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SmartRoads: tracing the limits of managing road space at the metropolitan road network scale

Introduction

Depending on country and city, the road space out your window might have cars parked and road markings and signage depicting this and other permitted and non-permitted uses. These uses reflect a set of compromises made over the best use of that road space. They could have been implemented yesterday or been in place for decades. During the 1950/60s, the car started to deeply shape how planners determined the best use of road space (Appleyard, 1981; Hass-Klau, 1990; Jacobs, 1961). Today, the car's ubiquity continues to complicate the challenge of allocating road space, as shifting cars from one road to another road simply displaces problems. Yet, long before the car's arrival, determining the best use of road space was the product of a competing and diverse set of interests and uses (Brown-May, 1998; Ehrenfeucht, 2012; Norton, 2008; Winter, 1993). Recent evidence suggests that although the emphasis may have changed the core issues have not (Hess, 2009; Patton, 2007; Sadik-Khan & Solomonow, 2016).

Adding to the challenge of determining the best use of road space is a lack of agreement as to whether one can meet future travel demand. Some planning scholars suggest you can choose to meet demand, or suppress demand, but one can't do both (Banister, 2008; Brindle, 1995; Vuchic, 2000). Despite this lack of consensus, difficulties of continuing to expand road space to accommodate more travel has pushed the task of (re)allocating existing road space to the fore in traffic management. Central to this task is a tension between mobility and liveability.

Roads provide a route of communication (e.g. motorised and non-motorised travel, a link between multiple place-spaces) and the site of transaction (e.g. non mobile access, commercial interactions, embodied place-spaces) (Roberts, Lloyd-Jones, Erickson, & Nice, 1999). These two features have overtime come to be broadly understood as concerns related to mobility and liveability. Negotiating these two concerns ratchets up in complexity when shifting from managing the road space out your window to managing it in relation to a larger road network. Historically, liveability and mobility have been invoked in binary terms to articulate conflicting road space needs (Robinson, 1916; Unwin, 1971 (1909)). Despite commentary suggesting that roads are not simply the site of mobility (Appleyard, 1981; Jacobs, 1961), and arguments that constructing such terms as binary reflect a moribund technocratic Euclidian worldview of time and space (Friedmann, 1993; Graham & Healey, 1999), prioritising mobility and liveability is central to the task of allocating road space. Further, evidence strongly indicates that such transport-related determinations are inherently political (Davison & Yelland, 2004; Legacy, 2015; Norton, 2008; Sadik-Khan & Solomonow, 2016). Yet, how business, political and social communities perceived issues of mobility and liveability a century ago, differ to how they perceive them today. Consequently, informed by professional experience, techniques and knowledge, allocating road space is best understood as a political and value-based question.

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3 In drawing from original research, this article identifies and traces issues which arise when
4 planners determine the best use of road space. Though technical aspects of frameworks
5 employed when making such determinations are discussed, this article is principally
6 concerned with ‘how’: how do frameworks help practitioners to evaluate and prioritise
7 conflicting road space needs? Specifically, what is open to negotiation, what is assumed as a
8 given, and what is left off the table? Does applying traffic management at the network scale
9 always require prioritising some roads as less important than other roads? Who makes such
10 decisions, and towards what ends? These questions concern this article.

11
12 To address these questions, this article proceeds as follows. How planners have historically
13 understood, evaluated and prioritised different road space demands is summarised.
14 Melbourne, Australia then provides a case study to critically examine the complicated and
15 politically contested nature of managing road space at the metropolitan road network scale.
16 Governance, cyclical visions and debates, poor continuity and disagreement around priorities
17 are found to inform, constrain and shape allocation of road space. The article concludes by
18 considering what these issues might mean for applying network operating planning
19 frameworks and thinking in practice within the context of Melbourne, and more broadly.

20 *Evaluating and prioritising road space demands through different hierarchy typologies*

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22 Central to the challenge of identifying, evaluating and prioritising competing and often
23 conflicting road space demands is the hierarchy typology. Application of the hierarchy
24 typology is not predetermined, with different hierarchy typologies developed to understand,
25 study, plan and manage urban space.¹ In transport planning, the hierarchy typology has a
26 prominent and long history, including seminal town planning texts (Robinson, 1916; Unwin,
27 1971 (1909)) and early professional publications (Bartholomew, 1922). In traffic
28 management, hierarchy typologies often differentiate between delineating governing
29 responsibility over certain roads (Marshall, 2005), and classifying different functional
30 characteristics to different roads, based on achieving a variety of aims (Goodwin, 1995). Yet
31 in practice, the link between responsibility and function breaks down, as all roads to some
32 extent serve multiple functions (Brindle, 1995; Goodwin, 1995; Marshall, 2005). As such,
33 hierarchy typologies developed generally conceive urban (road) space as divorced from time,
34 resulting in inadequate accounts of what are dynamic, contested and complex sites of
35 everyday urban life (Graham & Healey, 1999).

36
37 The prevalence of the hierarchy typology in traffic management remains in road classification
38 hierarchies. Alker Tripp’s work during the 1940s is often cited as developing the formative
39 conventional road classification hierarchy (Goodwin, 1995; Hass-Klau, 1990; Marshall,
40 2005). Tripp sought to alleviate safety concerns he attributed to cars intermingling with
41 pedestrians by increasing circulation on certain roads and reducing it on others. Two decades
42 later, Colin Buchanan drew upon Tripp’s work to craft what is generally regarded as seminal
43 traffic management thinking (Hass-Klau, 1990; Hebbert, 2005; Hillman, 1983). Buchanan’s
44 ideas have been suggested as providing the “definitive synthesis of urban design theory for
45 the motor age” (Hebbert, 2005, pp. 43-44). This synthesis fails to preserve a road’s traditional
46 site of both mobility and liveability, diverting traffic from ‘urban living rooms’ (i.e. rooms)
47 and onto ‘main traffic distributors’ (i.e. corridors) (Marshall, 2005, p. 49). Problems
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3 associated with the ‘rooms and corridors’ approach are well acknowledged by the traffic
4 management profession (Brindle, 1995).ⁱⁱ As such, whereas Tripp concentrated on risk
5 minimisation, Buchanan looked to liveability. This difference hints at why Buchanan’s
6 legacy remains debated (Hass-Klau, 1990; Hillman, 1983). Important here, is that Buchanan
7 underscored managing traffic at the city scale required an overall transport route structure
8 (Hass-Klau, 1990; Marshall, 2005)—fundamental to this structure is the hierarchy typology.
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11 *A suitable hierarchy typology to manage road space at the metropolitan scale*

