

Journal Pre-proof



Overlooked Considerations in Prescribing Green and Blue Infrastructure Solutions for Urban Environments

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- Environmental injustice & GBI decision making
- Cultural perspectives on GBI
- Social adoption hindering implementation of GBI
- Safety & security barriers in GBI implementation
- Balancing climate adaptation & aesthetic goals in urban GBI

- Financial barriers to GBI implementation
- Challenges in recognising GBI as assets
- Lack of comprehensive cost-benefit analysis

- GBI potential conflict with net zero goals
- Siloisation in urban GBI studies
- Unintended consequences
- Conflict control among urban environmental challenges
- Urban ventilation

- Thermal resilience
- Pathways to resilient GBI via plant adaptation
- GBI trade-offs
- Challenges linked to BI in urban environments



● Land scarcity & urban sprawl

● Urban design barriers

● Lack of clear GBI implementation policies

● Conflicts in promoting GBI & walkability

Overlooked Considerations in Prescribing Green and Blue Infrastructure Solutions for Urban Environments

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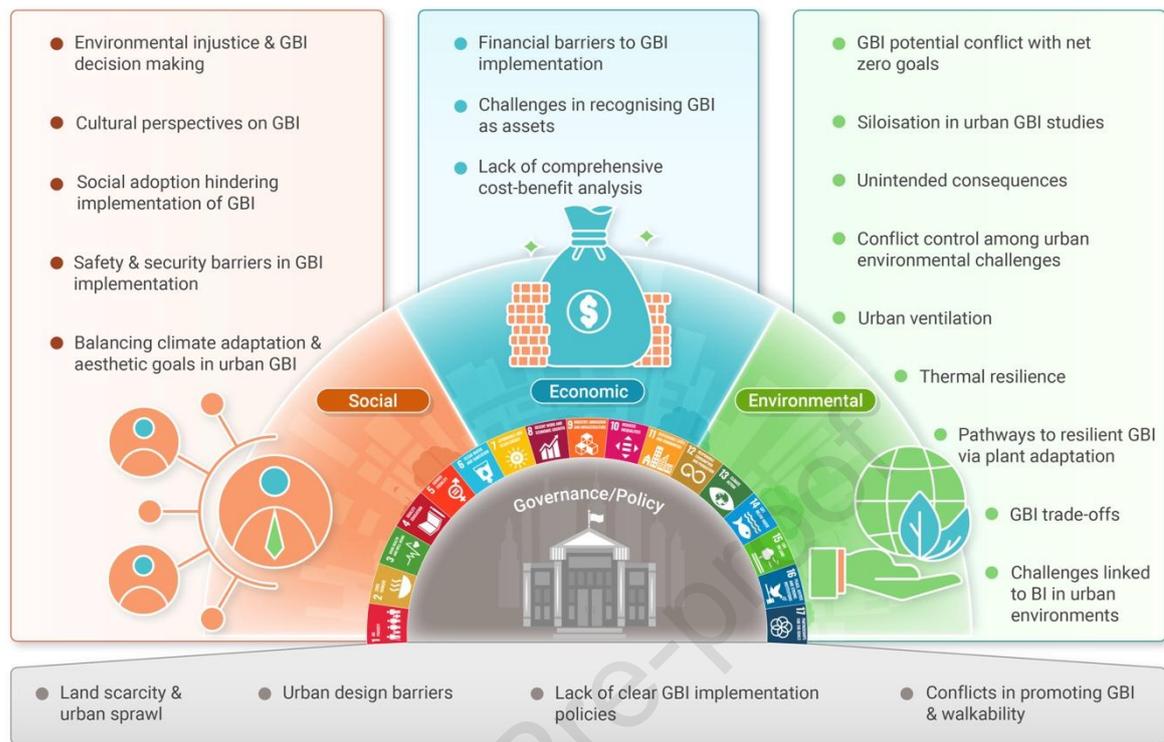
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131 **GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT**

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133 **PUBLIC SUMMARY**

- 134 ● 21 unseen barriers to green/blue infrastructure (GBI) are identified, with key solutions to fix
135 these issues.
- 136 ● GBI environmental barriers include green energy clashes, unwanted side-effects, and urban
137 plant stress.
- 138 ● GBI social barriers include cultural/equity issues, safety concerns, design tastes and need
139 community input.
- 140 ● GBI financial barriers include undervaluation, investment gaps, and limited funding/benefit
141 recognition.
- 142 ● GBI governance barriers include land limits, traditional designs, policy gaps, and competing
143 urban priorities.

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Overlooked Considerations in Prescribing Green and Blue Infrastructure Solutions for Urban Environments

Green and blue infrastructure (GBI) is emerging as a key strategy for climate adaptation and urban resilience, yet its implementation often faces critical contextual barriers. This review initially screened over 29,000 publications, ultimately synthesising more than 500 relevant studies supplemented by diverse expert input. The result is a novel integrative framework connects previously siloed knowledge and consolidates 21 underexplored barriers across four key domains of GBI implementation: environmental, social, economic, and governance/policy. Environmental barriers include conflicts between GBI and renewable energy goals, specifically photovoltaics, unintended consequences of GBI (such as allergenic pollen production), urban ventilation disruption, and vulnerability of plant species to multiple urban stressors. Effective responses include thoughtful allocation and integration of photovoltaics and GBI, developing context-specific frameworks combining ecological knowledge with technological innovation, fostering cross-disciplinary collaboration across technical and social domains, science-based species selection and implementing multi-scalar strategies that enhance ecological connectivity. Social barriers encompass environmental injustice, cultural disconnection, limited public adoption, safety concerns, and aesthetic preferences favouring manicured over ecologically functional landscapes. These challenges highlight the need for participatory design, culturally responsive planning, and inclusive resource allocation to strengthen community engagement and long-term stewardship. Economic barriers stem from biodiversity undervaluation, inadequate asset recognition in accounting frameworks, incomplete cost-benefit analyses, and limited private investment. Innovative financing tools like green bonds and debt-for-nature swaps offer promising mechanisms for resilient financing, while standardised natural capital accounting frameworks can better capture GBI's multifunctional value. Governance barriers include land scarcity, urban design limitations, policy fragmentation, and disconnects with other urban agendas like walkability. Overcoming these requires institutional realignment, cross-sectoral collaboration, and integrated spatial planning. The review unifies these findings into 12 actionable recommendations to support holistic decision-making, emphasising that effective GBI implementation demands context-specific strategies combining innovation, inclusive governance, and long-term stewardship to mainstream GBI in sustainable urban development.

180 **Keywords:** Climate adaptation; Urban resilience; Nature-based solutions;
181 Multidimensional challenges; United Nations Sustainable Development Goals; GBI constraints

182 INTRODUCTION

183 Cities now house ~55% of the global population, projected to reach 68% by 2050 (Figure
184 S1).¹ Due to high population and building density, cities face serious environmental issues
185 namely air pollution, heat island effects, floods,² and droughts,³ all of which contribute to poor
186 outcomes for human health and biodiversity. These challenges are often addressed separately
187 in a reactive manner rather than holistically. To build resilient cities, implementing green-blue
188 infrastructure (GBI), also called ‘nature-based solutions (NbS)’ is crucial.^{4,5} In this review, we
189 adopt ‘GBI’ as an umbrella term encompassing green infrastructure (GI) (e.g., parks, street
190 trees, and gardens) and blue infrastructure (BI) (e.g., rivers, ponds, lakes, and natural wetlands),
191 as well as hybrid infrastructure like green walls, living green roofs, urban agriculture, rain
192 garden, bioswales, permeable paving and constructed wetlands, which integrate natural
193 elements into or around grey infrastructure.^{5,6}

194 GBI is increasingly recognised as a sustainable strategy to enrich urban resilience, reduce
195 climate risks, and promote ecological sustainability while delivering diverse environmental,
196 health, and economic benefits.^{7,8} For instance, in Barcelona, adhering to international exposure
197 recommendations could prevent almost 2,000 premature deaths annually, primarily through
198 increased physical activity and reduced levels of air pollution, traffic congestion, noise, and
199 urban heat, along with improved access to green spaces.⁹ Similarly, exposure to greenspace
200 could prevent up to 10% of childhood overweight and obesity cases.¹⁰ School greenery has
201 been linked to a 20% reduction in mental health issues¹¹ and a 6% improvement in children’s
202 memory compared to those with less green surroundings.¹² GBI can increase local property
203 values by 5-20% depending on proximity and quality of green space.¹³ Additionally, strategic
204 urban planning incorporating GBI provides multiple benefits including reduced urban heat,
205 lower cooling energy demand, decreased healthcare costs, and improved stormwater
206 management.^{14,15}

207 Globally, over 130 countries have embedded urban greening initiatives into their national
208 Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) commitments.⁸ These nature-based approaches
209 complement technology-based solutions.¹⁶ In this context, the International Union for
210 Conservation of Nature (IUCN) Global Standard for NbS connects ecosystem-based
211 approaches to urban greening, supporting SDG implementation.¹⁷ For example, Natural

212 England's Green Infrastructure Framework in the UK sets a 40% green cover for urban
213 residential areas by 2035.¹⁸

214 Beyond ecological resilience, GBI fosters cultural vibrancy and environmental education.
215 International frameworks, such as the UN SDGs and UNESCO's initiatives highlight its role
216 in cultural well-being and place-based learning.¹⁹ Urban GBI delivers diverse Cultural
217 Ecosystem Services (CES) by fostering a sense of place, safeguarding heritage values, and
218 enabling experiential learning in everyday landscapes.²⁰ National and local initiatives, like
219 green school initiatives and culturally adaptive landscape planning, further reinforce how GBI
220 enriches community identity²¹ and supports environmental education.²² However, inequities in
221 access, limited community engagement and adoption, and culturally disconnected design
222 practices reveal that GBI often struggles to resonate with diverse urban social realities.
223 Embedding GBI in inclusive, locally grounded processes is therefore essential, as urban
224 greening is gradually shifting from a purely ecological intervention toward a more socially
225 embedded infrastructure for cultural resilience, social equity, and collective learning.²³

226 As climate challenges intensify, GBI has become central to risk mitigation strategies and
227 urban resilience frameworks. The UN SDGs call for increased investment in NbS, with GBI
228 supporting multiple goals: health and environment (SDG 3: Good Health and Well-being, SDG
229 15: Life on Land), urban development (SDG 11: Sustainable Cities and Communities),
230 resource management (SDG 2: Zero Hunger, SDG 6: Clean Water and Sanitation, SDG 12:
231 Responsible Consumption and Production), energy systems (SDG 7: Affordable and Clean
232 Energy), resilient infrastructure (SDG 9: Industry, Innovation and Infrastructure), and climate
233 response (SDG 13: Climate Action, SDG 14: Life Below Water). This integrated approach
234 demonstrates GBI's synergistic advancement of sustainable development priorities (see SI
235 Figure S2). Responding to these imperatives, the IUCN developed the Global Standard for NbS
236 to provide a framework for integrating ecological, social, and economic goals.¹⁷ In Europe, the
237 EU Green Infrastructure Strategy²⁴ and the EU Biodiversity Strategy for 2030²⁵ advocate for
238 coordinated, cross-sectoral greening policies to mitigate air quality, urban heat, flood risks, and
239 biodiversity loss. The latter requires all European cities with populations over 20,000 to
240 develop Urban Greening Plans by 2030. These strategies reflect a widespread policy shift
241 toward evidence-based approaches and multifunctional GBI design. Nevertheless, existing
242 planning practices and academic approaches remain fragmented, with limited integration of
243 climate risk, equity, and co-benefits in GI decision-making. Robust, spatially explicit methods

244 are urgently needed to optimise GBI placement for maximize environmental and social
245 outcomes²⁶ as well as to address such conflicts.

246 A wide range of recent literature has synthesized GBI and NbS from diverse disciplinary
247 perspectives (Table 1). Table 1 summarises review (2017-2025) highlighting their role in
248 addressing interconnected urban challenges. These studies have predominantly focused on
249 GBI's capacity to mitigate environmental risks in urban areas, such as UHI, air pollution,
250 flooding, and climate-induced stress.^{4-6,27} Some reviews explored optimal GBI placement
251 strategies,^{28,29} environmental justice implications,³⁰ and planning instruments for public green
252 space provision.³¹ A significant share of these studies focuses on GBI's environmental and
253 climate-regulating functions, including stormwater management³² and its contribution to
254 hazard reduction and Ecosystem Services (ES) delivery.^{33,34} Few have emphasised the
255 contribution of GI on human health,³⁵ reducing thermal discomfort,³⁶ and improving mental
256 resilience,³⁷ and reducing vulnerability to heat.³⁸ Others assessed the ES delivered by specific
257 GBIs, such as green roofs, street trees, or urban agriculture, and identified regional disparities
258 in implementation, particularly the underrepresentation of developing countries in both
259 practice and research.^{39,40} Recent reviews also advanced methodological frameworks to assess
260 GBI effectiveness in reducing hydro-meteorological hazards,^{41,42} proposed standardised
261 evaluation tools,^{43,44} and revealed gaps in monitoring, stakeholder engagement, and integration
262 with grey infrastructure.^{31,45}

263 Institutional constraints, competing uses of limited land, and fragmented policies can limit
264 implementation of GBI at scale. Gaps remain in research on ES,⁴⁶ inclusive governance,³⁰ and
265 the socio-spatial distribution of benefits, particularly in developing countries.³⁹ Methodological
266 reviews further identify the need for improved modelling, monitoring, and evaluation tools.^{45,47}
267 GBI implementation remains constrained by fragmented approaches and narrow technical
268 focus, with deeper integration of cultural, social, and policy dimensions still lacking.⁴⁸
269 Overlooked issues include competing land use, inadequate or absent financing mechanisms,
270 fragmented NbS policies, and unintended environmental consequences such as pollen, biogenic
271 volatile organic compounds (bVOCs) and trade-offs with other urban agendas, such as net zero
272 energy goals or car-centric urban design. Moreover, extreme climatic events, such as
273 heatwaves, intense rainfall, prolonged droughts, and severe storms, may themselves constitute
274 substantial barriers to its implementation and sustained maintenance.⁴⁹

275 This review shifts focus from GBI benefits to underexplored barriers impeding its urban
276 implementation. The comprehensive cross-disciplinary synthesis bridges fragmented

277 knowledge by integrating perspectives from urban planning, ecology, climate science,
278 economics, and social equity research. It creates a cohesive framework that analyses critical
279 interconnections with energy efficiency, walkability, climate resilience, environmental justice,
280 and competing land uses, concluding with actionable recommendations for more resilient and
281 socially embedded GBI strategies. While some barriers (e.g., bVOCs, environmental justice,
282 governance fragmentation) are well-documented in the literature, they are typically examined
283 in isolation and remain weakly embedded in planning standards, valuation methods, and
284 governance processes. The term “overlooked” reflects this gap between existing knowledge
285 and systematic application, positioning this review as crucial integrative contribution that
286 connects disparate research domains with practical implementation.

