objectives include:

- 2278 • Minimizing motor vehicle transport to/from the terminal, thereby reducing fuel consumption,
2279 emissions, traffic impacts, and motor vehicle dependence.
- 2280 • Minimizing fuel consumption, emissions and congestion for airport and tenant vehicles.
- 2281 • Planning for convenient and integrated public transport to and from the terminal, efficient mass
2282 transit options between terminals, and convenient access to the local community. When
2283 possible, integrating these considerations into municipal plans.

2284 Improving public transport around an airport may be outside the scope of airport or terminal planning,
2285 but provisions can be made for multimodal facilities in a terminal plan. This includes light, conventional
2286 or high-speed rail systems, and regional and local bus facilities. All facilities should be designed for
2287 convenient passenger and employee access. Airports should coordinate with municipalities early in any
2288 planning process to ensure these considerations are also included in municipal plans.

2289 9.4.2 Building Design and Characteristics

2290 A key sustainability consideration in building design is efficient energy use and energy waste. Energy use
2291 can be optimized through the use of energy efficient power sources, attention to building form and
2292 orientation, building envelope, natural light and ventilation, shading, height-to-floor ratios, and systems
2293 that can optimize heating, cooling, and electrical energy use. All of these decisions can maximize passive
2294 ventilation and cooling, and reduce energy requirements.

2295 Buildings should also be designed with consideration of the sustainability and nature of materials used,
2296 the way the terminal represents its distinctive, local context, and appropriateness for the environmental
2297 setting. Considerations such as climate, vegetation, the character of surrounding or distinctive buildings
2298 in the area, local culture, and community values can create a structure that integrates with its
2299 environment.

2300 In some cases, and particularly where there is a local legacy of civil aviation, terminal planning can
2301 continue that legacy through parameters that evoke the origins of civil aviation (to the extent
2302 practicable in the current operating environment). In this context, the planning approach is more
2303 sustainable through an understanding of the local environment, not solely internal planning
2304 considerations or the tendencies of a particular designer.

2305 These considerations can also prevent the introduction of design features that require additional care
2306 and maintenance in the local climate. Examples include optimal orientation to take advantage of

2307 natural wind and sun patterns, use of surfaces that minimize “heat island” effects in warmer climates,
2308 etc.

2309 Sustainability objectives include:

- 2310 • Planning a structure that integrates with the local environment and increases its value as an
2311 attractive destination.
- 2312 • Orienting the building to take advantage of natural light and ventilation, and include design
2313 features that minimize energy needed to heat, cool, and light the structure.
- 2314 • Ensuring the building envelope and design features minimizes energy waste.

2315 9.4.3 Terminal Power Sources

2316 Careful evaluation of the capacity of energy sources in a given area is important to determining whether
2317 the terminal will affect the sustainability of regional power supplies. In all cases, and especially with
2318 new buildings, energy efficient power sources should be maximized. For the purposes of this section,
2319 energy efficiency is achieving the same level of service with fewer energy inputs (such as fossil fuels).

2320 In general, the most efficient power sources are those that waste less energy during the conversion or
2321 refining process from a “fuel” (fossil fuels, sunlight, wind, etc.), and during transmission to a specific end
2322 use (heat, cooling, electricity, etc.). In this context, renewable power sources such as geothermal and
2323 solar are more efficient than fossil fuels. Efficiency is also improved through co-generation or tri-
2324 generation, when energy used for electric power is also used for heat or other purposes.

2325 Please note that efficiency is distinct from cost-effectiveness. Some renewable sources require a larger
2326 up-front capital investment. Despite this, it is possible to generate cost savings, particularly when
2327 utilizing incentives such as grants funding or seeking partnerships (such as Energy Savings Performance
2328 Contracts) where outside entities will build a renewable power source in exchange for some of the cost
2329 savings. It should be noted that Airport operators considering renewable power sources need to ensure
2330 that new installations comply with FAA airport design standards (e.g. AC 150/5300-13, 14 CFR Part 77,
2331 etc.) and do not adversely affect airport operations. Coordinate with the FAA staff early in the process.

2332 Connecting renewable power sources through a smart grid or micro grid can also ensure a sustainable
2333 energy supply that remains independent of fluctuations in the power grid. This can increase energy
2334 security. When combined with systems that optimize energy use based on demand, this can also
2335 optimize energy use and reduce energy waste.