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13 A suitable hierarchy typology to manage road space at the metropolitan scale remains an
14 elusive, yet persistent chimera in traffic management’s maturation. Australia has a history of
15 managing road space at the corridor level, beginning in the 1980s (Armstrong, Black,
16 Lukovich, Sheffield, & Westerman, 1992)—where lessons from projects were compiled into
17 a ‘best practice’ and ‘resource guide’ under the title *Cities for tomorrow* (Westerman,
18 1998)—and more recently under the *Network City* (Curtis, 2006). Similar work in the UK
19 started in 2000 under *Mixed Priority Routes* (DfT, 2008), and in North America around the
20 same time under *Context Sensitive Solutions* (TRB, 2002), and *Complete Streets* (McCann,
21 2013). *Link & Place* (Jones, Boujenko, & Marshall, 2007) represents one of the more robust
22 attempts to date to develop a comprehensive methodology for managing road space at the
23 metropolitan scale that doesn’t lose sight of place making concerns. Similarly, Part 4 of
24 Austroads’ 13 separate traffic management guides details network operating planning
25 (Easpada & Green, 2015). Underpinning all these frameworks rests a different formulation
26 of a hierarchy typology, and thus a different proposed approach to traffic management.
27 Central to these different approaches are questions of priority to what modes for what ends.
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33 In Victoria, Australia, VicRoads is the primary state planning authority responsible for road
34 construction and management activities in the state. The need for a better account of how
35 different road users operate on existing road networks in particular urban environments,
36 helped to formulate the *Network Operating* division within VicRoads around 2005 (Vincent,
37 2006). Tasked with determining how can and/or should a road network operate, a key output
38 of the new division was the creation of Network Operating Plans (NOPs)—since badged
39 *SmartRoads* (VicRoads, 2012).ⁱⁱⁱ Elaboration of *SmartRoads*’ technical features (Wall,
40 2011), pilot studies documentation (Bittner, Burdan, & Witono, 2011; Fitts, 2012), and
41 comparison to other frameworks (Weeratunga & Luk, 2010) exist. In summary, *SmartRoads*,
42 is a mode-based hierarchy of road use framework that helps planners manage road space at
43 the road network level. *SmartRoads* can accommodate a range of stakeholders, and NOPs
44 developed can be altered to accommodate change in local or state government policy. At the
45 time of this research, *SmartRoads* exercises had principally included local and state
46 government politicians and planning practitioners.
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51 *SmartRoads* begins with participants developing a Road Use Hierarchy for a road network
52 segment, generally delineated by a local government council boundary. This helps to
53 establish high-level objectives for determining optimisation of the road network, and priority
54 for different modes by route, place and time. Figure 1 illustrates (circled in red) how road
55 classifications help to generate network operating objectives (from Figure 5-1, VicRoads,
56 2012, p. 41). Figure 2 illustrates (circled in red) how weightings prioritise mobility or
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3 liveability (from Figure 2-11, VicRoads, 2012, p. 26). For example, recognising temporal
4 variations in road use helps planners to determine current network performance and to isolate
5 gaps in network performance. This in turn facilitates selection of potential road measures
6 which may be applied to address network gaps. Thus, an NOP physically and metaphorically
7 reflects a roadmap to pursue future management of road space—currently road measures
8 identified are selected based on optimising Melbourne’s wider road network.
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18 Network operating planning reflects a new stream of thinking in traffic management. Like
19 Buchanan, managing a road network begins first and foremost with a hierarchy typology—
20 the first step in *SmartRoads* for instance is to define a Road Use Hierarchy. Formulation of
21 the hierarchy typology is central to practitioners defining a road’s role and level of
22 importance for mobility and liveability. Currently, formulation and application is informed
23 by the jurisdictional responsibility over particular roads (point elaborated below).
24 Consideration of both mobility and liveability represents a significantly more nuanced
25 reinterpretation of Level of Service (LOS) than volume/capacity ratios traditionally applied in
26 traffic management to measure and effectively prioritise speed and unfettered car travel
27 (Table 3.3, VicRoads, 2012, p. 28). A further distinctive feature of network operating
28 planning more generally is that it combines multiple disciplinary concerns. Specifically, it
29 combines traditional traffic management concerns, with urban design and planning concerns
30 related to place making, along with transport planning concerns related to transportation
31 network planning and management. The level of importance given to each differs between
32 network operating planning frameworks (Weeratunga & Luk, 2010).
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38 ***The case and research design***