287 The overarching goal of this integrative review is to synthesise critical dimensions of GBI
288 implementation that remain underexplored in current literature. Specifically, the review
289 develops a unified framework examining: (1) Environmental Barriers, including technical and
290 system integration and strategic alignment challenges (GBI-Net Zero conflicts, research
291 siloisation), environmental and ecological performance limitations (unintended consequences
292 like bVOCs emissions), and climate management complexities (ventilation impacts, thermal
293 resilience, plant adaptation, GBI trade-off and BI); (2) Social Barriers, encompassing
294 environmental injustice, cultural disconnection, adoption challenges, safety concerns, and
295 aesthetic controversy; (3) Economic Barriers, involving financial undervaluation of
296 biodiversity, asset recognition issues in accounting frameworks, cost-benefit analysis
297 limitations, and investment barriers; and (4) Governance/Policy Barriers, comprising land and
298 space constraints, urban design barriers, policy fragmentation, integration challenges with
299 other urban systems, and regulatory gaps. By bridging these previously siloed knowledge
300 domains, this review provides key conclusions and actionable recommendations to support
301 more holistic and effective decision-making in GBI implementation.

302 **SCOPE, METHODS AND OUTLINE**

303 The scope of this review is confined to underexplored barriers that hinder the implementation
304 of GBI in urban areas. Monitoring and modelling, health impact assessment, and multi-benefit
305 analyses methodologies of GBI interventions lie outside this review’s scope. For
306 comprehensive coverage of these aspects, readers are directed to the key resources summarised
307 in Table 1.

308 Barriers were identified and collated through a series of co-design workshops, involving
309 numerous international experts in the field,⁵⁰ with a wider writing team involved in reviewing
310 each topic, and informed by prior research.⁵¹ The co-design process for barrier identification
311 involved a multi-stage approach: (i) initial identification through a large interdisciplinary
312 workshop, (ii) independent refinement by a smaller multidisciplinary expert group workshop,
313 and (iii) finalisation via full-author iteration to ensure a balanced, non-redundant list of
314 'overlooked' barriers. Further details are provided in SI Section S1. As illustrated in Figure 1,
315 barriers were organised using a sustainability framework,⁵² across four domains:
316 environmental, social, economic, and the cross-cutting theme of governance and policy barriers
317 that impede GBI implementation.

318 Literature search in Web of Science and Scopus databases was conducted, using structured
319 search terms covering the challenge, and relevant to each topic section. The search term used
320 included 'Challenge AND Implementation AND ("Green infrastructure" OR "Blue
321 infrastructure") AND Urban'. In addition, combinations of terms such as "Barrier OR
322 Constraint AND (Green infrastructure OR Blue infrastructure) AND Implementation AND
323 Urban" and "Obstacle AND Adoption AND ('Nature-based solutions' OR 'Ecosystem
324 services') AND City" were also tested to ensure thematic breadth. Separate searches were
325 conducted for each barrier domain (environmental, social, economic, governance/policy), with
326 domain-specific keywords (e.g., 'air quality', 'heat stress', 'public acceptance', 'financing',
327 'policy integration') combined with the core GBI terms, yielding ~29,000 results (Figures S2
328 and S3). Figure S2 illustrates the distribution of GBI publications across different SDGs,
329 aligned SDG 11 and SDG 13 showing the highest share of publications. Figure S3 shows the
330 year-wise publication trends. First duplicates were removed. Title and abstract screening
331 excluded irrelevant publications: non-urban settings, purely technical hydrological studies
332 without GBI focus, and unrelated engineering fields. Full-text screening applied inclusion
333 criteria: urban relevance, explicit barrier discussion, English language, and peer-reviewed
334 status. 577 studies met criteria and formed the synthesis evidence base, supplemented by
335 authors' expertise and cross-referencing.

336 Following the introduction and methods, core sections analyse GBI implementation barriers:
337 environmental, social, economic, and governance/policy. Last section presents conclusions,
338 recommendations, and research gaps.

339 **ENVIRONMENTAL BARRIERS**

340 GBI has both positive and negative impact for mitigation of environmental problems at
341 households and street scale as shown in Figure 2. To effectively address these contradictory
342 impacts and optimise GBI functionality, nine environmental barriers (Sections from “GBI
343 potential conflict with net zero goals” to “Challenges linked to BI in urban environments”)
344 were identified that currently undermine successful implementation in urban contexts (Table
345 2). Table S1 provides a detailed summary of the case studies discussed below.

346 **GBI potential conflict with net zero goals**

347 While net zero and GBI initiatives share many common goals, including climate resilience
348 efforts, renewable electricity generation can compromise GBI initiatives (Table S2). Declining
349 costs of solar PV systems have accelerated their global adoption as the fastest growing
350 renewable energy source.⁵³ Despite their benefits, PV installations may compete with existing
351 land uses, including wetlands, parks, and forests, which can result in biodiversity and habitat
352 loss.⁵⁴⁻⁵⁶ For example, in Australia, homeowners with rooftop PVs are advised by local solar
353 companies to reduce tree shade to maximise energy output.⁵⁷ PV performance is indeed
354 affected by tree shade, which varies with species, height and crown width.⁵⁸ Such studies are
355 often used to justify tree pruning or removal when shading PV panels, with 30 U.S. states
356 permitting vegetation removal⁵⁹ despite trees’ carbon absorption⁶⁰ and GHG reduction
357 benefits.⁶¹ A German study showed trees only reduce solar roof radiation by 1% after 20 years
358 of growth,⁶² though some argue PV systems provide greater carbon reduction than trees.⁶³

359 Achieving a truly sustainable development rather than merely net-zero development requires
360 more than prioritising PV over GI based solely on GHG reduction considerations.⁶⁴ The
361 multiple benefits of a GI (Table 1) need to be considered when balancing against the benefits
362 of PV (Figure S4). Therefore, the questions are: how can we achieve a net-zero energy
363 development that is also green? How can urban planners, city councils, and homeowners decide
364 which GI elements to implement, including which tree species to plant and where, while
365 maximising solar energy production?

366 GBI reduces urban heat and provides cooling effects, thereby lowering building energy
367 demand. Simulations in representative neighbourhoods show that tree shading can reduce
368 annual cooling needs by 2% under today’s climate and by 5% in projected 2050 conditions,⁶⁵
369 which may also reduce the required size of solar panels. In Montreal, a case study for a building
370 demonstrates that urban trees alone can mitigate 17% of carbon emissions over a period of 60
371 years, without even considering on-site electricity generation.⁶⁶

372 Strategic integration of GI with on-site solar power requires careful planning of tree species
373 selection, placement and PV positioning. In England, for example, solar farms are
374 predominantly sited in human-modified landscapes, including in urban settings, instead of in
375 sensitive ecological areas and designated conservation sites, indicating environmentally
376 considerate placement.⁶⁷ A framework integrating rooftop PV with GI under current and future
377 climate scenarios was developed using urban modelling, energy simulation, and carbon
378 sequestration analysis.⁶⁵ Building-Integrated Photovoltaics (BIPV) with green roofs and
379 facades offer mutual benefits: vegetation cools panels, improving efficiency and optimising
380 space, though performance depends on panel-plant distance, installation conditions, species
381 selection, and microclimate.⁶⁸ In tropical climates, plants combined with polycrystalline PV
382 modules increased efficiency by about 2% at a 15° inclination.⁶⁹ Similarly, systems using
383 sedum plants delivered a 1.6% gain when panels were mounted at 1.01 m with a 3° south-
384 facing inclination.⁷⁰ Green roofs increase solar installations yields by 5-15% through reduced
385 albedo.⁷¹ GI-PV integration depends on context, requiring tailored solutions for local climate,
386 vegetation, and building conditions.

387 Floating PV systems installed on human-made water bodies such as reservoirs and irrigation
388 ponds offer opportunities for urban BI while maximising land efficiency.⁷² For example,
389 Singapore has implemented an urban floating solar farms, capable of offsetting more than 4,000
390 tonnes of CO₂ annually⁷³ demonstrating the potential for large-scale deployment within dense
391 city environments. However, research on their integration into urban design remains scarce,
392 and studies on their impacts on water quality and aquatic ecology are limited despite growing
393 implementation.⁷⁴

394 To achieve net zero developments, GBI, particularly trees, are often perceived as detrimental
395 to the PV systems. However, solar developments can be achieved through thoughtful planning
396 without sacrificing urban landscapes. The vegetation can provide cooling and even improve
397 PV efficiency. Incorporating PV into ecological restoration of urban landscapes also offers
398 promising opportunities, though further research is needed. Decision makers should embrace
399 technological innovation to maximise the co-benefits of PV and GBI integration.

400 **Siloisation in urban GBI studies**

401 Scientific silos (or knowledge compartmentalisation) relate to the organisation of scientists
402 into discrete communities with minimal interaction. Siloisation can slow the propagation of
403 scientific information and impede understanding of inter-relationships of complex systems.^{75,76}

404 The siloisation of GBI research has been broadly contextualised as the tendency to respond to
405 single-issue problems rather than exploring the multi-functional solutions provided by ES of
406 GI.⁶ Urban green corridors (GC), defined as linear landscape features that allow biological
407 migration and energy exchange between large patches of ecological source areas,^{77,78} provide
408 an illustrative example. GC are commonly proposed as a means to improve ecological
409 connectivity,⁷⁷ counteracting the effect of green space fragmentation, which is occurring
410 alongside the loss of these spaces during urbanisation.⁷⁹ This trend is associated with
411 development patterns, related to the intensification of infrastructure⁸⁰ as well as morphological
412 decisions that are dependent on extensive transportation networks.⁸¹ The resultant habitat
413 fragmentation has well-established implications related to biodiversity loss, associated with the
414 loss of habitat, migration routes, and species connectivity.⁸² However, this type of
415 fragmentation also adversely influences local climates (by increasing UHIs),⁸³ energy
416 consumption patterns,⁸⁴ landscape aesthetic quality (as revealed by negative correlation
417 between fragmentation index and aesthetic quality metrics),⁸⁵ human well-being (life
418 satisfaction increases positively with vegetation and less soil sealing),⁸⁶ and blue landscape
419 availability.⁸⁷ GCs can help mitigate all of these impacts.

420 Currently, much of the work on GCs has explored the important biodiversity impacts of
421 connecting larger green spaces,⁷⁷ often excluding analysis of other impacts mentioned above.
422 A bibliometric analysis map (Figure S5) shows that the main body of scientific research is
423 focused on the relationships between GCs, biodiversity improvement and habitats for flora and
424 fauna. Life quality including recreation and accessibility issues was less studied. However,
425 there are many thematic categories that are far less examined in the context of GC studies e.g.,
426 carbon storage and thermal exposure reduction,⁵ where GCs have been identified as one of the
427 underrepresented GBI elements in heat mitigation studies. Moreover, a close examination of
428 the interconnections between the thematic categories (i.e., the strength of their links) indicates
429 that most of them were studied in silos (Section S2): only five studies have examined more
430 than three solutions (Table S3).

431 All five studies were published after 2018; two were conducted in China (Beijing,⁸⁸
432 Nanjing⁸⁹), two in Cusco, Peru^{90,91} and one in Cagliari, Italy.⁹² Three deployed some type of
433 landscape analysis utilising remote sensing dataset (e.g. Land Use maps, Land Cover maps,
434 Land Surface Temperature), while two studies were based on literature and online tools.^{90,91} In
435 two studies^{89,92} were examined energy flow patterns and species along GCs using least-cost
436 path analysis and InVest software to characterise wildlife movement resistance. The first of

437 these five studies tackled siloisation through ES concept application, assessing water
438 storage/purification, local climate regulation and aesthetics before and after construction of a
439 network of artificial lakes, wetlands, and parks along Beijing's Yongding River.⁸⁸ Ecological
440 Production Functions identified shortfalls in ES production using mathematical models⁹³ to
441 connect ecosystems, stressors, and management actions. Coupling green and built
442 infrastructure can achieve desired multi-functionality where inadequate ecosystem function
443 exists. These studies demonstrate how cross-disciplinary approaches allow systems-based
444 analysis of GC enhancement measures, revealing complementary or unintended consequences.

445 More integrative approaches to GI impacts are essential, especially for GCs. Single metric
446 performance assessment undermines their manifold benefits; ES frameworks provide the
447 required context for comprehensive evaluation.

