

## Space Efficiency in Contemporary Supertall Office Buildings

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3

### 4 **Abstract**

5 Space efficiency in supertall building (300m+) is one of the most critical design parameters to  
6 make a project feasible. This issue becomes even more important in office buildings where the  
7 ability to increase rental income is a crucial indication of proper planning. This study analyzed  
8 space efficiency in contemporary supertall office buildings. Data was collected from the 44  
9 buildings through literature surveys and the case study method to examine space efficiency and  
10 main architectural and structural parameters affecting it to contribute to designing more feasible  
11 office towers. The main findings of this study indicated that: (1) central core was the most preferred  
12 type, (2) frequent use of free and tapered forms were identified, (3) composite use was dominant  
13 over steel and concrete utilization, (4) the most used structural system was outriggered frame  
14 system, (5) space efficiency decreased as the height of building increased, where core area and  
15 planning were the most decisive factors, (6) when groups of building form were compared with  
16 each other, no significant differences were identified among their effects on space efficiency and  
17 similar results were valid for structural systems. This study will aid and direct architects in the  
18 sound planning and development of supertall office projects.

19

20 **Keywords:** supertall office building, space efficiency, building form, core planning,

21 structural system and structural material.

22 **1. Introduction**

23 Tall buildings, which were generally designed for office use, had an important position in  
24 American architectural history at the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. They were primarily a reaction  
25 to the rapid population growth, expansive urban sprawl, economic cycles, and thus the need for  
26 business activities in the form of office units to be positioned as close to each other as possible.  
27 (Gunel and Ilgin, 2014). This tendency is still valid today. Moreover, through the years, the number  
28 of supertall buildings has been increasing, where one-third of them completed from 2000s onwards  
29 have an office function as single-use (CTBUH, 2020). Maximizing the leasable area is one of their  
30 most important design inputs.

31

32 Today, the race for height continues at an accelerating pace in the construction of office towers all  
33 over the world. However, supertall office buildings are more expensive to erect and operate per  
34 square meter, and they generate less usable space than conventional office buildings (Sev and  
35 Ozgen, 2009). Space efficiency stands out at this point as office function needs to fulfill the value  
36 and cost of the investment. Space efficiency, which is determined by the size of the floor plan,  
37 service core, and the dimension of the structural members, goes along with the financial return  
38 (Kim and Elnimeiri, 2004; Sev and Ozgen, 2009).

39

40 This paper aims to identify, gather, and consolidate the information about space efficiency in  
41 contemporary supertall office buildings from the main architectural and structural points of view  
42 to understand how space efficiency varies according to key design parameters. To achieve this  
43 goal, information was collected from the 44 case studies, most of which were the tallest office  
44 buildings of the last two decades.

45 The scope of the study was limited by using *four main points* to understand and analyze important  
46 parameters for design and their relationship with space efficiency in supertall office construction:  
47 *general information* (building name, location - country and city, height, number of stories,  
48 completion date), *main design considerations affecting space efficiency* (core planning, building  
49 forms, structural systems, and structural materials), *space efficiency*, and *interrelations of space*  
50 *efficiency and main design considerations*.

51

52 By revealing the up-to-date status of contemporary supertall office practices, this study provides  
53 insights into the making of more viable design decisions for future office towers. This research  
54 presents an introductory overview of considerations that are important to the design of supertall  
55 office buildings.

56

## 57 **2. Literature survey**

58 In the literature, a limited number of studies have focused on interconnected decisions on the space  
59 efficiency of tall buildings by examining a limited number ( $\leq 10$ ) of case studies. Among these,  
60 Nam and Shim (2016) measured the effect of tall building's corner shapes on the spatial efficiency  
61 for its internal use of the space. They verified the assumption that 'the actual influences by the  
62 corner shapes in a tall building can be significant owing to its numerous floors'. Some of the  
63 important key findings were: (1) square-cut corner shape is the most obstructive and the diagonal  
64 least, (2) the average number of the influential effect on spatial efficiency is about 4% comparing  
65 to the building without the corner cuts, (3) the relationship between the lease span and its spatial  
66 efficiency is directly proportional so that, at the early stage of a tall building planning, variations

67 of the building corner shape and the lease span should be controlled together to obtain the desired  
68 level of objective spatial efficiency.