39 Melbourne provides a unique case study to examine the complex challenge of managing road
40 space at the metropolitan road network scale. Melbourne is the capital city of the state of
41 Victoria and Australia’s second largest with a population roughly 5 million. Government
42 reports have described two distinctive Melbournes: a densely urbanised core supported with
43 an extensive public transport network largely unchanged since the 1940s, and an expanding
44 outer-suburban Melbourne lacking such services and dominated by car-systems of provision
45 (Essential Economics, 2012). Managing Melbourne’s road network, therefore, involves
46 planners contending with one of the world’s largest tram networks that shares road space with
47 multiple modes (Bittner et al., 2011), as well as 40 years of car-specific infrastructure (Curtis
48 & Low, 2012; Davison & Yelland, 2004).
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53 Evidence presented is drawn from a larger research project examining how planners allocate
54 road space in Victoria, Australia (reference). The project identified and examined rules that
55 govern the task of road space allocation, analysed when, why and how this task has been
56 carried out, and explored professional practices pertinent to carrying out the task. Research
57 data collection occurred over the 2010-2012 time period, and included analysis of archival
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3 materials and government policy and legislative materials, interviews with over 60 practicing
4 and retired planners and participant observation of a *SmartRoads* exercise. Participants
5 interviewed included local government councillors, and professionals employed in advocacy
6 groups, local councils and state road, public transport and land use planning authorities.
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9 Interview participants were initially selected based on their involvement in the clearway
10 controversy. Similar to London's 'red routes' a clearway is a road management strategy that
11 bans parked cars on a specified road. In summary, in early 2008, the state government
12 charged VicRoads with extending and standardising clearways within a 10 kilometre circle
13 around the Melbourne CBD. After almost two years of persistent disagreement between local
14 councils and VicRoads, the two cities of Stonnington and Yarra, both located within the 10
15 kilometre clearway circle, combined forces to mount a legal case against VicRoads' altering
16 existing clearways. Although the state court found in favour of VicRoads, the controversy
17 occurred during the run-up to a state election in which the legitimacy of clearways to ease
18 congestion had been debated. On December 9, 2010 a newly elected Premier of Victoria Ted
19 Baillieu visited Stonnington to fulfil a pre-election campaign promise—rolling back
20 clearways (Stephen McMahon, December 10 2010). Though VicRoads was and remains,
21 charged with weighing local amenity concerns against metropolitan mobility concerns, in
22 everyday practice, this legislatively mandated remit can't resolve the tension between
23 mobility and liveability, nor how different stakeholders determine the best use of road space.
24 As such, clearways provided an entry point to elicit a participant's knowledge and
25 contextualise their everyday professional activities. The aim was to acquire a detailed
26 informant or insider understanding (Babbie, 2001), of how road space allocation is
27 constituted. Participants were asked to describe their daily professional activities and
28 responsibilities, and any changes to professional routines or planning more broadly. As
29 *SmartRoads* was identified by participants as a notable change in practice, the research study
30 was altered slightly to more systematically pursue network operating planning.
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37 SmartRoads proposes to provide practitioners guidance for traffic management at the road
38 network level. However, application into practice is done so, not with a clean slate, but with
39 decades of professional, social, political and infrastructure history. As described below,
40 recurring features constrain application of frameworks like *SmartRoads* in daily practice,
41 notable being governance, cyclical visions and debates, poor continuity between planning
42 studies and frameworks, and disagreement around priorities. These issues constrain and
43 influence how planners determine the best use of road space, and are identified and discussed
44 in relation to the three questions posed in the introduction: what is open to negotiation,
45 assumed and left off the table? Does traffic management at the network scale require
46 prioritising some roads as less important? Who makes such decisions, and towards what
47 ends?
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51 ***Governance: what is open to negotiation, assumed and left of the table?***

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53 In Melbourne, governance arrangements are crucial to understanding what is open to
54 negotiation, what is assumed and what is left off the table when determining the best use of
55 road space. For instance, governing responsibility for roads, in terms of ownership, funding,
56 maintenance and regulation is principally driven by the 2004 Road Management Act (State of
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3 Victoria, 11 May 2004). Central to formal arrangements are the labels ‘declared’ and ‘non-
4 declared’ roads (Figure 3) (VicRoads, 2016a).
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8 Insert Figure 3 here
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11 Whereas declared roads are the responsibility of state planning authorities, ownership,
12 funding and maintenance of non-declared roads fall to local councils. These arrangements
13 reflect formalised government and organisational structures and are established by legislative
14 statutes and constitutional law. In terms of *SmartRoads*, declared and non-declared road
15 classifications become important.
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18 We’ve sat down with the councils, we’ve put a map of the arterial roads,
19 not the local roads, a map of the arterial roads in front of them, we’ve
20 said, let’s colour the roads, which roads should be for traffic primarily,
21 which ones should be for servicing shops, etc. We are going to fund the
22 roads that in a sense serve all Victorians, because our tax base is all
23 Victorians. So we’ve already made that decision... We’ve declared a
24 whole stack of roads... Under *SmartRoads*, we have an agreement with
25 Councils, it’s on our website, these roads are going to be managed this
26 way (Participant 2).
27

28 At the time of data collection (2011-2014), *SmartRoads* had been codified in state policy
29 documents and legislation acts (State of Victoria, 2 March 2010; Victorian Government,
30 2009), but had yet to be officially adopted by all Victorian local councils. According to
31 VicRoads’ website, this appears unchanged (VicRoads, 2016b). Interviews with VicRoads
32 staff tasked with refining and implementing *SmartRoads* indicated that at the time, it had yet
33 to be formalised in practice, or accepted by all VicRoads senior staff.
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36 The importance of funding was also raised during an interview with two planning directors
37 from a local council that had participated in a *SmartRoads* exercise. One director stated
38 emphatically, “is there extra money going to be put in to do certain things? No, I know that
39 for a fact. So my view is what is the point of the exercise?” After a decade with council, the
40 comment reflects agitation in going through different state funding channels. Whereas
41 *SmartRoads* can identify less costly measures like altering traffic signal operations instead of
42 road construction, funding such measures involves VicRoads staff developing a business case
43 based on existing Business Area Plans and Work Plans. Whereas funding for road safety
44 projects and freight exist, available funding for what one VicRoads planner referred to as
45 congestion reduction measures, is more difficult to obtain. As such, innovative policy
46 packages and business plans have yet to match the novelty of *SmartRoads*. Though this
47 novelty might substantiate the claim that VicRoads is engaging traffic management
48 differently, this view was not shared by all planners interviewed. For example, the two
49 council planning directors both remarked that *SmartRoads* had “identified things” and that
50 the “process was good.” This echoed its strength, since failure to do so would have signified
51 serious problems. Yet, both felt that they first had to “exhaust all avenues”, before going
52 back and saying to state authorities, “we’ve gone through the processes; you need to give us
53 something else.” Consequently, *SmartRoads* opens discussion up to identify less costly and
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3 traditional measures, but appears constrained by legislative remit over road space, traditional
4 traffic management funding approaches and state-sanctioned funding processes.