448 **Unintended consequences**

449 GBI is gaining prominence for addressing urban challenges like air pollution, heat, and
450 biodiversity loss, however, poorly designed GBI interventions can cause unintended negative
451 impacts.^{4,94} Certain vegetation types emit bVOCs, leading to SA and O₃ formation when
452 interacting with urban pollutants, like NO_x,⁹⁴ while allergenic pollen can trigger respiratory
453 illnesses.^{95,96} Dense vegetation can also disrupt airflow (Section "Urban ventilation")^{97,98} and
454 some green systems may emit GHG like methane (CH₄) or nighttime CO₂, lowering the
455 sequestration potential (Table S4).^{99,100}

456 bVOC emissions vary by species and stress, with high emitters like *Populus tremula*
457 increasing O₃ risks, while low emitters like *Acer campestre* may help reduce it when combined
458 with high deposition traits.^{101,102} Stressors, such as heat, drought, and pruning can boost
459 emissions 3-5 times,^{94,103} and since reactive sesquiterpenes drive SA formation,¹⁰⁴ choosing
460 and maintaining low-emitting species is imperative.^{4,105}

461 Urban GI, particularly wind-pollinated species, increase respiratory issues, with urban
462 residents facing up to 20% higher allergy rates than rural populations.^{95,106} Air pollutants
463 increase pollen allergenicity,¹⁰⁷ for example, *Betula pendula* produces more potent allergens
464 under polluted conditions.¹⁰⁸ Climate change intensifies pollen seasons with emissions
465 increasing 200%.¹⁰⁹ Urban planners in cities like Sacramento, USA, London, UK and
466 Christchurch, New Zealand, favour often male dioecious trees (e.g. male-deodar cedars) to
467 avoid seed or fruit litter, creating allergenic, monodominant canopies.^{96,110-112} These patterns
468 increase public exposure, particularly for vulnerable groups, while synergistic effects between

469 pollen and pollution amplify health impacts.^{95,108} Despite GBI's promotion, allergen-related
470 health risks are often ignored, exposing gaps in species selection and risk assessment.⁹⁶

471 As discussed in Section Urban ventilation, planting layout matters, at the ground level in
472 street canyons, tall and dense tree canopies can obstruct vertical ventilation, leading to elevated
473 levels of air pollutants.^{97,98,113,114} However, vegetation with optimised porosity and leaf area
474 density can enhance mixing and filtration, particularly in open-road settings or with well-
475 designed barriers.⁹⁸ Symmetrical rows can hinder airflow, while staggered or one-sided designs
476 may better support noise reduction,¹¹⁵ ventilation and pollutant capture.⁹⁷ Yet, urban planning
477 often neglects these design nuances, increasing air quality risks in dense, high-traffic zones.¹¹⁴

478 As highlighted in Section "Pathways to resilient GBI via plant adaptation", water
479 management and poorly designed systems can cause significant GHG emissions, especially in
480 urban wetlands and irrigated green spaces.^{99,100} CH₄ fluxes in constructed wetlands can be up
481 to 10-times higher than in natural ones, and CO₂ accumulation is common in poorly ventilated
482 areas, particularly at night.^{116,117} Nutrient runoff further exacerbates emissions, yet these
483 disservices are often overlooked in GBI assessments.^{98,118} Additionally, urban vegetation's
484 actual carbon sequestration is limited by plant species and size, site, and maintenance factors,
485 which may offset expected benefits.¹¹⁹⁻¹²¹

486 Despite potential unintended impacts, GBI remains a powerful tool for urban resilience when
487 informed by environmental evidence and local context (Figure S6).¹⁰¹ A key mitigation strategy
488 is selecting species with low bVOC emissions, minimal allergenic traits, and strong pollutant
489 deposition capacity. Tools like OPALS (Ogren Plant Allergy Scale) and regional emission
490 inventories support the selection of insect-pollinated, female, or low-allergenic species near
491 sensitive populations, while also boosting biodiversity by providing habitat and resources for
492 pollinators.^{96,106,108} Small, rough, and complex leaves further enhance pollutant capture without
493 hindering airflow.^{97,101}

494 Site-specific vegetation design is also critical. In street canyons, hedgerows offer an
495 alternative to tall canopies, improving airflow and pollutant trapping.^{97,114} In open areas, wide,
496 dense and optimal porous barriers are effective to balance filtration and air movement.^{101,122}
497 Modelling tools can be used here to support GI design decisions under varying conditions in
498 urban environments.¹¹⁴

499 Hydrological and soil management is equally important. Rain gardens, bioswales, and
500 wetlands should avoid prolonged saturation to limit CH₄ emissions from anaerobic
501 activity.^{99,100} Over-irrigation and nutrient-rich runoff can be reduced with well-drained soils,

502 plants adapted to wet-dry cycles, and reduced fertilisation. Modelling helps optimise
503 performance across environmental scenarios,^{45,123} enabling GBI to achieve environmental and
504 health goals while minimising trade-offs.

505 As further discussed in Section “Conflict control among urban environmental challenges”,
506 these unintended impacts often manifest as conflicts among urban environmental challenges.
507 Moreover, Section “GBI trade-offs” represents broader trade-offs and planning barriers that
508 hinder integrated urban solutions.

509 **Conflict control among urban environmental challenges**

510 GI implementation in dense, and socially complex urban areas is often hindered by
511 fragmented planning processes and mono-functional design strategies that focus on single
512 objectives while neglecting the complexity and interdependency of urban systems. This can
513 lead to trade-offs, where interventions addressing one challenge may fail to solve or even
514 exacerbate others.^{5,124-126} As discussed in Section “Siloisation in urban GBI studies” and
515 supported by various studies, this underscores the need for integrated, multi-functional
516 planning that considers strategies for synergistic management.

517 Recent GBI research has shifted from biodiversity focus to applied strategies addressing
518 climate adaptation, stormwater, air quality, UHI, public health, and environmental justice (see
519 SI S3 and Figure S7). Figure S8 visualises the multifaceted impacts of GBI on key urban
520 challenges. The major barrier to achieving synergistic control arises from the mixed or even
521 conflicting outcomes that GBI interventions can produce on specific urban challenges. This is
522 particularly evident in the control of UHI, air pollution and water management. GI can
523 effectively mitigate UHI effect¹²⁷⁻¹³¹ and reduce anthropogenic noise¹³² with the scale of
524 intervention playing a critical role. Large tree canopies and leaf area densities are particularly
525 effective in achieving significant UHI and noise reductions. For example, a case study from
526 Montreal, Canada found that the noise level decreased with an increase in the mean volume of
527 tree crowns and canopy.¹³³ However, these features often conflict with the requirements for
528 efficient air ventilation and pollutant dispersion in street canyons (Sections “Unintended
529 consequences” and “Urban ventilation”), leading to deteriorated air quality at roadside.¹³⁴⁻¹³⁶
530 Further, while plants with high evapotranspiration rates are beneficial to UHI mitigation, they
531 also require substantial irrigation¹³⁷ and result in significant water losses, particularly during
532 dry seasons.^{138,139} Similarly, BI is effective in UHI mitigation and water management,³⁴ but
533 could also cause air quality issues due to degradation of organic matter, particularly when high
534 sediment accumulation is present.¹⁴⁰⁻¹⁴²

535 The above control conflicts among urban challenges are rooted in their different
536 requirements. While UHI and noise mitigation require large tree canopies and high leaf area
537 densities, effective pollutant dispersion in street canyons typically requires open space.
538 However, studies have shown that GI could also act as porous barriers to stop the dispersion of
539 traffic emissions to roadside pedestrian breathing zones when designed appropriately.^{143,144}
540 Recent CFD analyses showed that the uneven distribution of trees in street canyons facilitate
541 horizontal pollutant transport, offering a novel strategy for redirecting pollution hotspots away
542 from densely populated areas.¹⁴⁵ Such synergistic design considerations can help preserve the
543 UHI and noise mitigation benefits of GI while minimising, or even reversing, its negative
544 impacts on pollutant dispersion.

545 To resolve the conflicts between vegetation evapotranspiration for UHI mitigation and water
546 scarcity, strategies should prioritise shading and high-albedo effects over evapotranspiration.
547 Studies have reported that the combined solar and surface radiation can cause 10-20 °C hotter
548 than ambient air temperature.¹⁴⁶ Therefore, selecting native and drought-tolerant species that
549 offer ample canopy cover and effective solar reflectance can provide UHI mitigation benefits
550 while minimising irrigation demands. Finally, the unintended GHG and pollutant emissions of
551 BI during UHI mitigation can be effectively solved through stricter regulatory measures aimed
552 at controlling eutrophication and reducing organic matter inputs.¹⁴⁷

553 The synergistic management of various urban challenges using GBI requires systemic
554 changes in planning, evaluation, and governance. Conflicts arising between key functions, such
555 as large shade for UHI mitigation vs open space for pollutant dispersion, highlight the
556 significance of integrated and holistic design strategies. Key principles for addressing these
557 challenges include species selection and planting design for balanced/synergistic UHI and air
558 pollution control, prioritisation of shade and albedo over evapotranspiration for UHI
559 mitigation, and effective sediment management in BI systems.

560 **Urban ventilation**

561 As highlighted in Section “Unintended consequences”, GBI interacts with natural and
562 mechanical processes influencing indoor-outdoor air exchange in the built
563 environment.^{4,5,148,149} Given the dynamic spatio-temporal variations that occur in cities, the
564 GBI and urban form interactions, can impact the performance of natural ventilation or HVAC
565 systems, which may also indirectly affect GBI health as it influences microclimatic conditions.
566 This has been evidenced in different context and scales: from an individual building,^{150,151} to
567 essential urban infrastructure including underground transport tunnels,¹⁵² and in city scale

568 ventilation (Table S5 and S6).¹⁵³ The bi-directional relationship between these factors have
569 collectively received limited attention due to the complexity of GBGI interactions.

570 HVAC systems in particular provide a vital service to infrastructure across cities¹⁵⁴ despite
571 requiring substantial energy, and associated operational carbon emissions, providing thermal
572 comfort and good IAQ.^{154,155} At the same time they dispel heat externally and contribute to the
573 UHI effect, in turn creating a detrimental loop between the HVAC system's cooling load¹⁵⁶
574 and UHI,¹⁵⁷ which is further exacerbated by hotter climatic conditions.¹⁵⁸ In dense high-rise
575 urban environments, the dispersion of emissions relies heavily on wind-driven ventilation,
576 described as the 'breathability' of a city. This relates to the resistance to air flow created by the
577 features and design of the urban geometry.¹⁵⁹ The addition of GBI can alter city breathability
578 where GI can increase the resistance to airflow while BI can create the opposite effect (see
579 Section "Conflict control among urban environmental challenges").

580 Buildings also 'breathe', inhaling via HVAC system inlets, open windows and doors, and
581 exhaling via exhausts and other outlets. Where the ventilation of city streets has been positively
582 or negatively impacted by the presence of GBI this in turn impacts on building ventilation via
583 increases or decreases in IAQ,¹⁵¹ energy consumption¹⁵⁶ and humidity levels.¹⁶⁰ Buildings with
584 higher energy performances, sufficient air tightness and efficient HVAC systems could see
585 greater energy demands associated with increased ventilation rates to maintain acceptable
586 IAQ.¹⁶¹ Poorly planned GI obstructing the mechanical ventilation system's fresh air intake
587 could lead to worsening IAQ if the supply of outdoor air is restricted. GI such as green walls
588 and avenue planted trees have also been shown to restrict the vertical dispersion of air
589 pollution.^{134,162} Both studies have highlighted the potential negative impact on street level air
590 quality, yet most exposure to air pollution takes place predominantly indoors, and ventilation
591 of buildings often originates from roof-level fresh air intakes. Therefore, GBI has the potential
592 to improve IAQ and reduce heat and humidity loads along the source-receptor pathway of the
593 HVAC intake. This consideration is however consistently overlooked in building and city
594 design.

595 Understanding the GBI-urban ventilation nexus can overcome potential challenges posed by
596 GBI implementation. Where negative impacts are highlighted from GBI designs, local
597 solutions can be created to address insufficient urban ventilation. City ventilation can be
598 substantially altered by modifying air flow patterns using urban design features,¹⁶³ machine
599 learning methods optimising new building designs in urban areas¹⁶⁴ and GI.⁴ Moreover,
600 machine and deep learning methods using mapping techniques have a role in implementing

601 optimal GBI solutions²⁹ and could be integrated with urban microclimate models to ensure UHI
602 mitigation and minimise airflow restrictions.¹⁶⁵ Previous investigations have also highlighted
603 that the design, orientation and location of building fresh air intakes can be significantly
604 impacted by street level emissions altering IAQ.^{166,167} Green roofs significantly minimise NO_x,
605 CO₂,¹⁶⁸ O₃^{169,170} and particulate matter concentrations¹⁷¹ at roof-level, reducing pollutants
606 entering building air intakes. HVAC filters on a Portland, USA, green roof removed up to 14%
607 of incoming ozone depending on humidity conditions, though with higher microbial and VOC
608 loadings than white roof filters.¹⁶⁹ Similarly, a lightweight extensive green roof on a school
609 building in New Belgrade, Serbia, reduced ambient PM₁₀, PM_{2.5}, and PM₁ by up to 22.5%,
610 28%, and 31.8%, respectively, compared to a reference roof.¹⁷¹ Future work should develop
611 GBI frameworks integrating building and city ventilation concepts.

612 The GBI-urban ventilation nexus, particularly involving HVAC systems, remains
613 overlooked in urban design and management. GBI design needs to be considered within its
614 wider context to maximise co-benefits and avoid unintended negative impacts.

615 **Thermal resilience**

616 GBI is widely recognised for improving urban microclimates and emerged as a vital strategy
617 for improving cities' thermal stress tolerance against heat exposure risks driven by rising
618 climate change and urbanisation. The key categories driving the enhancement of thermal
619 resilience are social, ecological, and technological domains.¹⁷² Though many studies focused
620 on individual aspects, lack of clarity regarding the interaction of humans with the urban
621 environment during designing thermally comfortable adaptation spaces and developing
622 strategies to improve thermal resilience.¹⁷³

623 Existing studies have shown that the synergistic effect of GBI could lower surface and
624 ambient air temperature reducing the UHI effect (Table S6 and S7), which in turn enhances
625 thermal comfort and reduces heat risk. Thermal adaptation in humans mainly involves three
626 processes: physiological, psychological and behavioural adaptations.¹⁷⁴ Thermal adaptation
627 plays a key role in users' comfort perception in GBI environments,¹⁷⁵ while research
628 predominantly focuses on cooling effects rather than adaptation dynamics in complex urban
629 settings. Few studies have explored how physiological parameters respond to changing thermal
630 conditions in GBI environments.¹⁷⁶ In practice, the Paris Oasis Schoolyard Programme
631 transformed schoolyards into urban cool island accessible to communities during heatwave
632 days.¹⁷⁷

633 Greening designs, plant species selection, and water body distribution may differentially
634 impact overheating risks for vulnerable populations, particularly older people¹⁷⁸ and
635 children.¹⁷⁹ Despite strong evidence of heat-related vulnerability in these demographics,
636 current research predominantly examines GBI effects on general populations.^{175,180,181}

637 To analyse the influence of GBI on thermal environments and human comfort, data is
638 collected through three principal approaches: subjective questionnaires, direct
639 environmental/physiological parameter measurements, and remote sensing techniques (Table
640 S7). While questionnaires and direct measurements provide valuable insights, they often yield
641 limited spatial information, undermining comprehensive analysis.¹⁸² Remote sensing offers an
642 advantage by providing spatial distribution data of GBI across multiple large areas¹⁸³ including
643 surface temperatures through inversion techniques.¹⁸⁴ However, surface temperature alone
644 inadequately represents complete microclimate conditions. Comprehensive assessment of
645 GBI's thermal impact requires additional parameters like humidity and wind speed, which
646 remain challenging to obtain simultaneously through remote sensing.¹⁸³⁻¹⁸⁵

647 To overcome urban thermal resilience challenges, future GBI research and planning must
648 shift from measuring cooling effectiveness to understanding and quantifying human thermal
649 adaptation. A comprehensive strategy should integrate environmental factors with human
650 comfort considerations to enhance adaptive capacity and resilience. Data collection from field
651 studies on outdoor thermal comfort needs to extend to a wider range of demographic groups,
652 including older people and children. Digital twins, remote sensing, and artificial intelligence
653 can leverage integrated GBI datasets to model thermal environments and user needs, supporting
654 sustainable urban planning through data-driven insights.^{185,186} Developing city-scale
655 overheating risk warning and mapping systems, for example, human centric digital twin,¹⁸⁷ that
656 incorporate GBI information would enable proactive adaptation strategies, helping urban
657 residents, particularly vulnerable populations, avoid dangerous heat exposures while
658 maximising the effectiveness of implemented GBI solutions.

