

2 Ramp Metering Strategy Implementation: 3 A Case Study Review

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6 **Abstract:** Ramp metering (RM) is a traffic management technique that aims at controlling the flow of traffic entering specific roadways
7 tailored for fast-moving traffic containing separate multilane divided carriageways (such as motorways, highways, expressways, freeways,
8 and turnpikes). The objective of RM is to minimize congestion on the main thoroughfare of the roadway. RM algorithms have evolved
9 significantly since the 1960s and will continue to do so into the future. While the functionalities of the algorithms remain valid through
10 time, the applications of the RM strategies are continually being updated. Unlike previous reviews that focused on the RM methodological
11 aspect, this study details the recent literature regarding the implementation of RM strategies. The aim of this paper is to provide a global
12 perspective on existing RM applications and the algorithms used, for future reference for both academics and practitioners. The paper
13 provides an indicative historical context and characteristics for each reported project, as well as an overview of the evaluation of these
14 schemes. Based on the current understanding of RM strategies, the paper discusses challenges and the potential future of RM technology.
15 **DOI:** 10.1061/JTEPBS.0000641. © 2021 American Society of Civil Engineers.

16 **Author keywords:** Ramp metering (RM); Ramp signals; Motorway congestion management; On-ramp control; Entrance control;
17 Motorway traffic control; Field study.

18 4 Introduction

19 5 The investment into further capital infrastructure to increase the
20 capacity of the road network to cater to greater traffic volumes
21 is constrained economically and the phenomenon of induced traffic
22 limits its effectiveness, and at times even exacerbates the congestion
23 issue. An alternative approach involves optimizing the use of
24 available infrastructure through various traffic and demand management
25 techniques. In relation to motorways, the goal is to ensure full
26 utilization of their capacity, and ramp metering (RM) is a traffic
27 management technique that attempts to achieve this goal

(Yuan 2008). It uses traffic signals to control the flow of traffic on-
ramps entering a motorway, freeway, or other fast-moving traffic
roadway in order to optimize the main thoroughfare while minimizing
congestion. For the purpose of simplification, in the current
paper we use the term *motorway* to identify a roadway with RM-
controlled access.

The concept of RM stems from 1956, when the US government
launched the Interstate Highway Program to cater to the growing
need for people and goods to travel more efficiently. As demand,
speed, and congestion increased, the value and safety of the network
reduced (Jacobson et al. 2006). This phenomenon led to research
into the understanding and mitigation of motorway congestion and
safety concerns, which in turn led to a variety of methods to manage
traffic demand on motorways. RM was one of the techniques
resulting from this investigation.

RM originated within the US and since then has been implemented
in over 30 cities within the US as a motorway management
technique. RM was initially explored within Chicago, Detroit, and
New York and has gradually been implemented throughout the rest
of the country, with particularly high usage within Washington
State and California. In Europe, RM systems have been applied
widely to improve motorway travel conditions. The precise number
of existing systems and metered ramps implemented has not been
reported. However, literature indicates that a significant number of
RM systems are operating in several European countries, including
France, Germany, and the Netherlands (Middelham and Taale
2006).

One study (Haj-Salem et al. 2001) suggested that unlike in the
US, in European countries, the integration of RM strategies within
the traffic management centers faced a number of difficulties due to
misunderstandings of the potential impacts such techniques have
on the traffic conditions. The European governments, together with
research institutions and private operators, have been involved in a
number of projects where the main objective was to advance, promote,
and harmonize RM control measures in order to improve

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Note. This manuscript was published online on **No Epub Date**. Discussion period open until 0, 0; separate discussions must be submitted for individual papers. This paper is part of the *Journal of Transportation Engineering, Part A: Systems*, © ASCE, ISSN 2473-2907.

63 safety and increase the efficiency of traffic flow. One of the studies
64 was the European Ramp Metering Project (EURAMP) executed
65 within the 6th European Research and Technological Develop-
66 ment Framework Programme (Bielefeldt 2007; EURAMP 2014;
67 Papageorgiou and Papamichail 2007).

68 The three key findings of the EURAMP project are as follows:
69 (1) proof that considerable socioeconomic benefit can be gained
70 from the operation of local RM; (2) a warning that the ramp delays
71 can outweigh the travel time gains for the vehicles on the mainline
72 motorway, if the metering is applied too harshly; and (3) proof
73 that coordinated metering is superior to local metering strategies,
74 and that substantial additional benefits can be gained from the
75 coordination.

76 In this paper, we present case studies of 15 RM applications
77 deployed worldwide that were reported in the literature. Each
78 project is discussed in detail in the subsequent sections. Special
79 attention is paid to the project findings, with a particular focus on
80 the impacts of RM on the road network (e.g., effect on mainline
81 speeds, travel time, delay, and number of crashes). All the projects
82 report on performance in reference to initial objectives and high-
83 light the positives of RM implementation. The benefits include:
84 (1) increased mainline speeds, (2) decreased travel times, (3) re-
85 duced delays, (4) increased motorway capacity and throughput,
86 (5) improved safety—reduction in accidents, (6) congestion re-
87 duction by managing traffic demand, (7) reduction in emissions
88 and improved air quality, (8) reduction in fuel consumption and
89 improvement in fuel economy, and last but not least, and (9) ef-
90 ficient use of capacity. The list of incurred costs includes: (1) dis-
91 ruption of the surrounding arterial network as a result of metering;
92 (2) increased ramp delay and spillback; (3) equity (most travel
93 time savings are obtained by users traveling longer distances
94 along the motorway, while short distance travel on the motorway
95 may result in greater travel times); (4) capital cost of installation,
96 maintenance, enforcement and public education; and (5) mode
97 shift toward private car use as performance of the mainline
98 improves.

99 The reviewed documents include technical reports, journals, and
100 conference papers. A semistructured approach was used starting
101 from collecting studies from Google and Scopus, based on relevant
102 keywords (ramp metering, ramp signals, motorway congestion
103 management, on-ramp control, entrance control, and motorway
104 traffic control), for the publication year range 1970–2020. The ob-
105 tained studies were divided based on their relevance and topics and
106 implementation locations. Country/state names are also added to
107 the keywords to find some additional studies for particular loca-
108 tions. There were two main challenges in finding the references:
109 (1) many scientific studies performed their proposed RM methods
110 only in traffic simulations, and we could not find any evidence that
111 they were used in real-world applications; and (2) for non-English-
112 speaking countries, most of the implementation reports were in a
113 language other than English. Therefore, this study is biased toward
114 Western countries, while RM methods implementations are not
115 limited to the only reviewed case studies.

116 Unlike previous reviews that focused on RM algorithms
117 (Papageorgiou et al. 2003; Shaaban et al. 2016), the current study
118 details the recent literature regarding the implementation of RM
119 strategies. The goal is to provide practical insights on RM solutions
120 useful to both academics and practitioners. The review focuses on
121 real-world applications, highlighting available options and chal-
122 lenges of implementation and evaluation of RM.

123 The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. The next
124 section provides an overview of RM case studies, focusing on im-
125 plementation and effectiveness of the schemes, followed by a
126 section discussing the challenges in implementing and evaluating

RM solutions. The last section presents concluding comments and
discusses future research directions.

RM Case Studies: Context and Results 129

RM strategies can be classified based on the method of control
(Zhang et al. 2001). A method of control determines the scale
and complexity of the RM strategy. Throughout the literature, it
is evident that there are two general approaches: (1) fixed-time;
or (2) traffic-responsive RM strategies. Both of these large cate-
gories include algorithms formulated to achieve goals specific to the
method of control.

Fixed-time RM systems determine metering rates based on his-
torical traffic conditions and are preset according to the time of day.
Their drawback is the inability to react to the volatility of traffic
flow that may occur due to fluctuations in demand or the presence
of a disruption within a network (Scariza 2003).

The majority of implemented RM systems are based on traffic-
responsive control methods, and thus they naturally became the
main focus of the current work. Traffic-responsive systems use
real-time data collected from loop-detector devices to determine
the timings and activity of the metering (Jacobson et al. 2006).
In this way, they adapt to the prevailing traffic conditions, allowing
greater flexibility and ability to coordinate across a series of ramps
for a motorway corridor. Traffic-responsive systems can be further
classified into (1) isolated (local); and (2) coordinated (network-
wide) (Zhang et al. 2001).