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6 ***Cyclical visions and debates: does allocating road space at the network scale require***
7 ***prioritising some roads as less important?***
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9 The historically cyclical nature of visions and debates in Melbourne around prioritising
10 particular roads has important implications for understanding trade-offs involved in managing
11 one piece of road space, with respect to its wider road network. Prioritising some demands
12 over others occurs against a relatively static backdrop of asphalt, compared to more dynamic
13 and continually changing societal demands and expectations around mobility and liveability.
14 As such, disagreement can stem from different approaches to allocating road space. For
15 instance, managing road space at the road network scale, or shifting from segregating
16 different road users to advancing multiple users share the same road space.
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19 Karndacharuk, Wilson and Dunn (2014) succinctly summarise different ‘shared street’
20 concepts and programmes implemented which target road corridors, neighbourhoods and
21 activity centres. Table 1 summarises Melbourne-specific planning studies, workshops and
22 programmes which target the arterial and/or road network.
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32 During the 1970s for instance, the *Hierarchy of Roads* study engaged with many issues
33 identified in network operating planning thinking—underscoring the reoccurring mobility
34 and liveability tension between approaching roads from the perspective of pedestrian needs,
35 motorised single-occupant needs, motorised public transport needs, or some combination.
36 *The Hierarchy* study included a range of state and local authorities, and from 1978 to 1988,
37 generated over 15 documents (Pattinson, 1982). Central to this discussion was the creation of
38 the *Road/Amenity Classification* table and the *Framework for Conflict Resolution* (Loder &
39 Bayly, 1980, p. 11). Classifying different roads involved stakeholders working through a
40 three-step process, based on three criteria:
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- 44 1. The road hierarchy
- 45 2. The degree of conflict (defined by a quantitative matrix measuring traffic flow versus
- 46 residential amenity, crossing expectations, public transport operation and congestion)
- 47 3. Government body responsible for management
- 48
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50 Each step was supported with maps illustrating two points: 1. conflicts generated from the
51 new road classifications (Figure 4); and 2. potential implementation strategies (Figure 5)
52 (Figures 4 and 5 from Loder & Bayly, 1981, Figures 4 and 9, respectively). Aside from
53 advances in technology, data collection and manipulation and professional thinking which
54 inform *SmartRoads*, maps generated from the *Hierarchy* study share significant
55 commonalities with NOPs. *Hierarchy* study maps were intended to provide more transparent
56 policy outcomes. They “did not resolve the conflicts” (Loder & Bayly, 1980, p. 11), nor
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3 provide answers, but provided planners a means to normatively weigh up and prioritise local
4 amenity and regional mobility.
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8 Insert Figures 4 and 5 here
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11 Under the Kennett coalition government during the 1990s, traffic management was altered by
12 a powerful infrastructure vision (Curtis & Low, 2012). The vision reconfigured VicRoads'
13 key aims, and in 1993, the *Traffic and Road Use Management* department was formed
14 (Natalizio & Siggers, 1998). The division eventually created and implemented the *Principal*
15 *Traffic Routes* programme (McConnell & Somers, 2005). Guided by economic objectives,
16 the programme's mobility focus targeted travel time savings on declared roads during
17 weekday business hours. Measures included lane configurations, altered intersection and
18 traffic signalling and expanded clearway times. Within five years, the programme covered
19 almost one-third of Victoria's 3,000 km declared road network (McConnell & Somers, 2005).
20 However, the programme required expensive, time-consuming reports that were cumbersome
21 to VicRoads budgeting frameworks, and the programme was eventually discontinued.
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24 The vision of governing urban space advocated by the Kennett coalition government
25 underscores the influence of politics on expediting change for how one might prioritise road
26 space. As such, choosing to meet demand, or suppress demand is not straight forward. It can
27 quickly be altered by a change in government, or halted more incrementally under the
28 bureaucratic strain in the case of complicated traffic management programmes. Irrespective
29 of how road space is prioritised, such determinations are almost always guided by a set of
30 formalised rules. One planner in the Department of Transport suggested during an interview
31 that compared to other frameworks, *SmartRoads* advances important rules for playing the
32 game of road space allocation:
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37 People do network optimization across the world, but they don't do
38 *SmartRoads*... The angle [taken by *SmartRoads*] is not just optimise, but
39 minimize conflict. When you have conflict in a road network, everyone
40 loses... *SmartRoads* is... a methodology to help you understand those
41 impacts... [it allows] all the modes to sit at a table and play a card
42 game.... But to play that card game, there's two conditions. One you need
43 to have a network, a clearly defined network. Secondly and most
44 importantly - that network needs to have a set of priorities. So you cannot
45 say cycling should have priority everywhere, that means you're going to
46 lose everywhere, because if you have priority everywhere, you are going
47 to have conflict everywhere. You need to determine where are the higher
48 level of priority for cycling for your network and then a second level or a
49 base case. So that's really important to understand, because if you don't
50 have that, you cannot play the card and you're never going to have a
51 possibility to trade off (Participant 19).
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55 The rules described by the planner allude to a persistent tension between regional mobility
56 and local amenity. The tension shapes the level of importance given to different roads. As
57 another planner remarks, "at the state level, I think there are different imperatives, and I think
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there are different priorities which have a higher priority” (Participant 13). In daily practice, the tension in relation to ‘optimising’ Melbourne’s road network, remains fluid and up for debate. For example, over half of participants interviewed tentatively supported extending and standardising clearways, but felt its benefits had been undermined by poor implementation—dismissing important contextual differences of roads which ran through multiple council boundaries. Disagreement stems in part from different remit—place-making with local government, regional mobility with VicRoads. Many participants remarked that the controversy substantiated the claim that VicRoads remains a car-oriented authority. Irrespective of the validity, the actions of VicRoads staff charged with clearways influenced how local government councillors and planning staff later engaged a different VicRoads division charged with *SmartRoads*.