2336 Terminal energy assessments, audits, or management plans can help determine baseline energy usage
2337 and future energy needs. They can also be used to identify practices or initiatives that will increase
2338 energy efficiency of power sources and energy use for terminal buildings. When possible, energy audits
2339 should be for the entire airport. These can be integrated into a sustainability plan or a stand-alone
2340 effort. This will result in airport-wide measures that can also benefit terminals.

2341 Sustainability objectives include:

- 2342 • Maximizing use of energy efficient power sources.
- 2343 • Evaluating the potential for smart grids and micro grids that increase energy security and
2344 optimize energy use.
- 2345 • Completing airport-wide energy assessments, audits, or plans with corresponding energy
2346 efficiency objectives.

2347 9.4.4 Energy Efficiency, Conservation, and Management in Terminal Buildings

2348 Terminal planners should consider the latest energy efficiency certification and recertification processes.
2349 One example is Leadership in Energy and Environmental Design (LEED). LEED has a point-based system
2350 that can be referenced to develop a more sustainable building. Buildings can be certified as LEED Silver,
2351 Gold, or Platinum depending on the extent to which LEED practices are incorporated into subsequent
2352 design. There is also LEED certification for existing buildings (LEED-EB) that can improve building
2353 performance.

2354 Though LEED certification is sometimes sought for new airport buildings and some existing buildings,
2355 LEED practices may not always be suitable in an airport environment (e.g., high numbers of bike racks in
2356 a vehicular environment). Therefore, even if LEED is referenced, airport-specific considerations may
2357 affect the ultimate level of LEED certification one attains, or even if certification is sought.

2358 For this reason, airport operators should evaluate a wide variety of sustainability rating and design
2359 systems to determine which is appropriate for a given project. Reference [ACRP Report 119, Prototype](#)
2360 [Airport Sustainability Rating System](#), for comparisons between various sustainability ratings systems and
2361 certifications.

2362 Smart building design that takes advantage of natural light and passive ventilation can also contribute to
2363 an energy conservation strategy by reducing the amount of energy needed for a terminal building.

2364 “Smart” building technologies such as computer controls, sensors and whole-building automation (such
2365 as Building Automation Systems [BAS]/Building Energy Management [BEM] systems can help airport
2366 operators consider the functioning of the building as a system, rather than focusing on individual
2367 energy-using devices. Once a terminal is constructed, building recommissioning ensures building
2368 systems are functioning as originally planned and designed.

2369 These systems and approaches enable heating, cooling, and electricity to react automatically to the
2370 operating environment to optimize energy efficiency. Features include automatic adjustment of
2371 external shades or louvers that track sunlight and heat load to maximize light and control solar heat
2372 load. Plantings such as green roofs can be used to lower ambient temperature. All of these systems and
2373 features can be included in a terminal plan.

2374 Furthermore, if the heating, cooling and electricity needs of a collection of buildings can be linked
2375 together in an integrated system without major distribution losses, significant energy savings are
2376 possible. This can benefit the terminal and the airport environment.

2377 Sustainability objectives include:

- 2378 • Maximizing use of energy efficient power sources.
- 2379 • Evaluating the potential for smart grids and micro grids that increase energy security and
2380 optimize energy use.
- 2381 • Completing airport-wide energy assessments, audits, or plans with corresponding energy
2382 efficiency objectives.

2383 9.4.5 Terminal Recycling, Reuse, and Waste Reduction

2384 Waste from terminal buildings can be one of the single largest waste streams on an airport. Maximizing
2385 recycling, reuse, and waste reduction can significantly reduce the waste stream and associated costs. In
2386 some instances recycling/reuse of waste can provide opportunities to generate airport revenue. Airport
2387 recycling, reuse, and waste reduction plans are a required element of FAA-approved airport master

2388 plans or master plan updates. Developing this plan can provide opportunities to evaluate recycling
2389 when planning terminal buildings, expand recycling programs, and reduce costs. For more information,
2390 see [AC 150/5070-6, Airport Master Plans](#) and [FAA Guidance on Airport Recycling, Reuse, and Waste](#)
2391 [Reduction](#)

2392 The terminal's proximity to municipal (or on-airport) recycling facilities is a key consideration when
2393 developing a recycling plan. The ability to recycle municipal solid waste or construction and demolition
2394 materials is often dependent upon this capacity. When possible, airport operators should coordinate
2395 with municipalities to advocate for municipal recycling facilities.