Isolated traffic-responsive metering attempts to resolve local-
ized traffic management concerns. An advantage of these systems
is that, unlike fixed-time systems, they have the ability to react to
volatility in traffic flow.

Coordinated traffic-responsive metering aims to optimize the
traffic flow along a metered stretch of a motorway considering
a series of metered ramps. It coordinates the metering rates
based on the traffic conditions of the mainline as well as those
of the downstream ramps. The coordinated algorithms can be sep-
arated into three types: (1) cooperative, (2) competitive, and
(3) integral.

Cooperative RM algorithms aim at initially satisfying the local
traffic conditions at each on-ramp, and then at a global level min-
imize overall congestion within the mainline and adjacent arterial
network (Aydos and O'Brien 2014; Papamichail and Papageorgiou
2008; Papamichail et al. 2010). This is an improvement to iso-
lated RM; however, these algorithms balance between local and
network-wide objectives in an ad hoc manner, resulting in instabil-
ity (Zhang et al. 2001).

Competitive algorithms determine metering rates on a local and
network-wide level. The most restrictive rate is utilized throughout
the system (Zhang et al. 2001). This differs from the staged ap-
proach of cooperative algorithms, where the global system assists
the local metering by providing a measure of the traffic conditions
downstream of the ramp. Competitive algorithms may also consider
queue lengths of ramps and impacts on the surrounding network
when determining metering rates.

Integral algorithms focus on specific objectives and develop
the metering rates and control methods with the goal of achieving
those objectives. In general, the considered objectives are travel
time minimization for the mainline or throughput maximization
along the mainline. RM rates are determined by optimizing the
objective considering constraints such as maximum allowable
ramp queue, bottleneck capacity, and other important factors af-
fecting traffic conditions external to the mainline (Gokasar et al.
2013). The study by Zhang et al. (2001) suggests that integral

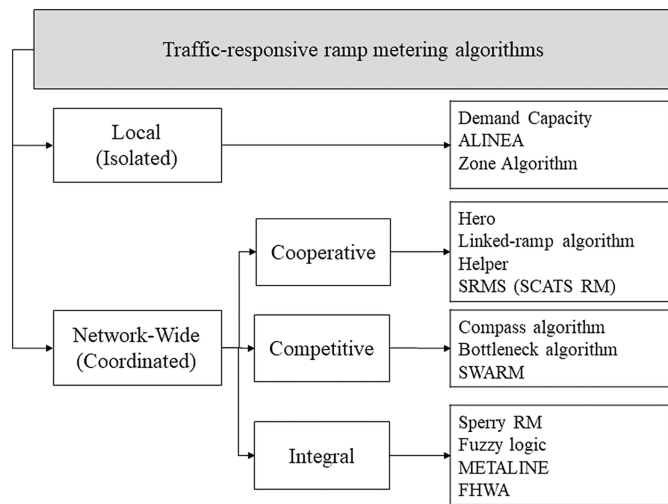


Fig. 1. Classification of traffic-responsive RM algorithms.

algorithms are the most appealing because of the theoretical foundation and capability of handling various types of metering and modeling constraints. However, the increased complexity results in a computational burden, and performance is heavily dependent on fine-grained input data. Fig. 1 provides an overview of the traffic-responsive RM algorithms that have been proposed and implemented globally.

In the rest of this section, we review several real case study applications in different countries based on the more often used RM system. At each subsection, we first provide a brief summary from the main concept of the method, followed by some case studies. A summary of all the analyzed case studies is gathered in Tables 1 and 2, which contain information on the site [i.e., used system—e.g., Asservissement Linéaire d'Entrée Autoroutière (ALINEA), system-wide adaptive RM (SWARM), etc.—country, city, project name, etc.], the motorway test network (i.e., motorway name, identification, etc.), what the system was tested/compared against, the practical impact of RM implementation, and the source of reference, all if available.

Table 1. Case studies of RM applications reported in the literature

	Project	Motorway test network	Used system	Other tested systems	Summary of impact of RM implementation	Sources
T1:1	Paris, France	Périphérique, A6 Île-de-France	Adaptive ALINEA	Classic ALINEA CS-ALINEA VC-ALINEA	The traffic-responsive feedback control strategies are clearly superior to fixed-time control	Muhurdarevic et al. (2006),
T1:2					Implementation of the ALINEA family control systems improved the traffic congestion in range of 10%–17%	Papageorgiou et al. (1999),
T1:3					Results from implementation of HERO in A6 showed a clear improvement over the uncoordinated ALINEA	Papamichail et al. (2010)
T1:4						
T1:5	Tel Aviv, Israel	Ayalon motorway (Road No. 20)	Classic ALINEA	No-control strategy	The system's capacity increased by up to 950 vehicles/h upstream of the ramp TTD values in the system were higher by 3.3% TTTS was reduced by 2.6% on average over the whole tested time period	Papageorgiou et al. (1990a, b)
T1:6						
T1:7						
T1:8	Birmingham, England	M6 near Birmingham	Classic ALINEA	Merge control ACDC	Journey time reduced for mainline traffic of 13% across all sites where RM was implemented during the morning peak period Increase in traffic volume ranging from 1% to 30% was observed by individual measured sites	Hayden et al. (2009), Highways Agency (2007, 2008)
T1:9						
T1:10	Gauteng, South Africa	BSH	Classic ALINEA	No-control strategy	Traffic volumes during the peak period increased by 2.2%, whereas the increased during the peak hour is 8.5% The effect of RM on travel times for the main traffic stream was minor	Vanderschuren (2006)
T1:11						
T1:12	Munich, Germany	A94 Munich, A9 Nuremberg/Berlin, and A8 East Salzburg	Adaptive ALINEA Fuzzy logic	Classic ALINEA	TTTS was 1.4% and 0.6% lower for classic ALINEA in comparison to the adaptive ALINEA and ACCEZZ, respectively Clear conclusions could not be identified regarding system's performance during potential congestion events	Papageorgiou et al. (1990a, b)
T1:13						
T1:14	Amsterdam, Netherlands	A-10 West ring road, Delft-Zuid on-ramp to the A13	Fuzzy logic	RWS strategy ALINEA	The fuzzy logic strategy increased by 5% the overall mainline capacity, which led to higher speeds and lower travel time	Middelham and Taale (2006), Papageorgiou et al. (1997), Taale et al. (1996)
T1:15						
T1:16	Seattle, Washington	I-5, I-90, I-405	Fuzzy logic	FLOW Bottleneck Zone metering	With fuzzy metering 8.2% reduction in I-90 mainline congestion The I-405 mainline congestion was 1.2% worse with fuzzy metering than with bottleneck metering	Chu et al. (2004), Taylor and Meldrum (2000)
T1:17						
T1:18						