69

70 Sev and Ozgen (2009) examined high-rise office buildings in terms of space efficiency by  
71 comparing ten case studies from the world and Turkey. Gross and net floor areas, and space  
72 efficiency accordingly, leasing depth, floor-to-floor height, core integrity, structural material, and  
73 structural system were taken as main parameters in the research. The followings were among the  
74 main conclusions of the study: (1) structural system and core planning are the most important  
75 factors affecting the space efficiency of high-rise office buildings, (2) depending on the needs of  
76 the tenants, areas of the core elements could differ substantially, affecting the space efficiency, (3)  
77 central core type is commonly used in these buildings, (4) the two common structural systems for  
78 the tallest office buildings of the world are composite mega-columns and central core with  
79 outriggers, and reinforced concrete tube-in-tube without outriggers system, (5) the efficiency of  
80 the net-to-gross floor area is the key to balance construction costs and total rental values.

81

82 Kim and Elnimeiri (2004) presented architectural design parameters such as function, lease span,  
83 floor-to-floor height for the design of multi-use tall buildings, and their interrelations to space  
84 efficiency. To do this, ten buildings were examined through specific case studies to show the  
85 relationship between the design factors. Some important research outputs as follows: (1) space  
86 efficiency should be considered together with other efficiencies such as structural, operational, and  
87 energy efficiency, (2) space efficiency is determined by the distribution of functions in multi-use  
88 tall buildings, (3) space efficiency in single-use buildings may be higher than that in multi-use  
89 ones, (4) space efficiency could be increased if optimum structural systems and resulted building

90 forms are developed together, (5) space efficiency could be higher if the building sacrifices the  
91 building serviceability by reducing the number of elevators to provide a smaller core area.

92

### 93 **3. Research methods**

94 This research was conducted through a literature survey including the Council of Tall Building  
95 and Urban Habitat (CTBUH) database ([www.ctbuh.org](http://www.ctbuh.org)), peer-reviewed-research, MSc theses and  
96 Ph.D. dissertations, proceedings, fact sheets, architectural and structural magazines, photographs,  
97 and videos.

98

99 Furthermore, a case study method was used to identify, collect, and consolidate the information  
100 about contemporary supertall office buildings to understand and analyze important parameters for  
101 the design and their relationship with space efficiency. The cases were 44 supertall office towers  
102 in a variety of countries [28 from Asia (23 from China), 6 from the Middle East, 9 from North  
103 America (all from the United States), and 1 from Russia]. Among the 44 cases, Petronas Tower 1  
104 & 2 (in Petronas Twin Towers) together with Jiangxi Nanchang Greenland Central Plaza Parcel A  
105 & B (in Jiangxi Nanchang Greenland Central Plaza Complex) were listed as different buildings  
106 based on the CTBUH database (CTBUH, 2020). Most of the 44 cases (>80%) were among the  
107 completed tallest office buildings from the last two decades (a few from 1990s) with exceptionally  
108 detailed information (see Table 1). It is worth mentioning here that the number of supertall office  
109 buildings completed in the last two decades was 55 in the world as of November 2020 (CTBUH,  
110 2020). Buildings without adequate information about their load-bearing systems and floor plans  
111 were excluded from this list. Considering the building form, a vigorous effort was made by author  
112 in finding and selecting floor plans including ground floor or low-rise floor or typical floor plans

113 to generate more consistent and accurate data for the comparison of space efficiency in the 44  
114 cases. Moreover, this meticulous approach to the use of comparable floor plans as possible allows  
115 producing more reliable data for space efficiency, taking into account the fact that considering the  
116 building itself in many tall buildings, core area decreases as the building rises.

117

118 The case study method is a common strategy used in built environment evaluations wherein  
119 projects are identified and documented for quantitative and qualitative data through in-depth  
120 literature review (Teegavarapu and Summers, 2008; Kuzmanovska et al., 2018).

121

122 Although there is still no global consensus on the height or number of stories for tall buildings (Al-  
123 Kodmany and Ali, 2013; Gunel and Ilgın, 2014; Al-Kodmany, 2018), according to the CTBUH  
124 database, buildings of 14 stories or 50 meters height and above could be considered as ‘tall  
125 buildings’; buildings of 300 meters and 600 meters height and above are classified as ‘supertall  
126 buildings’ and ‘megatall buildings’ respectively. In the view of author of this paper, a supertall  
127 building is assumed to be a building of more than 300 meters height.