2396 Terminal contracts are a way to ensure sustainability is integrated into terminal construction, and
2397 concessions, cleaning and maintenance, and other aspects of building operation. [ACRP Synthesis 42,](#)
2398 [Integrating Sustainability into Airport Contracts](#), is a useful reference.

2399 Sustainability objectives include:

- 2400 • Maximize recycling, reuse, and waste reduction in terminal construction and operation.
- 2401 • Plan and advocate for increased municipal recycling capacity.
- 2402 • Integrate sustainability into terminal contracts.

2403 **9.4.6** Terminal Emissions

2404 Terminal siting and design, the materials and technologies used for the building, can greatly reduce
2405 emissions that are harmful to local air quality and increase atmospheric concentrations of Greenhouse
2406 Gases (GHG). This includes the use of power to reduce aircraft ground emissions through gate
2407 electrification and pre-conditioned air for aircraft at terminal gates. Analyses of terminal emissions and
2408 GHG inventories can aid planning that reduces emissions during building operation.

2409 Sustainability objectives include:

- 2410 • Completing analyses and inventories that improve understanding of terminal emissions, and can
2411 facilitate development of emissions reduction measures.
- 2412 • Consider the use of terminal power to reduce aircraft ground emissions.
- 2413 • Pursue an energy efficient design, with efficient power sources, that can benefit air quality and
2414 reduce GHG emissions.

2415 **9.5** **Other Sustainability Considerations**

2416 **9.5.1** Climate Change Adaptation and Resilience

2417 Climate change adaptation and resilience is a process of identifying projects or improving facilities to
2418 adapt to changing climatic conditions. This process is normally conducted on a regional or local level
2419 through analysis of the potential impacts of climate change, and terminal needs. This ensures terminals
2420 can remain in operation or quickly recover from a climate-related event. Potential impacts of climate
2421 change include sea level rise during the planning period, changing frequency or intensity of storms or
2422 floods, or alterations in weather patterns.

2423 Several municipalities and airport authorities are developing broader climate plans that can inform
2424 terminal planning, either within the same geographic area or airport authority, or for terminals being

2425 planned in the same region. These effects should be considered in a terminal plan, or in an airport-wide
2426 sustainability or adaptation plan.

2427 For more information, see [ACRP Report 147, Climate Change Adaptation Planning: Risk Assessment for](#)
2428 [Airports](#)

2429 9.5.2 Social Sustainability and Terminal Planning

2430 Social sustainability can be achieved through terminal plans that allow easy access to the airport
2431 through public transit, open houses, meeting spaces, an inclusive terminal design process, features that
2432 generate local economic activity (such as conveniently located businesses outside the sterile area), and a
2433 terminal building that reflects local culture.

2434 Sustainability objectives include:

- 2435 • Prioritizing an aesthetic approach that creates a “sense of place” for building occupants, ideally
2436 one that is recognizable in the context of the built environment.
- 2437 • Planning terminals that will have the essential features for building occupants well-being: high
2438 indoor air quality, excellent employee facilities, natural light, and a layout that will make the
2439 airport both a desirable place to work and local destination.
- 2440 • Evaluating how amenities between sterile and non-sterile areas affect how the community
2441 interacts with the airport, and passengers interface with the local community.
- 2442 • Including the local community in the planning process and building operation. This includes
2443 allocating spaces for local contributions (installations for local art or descriptions of distinctive
2444 aspects of the local area, etc.), and highlighting what the airport is doing to remain a good
2445 neighbor and local economic engine.

2446 9.5.3 Economic Sustainability and Terminal Planning

2447 As stated earlier, sustainability evaluates social and economic costs on an equal basis with environment.
2448 Therefore, these and other sustainability considerations should be supported with economic analyses
2449 that ensure the continued economic vitality of the airport, its employees, and the surrounding
2450 community.

2451 Though some sustainability initiatives require up-front investment, most can achieve a considerable
2452 return on investment throughout the useful life of the facility. For instance, in areas with reduced water
2453 capacity or issues with the electric grid, sustainability measures can save the airport money while
2454 minimizing burdens on local systems or resources. The overarching sustainability objective in a terminal
2455 plan should be to minimize environmental impacts *while* ensuring operational efficiency, economic
2456 growth, employee well-being, passenger convenience, and a strong relationship with the community.