659 Future research on thermal resilience through GBI should advance three key areas:
660 comprehensive human-urban interaction across diverse demographic groups, refined methods
661 for evaluating heat exposure in GBI environments, and emerging AI-powered technologies for
662 comprehensive environmental assessment and intervention solutions to mitigate urban heat
663 risks.

664 **Pathways to resilient GBI via plant adaptation**

665 GBI solutions aim to adapt cities to climate change and protect citizens from physical and
666 mental health impairments.^{4,188} However, the GBI tools comprise living organisms subject to
667 physiological and metabolic limitations from climate extremes.^{189,190} The potential demise of
668 GBI interventions is often overlooked in urban adaptation, which tend to ignore the fact that
669 the same plants, animals and other organisms are already showing signs of decline in natural
670 ecosystems worldwide.¹⁹¹⁻¹⁹⁶

671 Throughout evolutionary history, organisms have been selected to cope with, survive, and
672 reproduce under heatwaves, droughts, floods, and other sources of acute and chronic
673 stress.^{197,198} These adaptations define a species' realised niche - the range of environmental
674 conditions where they naturally occur.¹⁹⁹ While many organisms can thrive under a broader set
675 of conditions - their fundamental niche²⁰⁰ - all species have tolerance limits beyond which they
676 cannot reproduce or survive. Urban environments frequently push species beyond their realised
677 niches, yet the global success of cosmopolitan species in cities worldwide demonstrates
678 species' remarkable resilience to diverse urban conditions.²⁰¹⁻²⁰³

679 As the cornerstone of GBI, plants are the focus of this section.²⁰⁰ Plants, as sessile organisms
680 unable to seek shelter from environmental stress, rely on adaptive strategies.²⁰⁴ The fitness of
681 plants in urban environments depends on morphological and functional phenotypic plasticity
682 and adaptability, influencing their resilience to stress.^{205,206} Despite the importance of species
683 suitability for GBI success, literature on plant stress tolerance in urban environments remains
684 limited.²⁰⁷ Consequently, decision-making continues to rely primarily on practitioners'
685 empirical knowledge,²⁰⁸ a valuable but insufficient approach for promoting GBI biodiversity
686 and resilience. There is also a risk that GBI species selection for urban planting comes from a
687 'recipe book' of species long used in urban settings, but which may no longer be suitable under
688 rapidly changing climatic conditions.

689 Understanding plant morphological and physiological responses to urban conditions under
690 climate change is essential for selecting species that effectively provide ES. Phenotypic
691 plasticity - one genotype-driven ability to produce various phenotypic variations in reaction to
692 environmental conditions^{209,210} - offers significant advantages, allowing plants to fine-tune
693 their form and function to cope with local urban challenges.²¹¹ The plastic responses include
694 thickened leaf cuticles, reduced leaf area and stomatal density, facultative shifts in
695 photosynthetic metabolism and hydraulic system adjustments that help plants cope with heat,
696 drought, and high light intensity.²¹²⁻²¹⁴ Some species display remarkable stress tolerance, like
697 *Tipuana tipu* (Leguminosae) trees in São Paulo, Brazil, which increased photosynthetic and

698 growth rates during one of the city's worst recent droughts.²⁰¹ While adaptation represents
699 another pathway, it typically requires multiple generations under selective pressure and is
700 therefore less likely to occur within timeframes relevant to urban environments,²¹⁵ except for
701 species with short life cycles that already adapted to urban conditions.²¹⁶⁻²²¹ Urban plantings
702 are typically undertaken with standard stock material and there is little or no scope for natural
703 genetic variation to influence future generations of plants.

704 Species migration represents a third pathway for organisms responding to stress.²²² Natural
705 plant migration is slow, spanning decades or centuries, making it unlikely to keep pace with
706 rapid urban environmental changes.²²³ In urban contexts, humans act as migration agents by
707 introducing species through GBI implementation. While plant selection has historically been
708 dictated by cultural preferences, market interests, and landscape design trends, emerging
709 approaches now focus on introducing species from surrounding biomes that correspond
710 ecologically to urban niches - a more efficient strategy for enhancing GBI resilience.²²⁴

711 Phenotypic plasticity, adaptation, and migration represent the three primary mechanisms by
712 which species establish and occupy new niches (Table S8) - essential processes that must be
713 incorporated into GBI planning and management to achieve both immediate benefits and
714 sustained resilience.²²⁵ This integration remains particularly challenging in cities located within
715 highly biodiverse regions where species knowledge by urban decision makers is limited.
716 However, practical shortcuts can accelerate appropriate species selection for urban GBI niches.
717 These include leveraging basic scientific information (species descriptions and identification
718 keys) alongside ecological studies of successional processes and plant strategies, providing
719 invaluable insights into species' capacity to tolerate current and future urban climate
720 conditions.²²⁶ Without utilising at least one of these three pathways, species may face local
721 extinction through landscape transformation, undermining GBI effectiveness.^{225,227}

722 **GBI trade-offs**

723 GBI implementation often involves trade-offs (Figure S8) and additional barriers, multi-
724 scalar, technical, and institutional, that prevent synergistic planning.

725 GBI benefits occur across spatiotemporal scales that often misalign with targeted
726 environmental challenges.^{26,228} Spatially, GBI is commonly deployed in fragmented urban
727 areas, while essential ecological processes function at broader scales.^{229,230} This spatial
728 mismatch, coupled with weak integration into city-wide planning, limits effectiveness.²³¹ For
729 instance, scattered green roofs or pocket parks provide local cooling but may not mitigate UHI

730 (see Section “Thermal resilience”), and GBI in downstream flood zones can be ineffective
731 without upstream coordination.^{232,233} Temporally, GBI often delivers ES slower than urban
732 crises unfold. Static assessments overlook temporal dynamics, compromising long-term
733 evaluations.²³⁴ Some benefits arise quickly (e.g., air quality, noise, cooling) than others (e.g.,
734 biodiversity).^{98,235} Planning rarely accounts for time needed for full functionality (e.g., tree
735 maturity, soil development), hindering co-benefit integration and political support. This calls
736 for long-term, multi-scalar planning and vision.²²⁸

737 A lack of integrated tools to holistically assess ecosystem service synergies and trade-offs
738 remains a key gap.²³⁶ GBI planning often relies on siloed (Section “Siloisation in urban GBI
739 studies”), mono-functional approaches, lacking the interoperability to evaluate interconnected
740 processes and trade-offs (e.g., hydrology, urban climate, pollutant dispersion, and thermal
741 comfort).^{237,238} This is compounded in cities with scarce or incompatible data. Even studies
742 emphasising multifunctionality tend to map priority areas for GBI interventions without
743 accurately accounting for local needs.²³⁹⁻²⁴¹ For instance, selecting a GBI with broad co-
744 benefits to target multifunctionality usually relies on generalised criteria and suitability
745 analysis, lacking context-specific design.²³⁹ This reliance on non-local assumptions may reduce
746 relevance.²³⁶ Recent work illustrates the value of context-specific design. Open-air urban
747 farming roofs in Shenzhen, China, could produce up to 7.44 kg of vegetables per m² annually
748 and reduce upstream energy and water footprints by a factor of 4.5²⁴². This example highlights
749 both the potential and the trade-offs of farming roofs, which depend on local conditions,
750 resources, and governance. Without integrative metrics, GBI decisions are fragmented,
751 hampering planning, and increasing unintended trade-offs.

752 A key response to scale mismatches is multi-scalar environmental planning aligning GBI
753 interventions from the block and neighbourhood levels to watershed and metropolitan scales,
754 enhancing ecological connectivity and integrated risk management. GBI networks should
755 combine regional strategies (e.g., greenbelts, GC) with local solutions (e.g., rain gardens, street
756 trees).^{243,244} A blend of scales and configurations is needed to optimise co-benefits.^{26,244}
757 Addressing spatial fragmentation requires cross-sectoral and multilevel governance
758 agreements.²⁴⁵ Further research is needed to identify effective links between GBI types,
759 supporting governance mechanisms, and resulting multifunctionality benefits.

760 Emerging planning frameworks use spatial multi-criteria methods to incorporate urban ES
761 into spatial decision-making, combining environmental and social layers to rank priority
762 intervention areas in cities and integrating equity considerations.^{238,239,246} These approaches

763 map spatially explicit trade-offs at multiple scales and generate priority areas based on high-
764 resolution geospatial analysis. However, such decision-making approaches are only as good as
765 the data used to underpin them.

766 Technology and modelling strategies can partially overcome data or information limitations.
767 Affordable sensing technologies and IoT platforms (e.g., air quality monitors, soil moisture
768 sensors, urban rain gauges) enable real-time GI monitoring, supporting adaptive
769 management.^{143,247-249} Biomonitoring with bioindicators (e.g., lichens, leaves, and
770 microorganisms) can help infer pollutant loads and ecological health.²⁵⁰⁻²⁵² Tools like InVEST
771 quantify services (e.g., thermal regulation, runoff retention, carbon sequestration, noise
772 mitigation) under various GBI scenarios.²⁵³⁻²⁵⁶ Finally, integrating these with remote sensing,
773 GIS, and environmental models, will support better GBI siting and selection.^{48,238,257,258}

774 Addressing GBI implementation barriers demands resolving spatial-temporal scale
775 mismatches through multi-level planning, integrated modelling, and high-resolution spatial
776 data, including social and demographic data, to align localised interventions with broader
777 ecological processes and long-term urban resilience objectives.

778 **Challenges linked to BI in urban environments**

779 Urban BI encompasses both natural and artificial water-related elements within city
780 boundaries, such as canals, lakes, ponds, rivers, wetlands, seas, and constructed drainage
781 features that mimic natural hydrological processes.^{5,6,259,260} These water bodies support human
782 well-being, flood mitigation, cooling and recreational and cultural benefits in cities.²⁶¹⁻²⁶³
783 Existing literature on BI challenges and solutions remains limited, especially regarding coastal
784 systems. Space constraints in densely built areas often restrict the implementation and
785 expansion of BI to a greater extent than most GI.²⁶⁴ Management challenges for BI include
786 balancing flood risks, erosion control, and maintaining attractive, accessible spaces for urban
787 dwellers.²⁶⁰ Climate and geography often shape BI options; cities in arid regions tend to make
788 use of smaller water features since water is scarce, often pumped from elsewhere, and
789 evaporation rates are high. Cities on elevated terrain will tend to have smaller water bodies
790 compared to urban centres in low lying catchments where large rivers and lakes are more
791 common. Cities with river catchments crossing national borders face additional political
792 complexities beyond typical GI challenges in terms of managing water (high and low) flows
793 and water quality. Cities relying on groundwater face additional complexities as these systems
794 often cross jurisdictions and have unclear boundaries.²⁶

795 BI often presents a dual character as both a benefit and a risk. While rivers and seas enhance
796 wellbeing through access and visual connection,²⁶⁵ they also increase flood risks.²⁶⁶ Steep walls
797 and high flood defences designed to reduce risk, will also reduce direct accessibility for the
798 public, along with the visual connection of the public with these natural features. In tropical
799 areas, there can also be health risks from vector-transmitted illnesses, such as Malaria, or
800 Dengue, where insect vectors use any pooled water for breeding, from plant pots up to
801 reservoirs. Solutions must balance protection with public accessibility to maximise
802 multifunctional benefits.

803 A range of solutions can improve the implementation of BI in urban settings. Stronger
804 governance and better policy integration are necessary to prioritise BI benefits, requiring
805 national, and international coordination to manage water flows and water quality.²⁶⁷ At a local
806 scale, participatory planning and close engagement with residents are often critical for
807 successful long-term implementation of local BI projects, fostering local capacity,
808 appreciation, and stewardship,²⁵⁹ such as caring for a stretch of canal or urban stream.²⁶⁸

809 While sharing knowledge on best management practices, upskilling personnel, and
810 improving understanding among stakeholders²⁶⁹⁻²⁷¹ are common solutions across multiple
811 types of GBI, these need to be specific to management of water and BI since the technical
812 challenges are much greater around issues such as managing risk of disease transmission, or
813 alleviating flood risk. Sharing lessons learned and data from pilot and demonstration projects
814 is also recommended.²⁷²

815 BI planning must consider local context and can leverage historical and cultural connections
816 to water, as demonstrated by the revitalisation of traditional urban irrigation canals in Spain.²⁷³
817 River restoration enhances existing BI by reintegrating waterways into urban environments
818 through techniques like 'daylighting' buried streams, creating self-sustaining systems that
819 deliver ecological benefits, flood control, recreation, and social value.^{274,275} In space-
820 constrained coastal cities, offshore NbS and hybrid approaches combining GBGI enhance
821 resilience and multifunctionality, as exemplified by vegetated water retention basins that
822 support biodiversity.²⁷⁶⁻²⁷⁸

823 Designing blue spaces with an emphasis on multifunctionality can maximise benefits, such
824 as ecological connectivity, public space, and recreation.²⁶⁰ Features such as fountains, and play
825 areas with water sources create cooling and social hubs in urban spaces.²⁷⁹ Improving physical
826 and aesthetic access to blue spaces, such as bathing platforms and waterfront walkways, along

827 with better water quality, significantly boosts public engagement and the benefits that city
828 dwellers experience from BI.^{280,281}

829 In summary, addressing these issues for BI requires coordinated governance across scales,
830 community engagement, and technical expertise sensitive to local contexts. Strategic
831 approaches should include multifunctional design, natural water system restoration, and
832 integration with other infrastructure types.

833 **SOCIAL BARRIERS**

834 This section synthesises five key social barriers: environmental injustice, cultural
835 misalignment, low public adoption, safety concerns, and aesthetic resistance (Figure 3). A
836 consolidated summary of their core challenges and corresponding strategies is presented in
837 Table 3 and summary of discussed case studies in Table S1.