Table 2. More case studies of RM applications reported in the literature

	Project	Motorway test network	Used system	Other tested systems	Summary of impact of RM implementation	Sources	
T2:1	Melbourne, Australia	M1 Motorway	ALINEA HERO (STREAMS)	Fixed-time meters	Average flow improved by 4.7% and 8.4% during morning and evening peaks, respectively Average speed improved by 35% and 58.6% during AM and PM peaks, respectively	Papamichail et al. (2010)	T2:3
T2:4 T2:5	Brisbane, Australia	M1/M3 Motorway	ALINEA HERO (STREAMS)	Fixed-time meters	7% increase in travel speeds in AM peak (from 70 to 75 km/h) 4% increase in throughput (150 vehicles/h)	Faulkner et al. (2014)	
T2:6	Los Angeles, California	Westbound Route 210	SWARM	Demand-capacity control (SATMS) and occupancy control (SDRMS and TOS)	Increase in mainline speed by 11% during the AM peak Decreased travel time by 14% Reduced mainline occupancy by 13% Reduced motorway delay by 17%	Chu et al. (2004), MacCarley et al. (2002), Monsere et al. (2008), Pham et al. (2002), Zhang et al. (2001)	T2:7 T2:8 T2:9
T2:10	Denver, Colorado	I-25, I-225, I-270	Helper	No-control strategy	Mainline speed increased by 16% (from 69 to 80 km/h) The overall rate of accidents decreased by 20% between 1983 and 1989 18% increase in peak volume in mainline	Lipp et al. (1991)	T2:11 T2:12
T2:13 T2:14	Minneapolis, Minnesota	I-494, I-94, I-35E, I-35W	SZM	Fixed-time meters Zone metering	9% reduction in through traffic of motorways 14% reduction in motorway speeds, increasing travel times Depreciation of travel time reliability with greater standard deviations of travel times measured	Lau (1997), Levinson and Zhang (2006), Xin et al. (2004)	T2:15
T2:16	Toronto, Canada	QEW, Highway 401, Highway 403	COMPASS	No-control strategy	Substantial improvements in travel time and decrement in accident rates achieved during its first two years of operation	Morala et al. (2008)	
T2:17	Auckland, New Zealand	Mahunga Drive, Rimu Road, Highway 20	SRMS	Fixed-time meters	8% increase in throughput flow 25% improvement in speed for average and congestion periods An average 22% reduction of crashes was reported	NZ Transport Agency (2014), O'Brien (2014), O'Brien and McCombs (2007)	T2:18

207 ALINEA Family

208 The well-known feedback RM algorithm ALINEA is a discrete,
 209 closed-loop occupancy control algorithm based on feedback
 210 control theory. In the core of the original ALINEA algorithm
 211 (Papageorgiou et al. 1991), a feedback control system adjusts
 212 the RM rate in order to keep the downstream occupancy rate less
 213 than a certain occupancy threshold. ALINEA can be applied to local
 214 RM or used as a key component in a coordinated RM system.
 215 **7** Theoretical analysis shows that ALINEA may result in poorly
 216 damped closed-loop behavior in the cases where bottlenecks propa-
 217 gated further downstream from the merging area. Different versions
 218 of ALINEA have been proposed in previous studies to address this
 219 issue (Ferrara et al. 2018). Some versions of the model replaced the
 220 flow rates upstream and downstream (Smaragdis et al. 2004), and
 221 some enhanced the core controller of the algorithm (Wang et al.
 222 2014). For details on the ALINEA algorithm and the method's
 223 extensions, please refer to Frejo and De Schutter (2018), Kan et al.
 224 (2016), Kontorinaki et al. (2019), Papageorgiou et al. (2003),
 225 Stylianopoulou et al. (2020), and Zhao et al. (2019).

226 Paris, France

227 In 1990 and early 1991, METALINE and ALINEA were imple-
 228 mented on three on-ramps of the internal southern part of Boule-
 229 vard Périphérique. METALINE is the integral coordinated system

version of ALINEA. METALINE extends ALINEA to the linear
 quadratic control type by calculating two gain matrices. The origi-
 nal motivation of the study was the fact that the Boulevard Périph-
 érique was underutilized during peak-hour congestion. The study
 area included 6 km of motorway, including three metered ramps
 and two nonmetered ramps. The models were validated on the basis
 of real traffic flow measurements selected under a broad spectrum
 of traffic conditions. The morning peak period was studied for
 10 days using each algorithm, with results showing mainline speeds
 increasing for both. This 10-day-long study remains the only field
 implementation of METALINE in the Paris area. The results
 showed that METALINE and ALINEA perform similarly under
 normal conditions, but in the case of nonrecurring incidents MET-
 ALINE outperforms ALINEA (Papageorgiou et al. 1997).

Within the framework of the EURAMP project, a number of
 field trials were designed and executed on the A6 motorway located
 south of Île-de-France, Paris (the project was initiated in 2004).
 The tested RM strategy was ALINEA, implemented independently at
 each of the four controlled ramps. The performance of ALINEA
 was compared with a base case when no control was implemented.
 The results indicated that the benefits of the RM were higher under
 nonrecurrent congestion with low waiting time on the ramps.

In addition to the classic ALINEA algorithm, two other variants
 were tested: variable cycle (VC-ALINEA) and coordinated strategy

(CS-ALINEA). The latter constitutes an adaptation of ALINEA heuristic RM coordination (HERO). In comparison with the no-control strategy, all three ALINEA algorithms proved their superiority (Bielefeldt et al. 2007; Haj-Salem et al. 2001).

Across all the ALINEA strategies, CS-ALINEA improved the motorway traffic the most. It reduced the delays on the on-ramps by distributing the ramp flows among the on-ramps so that all the queues were diminished and the total sum of all on-ramp delays was decreased. In addition, while maintaining the system's capacity, the travel times reduced by 0.9%, 3.5%, and 4.6% in comparison to no-control, classic ALINEA, and VC-ALINEA, respectively. The cost-benefit ratio of implementation of CS-ALINEA was calculated to be 8.8.

Munich, Germany

Another RM study within the EURAMP project was completed for the motorway near Munich in Germany. The study involved reviewing the performance of classic ALINEA, adaptive ALINEA, and adaptive and coordinated control of entrance ramps with fuzzy logic (ACCEZZ). The data was gathered during winter 2005 and spring 2006 across the five-hour afternoon peak period. Due to the fact that during the time of study traffic volumes did not increase, and congestion was not present, only minor differences in the performance of the algorithms were observed. The differences noted for different hours and different strategies eventually canceled each other out in the overall comparison. For example, the total travel time spent (TTTS) was 1.4% and 0.6% lower for classic ALINEA in comparison to the adaptive ALINEA and ACCEZZ, respectively. Consequently, clear conclusions could not be identified regarding the system's performance during potential congestion events. It also showed that a RM system is appropriate under congestion conditions (Bielefeldt et al. 2007).

Tel Aviv, Israel

Ayalon Highway (i.e., Road No. 20) is the busiest highway in Israel. It serves 750,000 vehicles a day and the traffic volumes on its busiest section exceed 140,000 vehicles a day. The project was initiated in 2004 and the data was gathered in the spring of 2006. Similar to the Munich case study, the time interval of interest was a five-hour-long afternoon peak period. The objective of the study was to contrast ALINEA with a no-control strategy. The congestion conditions were severe at the section of motorway assessed due to geometrical design and high traffic volumes: up to 8,000 vehicles/h present on the mainline of the motorway, while 1,400 vehicles/h used the on-ramp. ALINEA managed to increment the average ramp time from 15 to 59 s, never reaching 90 s. Also, ALINEA reduced downstream travel times by 2.4% and upstream travel times by between 6.7% and 8.5%, with the greatest improvements observed immediately upstream of the ramp. In absolute terms, due to implementation of ALINEA, the system's capacity increased by up to 950 vehicles/h upstream of the ramp (Bielefeldt et al. 2007). The comparison with the no-control strategy also showed that the total traveled distance (TTD) values in the system were higher by 3.3% and the net TTTS was reduced by 2.6% on average over the whole tested time period. Ramp queues dissipated more quickly when ALINEA was used in contrast to the situation when the no-control strategy was used. The study also focused on measuring fuel consumption and emission levels, both of which reduced by 1%–1.5% in the presence of metering. The noted levels of emissions when using ALINEA differed for inorganic gases (NO_x) and hydrocarbons (HC) and were equal to 0.3% and 2.4%, respectively. In addition, the investment costs and system operating costs were estimated. The comparison presented monetary benefits of operating ALINEA over the no-control strategy with a cost-benefit ratio of 7.6, resulting in a break-even point

of 6 months. Like in all the other test cases within the EURAMP project, the safety assessment study, although conducted, was not conclusive (Bielefeldt et al. 2007).