2457 CHAPTER 10. PLANNING CONSIDERATIONS FOR NON-HUB TERMINALS**2458 10.1 General**

2459 This chapter provides additional considerations that should be made for non-hub airports when
2460 planning a new, renovated or expanded terminal facility. The process of planning and designing a non-
2461 hub terminal facility is fundamentally the same as it is for larger airports. Non-hub airports need to
2462 assess their situation before beginning the process, much like their larger counterparts. It is also
2463 important to have alignment and documentation around the goals & objectives of the project.
2464 Stakeholder input, and the technical aspects of the project are also important although likely at a
2465 smaller scale. The following sections highlight some areas non-hub airports should pay particular
2466 attention to:

- 2467 • Volatility.
- 2468 • Flexibility in planning.
- 2469 • Financial realities and risk.
- 2470 • Stakeholder involvement.

2471 10.2 Volatility

2472 Non-hub airports are more vulnerable to shifts in the economy and air service decisions made by
2473 airlines. As a result, they are more likely to experience changes in demand, more unpredictable revenue
2474 streams from airlines and concessions, and more drastic changes in their operation.

2475 This factor is something that should be carefully considered by non-hub airport owners/operators.
2476 [ACRP Report142, Effects of Airline Industry Changes on Small- and Non-Hub Airports](#) specifically
2477 discusses this topic.

2478 10.3 Flexibility in Planning

2479 Guidance routinely used for determining the sizing of facilities assumes that the airport owner/operator
2480 will plan for peak hour activity. However, at non-hub airports where there are few peak periods, the
2481 space program should be completed using the models discussed in earlier chapters; however once the
2482 planners begin to look at building layouts, the square footage assumptions should be revisited to ensure
2483 the facility is not oversized.

2484 In terms of the physical layout of facilities, it is wise for non-hub size airports to consider simple
2485 expansion scenarios and construction techniques so that it is most economical and efficient to expand if
2486 activity levels increase due to air service growth. This holds true for airline ticketing areas, bag claim, as
2487 well as gates.

2488 10.4 Financial Realities and Risk

2489 Smaller airports often operate on tight, fixed budgets. In some cases, their operation is subsidized by
2490 the owning entity, using non-airport funds. Because of this, non-hub airports must be keenly aware of
2491 the financial risks inherent in a terminal improvement program.

2492 Operating budgets can also be smaller on a per passenger basis for non-hub airports. This is something
2493 that should be kept in mind when deciding on the sizing of a facility, some of the facility details such as
2494 finishes (choosing those that hold up longer and/or require minimal upkeep).

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CHAPTER 11. MISCELLANEOUS PLANNING CONSIDERATIONS2496 11.1 **General Aviation Terminals**

2497 The planning and design of general aviation terminal facilities are generally outside the scope of this AC.
2498 For information on the topic, see [AC 150/5300-13, Airport Design](#) and [ACRP Report 113: Guidebook on](#)
2499 [General Aviation Facility Planning](#).

2500 11.2 **Hazardous Wildlife Attractants**

2501 During the planning and design process it is advisable to understand, weigh and mitigate the potential
2502 that facility design may have on attracting wildlife. Changes made to terminal facilities (e.g.,
2503 architectural treatments, introduction of landscape vegetation, etc.) and adjacent land uses have the
2504 potential to attract hazardous wildlife on or near public-use airports. Examples include; exposed beams
2505 becoming bird perches or nesting locations, airport landscaping featuring vegetation that attracts
2506 wildlife, and cell phone lots and taxi staging areas that could introduce new sources of food waste that
2507 can attract hazardous wildlife. For more information see [AC 5200-33, Hazardous Wildlife Attractants on](#)
2508 [or Near Airports](#).