838 **Environmental injustice and GBI decision making**

839 Cities frequently exhibit significant social inequalities in wealth and access to resources,
840 including uneven distribution of green spaces and the ES they provide.²⁸²⁻²⁸⁴ Urban populations
841 may be shaped by complex histories that include colonisation, migration, and segregation along
842 lines of race, ethnicity, religion, and caste, among others. These are further compounded by
843 contemporary stressors that include increasing wealth inequality, the influx of refugees, and
844 climate-related disasters. Consequently, the environmental trade-offs of green spaces (or lack
845 thereof) in cities are not borne or enjoyed equally by everyone, resulting in systematic patterns
846 of environmental injustice in most cities.²⁸⁵⁻²⁸⁷ Historically marginalised groups
847 disproportionately experience greater exposure to environmental hazards, including industrial
848 and vehicular emissions and water contamination, noise pollution, rising heat risks,²⁸⁸
849 floods,²⁸⁹ and green space shortages.^{290,291} Moreover, GBI projects in low-income communities
850 often raise real estate prices, thereby pricing long-term residents out of their neighbourhoods,
851 a paradoxical phenomenon described as “green gentrification”.²⁹²⁻²⁹⁵ Consequently, the
852 communities and urban areas with the greatest need for GBI investments are often the last to
853 benefit. Equity in GBI implementation remains a key concern, as vulnerable communities often
854 lack access to high-quality infrastructure.²⁹⁶ Addressing this imbalance requires inclusive
855 strategies, community co-creation, and investment in underserved neighbourhoods. The
856 implementation of GBI rarely integrates these equity dimensions, often limited by data and
857 governance constraints.²⁹⁷

858 Persistent environmental disparities are rooted in historic patterns of racial segregation in
859 the U.S., including the practice of “redlining” created by Home Owners Loan Corporation to
860 demarcate parts of a city into zones based on perceived loan default risk, with Black and Brown
861 communities relegated to the least desirable red zone.^{298,299} Redlining was officially enacted in
862 hundreds of cities across the US from the 1930s to the 1960s, when the policy officially ended.
863 Decades later, urban ecologists continue to find significant differences in tree canopy cover,³⁰⁰
864 impervious surface area,³⁰¹ building density, air quality, summer temperatures,^{302,303} and
865 biodiversity,³⁰⁴⁻³⁰⁶ with attendant disparities in public health outcomes.³⁰⁷

866 Cities in Europe and elsewhere have their own specific histories of unequal access for
867 migrants and low-income communities, often with the similar result of low-income areas
868 lacking adequate GBI,^{308,309} and therefore experiencing UHI,³¹⁰ higher air pollution, lower
869 biodiversity³¹¹⁻³¹⁵ and poorer health outcomes over time.³¹⁶

870 In the Global South, extreme urban inequality can be found in informal settlements shaped
871 by self-construction and social struggle from marginalised groups, seeking the right to housing
872 and the city.³¹⁷ Over 1 billion people lived in urban informal settlements in the world in 2020,
873 and, if urban poverty trends persist, these areas will continue to expand.³¹⁸ In these excluded
874 spaces, resource optimisation is essential, yet they are rarely prioritised in urban green
875 policies.³¹⁹

876 On the one hand, green policies can generate tension by promoting gentrification, and on the
877 other, the growing trend of increasing socioeconomic disadvantage in urban areas, especially
878 in emerging economies, reproduces urban territories of informality where GBI is difficult to
879 implement due to spatial constraints in dense cities and vulnerability, marginalisation, and the
880 lack of basic infrastructure. In the scientific literature, most articles focus on green
881 gentrification and racial inequalities in the implementation of GBI, particularly in cities within
882 the Global North. Table S9 presents a selection of relevant studies on this topic.

883 GBI projects have the potential to address these environmental legacies of historic
884 segregation and current marginalisation, but only if planned and implemented in ways that
885 prioritise the needs and voices of these communities.³²⁰ At a minimum (Figure S9),
886 participatory approaches and democratic governance are essential for ensuring that
887 marginalised groups can participate in planning and governance to shape their
888 neighbourhoods.³²¹ Such approaches should also recognise that barriers to social adaptation
889 and structural access may differ across communities and require context-specific solutions.³²²
890 Some studies show that minority communities also report substantial benefit from local

891 greenspace, and do not always feel marginalised, but only where they feel a sense of
892 belonging.³²³ Top-down policy that aims to build GBI in under-resourced areas must include
893 environmental justice (EJ) criteria in project design as well as opportunities for meaningful
894 participation in decision-making processes from the target communities. Finally, GBI
895 initiatives should integrate EJ frameworks in both research and practice if we are to effectively
896 disrupt the cycle of continued marginalisation for these communities around the world.^{324,325}
897 This approach also requires a multi-scalar perspective linking local decision-making to broader
898 governance mechanisms at city, regional, and national levels.

899 Environmental injustice perpetuates unequal access to GBI, frequently excluding
900 marginalised communities from its benefits and decision-making processes. Without equity-
901 driven planning, GBI implementation exacerbates existing risks and disparities. Integrating
902 justice frameworks and ensuring inclusive participation is crucial to guarantee that GBI
903 simultaneously advances sustainability and social equity.

904 **Cultural perspectives on GBI**

905 Although GBI is increasingly promoted, its cultural dimensions remain systematically
906 under-addressed in both planning and implementation. A key issue is the persistent under-
907 recognition of CES, with limited attention to intangible values such as heritage, identity, and
908 education.^{99,326,327} Community and cultural engagement is often weak, as top-down planning
909 processes frequently overlook local socio-cultural perspectives, leading to limited public
910 acceptance.^{328,329} Institutional procedures frequently privilege technical or aesthetic criteria
911 over place-specific cultural values, and indigenous knowledge systems, which offer valuable
912 insights into sustainable land management, are also rarely incorporated into formal GBI
913 strategies.³³⁰

914 In addition to these gaps, poorly contextualised interventions, such as inappropriate vertical
915 greening, insensitive vegetation management, or the neglect of traditional spatial arrangements
916 and layout principles can undermine both cultural heritage and microclimatic performance.³³¹⁻
917 ³³³ Moreover, culturally specific landscape preferences are often ignored, resulting in GBI
918 designs that fail to resonate with the diverse social, aesthetic, and spiritual meanings attributed
919 to green spaces.^{334,335} Together, these shortcomings reveal that neglecting cultural perspectives
920 not only weakens public resonance but also undermines the long-term legitimacy of GBI. Table
921 S10 summarises case studies and reviews that reflect these challenges, revealing persistent

922 gaps. Addressing these challenges requires a more inclusive, culturally grounded, and
923 community-responsive approach to GBI.

924 Traditional and religious cultural contexts have demonstrated the capacity to enhance both
925 ecological performance and cultural resonance. The Lingerin garden in Suzhou, China,
926 illustrates how culturally embedded landscapes can function as effective GBI.³³⁶ Through the
927 integration of water elements, dense plantings, and shading structures, these classical gardens
928 passively regulate microclimates by enhancing thermal comfort and humidity, particularly in
929 shaded or water-adjacent areas.³³¹ Similarly, the sacred Mughal garden of the Taj Mahal and
930 the minimalist Zen garden of Ryoan-ji reflect how religious traditions have historically
931 embedded GBI elements within spaces of ritual, reflection, and ecological value.³³⁴ These
932 precedents demonstrate microclimates and cultural narratives are co-produced through spatial
933 codes and symbolic cues. However, such practices remain largely confined to small spatial
934 scales. Scaling them up to the neighbourhood or urban level is often hindered by mismatches
935 with modern urban layouts, rigid planning systems, and the complexity of cultural meanings.²⁷⁷

936 Poorly contextualised GBI interventions can undermine the cultural heritage they aim to
937 support. For example, installing vertical greening on historical facades may increase moisture
938 retention and cause masonry cracking, accelerating material deterioration.³³² In heritage sites,
939 inadequate vegetation management may negatively affect microclimatic conditions, visitor
940 experience, and the preservation of delicate historic structures.³³³ In Malaysian heritage cities,
941 adaptive reuse of historic buildings has sometimes caused cultural and structural harm when
942 added greenery ignores original layouts or materials.³³⁷ Collectively, these cases show that
943 insufficient contextual sensitivity threatens both tangible heritage (materials, form) and
944 intangible heritage (symbolism, identity).

945 Insufficient cultural sensitivity and weak integration of local values are key barriers to GBI
946 success. When interventions neglect traditional knowledge, land practices, or community
947 identity, they are often perceived as externally imposed, reducing public engagement and long-
948 term stewardship. In Peru's Tumbes Basin, for example, indigenous fog-harvesting terraces
949 have excluded from formal planning processes, marginalising culturally significant land
950 management practices.³³⁰ Christchurch's Wigram basin demonstrated poor recognition of
951 cultural benefits due to limited Indigenous consultation.³³⁸ In Moscow's Gorky park, while
952 recreational use thrives, , educational and heritage functions remain underrepresented.³³⁹ These
953 cases illustrate the consequences of undervalued cultural ecosystem services, sidelined
954 traditional ecological knowledge, and heritage-insensitive programming.

955 To overcome cultural limitations in current GBI implementation, a three-fold strategy can
956 align design intent with place-specific cultural systems. First, integrating traditional ecological
957 knowledge, such as local water systems, symbolic plantings, and spatial practices helps align
958 GBI with place-specific values and deepens cultural relevance.³⁴⁰ Second, heritage-compatible
959 assessment should be embedded from concept to maintenance using tailored frameworks, like
960 vegetation risk indices or heritage-compatible green design principles minimising physical and
961 symbolic damage.³⁴¹ Third, public engagement can be strengthened through participatory
962 processes that involve communities from early planning stages, particularly by embedding
963 spaces for cultural rituals, storytelling, and place-based learning.³⁴² These measures facilitate
964 convert cultural sensitivity from aspiration into verifiable practices.

965 **Social adoption hindering implementation of GBI**

966 Although urban GBI is widely promoted for its climate and ecological benefits,^{343,344} its
967 implementation is often hindered by limited social acceptance and engagement. The durability
968 of GBI depends on whether residents and stakeholders perceive interventions as safe, useful,
969 fair, and worth caring for over time. Factors such as public perceptions, cultural relevance,
970 safety concerns, and historical injustices influence how residents interact with these
971 interventions.^{345,346} Social adoption depends on four interlinked dimensions: perceived benefits
972 and risks (e.g., safety, usability), procedural fairness (inclusion and voice), distributional
973 fairness (who gains/losses), and capacity for ongoing stewardship. Without adequate social
974 alignment, even ecologically sound projects risk being underutilised or rejected.

975 Empirical research underscores the social value of GBI. Inclusive, accessible parks promote
976 interaction, cohesion, and intercultural understanding.³⁴⁷ Green space design that encourages
977 informal interactions like bench conversations or children's play, foster trust and
978 belongingness.³⁴⁸ In Beijing, centralised, high-quality green spaces were more effective in
979 enhancing residents' community attachment than fragmented or inaccessible ones.³⁴⁹ These
980 findings indicate that design choices facilitating everyday sociability, clear access, and
981 inclusive use strengthen place-based attachment and social adoption.

982 Despite growing insights, social barriers to GBI adoption persist due to entrenched
983 perceptions and institutional norms.³⁵⁰ While promoted for its multifunctionality, GBI often
984 reflects planner-led priorities that are misaligned with local values and everyday practices.³⁴⁵
985 Planners may prioritise cost-effectiveness or technical feasibility, while residents resist
986 interventions that disrupt cultural ties or land uses.⁵¹ This misalignment can weaken trust,

987 leading to scepticism and reduced willingness to engage with or maintain interventions.
988 Additionally, historical patterns of environmental injustice contribute to unequal access to
989 urban nature, generating scepticism among marginalised groups regarding new GI
990 interventions.³⁵¹ These dynamics reflect both distributional inequities (who gets what where),
991 recognition voids (respecting local's values and norms) and procedural gaps (who decides
992 how), which together weaken social licence to operate. By contrast, where communities feel
993 they belong in a place, the use of, and benefits from, local green spaces are plentiful.³²³

994 GBI interventions can trigger green gentrification (Section "Environmental injustice and
995 GBI decision making"), where environmental improvements displace vulnerable populations
996 through increased property values.³⁵² Governance structures lacking inclusive participation,³²¹
997 exacerbate these effects by limiting community's inputs.³⁵³ This transforms GBI into
998 technocratic solution detached from community realities.³⁵⁴ Mitigating these risks requires
999 anti-displacement measures (affordable housing commitments, community land trusts, benefit-
1000 sharing agreements, local opportunities), to prevent environmental gains from causing social
1001 losses. From a social adoption perspective, gentrification pressures erode trust and diminish
1002 stewardship participation.

1003 A key barrier to GBI adoption is the misalignment between planners' intentions and local
1004 communities' values. Projects often prioritise ecological or aesthetic goals but overlook
1005 concerns about safety, usability, or cultural relevance.³²⁹ In marginalised areas, residents may
1006 view dense vegetation or secluded spaces as unsafe (Section "Safety and security barriers in
1007 GBI implementation").^{355,356} Perceived safety depends on lighting, sightlines, visibility of
1008 guardianship, and maintenance quality. Neglect in these areas quickly undermines adoption of
1009 GBI.

1010 Limited awareness about GBI functions restricts informed engagement,⁵¹ while
1011 psychological barriers (low perceived self-efficacy, uncertainty about usage rules) suppress
1012 participation even when physical access exists. Without inclusive processes, communities
1013 remain disconnected from projects, weakening long-term stewardship.^{51,343} Additionally, green
1014 spaces shaped by dominant cultural norms may neglect the needs of women, elderlies, or ethnic
1015 minorities, making them feel unwelcome.³⁵⁷ These factors, in turns, technocratic
1016 implementation disconnected from the social realities of GBI it seeks to serve.³⁵⁴

1017 Enhancing social adoption of GBI requires embedding meaningful community engagement
1018 into planning and implementation.³²¹ Participatory approaches like co-design, mapping, and
1019 citizen science increase interventions' legitimacy, relevance, and local ownership.^{346,358}

1020 Effective engagement is early (agenda-setting, not just consultation), iterative (multiple
1021 feedback loops), and accessible (multilingual materials, varied meeting times, paid
1022 participation where appropriate). Citizen science initiatives offer unique opportunities to
1023 capture place-based knowledge and skills, empower residents, and generate contextually rich
1024 data that informs GBI decision-making. Previous research on elderly's perceptions suggest
1025 accessibility, safety, and usability, emphasising the significance of green space availability and
1026 condition.³⁵⁹ Moreover, urban greenery's contribution to supporting healthy ageing reflections
1027 from elderly people highlighting the significance of engaging them in recall assessments.³⁶⁰
1028 These practices enhance procedural justice and build shared ownership beyond the project
1029 phase. Similar perception-base assessments are needed at local level with different
1030 backgrounds of the people in a society such as women, children, marginalized communities,
1031 etc, for the fairness of GBI projects.

1032 Ensuring equitable access to GBI is critical for fostering public trust and addressing spatial
1033 and social inequalities. Prioritising GBI in underserved areas can address injustices and build
1034 community trust.^{361,362} Linking these initiatives with local employment, education, or
1035 recreation generates co-benefits and strengthens public support.³⁶³ Communication campaigns,
1036 school programmes, and targeted outreach raise awareness of GBI's multifunctional benefits,
1037 from cooling to mental well-being.³⁶⁴

1038 Institutional reform must support integrated, socially responsive planning through clear
1039 maintenance accountability, ring-fenced dedicated budgets for community partnerships, and
1040 metrics tracking inclusions (participation diversity, perceived safety, equitable usage, realised
1041 recognition). Cross-sectoral collaboration, and adaptive governance can bridge ecological,
1042 technical, and social goals.^{344,365,366} Formalising agreements with park friend groups and
1043 schools converts episodic engagement into stable care networks, embedding GBI within the
1044 urban fabric for its wider social adoption.