Generally, planners interviewed considered *SmartRoads* a useful tool for establishing priorities for managing all types of road space. Its two key strengths are flexibility and transparency—it can be applied to any road network segment and provides transparent principles that help translate conflicting aims to reach consensus. However, as a planner in VicRoads highlights, these strengths are shaped by professional responsibilities:

At the end of the day we’re accountable for that transport network... It’s not about consensus each and every time, it’s about consultation but at some point you got to make some decisions, where you don’t have agreement... you just move on, and that’s part of our role (Participant 17).

The influence that professional responsibilities have in traffic management is not new. For example, a retired planner, who had moved between Melbourne Metropolitan Board of Works, Country Roads Board (CRB) and Road Safety & Traffic Authority (RoSTA), recalled during the interview that the work developed under the *Hierarchy* study was innovative for its time (Participant 61). The planner continues to occasionally consult with VicRoads, which has demonstrated many similarities between the *Hierarchy* study and *SmartRoads*. Yet, an important distinction relates to process and particularly, “*in the way the work was implemented and how it was implemented*” (emphasis stressed by Participant 61). Whereas previously, CRB or RoSTA staff often entered a meeting “knowing the answer”, VicRoads staff—from the retired planner’s perspective—engage in a more open, transparent and rigorous discussion (Participant 61). Without overstating the claim, organisational conventions constituting different authorities obstructed planners from familiarising themselves with more detailed specifics of the *Hierarchy* study—resulting in failing to build upon the work completed in the *Hierarchy* study (Participant 58). The work therefore became lost when RTA was absorbed into VicRoads in early 1990 (Participant 50). After this point, under the Kennett coalition government, the aims and objectives of VicRoads shifted to optimising Melbourne’s declared road network and constructing big road projects. This ensured arterial roads were given greater priority over non-arterial roads.

Lack of continuity: who makes decisions and towards what ends?

Lack of continuity between planning studies and frameworks is a recurring feature in Melbourne’s traffic management history. This has important implications for understanding who determines road space priority, and towards what ends. For example, from 1990 to

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3 1992, VicRoads staff embarked on a set of ‘*Search Conferences*’ (VicRoads, 1991). Intended
4 to gather opinions and advice from professional and non-professional stakeholders, the
5 *Search Conferences* were to assist the state in developing an arterial road strategy for the next
6 two decades. Yet, the *Search Conferences* failed to build on the *Hierarchy* study. *Hierarchy*
7 study planners did lead many of the *Search Conferences*, but an explicit link between each
8 was not made: i.e. public consultation via the *Search Conferences* will build on and advance
9 learnings and frameworks developed in the *Hierarchy* study. Lack of continuity is succinctly
10 illustrated in a report’s title summarising a *Search Conference: Whose Roads?: Allocation of*
11 *Arterial Road Space in Melbourne* (Andrew O’Brien & Associates, 1990). At the time of this
12 research, VicRoads staff had only recently become aware of the *Hierarchy* study. This
13 occurred after staff presented their work to a group of professionals, and an audience member
14 suggested revisiting the study (later identified as a retired RoSTA employee). Similarly,
15 VicRoads staff discovered *Search Conferences* during the development of *SmartRoads*
16 (McConnell & Somers, 2005). During an interview, a senior planner in VicRoads described
17 *SmartRoads* as “effectively creating... a whole new manual for how you manage” road space
18 (Participant 21). This description was quickly followed with the statement that not everyone
19 in VicRoads is up to this challenge (evidence clearly indicates that the description applies
20 more broadly).
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27 Central to developing a manual for how to manage Melbourne’s road network is
28 understanding how liveability and mobility are operationalised in daily practice. Many
29 planners interviewed, for instance, were aware the work done in the UK under the term *Link*
30 *& Place* (Jones et al., 2007), remarking *SmartRoads* shared many similarities. Yet, in
31 Melbourne, mobility and liveability have a particularly heightened role in relation to highly
32 profitable shopping corridors that constitute many tram routes. As one planner remarks,
33 whereas no one is going to sit and have a coffee on the side of the Eastern Freeway, when it
34 comes to Melbourne’s shopping corridors, one must decide, “is it a link or is it a place, or is it
35 a link at some times of the day and a place other times of day” (Participant 3). Many
36 planners remarked that whereas *Link & Place* approached constrained road space from a
37 planner’s perspective, *SmartRoads* approached it from a traffic engineering or transport
38 perspective. Despite similarities, many planners noted concerns that *SmartRoads* was being
39 led by VicRoads. Compared to transport and land use authorities which might intrinsically
40 arrive at understanding a road’s various place attributes, planners indicated that this learning
41 is relatively new to VicRoads:
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46 I think DOT are ahead in terms of understanding place, and what that
47 means for transport. So VicRoads is now got its head around places as
48 activity centres, but it doesn't have its head around road as places,
49 managing roads as places. And effectively you think about a road it is the
50 journey, which is a place (Participant 16).
51

52 As the state public transport authority at the time, DOT was tasked with making the case for
53 getting people out of their cars and onto public transport. Yet, for local council planners, this
54 focus is insufficient for place-making concerns related to creating a positive reinforcing circle
55 of living, working and playing in localised areas. “I don’t think *SmartRoads* sufficiently
56 acknowledges that in my mind... *SmartRoads* tends to think in one mode priority, for
57 roads... So it is not a case of saying look, this is a pedestrian street, this is a trams street,
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3 because a tram street is a pedestrian street” (Participant 7). Collectively, comments from
4 local and state planners presented here speak to the incremental nature of altering mobility
5 trends. Planners perceived that this challenge clearly involves managing “the network now
6 with the view to the future, and aggressively move towards that” (Participant 26)—but that
7 this can't happen overnight (Participants 21, 26, 46, 49). Thus, remarks from a planner
8 underscore the challenge of agreeing upon priorities for managing road space:
9