Birmingham, England

The first RM was trialed on M6 near Birmingham in 1986. RM was initially introduced on the southbound access slip road at Junction 10 and later extended to the northbound and some other junctions in this motorway. With the positive evaluation of the project, the Highways Agency increased the number of RM over 30 sites in the UK by 2000 (Highways Agency 2007). The before and after study assessed three main indicators: journey times, traffic speeds and traffic flows. The field data was collected from loop detectors located at every 500m and journey times along the mainline carriageway (Highways Agency 2008). Overall, journey time reduced for mainline traffic by 13% across all sites during the morning peak period. Moreover, an increase in traffic volume ranging from 1% to 30% was observed by individual measured sites. Despite the success of the implemented RM system, some potential improvements have been proposed in Hayden et al. (2009). This study used a microsimulation model to evaluate different RM algorithms such as ALINEA, merge control, and AINEA cascaded with demand capacity (ACDC). In comparison to existing RM, ACDC resulted in lowering of travel times due to reduction of underlying traffic volumes. Also, the merge control approach resulted in the lowest journey time compared to the other tested approaches.

Gauteng, South Africa

The application of RM was a part of the Intelligent Transport System launched as the Gauteng Motorway Improvement Project (GFIP) by the South African National Roads Agency (SANRAL). The project aimed to improve the congested conditions on the road system of South Africa's economic hub in 2007 (Vanderschuren 2006). The Ben Schoeman Highway (BSH) connects Johannesburg to Pretoria and is the busiest road in South Africa. The capacity of the motorway is almost 6,600 vehicles/h, of which on average 5% are heavy vehicles. The BSH corridor is the main motorway where the RMs were introduced. The introduction of RM on the BSH provided better utilization of road capacity. Traffic volumes during the peak period have increased by 2.2%, whereas the increase during the peak hour is 8.5%. Furthermore, the safety risk decreased, whereas the headway distribution was almost identical to the base case headway distribution. The effect of RM on travel times for the main traffic stream was minor (Vanderschuren 2006).

Fuzzy Logic

Fuzzy logic seems to be well established for RM. Because a fuzzy controller can handle nonlinear systems with unknown models, the approach has an advantage over classical controllers for the RM problem (Vukanovic and Ernhofer 2006). In fuzzy controllers, the imprecision and uncertainty are handled by defining the input variables as fuzzy sets rather than as crisp values. Therefore, the measured data (e.g., speed, flow) is first fuzzified and fed to RM controller. The controller determines the action by using set of predefined logic rules. The fuzzy logic rules incorporate human expertise in a manner to control extreme traffic situations. At the end, outputs are defuzzified to obtain the real RM rates. Having tested different fuzzy logic control strategies in some real-world applications, it can be said that the traffic situation improved at the mainline, especially at the merging areas. For details on the fuzzy logic algorithm, please refer to Bogenberger and Keller (2001) and Xu et al. (2013).

377 **Seattle, Washington**
378 Washington State DOT (WSDOT) implemented a bottleneck algo-
379 rithm, FLOW, in 1981 as a component of a motorway management
380 strategy. The metering was conducted on the I-5 north of the
381 Seattle Central Business District and included 17 southbound
382 ramps (metered during the morning peak) and five northbound
383 ramps (metered during the evening peak). Though the primary goal
384 of the metering was motorway management, in 1986 metering was
385 also used on the SR-520 as a local traffic calming measure to dis-
386 courage users from traveling through paths near residences and
387 schools. The metering generated a delay, creating diversions from
388 these ordinarily used paths. An evaluation of the initial 22 ramps
389 was conducted, comparing the efficacy of the system between 1981
390 and 1987.

391 Insufficiencies such as high ramp delays, queue length volatility,
392 and lack of coordination between ramps from the FLOW imple-
393 mentation resulted in the development of a new algorithm based
394 on the concepts of fuzzy logic theory. These insufficiencies were
395 highlighted by Chu et al. (2004) in a study that compared a number
396 of leading algorithms using microsimulation tools. The study indi-
397 cated that the performance of bottleneck and zone algorithms were
398 inferior relative to system-wide coordinated techniques.

399 WSDOT commissioned a study to formulate and evaluate the
400 benefits of using an algorithm that accounts for heuristic-based
401 decision-making in conjunction with purely quantitative metrics.
402 The study compares the fuzzy logic algorithm to FLOW and is
403 detailed in Taylor and Meldrum (2000). It shows that the devel-
404 opment, implementation, and optimization of the fuzzy logic
405 algorithm on all 126 ramps at the time of the study were an achieve-
406 ment, as this form of algorithm had never previously been imple-
407 mented. The benefits of the fuzzy logic algorithm were due to both
408 the inclusion of downstream inputs and the fuzzy controller's use of
409 smooth graduated control in a preventative manner. An online per-
410 formance comparison with the local metering on the I-90 and the
411 bottleneck metering on the I-405 provided the following results:
412 (1) on the I-90 site, fuzzy logic metering resulted in lower mainline
413 occupancies, higher throughput volumes, and slightly higher
414 queues than local metering; (2) on the I-405 site, fuzzy logic me-
415 tering resulted in slightly higher mainline occupancies, slightly
416 higher throughput volumes, and significantly reduced queues;
417 and (3) in a system-wide perspective, the fuzzy logic RM algorithm
418 improved travel time and resulted in higher throughput.

419 In effect, the fuzzy logic algorithm was implemented in 1999
420 and is currently being utilized in Seattle across the 126 ramps
421 throughout the region as a critical component of the motorway
422 management scheme.

423 **Amsterdam, Netherlands**

424 In 1989, the first RM system in the Netherlands was installed near
425 the Coentunnel on the A-10 West ring road around Amsterdam.
426 The objective of the project was to improve the traffic on the
427 A10-West, because significant congestion was caused by the large
428 number of vehicles using the on-ramp trying to avoid the conges-
429 tion before reaching the Coentunnel. Positive performance of this
430 system led to two other deployments: the Delft-Zuid on-ramp to the
431 A13 in the direction of Rotterdam and Zoetermeer. In 2005, in the
432 Netherlands, 54 ramps were equipped with the RM devices. On 10
433 of the locations a comparison study of different available algo-
434 rithms was completed. The algorithms included the Dutch RWS
435 strategy (European demand-capacity theory), the ALINEA strat-
436 egy, and the algorithm based on fuzzy logic (Taale et al. 1996).

437 The comparison of the RWS strategy and ALINEA showed that
438 ALINEA provides comparable or better results. ALINEA increased
439 the total service of the motorway and the on-ramp. However, when

440 fuzzy logic was contrasted with ALINEA and the RWS strategy, it
441 was clearly the best performing of the three. The fuzzy logic strat-
442 egy gave better results with respect to capacity increment (5%),
443 which led to higher speeds and lower travel times (Middelham
444 and Taale 2006).

445 **HERO**

446 HERO is based on ALINEA method principles. The algorithm uses
447 real-time measurements, but without doing real-time calculations
448 (Kristeleit et al. 2016). Each RM is independently controlled using
449 ALINEA. Once congestion is observed on the mainline, the critical
450 RMs—including the closest ones—are prioritized and called
451 master ramps. The master ramps continue controlling RM at local
452 level while the other upstream RM rates are reduced as long as the
453 congestion dissipated. For details on the HERO algorithm, please
454 refer to Bélisle et al. (2019) and Papamichail and Papageorgiou
455 (2008).

456 **Melbourne, Australia**

457 In early 2008, VicRoads started a pilot project in Melbourne and
458 implemented the ALINEA/HERO system (on the STREAMS plat-
459 form) on six on-ramps along the M1 motorway (also known as the
460 Monash motorway) (Burley and Gaffney 2010). It is a major urban
461 six-lane dual carriageway linking Melbourne's Centre Business
462 District with the southeastern suburbs, and one of Australia's busi-
463 est motorways. The motorway was utilized by 160,000 vehicles per
464 day, comprised of 20% commercial vehicles, experiencing 3–8 h of
465 congestion a day (Samad and Annaswamy 2011).

466 The on-ramps were previously operating on a fixed-time-of-day
467 ramp signaling system. Later, 64 coordinated RMs were deployed
468 as part of a major upgrade to the Monash-City Link-West Gate mo-
469 torway. The project budget was \$AUD 1.93 billion, from which
470 approximately \$AUD 100 million was devoted to intelligent trans-
471 port systems (ITS) (Vong and Gaffney 2009). The performance of
472 the system was evaluated and showed that the average flow im-
473 proved by 4.7% and 8.4% during the morning and evening peaks,
474 respectively. Furthermore, the average speed improved by 35% and
475 58.6% during the morning and evening peaks, respectively. The
476 economic evaluation was based on travel time savings and vehicle
477 operating costs. The economic benefit was estimated to be \$AUD
478 94,000 per day per RM (Papamichail et al. 2010; Samad and
479 Annaswamy 2011).