1045 While the ecological and infrastructural benefits of GBI are well established, its successful
1046 implementation depends on overcoming social adoption barriers. Misaligned priorities, lack of
1047 engagement, inequitable access, and institutional fragmentation hinder public support.
1048 Addressing these challenges requires inclusive planning, equity-focused investments, effective
1049 communication, and integrated governance. A socially grounded approach to GBI is key to
1050 building resilient, just, and liveable urban futures.

1051 **Safety and security barriers in GBI implementation**

1052 Despite growing policy support, GBI implementation often faces barriers linked to safety
1053 and security concerns (Table S11). GBI can be perceived as both a resilience asset and a
1054 security concern.^{367,368} Poorly designed or maintained green areas may enable concealment or
1055 illegal activities where surveillance is limited.^{369,370} In Latin America and Sub-Saharan African
1056 regions, over half of urban planners have altered or cancelled projects due to crime concerns.³⁷¹
1057 Similar a 2023 UK survey revealed 44% of urban residents, avoid local green spaces due to
1058 safety concerns, rising to 63% in disadvantaged areas.¹⁸ In Malmö, Sweden, residents'
1059 concerns about poorly lit parks prompted redesign with improved lighting and surveillance³⁷²,
1060 while London similarly redesigned small parks and paths to address drug use and antisocial
1061 behaviour in unsupervised areas.³⁷³

1062 Safety challenges occur across multiple spatial scales. On streets, dense vegetation can
1063 obstruct views and create blind spots, reducing passive surveillance.^{368,369} In housing areas,
1064 green fences may block visibility and undermine defensible space principles.^{374,375} In
1065 underserved neighbourhoods, poorly monitored parks often attract antisocial behaviour.^{376,377}
1066 Unmonitored greenways and gardens can invite antisocial behaviour and vandalism despite
1067 fostering community engagement.³⁷⁸ In high-crime informal settlements, GBI faces resistance
1068 due to security concerns^{294,379}, while paradoxically areas under constant surveillance may
1069 restrict access for underprivileged groups (Table S11).¹³

1070 Recent studies incorporate safety directly into GBI planning through multi-scale approaches
1071 that support climate adaptation while enhancing real and perceived safety^{4,5,380} These
1072 frameworks emphasise integrated planning, inter-agency cooperation, and the evaluation of
1073 indicators for security and well-being across social groups.³⁷⁹ Multifunctionality indices and
1074 ecosystem service maps offer instruments to design socially safe.^{237,381}

1075 Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design (CPTED) complements these approaches
1076 by emphasising natural surveillance, territorial reinforcement, and access control.^{374,382}
1077 Interventions like motion-activated lighting and scheduled patrols improve perceived safety in
1078 isolated greenways. Technology enhances safety through smart lighting, CCTV, and IoT-based
1079 monitoring that preserve the landscape's visual character.^{383,384}

1080 Community participation in planning, maintenance, and oversight fosters ownership and
1081 reduces vandalism through informal social control.³⁸⁵ Transforming neglected spaces into
1082 green spaces has been associated with reduced criminal activity and improved perceived
1083 safety.³⁸⁶ Effective GBI design should be informed by local risk assessments, integrated
1084 CPTED principles and promote community involvement to develop inclusive resilient GBI.

1085 Safety and security remain critical yet underexplored dimensions in GBI implementation
1086 (see Table S11). Effective GBI design should: (1) be informed by local risk assessments to
1087 reflect area-specific needs; (2) integrate CPTED principles and monitoring technologies to
1088 enhance both real and perceived safety while preserving ecological value; and (3) promote
1089 community participation to strengthen social oversight and reduce misuse. Addressing these
1090 factors is essential for developing inclusive, resilient, and socially sustainable GBI systems.

1091 **Balancing climate adaptation and aesthetic goals in urban GBI**

1092 A tension between ecological functionality and prevailing aesthetic preferences often
1093 challenges the implementation of GBI. While climate-resilient GBI prioritises heterogeneous,
1094 function-driven, and ecologically complex design, urban planning and public perception have
1095 tended to favour tidy, ornamental landscapes.^{387,388} Historically, urban aesthetics have
1096 emphasised beautification and recreation, prioritising lawns and formal gardens.^{388,389}
1097 Increased awareness of climate change is driving a shift towards multifunctional landscapes
1098 guided by ecological principles and the provision of ES.^{390,391} For example, in 2019, King's
1099 College Cambridge, UK, transformed its historic 1772 lawn into a wildflower meadow,
1100 reflecting a shift from formal turf to multifunctional landscapes.³⁹² Nevertheless, modernist
1101 aesthetic norms continue to shape public expectations and institutional practices, often
1102 hindering the adoption of climate-adaptive, structurally diverse, and ecologically robust
1103 designs.^{387,388} This misalignment between ecological needs and aesthetic conventions limits
1104 GBI's transformative potential.

1105 Past scholarly works highlight the multifunctionality of GBI, focusing on its ecological,
1106 social, and aesthetic co-benefits.^{381,393} However, recent evidence shows that aesthetic priorities
1107 often precede ecological function in urban greening projects. For instance, street trees are often
1108 selected for their ornamental qualities rather than their ability to withstand drought or urban
1109 heat.³⁹⁴ Although native or climate-resilient species are ecologically valuable, they are
1110 perceived as unkempt or undesirable, provoking resistance from communities and
1111 policymakers.³⁹⁵ Aesthetic preferences in urban landscapes are shaped by underlying socio-
1112 cultural norms and institutional frameworks.

1113 Despite growing recognition of GBI's multifunctionality, challenges remain in aligning
1114 ecological resilience with public expectations of beauty. A key conflict lies between ecological
1115 design principles, like heterogeneity and native vegetation, and societal preferences for
1116 neatness and ornamental species.^{396,397} Functional GBI may appear disordered or untamed,

1117 often misinterpreted as neglect, especially in cultural contexts where tidy, manicured
1118 landscapes indicate care, safety, and social order.^{387,388}

1119 In addition, the lack of design elements that signal human intention and care can undermine
1120 public support for GBI projects (Table S12). This underlines the importance of integrating
1121 aesthetic legibility into functional landscapes by carefully applying design principles grounded
1122 in social and cultural understanding.³⁸⁹

1123 Institutional and governance frameworks often reinforce perceptual barriers; planning
1124 regulations, zoning codes, and funding mechanisms typically prioritise immediate visual
1125 appeal and public acceptance over long-term ecological performance and resilience.^{397,398} In
1126 such contexts, climate-adaptive infrastructure is frequently marginalised, particularly without
1127 interdisciplinary collaboration.^{399,400} Maintenance practices worsen this issue, as they are
1128 typically designed for conventional green spaces rather than complex, dynamic ecosystems
1129 requiring distinct expertise.²⁹⁵

1130 Public interpretation of landscapes is strongly influenced by visible indicators of care,
1131 termed “cues to care”.³⁸⁸ These cues include trimmed edges, pathways, and signage that convey
1132 deliberate stewardship.³⁸⁹ Strategically applied, cues can bridge the gap between ecological
1133 functionality and public appeal. Integrating intentional design into the scientific design process,
1134 referred to as the “design-in-science” approach, is critical for translating ecological theory into
1135 practice.⁴⁰¹ This framework underscores the importance of shaping spatial patterns by both
1136 ecological functions and their social meaning and visual clarity (Table S12).

1137 Aesthetics in climate-resilient urban design should apply integrative design principles from
1138 landscape ecology to guide planning, focusing on patch diversity, ecological corridors, and
1139 flows.³⁹¹ Embracing “careful messiness” is essential; it reframes wildness as intentional,
1140 promoting aesthetic literacy and ecological understanding among planners and the public.³⁸⁸
1141 Urban planning norms must evolve by integrating adaptive principles into zoning regulations
1142 and development codes, thereby incentivising multifunctional GBI.³⁹¹ Public education fosters
1143 public acceptance; targeted awareness campaigns and participatory design processes can help
1144 reconcile community preference with ecological priorities.^{350,388,399} Finally, creating resilient
1145 and meaningful landscapes requires transdisciplinary collaboration, bringing together
1146 ecologists, landscape architects, urban planners, policymakers, and local communities.^{391,400}

1147 Many urban GBI projects still prioritise aesthetics over climate resilience to contribute
1148 meaningfully to climate action. Public perception, policy, and limited funding often make it
1149 more challenging to adopt climate-resilient approaches. To truly futureproof cities and

1150 communities, GBI must integrate multifunctional, climate-adaptive designs that integrate both
1151 ecological and aesthetic values. This will require a concerted effort that includes public
1152 education, participatory planning, policy reform, and the establishment of sustainable financing
1153 mechanisms to support resilient urban environments.

1154 **ECONOMIC BARRIERS**

1155 This section identifies five financial and institutional challenges that limit GBI
1156 implementation: financial undervaluation of biodiversity, limited private investment, weak
1157 environment, social and governance (ESG) metrics, and the lack of recognition of natural
1158 systems as formal assets. These issues reduce funding opportunities, lower investor confidence,
1159 and restrict policy support. Figure 4 outlines these key barriers and how they are
1160 interconnected. Each challenge provides a detailed discussion in the following sections and
1161 summarised in Table 3 and summary of discussed case studies in Table S1.

1162 **Financial barriers to GBI implementation**

1163 Over half of global GDP (or \$44 trillion) depends on healthy biodiversity.⁴⁰²⁻⁴⁰⁴ Yet, the
1164 current economic system consistently undervalues biodiversity and natural capital.⁴⁰⁵
1165 Traditional structures treat natural capital like other assets – financial, intellectual, and human
1166 – rather than recognising the economy operates within, not alongside, nature.⁴⁰⁵ The financial
1167 system is described as the “economy’s circulatory system” and the large banking institutions
1168 as “the heart”.^{406,407} Today’s financial system differs greatly from earlier generations, mainly
1169 due to technological innovation.

1170 Financial and policy decisions over the past century have driven biodiversity loss and now
1171 threaten financial stability. Despite its systematic risk, the biodiversity and finance agenda
1172 remain underdeveloped due to gaps in appropriate regulation, data, methodologies, and
1173 understanding. The finance ecosystem includes not only traditional institutions (banks,
1174 insurers, asset managers), central banks, multilateral development banks, accounting firms, and
1175 regulators, but also the growing FinTech sector. While regulators are beginning to address
1176 systemic risks, such as biodiversity loss, there is an urgency to understand how future
1177 biodiversity decline will impact businesses and how these risks may be priced.⁴⁰²

1178 A GBI financial barrier is securing public and/or private financing.⁴⁰⁸ There is also a vast
1179 global disparity between public (86%) and private financing (14%).⁴⁰³ Private investors are
1180 crucial in tackling GBI-related sustainability challenges.⁴⁰⁹ Comparing cost-benefits with
1181 traditional solutions remains difficult, and limited awareness of GBI financial benefits restricts

1182 funding. A clear understanding of valuation and risk mitigation is crucial. The biodiversity
1183 funding gap is estimated at \$722 billion - \$967 billion.⁴¹⁰ Compared to climate change finance,
1184 the biodiversity and finance agenda is underdeveloped, though key opportunities have been
1185 identified by UN and WWF TNFD and the WEF Future of Nature and Business Report.^{405,411}

1186 Technological innovation, especially AI, is transforming finance and has enormous potential
1187 to improve the objectivity of ESG, primarily for communication with regulators and
1188 investors.⁴¹² Alternative data, such as earth observation (EO) and satellite tracking, are
1189 accelerating AI adoption. Finance companies purchase vast quantities of financial and
1190 alternative data so that their funds can maximise performance. Managing this data is complex
1191 due to balancing manager performance, data proliferation, and sustainable financial modelling.
1192 There is also a lack of consensus on ESG measurement. Without better ESG metrics,
1193 biodiversity loss estimates, GBI, and related impacts risk being inaccurate, widening the gap
1194 between projected and actual financial losses. There needs to be more resilient and consistent
1195 ESG standards, especially with the new International Sustainability Standards Board. The
1196 application of satellite/EO data and state of the art AI-models (e.g., computer vision, generative
1197 AI, foundation models) is enhancing environmental monitoring. Improved monitoring enables
1198 stakeholders to access more precise ESG metrics, supporting resilient GBI valuation models
1199 and better risk management.

1200 Debt capital markets are becoming an increasingly popular source to fund GBI solutions.
1201 The debt-for-nature swap reduces a country's debt burden while allocating funds for
1202 conservation.^{413,414} In this mechanism, a country repurchases its debt at a discount and issues
1203 new debt on improved terms, using proceeds for environmental projects.^{413,414} Originating in
1204 1987, the swap has gained traction in large-scale projects in Ecuador (2023), Gabon (2023),
1205 Barbados (2022), Belize (2021), and Seychelles (2015/2017).

1206 Green bonds offer a potential solution to GBI issues, with proceeds tied to climate and
1207 environmental projects (e.g., green buildings, renewable energy).^{415,416} The European
1208 Investment Bank in 2007 issued the first green bond for financing renewable energy efficiency
1209 projects.⁴¹⁶ Green bonds signal credible commitment through third-party certification and
1210 reputational risk for non-compliance.⁴¹⁶ Investors typically respond positively to green bond
1211 announcements.⁴¹⁵

1212 Blue bonds, aimed at sustainable ocean economies, require careful analysis of ecological
1213 impact. However, before issuing blue bonds, issuers and investors need to make sure they can
1214 synthesise the environmental and social impact on the ocean and marine ecosystems. In 2021,

1215 Credit Suisse arranged \$364 million in blue bonds in Belize, funding coastal protection and
1216 cutting debt by 12% of GDP.⁴¹⁷

1217 Financial solutions are pivotal in supporting GBI.⁴¹⁸ Capital access and risk mitigation need
1218 to be prioritised. By 2030, a nature-based transition could produce US\$10 trillion in business
1219 and generate 395 million jobs by 2030.⁴¹⁹ Achieving this requires scaling investment to \$536
1220 billion annually by 2050.⁴⁰³ A strong financial ecosystem (Figure S10), is essential.
1221 Sustainability aligns finance with Net Zero, while addressing inequality and inclusion.
1222 *Explainability* ensures systems behave as expected and builds transparent, trusted evidence for
1223 stakeholders. If the financial solutions are trustworthy, this will inspire confidence in
1224 individuals and organisations. Finally, resilient financial solutions must anticipate risks and
1225 support informed, adaptive decisions.