10 In my mind, it's a no-brainer: you manage the signals so that 80% of the
11 time is given to trams so they don't get delayed at all. But in reality it
12 doesn't work like that.... no one's prescribing those rules with respect to
13 how we manage the network, because it's just too hard (Participant 46).
14

15 The state government at the time had signalled that whenever possible, traffic signals should
16 facilitate passenger throughput, not vehicle throughput. However, as the planner notes,
17 justifying whether a car travelling through an intersection is more or less valuable than a
18 tram, is where “the hard decisions will have to be made, and no one's talking about that”
19 (Participant 46). Many VicRoads staff interviewed noted that *SmartRoads* was designed to
20 facilitate this task, as it was developed to remove politics, as much as possible, out of the
21 consensus development process. Getting agreement around road network objectives could in
22 turn help assess proposals against objectives for different modes. This removes the “politics
23 out of the decision, because it is very much what the network needs to do” (Participant 26).
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27 ***Conclusion and implications***

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29 In drawing from original research, this article used Melbourne, Australia as a case study to
30 identify and trace recurring issues when determining the best use of road space. Prior studies
31 have noted that making substantive change in traffic management requires actively
32 questioning the historical bias towards methods and procedures that prioritise mobility
33 (Hebbert, 2005), and paying particular attention to different stakeholders involved in traffic
34 management, their interests, and the rules for making decisions (Hess, 2009). In Melbourne,
35 examples like the redesign of Swanston Street suggest that heeding such advice can engage
36 the mobility and liveability tension where a diversity of users benefit.
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40 At the time of this research, in the heart of Melbourne, multiple city blocks of Swanston
41 Street were undergoing extensive material alterations aimed at largely prohibiting motorised
42 travel and introducing new tram stop designs which afforded greater intermingling between
43 pedestrians and cyclists. The modifications physically and metaphorically echo a particular
44 perspective towards appropriate use and allocation of road space. When asked if other
45 corridors in Melbourne might make similar transitions, most planners interviewed here
46 hesitated, replying some eventually might. Responses were always contextualised against
47 current planning conditions. If Melbourne's planning past is a barometer to go by, Swanston
48 Street's transformation appears an allegory many in Melbourne are not ready for.
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52 The creation and application of *SmartRoads* indicates a willingness by planners to wrestle
53 with the challenge of network operating planning. Yet, a mismatch remains between
54 *SmartRoads* identifying less costly and traditional measures with a lack of innovative policy
55 packages and business plans to implement such measures. Further, similar frameworks in
56 Melbourne's history accord with the politics of the day. Frameworks developed in the 1980s
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3 were dropped under the Kennett government's infrastructure vision during the 1990s, only to
4 resurface under Labor government's sustainable vision during the 2000s. Poor continuity
5 between subsequent studies and frameworks results in knowledge to be lost, only to be
6 rediscovered. Since councils are pressured to participate in continually changing state
7 sanctioned frameworks to receive funding, frameworks are often perceived as simply another
8 bureaucratic hurdle being pushed by state authorities. Thus, negative planning experiences
9 can obstruct application of frameworks later on. Though issues related to governance,
10 cyclical visions and debates, lack of continuity and disagreement around priorities play out in
11 a particular manner in Melbourne, revisiting the questions posed in the introduction helps
12 draw out lessons for a wider audience concerned with determining the best use of road space.
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16 What is open to negotiation, what is assumed as a given, and what is left off the table?
17 Ownership, funding, maintenance and regulation of road space, which constitute formalised
18 government and organisational processes, set the stage for determining the best use of road
19 space, but not necessarily the outcome. As such, allocating road space will always be
20 inherently political, fraught with competing and conflicting interests. This underscores the
21 difficulty and undesirability in separating politics from urban planning matters (Legacy,
22 2015). Explicit instances of political influence include frameworks quickly becoming
23 subverted by and subjected to, political processes such as elections. Yet, more nuanced
24 instances include establishing road space priorities and determining a road's level of
25 importance over another—examples that are inherently both political and value-based
26 questions. As such, there is good reason to question understanding the problem of allocating
27 road space, as one of simply weighing up conflicting mobility needs over increasingly
28 constrained space (Mesbah, Sarvi, Ouveysi, & Currie, 2011). For instance, public transport
29 obviously carries significantly more people than a car. Re-allocating road space to favour
30 public transport therefore has clear environmental, mobility and social benefits. Yet,
31 singularly applying this criteria to evaluate and prioritise road space needs, formulates a
32 hierarchy typology in a way which prioritises mobility over liveability. Network operating
33 planning does not provide a simple resolution to the mobility and liveability tension, but it
34 does give mobility and liveability equal attention. Prioritisation given to each is where the
35 main challenges remain.
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42 Does applying traffic management at the metropolitan scale always require prioritising some
43 roads as less important than other roads? Aside from minimising complexity, network
44 operating planning frameworks often seek to remove politics, as much as possible, out of the
45 consensus development process. However, networks don't have needs. Further, whereas
46 metropolitan mobility needs often fall under the remit of regional, state or national
47 authorities, place-making concerns remain with local authorities. Meeting and suppressing
48 demand is therefore often delineated by different roads within a network—motorways and
49 arterials target metropolitan needs, local roads target local needs. This outcome neglects
50 issues found on roads connecting local roads to arterial roads. Network operating planning
51 can help with such 'connector roads' which have historically been a source of consternation
52 in traffic management (Brindle, 1995; Westerman, 1998). Application in practice can be
53 enhanced by actively questioning traditional traffic management legacies of thinking which
54 for the most part, continue to underpin network operating planning. Such legacies
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3 unintentionally reproduce a ‘rooms and corridors’ outcome—albeit with a significantly more
4 nuanced appreciation and account of temporal variations and rhythms of everyday urban life.
5 Given a car’s inherently mobile flexibility, evidence and theory generally concur that traffic
6 calming one road must occur in relation to managing the larger road network. This involves
7 developing and agreeing upon a vision for how a road network should operate in the future,
8 and ensuring that the vision is consistently carried out over a period not tied to political
9 election cycles.
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11
12 Who makes such decisions, and towards what ends? Deciding road space priorities occurs
13 against the backdrop of legislative statute and constitutional law. In practice however, priority
14 setting is fluid and dynamic—affording opportunities to tweak network operating planning.
15 For example, applying network-planning principles to existing public transport systems has
16 been suggested as providing a productive short-term tactic to achieving better utilisation of
17 existing services (Stone et al., 2012). Thus, road network optimisation could be defined as
18 greater utilisation of a public transport system. As such, network operating planning suggests
19 a shift in expectations around how society and planners portray and prioritise different road
20 space needs. Application in practice reflect an intermingling of a disciplinary delineation
21 over road space (see Karndacharuk et al., 2014 for illustration of traditional road space
22 remit), which support equally entrenched professional rationalities (Patton, 2007), but which
23 are actively being questioned by a greater appreciation for the contested nature of mobility
24 and liveability (Sadik-Khan & Solomonow, 2016). This speaks directly to the ‘how’ in this
25 article’s introduction. At the end of the day, a decision has to be made concerning what roads
26 will carry what type and level of traffic. Network operating planning reflects a pragmatic
27 technique to engage what is ultimately a complex, contested and value-based answer(s).
28 Holding in view both the local and network view helps avoid overlooking the potential for
29 local changes to impact networks and vice versa. This reminds planners that small changes
30 have network level implications, but in a way that doesn’t lose sight of finer-grained road
31 space use details.
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41 conducted at RMIT University and supported with an Australian Postgraduate Award
42 scholarship. I would like I would like to thank all of the professionals interviewed for giving
43 up their time for this study, the anonymous reviewers for their thoughtful comments and
44 Professor Greg Marsden for comments on different versions of this paper.
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48 ⁱ For instance, conceptualisation of urban space, embedded assumptions and primary
49 objectives found in road classification hierarchies (Goodwin, 1995; Marshall, 2005) differ
50 greatly from hierarchy typologies developed by Alexander (1966) and public transport
51 network planning (Stone, Mees, & Imran, 2012).
52