480 **Brisbane, Australia**

481 On September 2011, the Department of Transport and Main Roads
482 (DTMR) implemented the HERO system and related infrastructure
483 upgrades on six on-ramps over a stretch of 17 km along the M1/M3
484 Motorway (Pacific Motorway/South East Motorway). The on-
485 ramps had been operating on a fixed/time-of-day ramp signaling
486 system for the past 20 years. The motorway was utilized by
487 120,000 vehicles per day, and was comprised of majority commut-
488 ers (3% heavy vehicles was used in the economic analysis)
489 (Faulkner et al. 2014).

490 The capital cost covered infrastructure upgrades, research and
491 development, software licenses, deployment and configuration,
492 and training. The installation and configuration took approximately
493 five months. The infrastructure upgrades comprised signal lanterns,
494 new close-circuit television (CCTV) systems, and loop detectors on
495 the mainline and within the ramps. Other specific factors about this
496 pilot project were as follows: (1) tight changes to cycle time were
497 imposed (min/max of 4.8–6 s), (2) average cycle time changed
498 from 4.8 s during fixed-rate system to 5.4 s with HERO, and
499 (3) the scope of the study was limited to on-ramp control, and

no arterial coordination was mentioned; as such, congestion continues to exist, particularly at off-ramps downstream of on-ramps. Three types of performance evaluations were conducted by comparing measurements from May–August 2011 (before HERO) to May–August 2012 (after HERO). All indicators showed a significant improvement compared to the previous fixed-time system. As the period corresponding to the before scenario was during the upgrade of facilities, it is not clear if on-road construction had any impact on traffic (Faulkner et al. 2014). Ramp delays were measured on the on-ramps and no net increment was observed. Economic benefits analysis indicated that the main benefit was based on an average speed increase of 5 km/h, which was found during the morning peak period only (Faulkner et al. 2014).

513 SWARM

SWARM, similar to other coordinated algorithms, includes a bilevel control system: local level and network level. The local controller estimates RM rates based on predicted links' density using a Kalman filter. The network controller adjusts RM rates to minimize deviation of current and desired density values. One of the advantages of the SWARM algorithm is the capability of cleaning the measured data in case of faulty traffic sensors. Moreover, SWARM is able to predict congestion in advance, and estimates optimized RM rates in an active control manner. At the same time, if the algorithm predictors are not well calibrated, the high reliability of the SWARM algorithm on the traffic prediction (rather direct measured traffic data) can be the largest drawback of this method. For details on the SWARM algorithm, please refer to Bogenberger and Keller (2001).

528 Los Angeles, California

The California DOT (Caltrans) has employed different forms of RM since 1968. Currently, there are three major systems in place (Chu et al. 2009): (1) the San Diego RM system (SDRMS), deployed in Sacramento, Fresno, San Bernadino and Riverside, and San Diego areas; (2) the semiactuated traffic management system (SATMS), deployed in Los Angeles and Orange County; and (3) the traffic operations system (TOS), deployed in the San Francisco Bay area.

The metering algorithms in these systems are local area traffic-responsive control operated according to real-time detector data and preset metering plans (Chu et al. 2009). SATMS is based on demand-capacity control. Both SDRMS and TOS are based on occupancy control. The SWARM algorithm has been tested and implemented in parts of southern California—Orange, Los Angeles, and Ventura Counties—during the late 1990s and continues to be assessed.

A study by MacCarley et al. (2002) indicated that the implementation within Orange County was not appropriately monitored. However, the implementation and evaluation of the algorithm was far more successful within the Los Angeles and Ventura Counties (Pham et al. 2002). In excess of 1,200 ramps contain meters within the network. The SWARM system was compared against the pretimed and local traffic-responsive RM systems considering morning peaks of Route 210, including 20 controlled ramps.

553 Portland, Oregon

The Oregon DOT (ODOT) first implemented RM in the Portland metropolitan area in 1981 along a 10-km section of I-5 between Portland and the Washington state line. Portland's original RM strategy employed a fixed-time algorithm that determined the activity of the ramp as well as the metering rate based on historical data (Ahn et al. 2007). The original strategy was evaluated and the effectiveness of the strategy was evident, with a 40-km/h increase

in travel speeds along the I-5 14 months after installation (Bertini et al. 2005). As a result, the RM system expanded throughout Portland's network, and currently, Portland contains 138 metered on-ramps (Ahn et al. 2007).

In 2005, a SWARM algorithm was implemented in stages in the Portland metropolitan area to improve and coordinate the fixed-time RM strategy. The studies by Bertini et al. (2005a, b) utilized the loop-detector data provided by the Portland Oregon Regional Transport Archive Listing (PORTAL) to provide an assessment of the impact of metering on traffic flow parameters and concepts. In particular, Bertini et al. (2005) offered directions for the hardware and software that needed to be implemented for the successful continuation of the data collection efforts of PORTAL.

Ahn et al. (2007) studied the deployment of the SWARM algorithm across six major corridors during the morning and afternoon peak hours. The study describes a before and after evaluation of the RM comparing SWARM and the fixed-time system. Similar to the Minnesota cessation of RM, Ahn et al. (2007) conducted a shut-off experiment for a two-week-long period on the 11.3-km OR-217 corridor (including 12 on-ramps) to perform the comparison. Overall, SWARM resulted in higher metering rates, which reduced delays on the on-ramps. However, the motorway delay increased. Definitely determining the cause of the motorway delay was difficult as the bottleneck discharge rate within the mainline was not measured within the data set.

586 Stratified Zone Metering

Stratified zone metering (SZM) is the modified version of the zone algorithm in that the delay on ramps is reduced and a strict maximum delay boundary is applied to each RM. In the SZM method, the mainline is divided into multiple zones based on the location of critical bottlenecks in the motorway. Ideally, each zone starts with a free-flow area and ends in a congestion area. The algorithm aims to find a balance between each zone's density and RM rates. Metering rates are determined in a manner to handle traffic volume entering the zone (inflow) and traffic volume leaving the zone (outflows) in each iteration. For more details on the SZM algorithm, please refer to Geroliminis et al. (2011), Karim (2015), and Lau (2001).

598 Minneapolis/St. Paul, Minnesota

The Minnesota DOT (MnDOT) uses RM as a motorway management technique for 340 km of motorway in the Twin Cities metropolitan area. MnDOT first implemented RM in 1969, and since then approximately 430 RMs have been installed to manage congestion and improve safety. The implementation of RM has been deemed a success as a consequence of the staged implementation on a segment-by-segment and motorway-by-motorway basis over time, strict attention to priority entry control, and motorway-to-motorway connector metering (Lau 1997).

Initially MnDOT successfully implemented fixed-time meters during 1970 and 1971. Notwithstanding, further investment into the system resulted in the transition to use the zone algorithm. The zone algorithm was effective in reducing motorway congestion and accident rates (Arnold 1998; Bogenberger and May 1999; Zhang et al. 2001). However, the on-ramp delays experienced were in excess of 4 min, resulting in public disapproval and leading to the cessation of the metering strategy for a 6-week period in 2000. Several studies (Levinson and Zhang 2006; Xin et al. 2004) were conducted during the absence of the metering to evaluate the impact of the metering strategy.

A study by Zhang and Levinson (2010) further utilized this unique situation of the short-term closure to study the impact of

621 RM on the capacity of bottlenecks. The authors hypothesized a
622 series of relationships between RM and bottleneck capacity and
623 tested these hypotheses using the traffic data across two equal peri-
624 ods with and without the presence of RM. The results indicated that
625 RM could increase capacity by delaying the presence of a bottle-
626 neck, allowing for increased traffic volumes.