128

129 The requirements arising from architectural and structural needs are the basic decision-making  
130 criteria in the design of supertall office buildings as in many other buildings. These main  
131 parameters are as follows:

- 132 • core planning *affecting arrangement of vertical mobility and distribution of shafts (e.g.*  
133 *Trabucco, 2008),*
- 134 • building form *affecting floor slab size and shape (e.g. Sev and Ozgen, 2009),*

135 • structural system *affecting the dimensions and layout of the structural members (e.g. Ilgin*  
136 *et al., 2020),*

137 • structural material *affecting the dimensions of the structural elements (e.g. Ilgin, 2018).*

138

139 The criteria mentioned above govern the floor slab size and shape, lease span, structural layout,  
140 and core arrangement/dimension, which determines space efficiency (Ali and Armstrong, 1995;  
141 Kim and Elnimeiri, 2004; Trabucco, 2008; Sev and Ozgen, 2009; Ilgin, 2018; Ilgin et al., 2020).  
142 Therefore, this study focuses on these four parameters for the space efficiency in the design of 44  
143 supertall office case study buildings. Their analyses are discussed in detail below.

144

## 145 **4. Findings**

### 146 ***4.1 Core planning***

147 As an essential architectural parameter, core planning, i.e. the arrangement of vertical circulation  
148 elements, distribution of mechanical and electrical shafts, plays the most critical role to increase  
149 the overall space efficiency of a building. The author used the core classification of Ilgin et al.  
150 (2020) as shown in Figure 1, because of its more complete and detailed structure compared to prior  
151 literature (Yeang, 2000; Kohn and Katz, 2002; Trabucco, 2010; Oldfield and Doherty, 2019).

152

153 As shown in Table 2, central core typology was the most preferred arrangement in the 44 case  
154 studies, with 95% occurrence, while external cores occurred in the 2 cases. This was similar to the  
155 findings by Oldfield and Doherty (2019) and Ilgin et al. (2020). Oldfield and Doherty (2019) found  
156 85% of central core typologies among 500 complete (or under construction) tall buildings with

157 heights between 247 and 1000m, while Ilgin et al. (2020) observed 95% of central core  
158 arrangements among 93 completed or under construction supertall buildings from 1980s onwards.

159  
160 The merits of central core typology including its significant role in the structural system,  
161 compactness, enabling of more openness on the building façade for light and views, and better fire  
162 safety performance may have contributed to its dominance (Oldfield and Doherty, 2019; Ilgin et  
163 al., 2020). On the other hand, low space efficiency because of longer circulation routes,  
164 problematic fire escape distances, could be assessed as disadvantages of external core  
165 configuration. Peripheral core arrangement has similar weaknesses (Ilgin, 2018), and was not used  
166 in the case studies. The need for extra fire prevention and smoke control measures is one of the  
167 major drawbacks of atrium core, which may have helped this typology's absence in the 44 cases  
168 (Hung and Chow, 2001).

169  
170 **4.2 Building forms**

171 Among architectural design considerations affecting space efficiency in supertall office buildings,  
172 building form - also directly related to floor slab shape - is also a significant factor. In this paper,  
173 by taking into account existing literature (Vollers, 2008; Al-Kodmany and Ali, 2016; Szolomicki  
174 and Golasz-Szolomicka, 2019), the following classification by Ilgin et al. (2020) was employed  
175 for categorization of the 44 cases (Figure 2):

176  
177 According to the building form classification above, free and tapered forms were most prevalent  
178 in the 44 cases with a ratio of 32% and 30%, respectively (Table 2). The architects' enthusiasm to  
179 quest for creative and distinctive building forms could be an explanation for the highest utilization