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APPENDIX A. LIST OF ACRONYMS

2523	AC	Advisory Circular
2524	ACI	Airports Council International
2525	ACRP	Airport Cooperative Research Program
2526	ADA	Americans with Disabilities Act
2527	ADG	Airplane Design Group
2528	ADPM	Average Day of the Peak Month
2529	ALP	Airport Layout Plan
2530	ATCT	Airport Traffic Control Tower
2531	CBP	Customs and Border Protection
2532	DHS	Department of Homeland Security
2533	EQA	Equivalent Aircraft Factors
2534	FAA	Federal Aviation Administration
2535	FIS	Federal Inspection Services
2536	GSE	Ground Service Equipment
2537	HVAC	Heating Ventilation and Air Conditioning
2538	IATA	International Air Transport Association
2539	LOS	Level of Service
2540	O&D	Origin and Destination
2541	PBB	Passenger Boarding Bridge
2542	ROM	Rough Order of Magnitude
2543	RON	Remain Overnight
2544	SARA	Service Animal Relief Area
2545	SIDA	Security Identification Display Area
2546	TCRP	Transit Cooperative Research Program
2547	TRB	Transportation Research Board
2548	TSA	Transportation Security Administration

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APPENDIX B. REFERENCE MATERIALS**2562 B.1 FAA Advisory Circulars**

2563 Below is a list of ACs that are mentioned in the previous sections of this AC, which provide specialized
2564 guidance or reference information related to the process of planning or designing airport terminal
2565 facilities. Additionally, a directory of all FAA ACs is available at the following location,
2566 http://www.faa.gov/airports/resources/advisory_circulars/

- 2567 • [AC 150/5050-4, Citizen Participation in Airport Planning](#)
- 2568 • [AC 150/5070-6, Airport Master Plans](#)
- 2569 • [AC 150/5100-14, Architectural, Engineering, and Planning Consultant Services for Airport Grant](#)
2570 [Projects](#)
- 2571 • [AC 150/5220-21, Aircraft Boarding Equipment](#)
- 2572 • [AC 150/5300-13A, Airport Design](#)
- 2573 • [AC 5320-6, Airport Pavement Design and Evaluation](#)
- 2574 • [AC 150/5340-1L, Standards for Airport Markings](#)
- 2575 • [AC 150/5360-14, Access to Airports by Individuals with Disabilities](#)

2576 B.2 FAA Orders

2577 Below are FAA Orders which provide relevant information or reference information related to planning
2578 or designing airport terminal facilities. A directory of all FAA Orders is available at the following location,
2579 <http://www.faa.gov/airports/resources/publications/orders/>.

- 2580 • [Order 5100.38, Airport Improvement Program \(AIP\) Handbook](#)
- 2581 • [Order 5500.1, Passenger Facility Charge Handbook,](#)
- 2582 • [Order 5050.4, National Environmental Policy Act \(NEPA\) Implementing Instructions for Airport](#)
2583 [Actions](#)
- 2584 • [Order 1050.1, Environmental Impacts: Policies and Procedures](#)
- 2585 • [Order 6480.4, Airport Traffic Control Tower Siting Process](#)
- 2586 • [FAA Order 8260.3, United States Standard for Terminal Instrument Procedures \(TERPS\)](#)

2587 B.3 TRB Reports and Synthesis Documents

2588 Below are TRB (ACRP and TCRP) reports and synthesis documents, which provide relevant information
2589 or reference information related to the process of planning or designing airport terminal facilities.

- 2590 • ACRP 07-15, Airport Terminal Design Electronic Resource Library (PENDING)
- 2591 • [ACRP Report 4, Ground Access to Major Airports by Public Transportation](#)
- 2592 • [ACRP Synthesis Report 2, Airport Aviation Activity Forecasting](#)