627 The results of the evaluation studies conducted in academia and
628 practice (MnDOT) emphasize the benefits of the metering system
629 in place. As a result of an evaluation study conducted in 2002 by
630 MnDOT and as an effort to improve public perception and perfor-
631 mance of the RM strategies, MnDOT implemented a SZM algo-
632 rithm. The SZM considers multiple layers of segments/zones of
633 a motorway, so zones can be considered in isolation and also be
634 grouped and coordinated in a hierarchical structure. Accordingly,
635 SZM accounts for the performance of the mainline as well as the
636 delays and impacts on the ramps and surrounding network.

637 **Helper**

638 **12** The Helper algorithm locally computes its metering rates based on
639 the upstream mainline occupancy and the queue length measured
640 on the ramp. If a long queue length appears on a ramp, the corre-
641 sponding RM is considered as a critical RM, and some constraints
642 are applied to downstream and upstream RM rates. If the adjacent
643 RMs become critical ramps as well, the request is sent to the next
644 closest RMs. The Helper algorithm is considered robust, but its cal-
645 ibration is sophisticated. For more detail on the Helper algorithm,
646 please refer to Kristeleit et al. (2016) and Lipp et al. (1991).

647 **13 Denver, Colorado**

648 A RM pilot project was conducted during 1981 on a section of the
649 northbound I-25 consisting of five on-ramps (Corcoran and
650 Hickman 1989). A local traffic-responsive algorithm was imple-
651 mented at each of the ramps where each meter selects one of
652 six available metering rates based on localized upstream mainline
653 occupancy (Corcoran and Hickman 1989; Lipp et al. 1991). This
654 system was evaluated periodically between 1981 and 1983. The
655 effects of the project measured two weeks, one month, three
656 months, and 18 months into the operation of the scheme.

657 The benefits of the project led to the expansion of the system in
658 1984 with the implementation of a centralized computer system and
659 a coordinated algorithm, Helper (Lipp et al. 1991), and the imple-
660 mentation of metering to a number of other ramps on the I-25,
661 I-225, and I-270 and the Sixth Avenue Motorway.

662 In late 1988 and early 1989, a comprehensive evaluation of the
663 original metered section of five ramps on the I-25 was conducted.
664 The measured speeds reduced from the value of 85 km/h obtained
665 in the 1983 study to 80 km/h. However, this remained far greater
666 than the pre-metering speed of 69 km/h. Accident levels remained
667 at a similar level as experienced in 1983. Nonetheless, these results
668 indicate a significant improvement of conditions, as volumes be-
669 tween 1983 and 1989 have increased by over 20%. The fact that
670 the accident rates and travel speeds have been maintained indicates
671 reaching greater throughput and safety of the motorways (Corcoran
672 and Hickman 1989). Currently, the Denver RM system is actively
673 utilized on the I-25, I-225, I-270, Sixth Avenue Motorway (US-6),
674 and C-470.

675 **COMPASS**

676 COMPASS is a coordinated and competitive algorithm that looks up
677 predetermined RM rates determined by the local mainline occu-
678 pancy. The rates are determined by the downstream mainline occu-
679 pancy and the upstream mainline volume. An offline optimization

680 selects the most appropriate RM rates based on system-wide data.
681 Traffic spillback is considered by overriding restrictive rates that in-
682 crease the metering rate as the queue threshold is exceeded. For
683 more detail on the COMPASS algorithm, please refer to Lam et al.
684 (1993) and Morala et al. (2008).

Toronto, Canada

685 The traffic control system projects became operational in 1975. The
686 project was initially implemented on 42 ramps on Queen Elizabeth
687 Way (QEW) linking Toronto with the Niagara Peninsula and Buf-
688 falo, New York. The broad aims for the project were increasing the
689 efficiency of the motorway and nearby arterial service at the traffic
690 peak period and minimizing the collision rate on the mainline. The
691 project included installation of CCTV and loop-detector surveil-
692 lance systems, microprocessor-based RM controls, and variable
693 message signs. The traffic control system managed the metering
694 rate periodically based on current traffic flow conditions on the
695 mainline and entrance ramps to maximize throughput. According
696 to the assessment of the effectiveness of the QEW, substantial im-
697 provements in travel time and a decrease in accident rates were
698 achieved during its first two years of operation. Building on the
699 success of this project, the Ontario Ministry of Transportation
700 (MTO) implemented a state-of-the-art motorway traffic manage-
701 ment system known as COMPASS. COMPASS has been in oper-
702 ation since 1990 and extends to Highway 401 in the greater Toronto
703 area, Highway 403 and QEW in the Golden Horseshoe area, High-
704 way 417 in the Ottawa area, and Highway 402 in Sarnia (Morala
705 et al. 2008).
706

The Sydney Coordinated Adaptive Traffic System RM System

707 The Sydney Coordinated Adaptive Traffic System (SCATS) is the
708 core functionality of the SCATS RM system (SRMS) method. The
709 accumulated occupancy error between calibrated critical occu-
710 pancy and measure occupancy is calculated to adjust RM rates.
711 SRMS consists of four major modules: (1) data fusion of multiple
712 traffic sources, (2) bottleneck location identification, (3) coordi-
713 nated response of several ramps simultaneously, and (4) integration
714 with arterial traffic signals. The latter module makes the SRMS
715 less dependent on the manual operator once traffic spill backs to
716 adjacent arterials of the motorway. For more detail on the SRMS
717 algorithm, please refer to Amini et al. (2016, 2015a, b); Aydos and
718 O'Brien (2014), and Kristeleit et al. (2016).
719
720

Auckland, New Zealand

721 New Zealand was the first country in Australasia to deploy coordi-
722 nated RM, with the majority of work completed in Auckland
723 during 2006–2008 (Aydos and O'Brien 2014). As part of the Travel
724 Demand Management program, the New Zealand Transport
725 Agency (NZTA) deployed 84 RMs, with 33 additional RMs
726 planned for the Western Ring Route between Manukau and Albany
727 as it was being built. The estimated cost of the project was \$NZ
728 20–100 million (NZ Transport Agency 2014).
729

730 A before and after report was completed in 2013 for projects
731 undertaken between 2005 and 2010. The sites included in this as-
732 sessment only considered RM sites where the traffic impact could
733 be primarily attributed to the RM deployment. A cost-benefit analy-
734 sis of the RM implementation project was conducted based on the
735 benefits identified by O'Brien (2014). The results indicated an
736 average annual savings of \$AUD 2 million per ramp meter. The
737 direct benefits of the RM were assessed including: (1) throughput,

738 (2) average speeds, (3) annual delay savings, and (4) crash
739 reductions.

740 Challenges in Implementing and Evaluating RM

741 There are many challenges regarding both implementation and
742 evaluation of RM strategies. Effective implementation of RM sys-
743 tems requires careful consideration of the local and network-wide
744 traffic management implications. The primary aims for RM are re-
745 duction in traffic congestion and the improvement of safety on a
746 motorway. However, these objectives are dependent on the follow-
747 ing factors (Jacobson et al. 2006; Yang et al. 2020):

- 748 • Geographic extent of the RM system—determination of which
749 motorway (or sections of motorway) should be metered;
- 750 • RM method of control—determination of whether a local or
751 system-wide approach is suitable and if pretimed or traffic-
752 responsive control methods should be utilized;
- 753 • RM algorithm—determination of specific logic used to calcu-
754 late the metering rates for each of the ramps;
- 755 • Queue management/ramp volume control—understanding how
756 the metering rate will be affected by ramp queues and determin-
757 ing a method to manage the presence of the queues; and
- 758 • Informational signage for public awareness of the system.

759 Prioritizing and accounting for all of the aforementioned factors
760 is a challenge in itself. One of the vital steps in effective implemen-
761 tation of a RM strategy is selection of a metering approach and
762 algorithm. Sound understanding of the approaches that are cur-
763 rently in operation is essential in assessing feasible options. There-
764 fore, we provide an overview of real-life projects organized per
765 14 type of algorithm in the section “RM Case Studies: Context and
766 Results.”