1226 **Challenges in recognising GBI as assets**

1227 Although the economic value of GBI can be quantified by comparing the benefits against
1228 costs,⁴²⁰ integrating GBI into policy priorities remains challenging. A key obstacle is that
1229 policymakers, planners, and local governments' asset managers often treat GBI as a liability
1230 rather than a formal asset. For example, while one study estimated a major London park's true
1231 value at £108 million, many councils still record parks at a nominal £1.⁴²¹

1232 Current accounting standards in the U.S. and Australia fail to recognise the natural
1233 components of GBI (e.g., trees, soil, vegetation, and water) as formal assets. Under U.S.
1234 financial rules, only human-engineered GBI (e.g., constructed stormwater systems) qualifies
1235 as an asset, while living systems are effectively assigned zero value despite their proven
1236 environmental, social, and health benefits.⁴²² This artificial divide overlooks the hybrid nature
1237 of GBI: for example, parks combine built infrastructures (playgrounds, pipes) with ecological
1238 features (wetlands, trees),⁴⁸ yet accounting practices capture only the former. Further, actuarial
1239 practices recognise risks like tree-related property damage, while ignoring benefits such as
1240 flood mitigation.⁴²³

1241 The Australian Accounting Standards Board⁴²⁴ classifies plants as assets only if they are
1242 agricultural or bearing crops, valuing them solely by acquisition cost. Water and non-
1243 commercial vegetation - even when critical for carbon sequestration - are excluded. Remote
1244 sensing and modelling advancements have improved carbon stock quantification, yet
1245 frameworks such as the National Carbon Accounting System focus narrowly on emissions
1246 rather than asset valuation.⁴²⁵

1247 Globally, GBI's asset recognition remains inconsistent. While the UK integrates GBI into
1248 planning policies, challenges persist, such as undervaluing GBI components (e.g., Sustainable
1249 Drainage Systems) and gaps in performance metrics.^{44,426} Meanwhile, private developers
1250 exploit the market appeal of green proximity without contributing to GBI upkeep - highlighting
1251 a disconnect between perceived value and institutional accounting.⁴²⁷

1252 A core barrier to GBI investment lies in its exclusion from institutional asset frameworks.
1253 Local governments, which hold the property rights and are chiefly responsible for managing
1254 urban GBIs, face significant budgetary and regulatory constraints because GBI rarely generates
1255 direct revenue under current accounting standards. The lack of formal recognition of GBI as
1256 assets in local accounting rules means that access to innovative financing (e.g., loans backed
1257 by tangible revenue streams) is limited.

1258 The demonstrable benefits of GBI demand institutional realignment and formal recognition.
1259 Over a decade ago, Barbier⁴²⁸ advocated for ecosystems such as wetlands to be valued as
1260 natural assets, given their provision of goods, services, and cultural benefits. Echoing this,
1261 Vardon et al.⁴²⁹ called for governments to prioritise natural capital by integrating environmental
1262 accounting into core decision-making, bridging economic and ecological data.

1263 Notable advancements are being made. Roghani et al.⁴³⁰ argued that GBI performance must
1264 be evaluated holistically - balancing costs against all primary and secondary benefits, aligning
1265 with ISO 55000's asset management principles.⁴³¹ Practical initiatives, like EU's Natural
1266 Capital Accounting initiative, the IPWEA's guidance for Australian local governments,⁴³² and
1267 System of Environmental Economic accounting (SEEA), Ecosystem Accounting⁴³³ are
1268 advancing standardised assessment methods for GBI.

1269 Market-based mechanisms offer further promise. Carbon markets exemplify how public-
1270 private investment can monetise environmental assets, creating revenue streams for loans and
1271 reinvestment.⁴³⁴ Emerging markets for biodiversity or water-quality credits - though currently
1272 underdeveloped - could follow a similar path. Initiatives such as Australia's Nature Repair
1273 Market signal progress.⁴³⁵ By credibly monetising co-benefits through market mechanisms,
1274 GBI can shift from being undervalued ecological infrastructure to recognised financial assets.
1275 This shift could unlock mainstream investment, empower local governments to act as
1276 accredited sellers, and establish sustainable revenue streams that justify GBI's formal inclusion
1277 in institutional accounting frameworks, enabling access to innovative financing for GBI
1278 managers.

1279 Despite its proven environmental, social, and economic benefits, GBI remains
1280 systematically undervalued in policy and practice. Institutional frameworks in many countries
1281 - constrained by rigid accounting standards - continue to classify GBI as liability rather than an
1282 asset, with only its human-engineered components meeting traditional asset criteria. To address
1283 this imbalance, GBI must be redefined as natural capital assets, supported by valuation
1284 frameworks that holistically account for both costs and multifunctional benefits. Emerging
1285 approaches, such as ISO 55000-aligned asset management, Environmental-Economic
1286 Accounting (EEA), nature-positive markets, and hybrid green-grey designs, demonstrate viable
1287 pathways to institutionalise GBI's value. Critical steps include revising accounting standards
1288 to recognise ecological assets and the benefits they provide, developing tools to quantify GBI
1289 performance across environmental, economic, and social dimensions, and leveraging carbon
1290 and biodiversity credits to monetise ecosystem services. The urgency of climate adaptation and
1291 biodiversity loss demands that cities treat GBI as foundational infrastructure, not an optional
1292 amenity.

1293 **Lack of comprehensive cost-benefit analysis (CBA)**

1294 CBA is commonly employed to assess the economic viability of any GBI intervention before
1295 making investment and implementation decisions.⁴³⁶ It translates ecological values into
1296 financial metrics and may shape GBI innovation.^{437,438} Lacking comprehensive CBA
1297 understates GBI sustainability and effectiveness.⁴³⁶ Traditional CBAs overlook indirect
1298 benefits and externalities in GBI,^{436,439,440} leading to underinvestment.^{439,441}

1299 Methodological gaps present significant challenges in GBI evaluation. The difficulty in
1300 monetising intangible benefits (ecological and social values) hinders the full cost benefit
1301 analysis.^{442,443} Specifically, comprehensive CBA of cultural heritage, biodiversity, equity and
1302 well-being remains challenging in terms of putting monetary values of such services,⁴⁴²⁻⁴⁴⁵
1303 while benefits like stormwater control and energy savings from green roofs are more
1304 straightforward to quantify.⁴⁴³ GBI benefits with direct or indirect impacts on human health
1305 would class as intermediate complexity to value in monetary terms, but are increasingly
1306 included for regulating ES functions that GBI provide, such as air pollution removal,^{446,447}
1307 cooling,^{358,448} and noise mitigation.¹³² The absence of adequate valuation techniques and
1308 inconsistent methodologies⁴⁴⁰ further complicates full-scale assessments of GBI's ecosystem
1309 functions.

1310 Economic barriers also impede GBI implementation. High upfront costs and uncertain
1311 returns discourage stakeholder investment.⁴⁴⁹ Studies show that green roofs, water squares, and
1312 other GBI often fail to achieve favourable benefit-cost ratios (BCRs) within typical 30-year
1313 project spans, losing investor and policymaker interest.^{440,450} Green roofs, in particular, are
1314 economically viable only with subsidies due to high construction and maintenance costs, often
1315 yielding zero or negative Net Present Value (NPV).⁴⁵¹ Even if savings from avoided may not
1316 offset the high initial costs when other co-benefits are excluded.⁴⁵²

1317 Contextual variability poses additional analytical challenges in CBA of GBI. Data scarcity
1318 and variations by geography, neighbourhood, or GBI type complicate analysis due to benefits'
1319 dynamic spatial and temporal variability (Figure 5A).^{440,453,454} CBAs are sensitive to
1320 uncertainties, model assumptions, and data availability,⁴⁵³ especially for impacts like mental
1321 well-being or noise reduction.^{443,455} Context-specific performance variability⁴⁵⁶ and poor
1322 empirical evidence⁴³⁷ further limit comprehensive evaluation of GBI's values and services.

1323 These methodological and contextual gaps demonstrate the need to institutionalise CBA in
1324 GBI planning. Undervalued intangible benefits suggest less recognition of ES and social
1325 cohesion as GBI.^{444,457} The insufficient consideration of improved air and water quality,
1326 biodiversity, ecosystem resilience, noise reduction, and increased property values⁴³⁷ results in
1327 underestimation of GBI's total value, deterring further investments.⁴⁵⁸ Table 4 summarises case
1328 studies highlighting these challenges, revealing persistent gaps in CBA that hinder GBI
1329 implementation, along with key recommendations to overcome these challenges.

1330 Integrated strategies can address challenges and promote wider GBI investment (Figure 5B).
1331 Real-world case studies as proxies, such as value changes and insurance data, help quantify the
1332 benefits of urban greening and flood mitigation.^{459,460} These approaches reduce uncertainty and
1333 help build more inclusive valuation frameworks. Studies suggest the need for long-term,
1334 context-specific data (e.g., real estate, insurance, and hospital records) to assess flood and
1335 health benefits.⁴⁶¹ Incorporating local case studies and stakeholder input improves data
1336 relevance and reflects real-world conditions.^{438,462} Financial concerns, particularly high upfront
1337 costs and uncertain return of investment (ROI), can be mitigated by integrating co-benefits
1338 comprehensively through life-cycle assessments and offering targeted incentives, such as tax
1339 relief or subsidies.²⁰⁸ Similarly, institutionalising CBA by integrating the CBA framework into
1340 the planning processes could result in a fair and comprehensive manner of evaluating NbS.⁴⁴⁰
1341 Improved modelling approaches, which are better able to capture context-specific GBI
1342 performance, coupled with health assessments and economic valuation of the associated

1343 benefits, could address some of the valuation challenges,⁴⁴⁷ but are still underutilised and not
1344 fully standardised. For instance, a comprehensive CBA of street trees in Adelaide, Australia
1345 demonstrated a 1.6 benefit-to-cost ratio across various neighbourhoods, providing valuable
1346 evidence to support urban greening policies.⁴⁶³

1347 While CBA holds potential to guide innovation and investment in GBI, its current
1348 application remains limited and incomplete. To account for the whole economic profitability
1349 of GBI, a standard CBA method must be developed incorporating more inclusive, transparent,
1350 and context-aware tools that can capture the full spectrum of ecological, social, and economic
1351 values, ensuring that NbS are not just observed but valued and implemented for their full
1352 economic potential.

1353 **GOVERNANCE/POLICY BARRIERS**

1354 This section identifies four barriers to GBI implementation: land scarcity and urban sprawl,
1355 urban design limitations, unclear GBI policies, and the disconnect with walkability.
1356 Governance frameworks are essential for scaling and sustaining GBI, yet progress is hindered
1357 by fragmented legislation, weak political support, and outdated planning practices. Figure 6
1358 presents the barriers in a layered format, linking each to broader governance shortcomings and
1359 corresponding strategies—ranging from spatial planning improvements to enhanced
1360 coordination. Challenges and corresponding solutions are explored in the subsections and
1361 summarised in Table 3, and summary of discussed case studies in Table S1.

1362 **Land scarcity and urban sprawl**

1363 Land scarcity and urban sprawl present interconnected challenges for implementing GBI in
1364 cities. Intense competition among residential, commercial, and infrastructural uses in dense
1365 urban areas makes space for GBI financially and spatially limited.^{464,465} This constraint is
1366 especially acute in rapidly growing metropolises like São Paulo, where new GBI creation can
1367 be considerably limited by land use disputes.⁴⁶⁶ Rising land values further restrict the feasibility
1368 of large-scale GBI projects, as development priorities favour profit-driven densification over
1369 public benefit.^{467,468} Simultaneously, urban sprawl, characterised by low-density expansion
1370 consumes peri-urban lands that could otherwise host greenbelts or ecological corridors. It
1371 fragments natural ecosystems, reduces biodiversity, and increases car dependency and
1372 emissions.^{464,469,470} Bucharest exemplifies how unchecked sprawl directly converts natural land
1373 and disrupts ecological continuity, while also inflating the cost of sustainable infrastructure,

1374 leading to reliance on traditional grey systems instead of integrated approaches like Water-
1375 Sensitive Urban Design.^{464,471,472}

1376 Both challenges contribute to fragmented, underperforming green networks. In dense cities,
1377 limited space constrains the dimensions and connectivity of parks and ecological corridors,
1378 while making retrofitting technically and financially challenging.^{473,474} In sprawled areas,
1379 although land may be more abundant, GBI is often poorly maintained, spatially isolated, or
1380 inaccessible diminishing its ability of GBI to deliver critical ES, such as flood and noise
1381 mitigation and recreational opportunities.

1382 To effectively address these constraints, cities must adopt space-efficient solutions and
1383 strategic approaches. Microscale interventions such as green walls and roofs, can be
1384 incorporated into existing buildings^{4,5} without requiring additional land⁴⁷⁵⁻⁴⁷⁹, while supporting
1385 multiple functions including heat mitigation, biodiversity, reduction of energy use and air and
1386 noise pollution.⁴⁸⁰⁻⁴⁸² Similarly, permeable surfaces help water infiltration, reducing
1387 stormwater runoff, and recharging groundwater.⁴⁸³ Street trees and pocket parks maximise
1388 urban space, providing shade, cooling, and green areas that prevent the UHI effect.⁴⁸⁴⁻⁴⁸⁶ By
1389 strategically integrating these GBI elements into existing urban fabric, cities can achieve
1390 sustainability benefits without contributing to further sprawl,⁴⁸⁷⁻⁴⁸⁹ though regular maintenance
1391 is essential for maintaining effectiveness.

1392 **Urban design barriers**

1393 GBI faces distinct challenges across technical, economic, social, and policy dimensions.
1394 These include: (1) Technical integration challenges: balancing architectural demands and costs
1395 with ecological needs, particularly in innovative solutions such as rooftop greening; (2)
1396 Functional conflicts: competition between ecological benefits and practical functionality in
1397 limited urban space; (3) Multi-scale coordination challenges: fragmentation of regional
1398 ecological networks by property divisions; (4) Design maintenance disconnect: insufficient
1399 consideration of maintenance requirements, leading to functional degradation and becoming
1400 "one-time projects"; (5) Policy and technological inertia: traditional frameworks and
1401 established technical configurations that resist innovation and cross-sectoral collaboration
1402 (Table 5).

1403 While expanding GBI areas can help reduce temperatures,⁴⁹⁰ high building coverage in high-
1404 density urban areas often limits its implementation.⁴⁹¹ Additionally, urban expansion's
1405 encroachment on natural GBI poses a severe problem.⁴⁹² Against this backdrop, there is a need
1406 to combine multifunctionality and regional coordination for GBI deployment,⁴⁹³ requiring a

1407 paradigm shift from traditional design approaches to an ecological framework. Traditional
1408 planning models are strictly based on land-use classifications (residential, industrial, or
1409 commercial) and rarely consider whether land is suitable for specific functions or its
1410 consistency within a broader territorial context.^{243,494}

1411 Given GBI's critical role in ecological service systems, connectivity and multifunctionality
1412 have become core design principles.⁴⁹⁵ However, current GBI development and design research
1413 remains fragmented, focusing on micro-scale elements such as street trees,^{496,497} community
1414 green spaces,⁴⁹⁸ or city-level tree canopy coverage,⁴⁹⁹ with limited consideration of multi-scale
1415 connectivity. Furthermore, while many studies aim to enhance GBI's potential through
1416 lifecycle risk assessment models⁵⁰⁰ and CBA^{501,502}, lifecycle aspects such as maintenance are
1417 often overlooked during actual design and implementation.