53 ⁱⁱ A letter by the Institute of Transportation Engineers to the US Department of Transport
54 underscores this awareness. The letter emphasised that mobility as the singular assessment
55 criteria for performance will continue to draw valuable time, funding and resources to
56 mobility outcomes to the detriment of other concerns (Schmitt, August 26, 2016).
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ⁱⁱⁱ In *SmartRoads*, public transport priority is currently defined by the Principal Public Transport Network (PPTN). This is established prior to developing an NOP and thus inserted as a base assumption. Evidence suggests that the PPTN was crucial to *SmartRoads*' development (Participants 26, 49). The aim of the PPTN was to reflect a network of public transport routes that DOT staff believed consisted of a reasonable standard or could eventuate to a reasonable standard. After viewing the PPTN, planners charged with freight and cycling felt that their mode needed an equivalent plan. As each mode operates on the same road network many in VicRoads remarked that different attempts to prioritise different users requires formalisation to ensure VicRoads staff have clarity around what's expected of them.

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4 **Abstract**
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6 The task of (re)allocating existing road space has been pushed the fore in traffic
7 management. In Melbourne, Australia, the rise of ‘network operating planning’
8 indicates renewed vigour for planners to wrestle with the challenge of managing road
9 space at the network level—highlighted by the creation of *SmartRoads*. Tracing this
10 and prior frameworks in Melbourne’s history reveals recurrent issues related to
11 governance, cyclical debates, poor continuity and competing priorities. The issues
12 collectively speak to a tension common in the road space allocation task: accounting
13 for finer-grained road space use details and acknowledging small changes have
14 network level implications. Although playing out differently depending on city,
15 engaging the tension is central to making better informed road space allocation
16 decisions.
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6 *Key words*
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8 Network operating planning, road space allocation, traffic management, urban
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5 **Figures and Tables List**
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9 Page 4

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11 **Figure 1: Example of road classifications**

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15 **Figure 2: Example of priority**

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21 **Figure 3: Declared roads within Metropolitan Melbourne**

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26 **Figure 4: Example of degree of conflict map**

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32 **Figure 5: Example of implementation plan**

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38 **Table 1: Melbourne arterial/road network studies, workshops and state**
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Time period	Title	References
1978 to 1988	<i>Hierarchy study</i>	(Loder & Bayly , 1980; Pattinson, 1982)
1989-1992	<i>Search Conferences</i>	(Andrew O'Brien & Associates, 1990; VicRoads, 1991b)
1995-1999	<i>Principal Traffic Routes</i>	(McConnell & Somers, 2005; Natalizio & Sagers , 1998)
2005-today	<i>SmartRoads</i>	(VicRoads, 2012; Weeratunga & Luk , 2010)

Table 1: Melbourne arterial/road network studies, workshops and state programmes
 Table 1 summaries Melbourne-sp
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Figure 1: Example of road classifications
Figure 1 illustrates how road
159x69mm (96 x 96 DPI)