767 Furthermore, it is also imperative to identify or develop key per-
768 formance indicators to measure the effectiveness and efficiency of
769 RM strategies. Section “RM Case Studies: Context and Results,”
770 and in particular Tables 1 and 2, indicates that there is no universal
771 and systemic evaluation approach consistently used across projects.
772 Every project reports on different measures and uses different
773 before-after evaluation methodology: (1) field evaluation; or
774 (2) simulation-based evaluation.

775 As with MacCarley et al. (2002) and Haj-Salem et al. (2001)
776 described in the section “RM Case Studies: Context and Results,”
777 the field evaluation study considers the performance of the network
778 before and after RM implementation and is based on assessment of
779 available field data. The test sites are selected to ensure that there is
780 adequate data available and to isolate the impact of RM as much as
781 possible. The advantage of this type of study is that: (1) safety
782 analysis can be completed using changes in crash rates (Corcoran
783 and Hickman 1989), (2) the assumptions that would be made for
784 simulation-based analysis are avoided (e.g., growth rates, driver
785 behavior, etc.), and (3) the analysis process is a significantly easier
786 task than the development of a simulation model (Haj-Salem et al.
787 2001). A disadvantage is that the impact of geometric upgrades to
788 capacity cannot be easily disentangled.

789 The simulation-based studies are typically conducted with mi-
790 croscopic and mesoscopic simulation software (Amini et al. 2016,
791 2015a, b; Karim 2015; Mitkas and Politis 2020; Scariza 2003). The
792 advantage of this type of evaluation is that: (1) the direct compari-
793 son of different RM algorithms is possible, and (2) it does not in-
794 clude the variability that might be observed in the data from the
795 field (e.g., day-to-day demand changes), offering a consistent base
796 for comparison. However, as highlighted in the sections “Birming-
797 ham, England” and “Paris, France,” simulation modeling involves a
798 series of behavioral assumptions that can mask the potential

advantages and disadvantages of RM. For example, it is challeng- 799
ing that a simulation captures the complex phenomena of capacity 800
drop, which is directly linked to the congestion that RM intends to 801
dissipate. The specification and analysis of the relation between the 802
RM and the capacity drop is still an open research question and a 803
limitation of simulation studies. 804

The RM evaluation process is based on the operational data col- 805
lected either by the ITS equipment located in the system (in the case 806
of field evaluation) or as a result of running a simulation scenario 807
(in the case of simulation evaluation). Both data collection and 808
analysis need to be carefully coordinated. The quality, type, and 809
amount of information to collect has to be well thought through, 810
because they are essential for assessment against the generic evalu- 811
ation aspects and specific objectives of the project. Also, the selec- 812
tion, duration, and frequency of data collection are of critical 813
importance, because the traffic behaves differently during peak 814
hours, holidays, and weekends (RMS 2013). 815

The consolidated list of measures reported across all the re- 816
viewed projects, presented in Tables 1 and 2, is extensive. However, 817
the majority of the measures were mentioned only once and for one 818
project, reducing the ability to compare between projects. A large 819
number of performance measures can be calculated to assess the 820
impact of a RM system. Based on the review, it is evident that 821
a comprehensive set of measures that every project should consis- 822
tently report on needs to be defined and followed in practice. Thus, 823
to be able to clearly identify both drawbacks and benefits of a spe- 824
cific implementation project, on the basis of comparison to the 825
other known case studies, the following components are necessary: 826
(1) a definition of a limited, but significant, set of measures; and 827
(2) consistent data collection and reporting of these measures. Cur- 828
rently, the most commonly reported measures are travel speed 829
(km/h), traffic volumes and throughput (vehicles/h/lane), travel 830
time on the mainline (vehicles · h) and the crash rates. In addition, 15 831
there is a need for a general holistic methodology, offering guid- 832
ance for data collection and analysis, which when used consistently 833
would allow for comparison of different projects with one another 834
and in effect facilitate identification of the best implementation 835
strategies for particular cases. 836

The majority of reviewed studies focused on the traffic perfor- 837
mance of RM systems when evaluating different options, often 838
ignoring important factors that are more difficult to quantify 839
(e.g., resources required to acquire in-house expertise). A compre- 840
hensive methodology should involve the following: 841

- 842 1. Continued data collection;
- 843 2. Definition of a list of measures used for evaluation; and
- 844 3. In RM evaluation:
 - 845 • Cost estimation;
 - 846 • Benefit estimation, including field evaluation (based on
847 collected real-life data) and simulation evaluation (based
848 on collected simulation results), if possible; and
 - 849 • Cost-benefit analysis to understand overall economic value.

850 It is important to conduct a cost-benefit analysis of the major
851 factors influencing the choice of RM systems. The importance
852 of the cost-benefit analysis is reflected by the number of projects
853 that have completed and reported such analyses (Austroads 2020).
854 However, the execution of the cost-benefit analysis of a RM system
855 is a challenging task considering that there are a large number of
856 variables and aspects to consider. Depending on the policies of the
857 agency that develops the system, different aspects and objectives
858 receive varying levels of focus. Such contextual differences have
859 resulted in a spectrum of cost-benefit evaluation methodologies that
860 differ from project to project.

861 Complexity in the quantification of costs and benefits necessi-
862 tates engineering judgement in order to define the inputs to an

863 analysis. Furthermore, the case study review indicates that not all
864 the costs and benefits are captured in the final appraisal, indicating
865 the scope for inconsistency in such assessment methodologies. As
866 an example, costs associated with ITS infrastructure development
867 tend to be omitted, though there are instances where upgrades to
868 available infrastructure are necessary. In a similar fashion, costs
869 associated with training staff are also not considered. These costs
870 have been considerable in the deployment of systems in Brisbane
871 and Melbourne (Faulkner et al. 2014; Papamichail et al. 2010). In
872 addition to RM strategies, other changes to the system such as in-
873 frastructure upgrades to the mainline and ramps of a network can
874 also assist in the alleviation of congestion, making it difficult to
875 disentangle benefits associated with the strategies alone. Thus,
876 when conducting a cost-benefit analysis, these aspects need to
877 be considered on a project-specific basis that is consistent to offer
878 a platform for comparison.

879 Similarly, subjectivity involved when identifying, quantifying,
880 and estimating different costs and benefits might add to the prob-
881 lem. Many costs and benefits are nonmonetary in nature and require
882 an assignment of a monetary value for purposes of the overall
883 project evaluation. The assigned monetary value is forecasted or
884 estimated on the basis of past experiences and expectations. The
885 latter may be biased. In effect, the subjective measures can poten-
886 tially result in misleading results of the cost-benefit analysis.

887 The literature review, as documented in the section “RM Case
888 Studies: Context and Results,” also indicates that one of the most
889 significant shortcomings in RM development is the limited under-
890 standing of the network-wide costs and benefits for users and trans-
891 port authorities alike. A majority of studies evaluated RM strategies
892 considering mainline performance in isolation to the impact on the
893 surrounding arterial network. The evaluation methods have gener-
894 ally involved using field data assessments, simulation exercises,
895 and/or capacity assessments. The inability to capture wider econ-
896 omic benefits is one of the main weaknesses of the cost-benefit
897 analysis.

898 Disruptive technologies, especially sensor-based technology
899 and information provision, can be leveraged to improve the imple-
900 mentation and evaluation of RM schemes. Data collection forms
901 the foundation of calibrating RM systems and, more importantly,
902 evaluating the performance of the implemented systems. Currently,
903 standard data collection practice involves using in situ methods that
904 require physical sensing apparatus such as inductive loops, weigh-
905 in motion (WIM) sensors, and video image processing systems
906 (VIPS) (Ni 2015). These systems are expensive to install and main-
907 tain, limiting network-wide utilization. This aspect has been a
908 barrier to completing before and after studies within the RM do-
909 main, limiting the extent of evaluating such systems. Smart phone
910 data, in-vehicle Bluetooth, and global positioning system (GPS)
911 devices have formed a new option for traffic data collection through
912 a means of participatory sensing (Burke et al. 2006), supplementing
913 the existing sources. User locations, travel patterns, route selection,
914 travel time, and vehicle speeds can all be collected from this format
915 of crowd-sourced smartphone data, providing an alternative avenue
916 for data collection and evaluation of RM projects.