- 2593 • [ACRP Report 10, Innovations for Airport Terminal Facilities](#)
- 2594 • [ACRP Synthesis 10, Airport Sustainability Practices](#)
- 2595 • [ACRP Report 16, Guidebook for Managing Small Airports](#)
- 2596 • [ACRP Report 23, Airport Passenger-Related Processing Rates Guidebook](#)
- 2597 • [ACRP Report 25, Airport Passenger Terminal Planning and Design – Volume 1 Guidebook](#)
- 2598 • [ACRP Report 25, Airport Passenger Terminal Planning and Design – Volume 2 Spreadsheet](#)
- 2599 • [Models and User's Guide](#)
- 2600 • [ACRP Report 37, Guidebook for Planning and Implementing Automated People Mover Systems](#)
- 2601 • [ACRP Report 40, Airport Curbside and Terminal Area Roadway Operations](#)
- 2602 • [ACRP Report 52, Wayfinding and Signing Guidelines for Airport Terminals and Landside](#)
- 2603 • [ACRP Report 54, Resource Manual for Airport In-Terminal Concessions](#)
- 2604 • [ACRP Synthesis Report 51, Impacts of Aging Travelers on Airports](#)
- 2605 • [ACRP Report 55, Passenger Level of Service and Spatial Planning for Airport Terminals](#)
- 2606 • [ACRP Synthesis Report 64, Issues Related to Accommodating Animals Traveling Through Airports](#)
- 2607 • [ACRP Report 68, Guidebook for Evaluating Terminal Renewal Versus Replacement Options](#)
- 2608 • [ACRP Report 82, Preparing Peak Period and Operational Profiles—Guidebook](#)
- 2609 • [ACRP Report 96, Apron Planning and Design Guidebook](#)
- 2610 • [ACRP Report 113: Guidebook on General Aviation Facility Planning](#)
- 2611 • [ACRP Report 119, Prototype Airport Sustainability Rating System](#)
- 2612 • [ACRP Report 130, Guidebook for Airport Terminal Restroom Planning and Design](#)
- 2613 • [ACRP Report 142, Effects of Airline Industry Changes on Small- and Non-Hub Airports](#)
- 2614 • [ACRP Report 146, Commercial Ground Transportation at Airports: Best Practices](#)
- 2615 • [ACRP Synthesis 42, Integrating Sustainability into Airport Contracts](#)
- 2616 • [TCRP Report 62, Effects of TOD on Housing, Parking, and Travel](#)
- 2617 • [TCRP Report 83, Strategies for Improving Public Transportation Access to Large Airports](#)

- 2618 **B.4 Federal Regulations and Guidance**
- 2619 • [14 CFR Part 77 - Safe, Efficient Use, and Preservation Of The Navigable Airspace](#)
- 2620 • [TSA, Recommended Security Guidelines for Airport Planning, Design and Construction](#)
- 2621 • [TSA, Planning Guidelines and Design Standards for Checked Baggage Inspection Systems](#)
- 2622 • [U.S. Department of Justice, 2010 ADA Standards for Accessible Design](#)
- 2623 • [USDOT, Manual on Uniform Traffic Control Devices \(MUTCD\)](#)

- 2624
- [TSA, Checkpoint Design Guide](#)

2625 **B.5 Additional Guidance**

2626 Below is a list of additional reference materials and guidance that are mentioned in the previous
2627 sections of this AC, which provide specialized guidance or reference information related to the process
2628 of planning or designing airport terminal facilities:

- 2629
- [IATA, Airport Design Reference Manual](#)

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 - [NFPA 415 Standard on Airport Terminal Buildings, Fueling Ramp Drainage, and Loading](#)
2631 [Walkways](#)

2632

 - [Airports Council International \(ACI\), Apron Markings and Signs Handbook](#)

2633

 - [CBP, Airport Technical Design Standards, Passenger Processing Facilities](#)

2634

 - [ACC, Guidelines to Selecting Airport Consultants](#)

2635

 - [Integrated Security System Standards for Airport Access Control systems, 2008](#)

2636

 - [Transportation Research Board, Highway Capacity Manual, 2010](#)

2637

 - [Intermodal Ground Access to Airports: A Planning Guide – A Good Start](#)

2638

 - [Airport Systems - Planning, Design, and Management](#), Richard de Neufville and Amadeo Odoni

2639

 - [Planning and Design of Airports](#), Robert Horonjeff and Francis McKelvey

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Advisory Circular Feedback

2642 If you find an error in this AC, have recommendations for improving it, or have suggestions for
2643 new items/subjects to be added, you may let us know by emailing this form to the attention of
2644 the Manager of the Airport Planning and Environmental Division (APP-400) via the division
2645 [website](#).

2646 Subject: AC 150/5360-13A

Date: Click here to enter text.

2647 *Please check all appropriate line items:*

2648 An error (procedural or typographical) has been noted in paragraph Click here to enter
2649 text. on page Click here to enter text..

2650 Recommend paragraph Click here to enter text. on page Click here to enter text. be
2651 changed as follows:

2652 Click here to enter text.

2653 In a future change to this AC, please cover the following subject:
2654 *(Briefly describe what you want added.)*

2655 Click here to enter text.

2656 Other comments:

2657 Click here to enter text.

2658 I would like to discuss the above. Please contact me.

2659 Submitted by: _____ Date: __

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