180 rate of free forms. On the other hand, the reason behind the high ratio of tapered form could be its  
181 aerodynamic and structural efficiency (Ilgin and Gunel, 2007). The prismatic form with a ratio of  
182 20% occurrence follows the most used forms, while the twisted form (in only one case) was the  
183 least occurring form. This was similar to the findings by Ilgin et al. (2020), who found 34% of  
184 tapered form, 29% of free form, and 22% of prismatic form typologies among 93 completed or  
185 under construction supertall buildings from 1980s onwards. Additionally, the findings from the 44  
186 cases also reflected similar results with that of completed supertall office buildings as of November  
187 2020 from 1990s onwards from the CTBUH database, where tapered and free forms are most  
188 prevalent in the 65 cases with a ratio of 32% and 28%, respectively, and the prismatic form with a  
189 ratio of 21% occurrence follows these forms. In the general sample of supertall office buildings,  
190 the leaning/tilted form was not employed. The reason behind the absence of this form might be its  
191 structural disadvantage, where gravity-induced lateral displacement gets higher as the angle of tilt  
192 increases (Moon, 2014).

193

#### 194 ***4.3 Supertall building structural systems***

195 Structural system selection is a critical factor directly affecting space efficiency of supertall office  
196 towers due to the dimension and layout of the structural members. For lateral bracing of supertall  
197 buildings, many structural systems and classifications are discussed in the literature (Smith and  
198 Coull, 1991; Ali and Moon, 2007; Gunel and Ilgin, 2007; Baker and Pawlikowski, 2012; Parker  
199 and Wood, 2013; Gunel and Ilgin, 2014; Sarkisian, 2016; Taranath, 2016; Ilgin, 2018; Ali and  
200 Moon, 2018; Moon, 2018; Fu, 2018). The author utilized the structural system classification of  
201 Ilgin et al. (2020) due to its comprehensive nature (see Figure 3).

202

203 As highlighted in Table 2, outriggered frame system was predominantly employed (~60%) in the  
204 44 cases. This was similar to the findings by Ilgin et al. (2020), who also observed this system as  
205 the most prevalent structural system (>65%) among 93 supertall buildings. The significant use of  
206 outriggered frame system can be mostly attributed to its advantages including flexibility in  
207 perimeter column compositions and hence relatively more freedom of the façade design, and great  
208 height potential as in the cases of *Ping An Finance Center* and *One World Trade Center*. Tube  
209 systems occurred 23% in the sample group.

210

#### 211 ***4.4 Structural materials***

212 The selection of structural material is another parameter having an effect on space efficiency since  
213 it affects the dimensions of structural elements. Structural materials can be divided into three main  
214 categories for supertall building construction: steel, reinforced concrete, and composite.

215

216 By taking into consideration the columns, beams, shear trusses, shear walls, and outriggers as the  
217 main structural elements (not floor slabs), this paper uses the term ‘composite’ construction for  
218 buildings in which some structural elements are made of reinforced concrete and other structural  
219 elements are made of steel, or those in which some structural elements are made of both structural  
220 steel and concrete together, or both.

221

222 In terms of structural material, for supertall office buildings, composite was the most commonly  
223 used (80%) structural material in the 44 case studies (Table 2). This ratio was higher than the  
224 finding in the study of Ilgin et al. (2020), where composite occurred 66%. This prevalence can be

225 explained by the combination of the advantages of both materials, namely the rigidity and fire  
226 resistance of reinforced concrete, and the high tensile and compressive strength of steel sections.

227

#### 228 *4.5 Space efficiency*

229 Space efficiency can be simply defined as the ratio of Net Floor Area (NFA) over Gross Floor  
230 Area (GFA). By considering the local codes and regulations, to get maximum returns for the  
231 investor, building floors should offer adequate functional space, namely high space efficiency  
232 (Kim and Elnimeiri, 2004). As highlighted in the previous section, this efficiency mainly depends  
233 on core planning, building form e.g. size and shape of the floor slab, structural system, and  
234 structural material. Additionally, space efficiency can be increased by ‘lease span’, which is  
235 defined as the distance between a fixed interior element (e.g. core wall) and exterior envelope (e.g.  
236 window) (Zils and Viise, 2003; Ko et al., 2008; Al-Kodmany, 2015).