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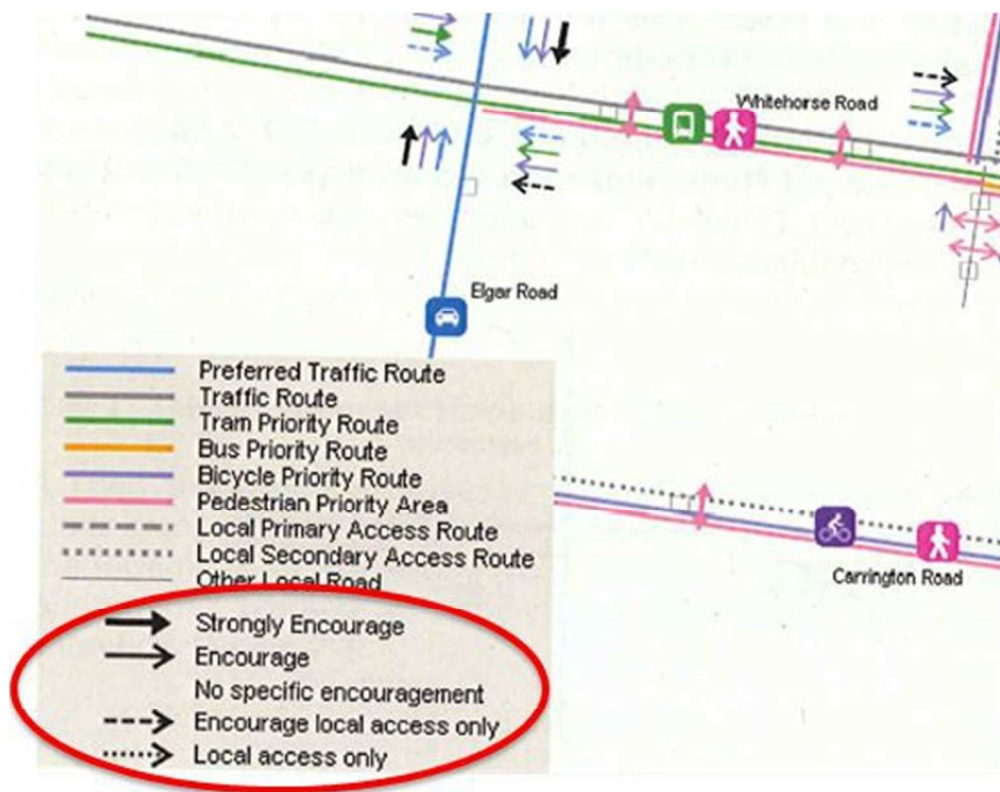


Figure 2: Example of priority
Figure 1 illustrates how road
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Figure 3: Declared roads within Metropolitan Melbourne
Central to formal arrangements
211x91mm (96 x 96 DPI)

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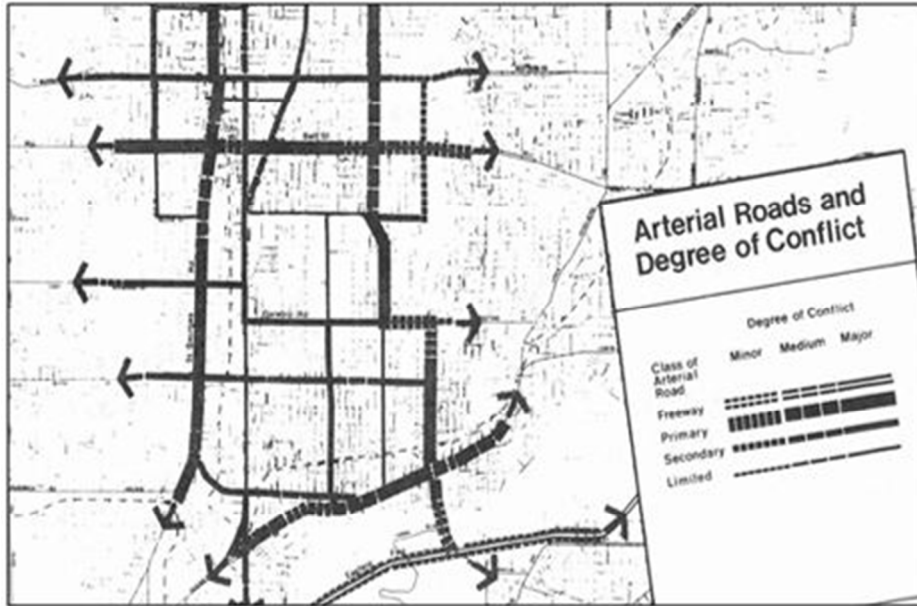


Figure 4: Example of degree of conflict map
Each step was supported with m
123x81mm (96 x 96 DPI)

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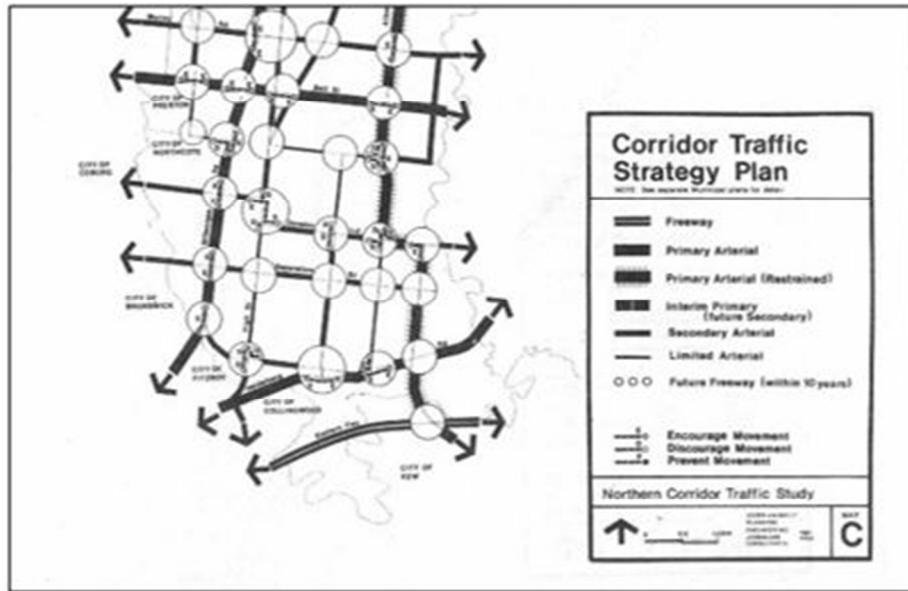


Figure 5: Example of implementation plan
Each step was supported with m
122x78mm (96 x 96 DPI)