917 The new data collection methods help network operators to
918 understand the real traffic state before or after RM implementation.
919 With traditional traffic measurement methods, including loop de-
920 tectors and human surveys, the number of measured traffic sites
921 was limited, and simultaneous measurement of the entire corridor
922 was almost impossible. However, the new data collection methods
923 and their integrations with artificial intelligence (AI) image
924 processing provide the opportunity to measure various traffic attrib-
925 utes such as traffic volumes, speeds, and queues in a reasonable
926 time and at a reasonable cost.

Overall, the comparison of various RM projects on the basis of
results from the cost-benefit analysis remains a challenge.

Conclusions and Future Directions

The current survey of the global implementation of RM strategies
provides practical insights on the challenges and opportunities
for researchers and practitioners. The quantity of literature and
the scale of implementation highlight the wide interest in the area
and the potential for further development and research into the topic
of RM.

In the current paper, information has been gathered from a va-
riety of sources to develop a comprehensive understanding of RM
systems deployed globally. This task constitutes the first step to-
ward understanding of the solutions that are currently in place glob-
ally and the existing evaluation approaches. Future research and
applications must lead toward a comprehensive methodology for
RM systems evaluation to improve consistency and robustness
of the application.

The review of outcomes obtained from the field deployments of
RM shows that there have been many benefits derived from RM,
including the reduction of motorway congestion, reduced travel
times, redistribution and balance of network traffic, and enhanced
road safety conditions. The opportunities, however, also bring vari-
ous challenges. There are also a number of costs associated with
RM, including the development of ramp queues, the degradation of
surrounding arterial networks, and the equitable deployment of sys-
tems. These costs and benefits are affected by the method of control
and the algorithm utilized at a particular site, highlighting the im-
portance of the implementation procedure and the evaluation ap-
proach toward any RM deployment.

The overall evaluation of the particular RM strategy is a major
challenge in itself. The current methodologies of evaluation of RM
systems include: (1) the assessment and comparison of both the
benefits of the evaluated RM system and the impacts and associated
costs, i.e., cost-benefit analysis (the most desirable outcome is
when the costs are clearly and significantly overweight by the ben-
efits); (2) the identification and assessment of existing impacts
of the evaluated RM system on both surface streets and transit op-
erations; (3) the assessment of the attitudes and opinions of the
community toward the evaluated RM system; and (4) a comparison
of the evaluated RM system against other RM systems, either
implemented in different geographical locations or deploying dif-
ferent algorithms.

Some of the key gaps that call for further attention in future
studies are recognized and highlighted below.

Systematic Approach for RM Evaluations

The observed evaluation methodologies themselves are varied and
case-specific. This further indicates that there is a need for a sys-
temic approach to estimating the advantages and disadvantages of
the feasible RM systems. Methodologies must be developed to cap-
ture the impacts of RM on the arterial network, wider economic and
social implications, and measures of equity across the community.

Using Advanced Multisource Traffic Data

Smartphone applications and real-time online information provi-
sion stemming from disruptive technologies can provide details
of traffic congestion events guiding route choice. In addition, this
technology can be used to inform motorists regarding the presence
of RM across the network and educate drivers on the need and ben-
efits of the metering scheme. Such initiatives could potentially

985 enhance the benefits of RM while concurrently removing the dis-
 986 advantages associated with societal perceptions of these systems.
 987 The aforementioned opportunities will be further enhanced through
 988 the adoption of connected and autonomous vehicles. The vehicle-
 989 to-vehicle and vehicle-to-infrastructure connectivity can be used to
 990 enforce RM compliance, optimizing the benefits of the system.

991 **Education and Information Provision**

992 Another key finding in the review of RM projects is the lack of
 993 education and information provision surrounding the implementa-
 994 tion of metering. This aspect has been noted in deployments within
 995 Auckland and Minnesota in particular, where public perception has
 996 affected the functionality and value of the system.

997 **Other Aspects of RM Implementations**

998 Researchers and practitioners can also further develop the quanti-
 999 fication of supplementary aspects such as health benefits (e.g., ef-
 1000 fects of reduced stress when merging), user satisfaction and
 1001 compliance, and effects of network upgrades (e.g., ramp geometry,
 1002 ITS improvements such as TV cameras or variable message signs).
 1003 These factors have not been mentioned in the reviewed papers but
 1004 are important aspects that have been identified in concluding state-
 1005 ments of implementation reports.

1006 In summary, the metering approach and algorithm are vital com-
 1007 ponents in the effective implementation of a RM strategy. Accord-
 1008 ingly, a sound understanding of the approaches currently present is
 1009 essential in developing evaluation criteria to assess the feasible RM
 1010 options. It is also essential to understand existing metrics that have
 1011 been used to measure the effectiveness and efficiency of RM strat-
 1012 egies. There is a clear message across all the reviewed case studies
 1013 that RM strategies are a viable traffic management technique that
 1014 tends to enhance the performance of the road network. Accord-
 1015 ingly, the review presented in this study can provide a foundation
 1016 for the further development of the RM technology and the im-
 1017 **16**proved implementation of RM strategies.

1018 **Data Availability Statement**

1019 No data, models, or code were generated or used during the study.

1020 **Acknowledgments**

1021 The Research Centre for Integrated Transport Innovation (rCITI),
 1022 School of Civil and Environmental Engineering, University of
 1023 New South Wales (UNseconSW) Sydney, NSW 2052 Australia,
 1024 is acknowledged.

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27. Please provide publisher name for Bogenberger and May (1999).
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32. Please provide sponsor name and location for Haj-Salem et al. (2001).
33. Please provide sponsor name and location for Hayden et al. (2009).
34. Please provide publisher location for Highways Agency (2007).
35. Please provide publisher location for Highways Agency (2008).
36. Please provide issue number for Lam et al. (2016).
37. Please provide department name for Karim (2015).
38. This query was generated by an automatic reference checking system. This reference could not be located in the databases used by the system. While the reference may be correct, we ask that you check it so we can provide as many links to the referenced articles as possible.
39. Please provide publisher location for Kristeleit et al. (2016).
40. Please provide sponsor name and location for Lam et al. (1993).
41. This query was generated by an automatic reference checking system. This reference could not be located in the databases used by the system. While the reference may be correct, we ask that you check it so we can provide as many links to the referenced articles as possible.
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43. Please provide sponsor name and location for Middelham and Taale (2006).
44. Please provide issue number for Mitkas and Politis (2020).
45. Please provide sponsor name and location for Morala et al. (2008).
46. Please provide sponsor name and location for Muhurdarevic et al. (2006).
47. For NZ Transport Agency (2014), please provide date of access in the following format: (Month DD, YYYY).
48. Please provide publisher location for O'Brien (2014).
49. Please provide sponsor name and location for O'Brien and McCombs (2007).

50. Please provide the missing letters “a” and “b” have been added to the “Papageorgiou 1990” references. Please adjust all citations to indicate which Papageorgiou 1990 reference entry they refer to.
51. This query was generated by an automatic reference checking system. This reference could not be located in the databases used by the system. While the reference may be correct, we ask that you check it so we can provide as many links to the referenced articles as possible.
52. Please provide publisher location for Papageorgiou and Papamichail (2007).
53. Please provide publisher location for Pham et al. (2002).
54. Please provide publisher location for RMS (2013).
55. Please provide sponsor name and location for Samad and Annaswamy (2011).
56. Please provide department name for Scariza (2003).
57. Please provide issue number for Shaaban et al. (2016).
58. Please provide the publisher or sponsor name and location (not the conference location) for the reference (Taale et al. 1996).
59. Please provide department name for Vanderschuren (2006).
60. Please provide sponsor name and location for Vong and Gaffney (2009).
61. Please provide sponsor name and location for Vukanovic and Ernhofer (2006).
62. Please provide department name for Yuan (2008).
63. This query was generated by an automatic reference checking system. This reference could not be located in the databases used by the system. While the reference may be correct, we ask that you check it so we can provide as many links to the referenced articles as possible.
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