237

238 In office towers with more than 40 stories, net to gross ratios of 68-73% in floor area were common  
239 by the end of the 1990s (Davis Langdon and Everest, 1997). According to Yeang (1995; 2000),  
240 75% was considered as a minimum value for space efficiency in high-rise buildings. However, as  
241 the building goes higher, achieving high space efficiency becomes a harder task to complete due  
242 to the increasing dimensions of service core and structural elements to meet the requirements of  
243 vertical circulation and resistance against loading conditions (Watts et al., 2007; Sev and Ozgen,  
244 2009; Lundberg, 2019). In the study of Sev and Ozgen (2009), space efficiency and core over gross  
245 floor area ratio of 10 supertall office buildings changed from 60% to 77% and from 22% to 30%  
246 with average values of 69% and 26%, respectively. In this research, the average space efficiency

247 and core over gross floor area ratio of the 44 cases were 71% and 26%, with 63% and 15% smallest  
248 and 82% and 36% highest, respectively (see Figure 4).

249

250 *Bank of China Tower* has the highest space efficiency (>80%) as well as the lowest ratio of core  
251 over gross floor area among the 44 cases. The main reason behind these exceptional ratios might  
252 be explained by the fact that effective layout of core planning, i.e. the vertical lift and staircase  
253 organisation, may have helped to keep the core area as compact as possible. In addition to this, as  
254 one of the most structurally efficient and innovative systems, trussed-tube system, which uses less  
255 amount of structural material compared to many other supertall building structural systems may  
256 also have contributed to this efficiency (Moon, 2008; Moon, 2011). Furthermore, trussed-tube  
257 system in this tower took the advantage of mega columns at low-rise floor levels to provide more  
258 effective structural solidity. This efficient structural combination can also be classified as a mega  
259 column, a mega frame, or a space truss system (Ali and Armstrong, 1995; Ali and Moon, 2007;  
260 Gunel and Ilgin, 2014). Besides these reasons, the use of composite construction, which allows  
261 more effective structures, may have caused a positive impact on this highest space efficiency.

262

#### 263 ***4.6 Interrelations of space efficiency and main design considerations***

264 Interrelations of space efficiency and main design considerations affecting it, such as

- 265 • building height,
- 266 • building form, and
- 267 • structural system

268 were analyzed in this section. Since composite was the most commonly used (80%) structural  
269 material in the case studies, no analysis has been conducted on the interrelation of space efficiency

270 and structural material. These interrelations have been examined as an insight into supertall office  
271 buildings to provide an introductory design guide for architects and developers.

272

#### 273 *4.6.1 Interrelation of space efficiency and building height*

274 Figure 5a illustrates how space efficiency varies by building height, where dots represent supertall  
275 office buildings in this study. As the building height increases, space efficiency decreases as shown  
276 by the red trendline in Figure 5a. This can be explained by the fact that the higher the building, the  
277 more difficult it is to achieve high space efficiency due to the increased dimensions of both service  
278 areas and structural elements.

279

280 Additionally, Figure 5b shows the ratio of core over gross floor area as another manifestation of  
281 the fact above, the higher the building, the more service space required as demonstrated by the red  
282 trendline in the figure below.

283

#### 284 *4.6.2 Interrelation of space efficiency and building form*

285 In Figure 6, the bars demonstrate the total number of supertall office buildings (right axis of the  
286 chart) by building form, whereas dots correspond to the space efficiency of those buildings (left  
287 axis of the chart) for that type of building form.

288

289 As seen in Figure 6, space efficiency of buildings with prismatic form occurs ranging between  
290 63% and 76% with an average of 71%; while the average space efficiency of 7 supertall office  
291 towers with setback form occurs 73% including a marginal case of *Bank of China Tower* with  
292 82%. As the most used building forms (in 14 cases), free forms have space efficiency ranging

293 between 70% and 79% with an average of 72%; while as the least preferred form, twisted form is  
294 used for only one case with 67% of space efficiency. Tapered forms have space efficiency ranging  
295 between 65% and 75% with an average of 71%. As a result, by taking into the average values  
296 above, there are no significant differences among the building groups with different building forms  
297 examined in this study.

298

#### 299 *4.6.3 Interrelation of space efficiency and structural system*

300 In Figure 7, the bars demonstrate the total number of supertall office buildings (right axis of the  
301 chart) by structural system, whereas dots correspond to the space efficiency of those buildings (left  
302 axis of the chart) for that type of structural system.

303

304 As highlighted in Figure 7, space efficiency of buildings with outriggered frame system occurs  
305 ranging between 65% and 79% with an average of 72%. Mega column and shear walled frame  
306 systems are less preferred for supertall office building construction, based on the study sample.  
307 Since the number of buildings with mega column and shear walled frame systems is low, deriving  
308 a correlation between space efficiency and structural system of those buildings is likely to be  
309 inaccurate. Space efficiency of buildings with tube system occurs at an average of 71% including  
310 a marginal case of *Bank of China Tower* (in trussed-tube system) with 82%. Consequently, no  
311 considerable differences are identified among the building groups with different structural systems  
312 in terms of average space efficiency.

313

314

315

316 **5. Discussion and conclusions**

317 Height and aesthetics are not the only objectives or challenges in the race for excellence in  
318 designing and constructing supertall office buildings. Architects should also make them  
319 economically sound and feasible. To do this, the study was based on the main architectural and  
320 structural design criteria affecting space efficiency, such as core planning, building form, structural  
321 system, structural material, and their corresponding interrelations with it in supertall office  
322 buildings (Ali and Armstrong, 1995; Kim and Elnimeiri, 2004; Trabucco, 2008; Sev and Ozgen,  
323 2009; Ilgin, 2018; Ilgin et al., 2020).

324

325 The findings of this study regarding the main architectural and structural design parameters, which  
326 affect space efficiency, have some strong similarities to the results reported in other researches  
327 (e.g. Sev and Ozgen, 2009; Oldfield and Doherty, 2019; Ilgin et al., 2020). In this study, central  
328 core was the most common arrangement, as found in the studies by Sev and Ozgen (2009), Oldfield  
329 and Doherty (2019), and Ilgin et al. (2020). This dominance could be explained by that owing to  
330 its ease of integration into the main structural system, it can effectively contribute to structural  
331 solidity; and due to its potential of opening the building façade for daylight and view, an ideal  
332 work environment for office use could be generated. Frequent use of tapered and free forms, which  
333 resembled the findings in the study of Ilgin et al. (2020) and the results from the relevant building  
334 list in the CTBUH database (CTBUH, 2020), may indicate the architects' choice of unique and  
335 reasonable office buildings. Geometries derived from the square, which were the most employed  
336 floor plan shapes, could make the interior more functional and rentable compared to complex plan  
337 geometries. Additionally, these relatively simple and symmetrical floor plans offer similar stiffness  
338 in each direction against lateral loads as a structural advantage. In terms of structural system,

339 similar to the results in the study by Ilgin et al. (2020), the extensive use of outriggered frame  
340 system was identified by a wide margin. In this research, the statistics on structural materials of  
341 these buildings pointed out that the most preferred material is composite, as found in the study of  
342 Ilgin et al. (2020). This prevalence may be due to the fact that composite construction utilizes the  
343 strongest features of both materials, steel and concrete.

344

345 Space efficiency decreased as the height of the building increased. This finding supported the fact  
346 that the higher the building, the harder it is to achieve high space efficiency, as underlined in the  
347 studies by Watts et al. (2007), Trabucco (2008), Sev and Ozgen (2009), and Lundberg (2019), due  
348 to the increased dimensions of the core and load-bearing members to meet circulation-based and  
349 structural requirements. In this research, core was the most significant consideration having a  
350 tremendous impact on space efficiency of supertall office buildings, as stated in the study of Sev  
351 and Ozgen (2009), since its planning and size directly affected net floor area. On the other hand,  
352 when structural system groups were compared with each other, no significant differences were  
353 identified among their effects on space efficiency. Similar results were valid for the group of  
354 building forms analyzed in this study. The proper selection of the load-bearing system for the  
355 corresponding building may have caused similar ratios among structural system groups.  
356 Additionally, even if the selection of building forms was free, utilization of functional squarish  
357 floor plans may have prevented considerable differences among the groups of building forms in  
358 terms of space efficiency.

359

360



361 In conclusion, 44 supertall office buildings (300m+) were analyzed through the main architectural  
362 and structural design features to provide a step towards examining space efficiency as one of the  
363 key design parameters to make an office project feasible. Besides general facts, information about  
364 core planning, building form, structural system, structural material, and interrelations of space  
365 efficiency and main design considerations of contemporary supertall office towers were  
366 scrutinized.

367  
368 The contemporary trend towards overemphasizing aesthetics and height in supertall building  
369 design may sometimes result in less attention to service core planning together with structural  
370 design, and this approach can significantly threaten space efficiency as one of the most critical  
371 design parameters in supertall office projects. The main finding of this research indicated that the  
372 higher the building, the more difficult it is to achieve high space efficiency mostly because of the  
373 increased dimensions of service core. This fact inevitably forces the architects of supertall office  
374 towers to place great emphasis on service core planning (i.e. the arrangement of vertical  
375 circulation, distribution of mechanical and electrical shafts), especially in collaboration with MEP  
376 (mechanical, electrical, and plumbing) engineer. What is more, architects can collaborate early  
377 with elevator manufacturers to ensure space-saving vertical mobility. There is fierce competition  
378 among these manufacturers, too, to build ever taller and more efficient office towers. This  
379 multidisciplinary approach, led by the architect, enables allocating less space to the service core  
380 and thus providing more leasable space, which makes the prospect of constructing a supertall office  
381 building more attractive to developers. Overall, the presented results in this study on space  
382 efficiency in supertall office buildings are expected to provide architects with design standards and  
383 developers with potential rules-of-thumb.

384 **Data Availability Statement**

385 No data, models, or code were generated or used during the study.

386

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**Table 1.** Contemporary supertall office buildings considered in this study

#	Building name	Country	City	Height (meters)	# of stories	Completion date
1	Ping An Finance Center	China	Shenzhen	599	115	2017
2	One World Trade Center	United States	New York	541	94	2014
3	CITIC Tower	China	Beijing	528	108	2018
4	TAIPEI 101	Taiwan	Taipei	508	101	2004
5	Lakhta Center	Russia	St. Petersburg	462	87	2019
6	Petronas Twin Tower 1	Malaysia	Kuala Lumpur	452	88	1998
7	Petronas Twin Tower 2	Malaysia	Kuala Lumpur	452	88	1998
8	The Exchange 106	Malaysia	Kuala Lumpur	446	95	2019
9	One Vanderbilt	United States	New York	427	58	2020
10	Al Hamra Tower	Kuwait	Kuwait City	413	80	2011
11	Two International Finance Center	China	Hong Kong	412	88	2003
12	China Resources Tower	China	Shenzhen	393	68	2018
13	CITIC Plaza	China	Guangzhou	390	80	1996
14	30 Hudson Yards	United States	New York	387	73	2019
15	PIF Tower	Saudi Arabia	Riyadh	385	72	ATO
16	Shun Hing Square	China	Shenzhen	384	69	1996
17	Central Plaza	China	Hong Kong	374	78	1992
18	Bank of China Tower	China	Hong Kong	367	72	1990
19	Almas Tower	UAE	Dubai	360	68	2008
20	Hanking Center Tower	China	Shenzhen	359	65	2018
21	Sino Steel International Plaza T2	China	Tianjin	358	83	on hold
22	Emirates Tower One	UAE	Dubai	355	54	2000
23	Spring City 66	China	Kunming	349	61	2019
24	The Center	China	Hong Kong	346	73	1998
25	ADNOC Headquarters	UAE	Abu Dhabi	342	65	2015
26	Tianjin World Financial Center	China	Tianjin	337	75	2011
27	3 World Trade Center	United States	New York	329	69	2018
28	Golden Eagle Tiandi Tower B	China	Nanjing	328	68	2019
29	Salesforce Tower	United States	San Francisco	326	61	2018
30	Sinar Mas Center 1	China	Shanghai	320	65	2017
31	New York Times Tower	United States	New York	319	52	2007
32	Bank of America Plaza	United States	Atlanta	312	55	1992
33	Shenzhen Bay Innovation and Technology Centre Tower 1	China	Shenzhen	311	69	2020
34	Menara TM	Malaysia	Kuala Lumpur	310	55	2001
35	Pearl River Tower	China	Guangzhou	309	71	2013
36	Fortune Center	China	Guangzhou	309	68	2015
37	Guangfa Securities Headquarters	China	Guangzhou	308	60	2018
38	One Manhattan West	United States	New York	303	67	2019
39	Two Prudential Plaza	United States	Chicago	303	64	1990
40	Jiangxi Nanchang Greenland Central Plaza, Parcel A	China	Nanchang	303	59	2015
41	Jiangxi Nanchang Greenland Central Plaza, Parcel B	China	Nanchang	303	59	2015
42	Leatop Plaza	China	Guangzhou	303	64	2012
43	NBK Tower	Kuwait	Kuwait City	300	61	2019
44	Golden Eagle Tiandi Tower C	China	Nanjing	300	60	2019

Note on abbreviations: 'UAE' indicates the United Arab Emirates; 'ATO' indicates Architecturally topped out



525 **Table 2.** Supertall office buildings by core type, building form, structural system, and structural  
 526 material

#	Building name	Core type	Building form	Structural system	Structural material
1	Ping An Finance Center	Central	Tapered	Outriggered frame	Composite
2	One World Trade Center	Central	Tapered	Outriggered frame	Composite
3	CITIC Tower	Central	Free	Trussed-tube	Composite
4	TAIPEI 101	Central	Free	Outriggered frame	Composite
5	Lakhta Center	Central	Twisted	Outriggered frame	Composite
6	Petronas Twin Tower 1	Central	Setback	Outriggered frame	RC
7	Petronas Twin Tower 2	Central	Setback	Outriggered frame	RC
8	The Exchange 106	Central	Tapered	Outriggered frame	Composite
9	One Vanderbilt	Central	Tapered	Outriggered frame	Composite
10	Al Hamra Tower	Central	Free	Shear walled frame	Composite
11	Two International Finance Center	Central	Setback	Outriggered frame	Composite
12	China Resources Tower	Central	Tapered	Diagrid-framed-tube	Composite
13	CITIC Plaza	Central	Prismatic	Shear walled frame	RC
14	30 Hudson Yards	Central	Tapered	Outriggered frame	Steel
15	PIF Tower	Central	Free	Trussed-tube	Composite
16	Shun Hing Square	Central	Free	Outriggered frame	Composite
17	Central Plaza	Central	Prismatic	Trussed-tube	Composite
18	Bank of China Tower	Central (split)	Setback	Trussed-tube	Composite
19	Almas Tower	Central	Free	Outriggered frame	Composite
20	Hanking Center Tower	External	Tapered	Trussed-tube	Steel
21	Sino Steel International Plaza T2	Central	Prismatic	Framed-tube	Composite
22	Emirates Tower One	Central	Prismatic	Mega column	Composite
23	Spring City 66	Central	Free	Outriggered frame	Composite
24	The Center	Central	Prismatic	Mega column	Composite
25	ADNOC Headquarters	External	Prismatic	Shear walled frame	RC
26	Tianjin World Financial Center	Central	Tapered	Outriggered frame	Composite
27	3 World Trade Center	Central	Setback	Trussed-tube	Composite
28	Golden Eagle Tiandi Tower B	Central	Tapered	Outriggered frame	Composite
29	Salesforce Tower	Central	Tapered	Shear walled frame	Composite
30	Sinar Mas Center 1	Central	Free	Outriggered frame	Composite
31	New York Times Tower	Central	Prismatic	Outriggered frame	Steel
32	Bank of America Plaza	Central	Setback	Mega column	Composite
33	Shenzhen Bay Innovation and Technology Centre Tower 1	Central	Prismatic	Framed-tube	Composite
34	Menara TM	Central	Free	Outriggered frame	RC
35	Pearl River Tower	Central	Free	Outriggered frame	Composite
36	Fortune Center	Central	Free	Outriggered frame	Composite
37	Guangfa Securities Headquarters	Central	Tapered	Outriggered frame	Composite
38	One Manhattan West	Central	Tapered	Shear walled frame	Composite
39	Two Prudential Plaza	Central	Setback	Outriggered frame	RC
40	Jiangxi Nanchang Greenland Central Plaza, Parcel A	Central	Free	Outriggered frame	Composite
41	Jiangxi Nanchang Greenland Central Plaza, Parcel B	Central	Free	Outriggered frame	Composite
42	Leatop Plaza	Central	Prismatic	Trussed-tube	Composite
43	NBK Tower	Central	Free	Outriggered frame	Composite
44	Golden Eagle Tiandi Tower C	Central	Tapered	Outriggered frame	Composite

Note on abbreviation: 'RC' indicates reinforced concrete

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