1418 Current policies and technical preferences prioritise conventional engineered solutions,⁵⁰³
1419 while established technical configurations have become institutionalised and rigid over time,⁵⁰⁴
1420 further influencing decision-making by urban designers and policymakers to favour entrenched
1421 methods.³⁴⁴ Insufficient cross-sectoral coordination and inadequate public participation
1422 mechanisms further constrain GBI implementation. However, studies show that integrated
1423 planning approaches combining technical solutions with community co-governance are
1424 gradually improving feasibility.^{505,506} While many cities recognise GBI's importance in local
1425 regulations, developers are often unaware of these guidelines, particularly in LMICs.⁵⁰⁷ For
1426 example, Ekostaden Augustenborg in Malmö, Sweden, transformed a declining 1950s housing
1427 district through integrated redevelopment that combined nature-based stormwater systems and
1428 green roofs with community co-design and governance.⁵⁰⁸

1429 Integrating GBI into urban design requires a holistic approach that reimagines space,
1430 technology and governance (Table 5). Spatial constraints can be addressed through three-
1431 dimensional design,^{509,510} such as optimising structural load distribution while incorporating
1432 hydroponic or modular planters to reduce heat islands and improve air quality.^{511,512} Rooftop
1433 agriculture can be designed using lightweight substrates and automated irrigation systems to
1434 maximise productivity without compromising building integrity.⁵¹³ Functional compatibility
1435 demands synergistic design, where permeable pavements are paired with underground
1436 retention systems to manage peak flows and prevent flooding, while bio-retention facilities
1437 replace conventional drainage channels to enhance biodiversity and water quality.⁵¹⁴ Multi-
1438 scale coordination relies on GIS-driven planning tools to map ecological corridors and align
1439 regional networks with site-specific development, ensuring seamless integration across urban

1440 scales.⁵¹⁵ Maintenance challenges are mitigated through low-maintenance technologies, such
1441 as drought-resistant plant communities and modular, easily replaceable components, while
1442 community-based stewardship programs foster accountability and long-term sustainability.
1443 Policy frameworks must evolve to incentivise GBI through tax abatements and regulatory
1444 updates, while interdisciplinary collaboration ensures that ecological, social, and economic
1445 objectives are balanced.⁵¹⁶ By embedding resilience thinking into design, GBI transitions from
1446 an ancillary feature to a foundational element of urban systems, creating adaptive, equitable,
1447 and ecologically functional cities.

1448 In order to overcome the challenges of GBI in urban design, it is necessary to take
1449 multidimensional measures.²²⁹ The use of data-driven design and cross-disciplinary
1450 technological integration is crucial,⁵⁰⁵ while also focussing on policy innovation and
1451 institutional safeguards. Establishing specialised agencies and cross-departmental cooperation
1452 mechanisms can help strengthen supervision and reform. In terms of talent cultivation, both
1453 cross-disciplinary talent training and vocational staff training can enhance the professional
1454 quality and the collaborative abilities of relevant personnel. Comprehensive participation
1455 mechanisms and capacity-building and education programs can be used to engage community
1456 residents.⁵¹⁶ By implementing these structural and institutional approaches in conjunction with
1457 practical technical measures, GBI can be transformed into a core framework for urban resilient
1458 development, ultimately promoting sustainable urban transformation.

1459 **Lack of clear GBI implementation policies**

1460 The lack of clear policies for GBI implementation is a widely discussed barrier in the
1461 literature and generally exhibits a high degree of transversality, inherent to the nature of
1462 policymaking itself. This barrier does not always appear in the scientific literature as a topic
1463 with clearly defined boundaries. Rather, it can be addressed as an institutional and governance
1464 barrier,⁵¹ encompassing critical themes such as leadership, strategic vision, political
1465 commitment, inter-agency cooperation, legislative frameworks, environmental policies, and
1466 conflicting policy actions. Alternatively, it may be framed within a broader socio-political
1467 understanding of barriers, capturing intrinsic societal elements that ultimately shape the
1468 reluctant behavioural patterns of policymakers in the grey-green transition.⁵¹⁷ Within this
1469 socio-political perspective, the lack of clear GBI policies appears even more transversal,
1470 expanding to include additional factors, such as negative experiences, responsibility, capacity,
1471 knowledge, organisational culture, financial constraints, administrative bureaucracy, lack of

1472 clear standards and guidelines, and resistance to change.⁵¹⁸⁻⁵²¹ Considering the broad scope of
1473 this barrier, its challenges will be grouped into five key topics: leadership, tradition, legislation,
1474 knowledge and priority conflicts.

1475 The lack of leadership, clear vision, and political will constitutes a major barrier to the
1476 implementation of GBI, particularly at lower levels of public administration where GBI is often
1477 absent from urban planning agendas.^{125,522,523} Weak leadership is further reflected in
1478 institutional fragmentation, ineffective communication, lack of commitment, ambiguous role
1479 definitions, and the isolation of managers across different sectors.^{354,523,524} Without a long-term
1480 vision, managers are unlikely to support initiatives whose results extend beyond their
1481 administrative term.

1482 Economic interests historically associated with grey infrastructure valued for its visual
1483 prominence, perceived contribution to economic growth, and potential for job creation continue
1484 to pose a significant political barrier to the adoption of GBI.⁵¹⁷ Since GBI projects mature
1485 slowly and lack immediate electoral visibility, they are less politically attractive.^{517,525}

1486 The absence of specific legislation and interjurisdictional authority limits GBI
1487 implementation.^{51,517,519,526} Environmental challenges that cross administrative boundaries
1488 demand federal regulation. Current legal frameworks often mandate conventional materials,
1489 reinforcing grey infrastructure solutions.^{51,527} The limited integration of scientific knowledge
1490 into policymaking often results in unrealistic expectations for GBI projects. Climate change
1491 and urban environmental shifts are often inadequately considered, reducing GBI efficiency and
1492 adoption continuity.^{517,524} Gaps in understanding the societal benefits of GBI and inadequate
1493 training, particularly in engineering fields, exacerbate the problem.

1494 Limited financial resources, especially in LMICs, hinder GBI policy development, as these
1495 initiatives often struggle to compete with grey infrastructure in CBAs.^{51,354,517} Without public
1496 recognition of GBI's value, political pressure is minimal, perpetuating a cycle of invisibility
1497 and exclusion from the political agenda.

1498 Overcoming the challenges to GBI implementation policies requires addressing two
1499 fundamental and interdependent aspects. First, the transition from grey to green infrastructure
1500 will be slow and gradual, demanding continuous relearning by academics, politicians, and
1501 managers. As this transformation unfolds over a longer timescale than electoral cycles, strong
1502 and comprehensive environmental policies across all levels of public administration are
1503 essential.⁵²⁸ Over time, as the benefits of GBI become better valued, political and economic
1504 interests traditionally tied to grey infrastructure are expected to shift toward greener

1505 solutions.⁵²⁹ Melbourne's long-running Grey to Green initiative is a striking example of a slow,
1506 strategic shift from grey to GI, supported by enduring policy frameworks across local
1507 government.⁵³⁰

1508 Second, human resource training and knowledge production are critical.^{531,532} GBI solutions
1509 are relatively new compared to conventional structures and remain unfamiliar to many
1510 managers and technicians. Professionals trained under traditional urban engineering paradigms
1511 often resist innovative, systemic approaches and lack technical training, didactic guides,
1512 regulatory support, and confidence in GBI models. To enable the grey-to-green transition,
1513 curricular reforms are necessary to equip future professionals with the skills needed to
1514 implement GBI solutions.^{533,534}

1515 The effective implementation of GBI is hampered by the lack of clear, cohesive policies,
1516 rooted in both governance challenges and broader socio-political dynamics. Key obstacles
1517 include inadequate leadership, vision, and political will; economic interests favouring grey
1518 infrastructure; outdated legislation and fragmented regulatory authority; and poor integration
1519 of scientific knowledge into policy making. Financial constraints and competing priorities,
1520 especially in LMICs, further marginalised GBI, creating a cycle of invisibility due to limited
1521 public demand. Overcoming these barriers requires strengthening leadership, reforming
1522 legislation, promoting knowledge dissemination, and increasing public awareness to establish
1523 GBI as a political and societal priority.

1524 **Conflicts in promoting GBI and walkability**

1525 Urban GBI is a multipurpose strategy to address urgent societal problems by offering ES
1526 that improve public health and quality of life and thus can increase walkability. However,
1527 despite these benefits, recent research has shown that GBI and walkability have been poorly
1528 integrated, revealing a paradox that demands deeper reflection on the barriers hindering their
1529 synergy.⁵³⁵ A multiscale approach is essential, combining urban design with social and
1530 environmental needs. Car-centric policies, grey solutions, prioritisation of conventional
1531 infrastructure investments, and "business as usual" planning need to be revisited to avoid
1532 obstructing integration. In addition, GBI projects must be developed from a multi-purpose
1533 perspective, including enhancing pedestrian attraction.

1534 Walkability contributes significantly to urban quality and public health,^{536,537} being defined
1535 as the effectiveness in promoting and facilitating walkways by ensuring comfort and safety,
1536 linking people to diverse destinations, and creating visually engaging routes.^{538,539} This

1537 relationship is exemplified by a study from Michigan, US, where walkability is associated with
1538 reduced obesity rates and improved mental health outcomes.⁵⁴⁰

1539 Features that support well-being relate to the provision of walkable, community, and
1540 vegetated areas, emphasising the importance of integrating urban planning, biodiversity and
1541 ES.⁵⁴¹ Thus, the production of CES arises from the interrelations between people and the
1542 landscape, with urban green areas understood as cohesive systems that offer comprehensive
1543 human experiences.^{48,542}

1544 Promoting walkability decreases sedentary behaviour and encourages physical activity,
1545 thereby reducing incidence of various health conditions such as obesity, diabetes, and
1546 anxiety.^{543,544} The pedestrian pathways quality depends on multiple aspects of the built
1547 environment, including sidewalk width, presence of trees, safety, mixed land use, active
1548 frontages, lighting, etc.^{539,545} Walkable areas tend to be less car-dependent, which leads to
1549 improved air quality, reduced noise, decreased urban heat, and an increased offer of many other
1550 ES. The implementation of GBI contributes to increasing urban greenery and can significantly
1551 improve walkability. In addition, these strategies support resilience.⁵⁴⁶⁻⁵⁴⁸

1552 However, despite multiple benefits, recent research indicates a poor correlation between GBI
1553 and walkability.^{535,549,550} Factors include car-oriented planning, the prioritisation of grey
1554 infrastructure, and land costs in denser areas. Engineering projects for drainage, heat islands,
1555 brownfield revitalisation, and green areas that prioritise conventional solutions are examples
1556 of barriers. Also, many walkability assessment indices do not properly incorporate solutions
1557 focused on GBI, overlooking broader benefits of a walkable environment.⁵³⁵ Finally, a lack of
1558 public participation and local contextualisation limit success.^{547,551}

1559 In terms of streetscape design, a diverse array of GBI strategies can be adopted, ranging from
1560 creating green corridors that provide shade and thermal comfort to technical solutions that
1561 absorb stormwater. For a more effective implementation, it is essential to consider multiple
1562 scales of walkability. Alignment between GBI and site potential at the macro-scale is necessary
1563 prior to micro-scale interventions, ensuring that impacts extend site-specific actions. In denser
1564 areas, promoting linear and pocket parks, or reappropriating smaller spaces such as parking
1565 spots, can create attractive areas for pedestrians, recognising that their long-term benefits
1566 outweigh the initial costs.⁵⁵²

1567 Spatial analysis tools, including GIS, can be used to identify vegetated spaces and evaluate
1568 their potential to provide ES.⁵⁵³ These areas can be transformed into pedestrian networks
1569 integrated with GBI,^{547,554} offering benefits such as improved air quality.^{5,45} Moreover, new

1570 methodologies for public policy making and engaging communities are necessary, particularly
1571 those addressing climate change and biodiversity in walkability initiatives.⁵⁵¹ In this context,
1572 GBI emerged as a strong ally, offering potential to mitigate and adapt the impacts of extreme
1573 weather while increasing biodiversity and other urban benefits.⁵⁵⁵

1574 By working across macro and micro scales, interventions can foster more walkable green
1575 spaces,²²⁹ enhancing public health and social interaction while also contributing to broader ES
1576 benefits such as enhancing habitats, reducing urban heat, improving air quality, mitigating
1577 floods, capturing rainwater, and promoting food production.

1578 Although GBI and walkability are often recognised as complementary components of
1579 sustainable urban development, their relationship is complex. The observed disconnection
1580 between greenness and walkability highlights the need to move beyond merely co-locating
1581 green spaces and pedestrian infrastructure (Figure 5C). Instead, a more integrated, multi-scalar
1582 approach is required, incorporating innovative analysis, policymaking, and active public
1583 participation. Further research is essential to deepen understanding and strengthen the
1584 synergies between GBI and walkability, ensuring that their combined potential can be
1585 implemented in future urban environments.

1586 **CONCLUSIONS AND RECCOMENDATIONS**

1587 This review presents a comprehensive cross-disciplinary synthesis of underexplored barriers
1588 and emerging challenges in GBI implementation within urban environments. By integrating
1589 previously fragmented perspectives from urban design, climate science, economics, and social
1590 equity research into a cohesive framework, the study bridges disparate knowledge domains and
1591 situates GBI within broader urban system dynamics to identify actionable strategies for
1592 resilient adoption.

1593 **Environmental barriers**

- 1594 ● Potential conflicts between solar energy production and GBI can be resolved through
1595 integrated planning approaches that harmonise climate resilience and carbon neutrality
1596 goals without sacrificing valuable urban landscapes.
- 1597 ● The fragmentation of GBI research into disciplinary silos prevents full realisation of its
1598 multifunctional benefits. Interdisciplinary studies integrating physical measurements with
1599 human adaptation factors are critical to properly capture GBI's multifunctionality in urban
1600 environments.

- 1601 ● Potential negative impacts of GBI, including effects on air quality, allergen production,
1602 greenhouse gas emissions, and water/soil dynamics, require thorough consideration during
1603 planning stages and continuous monitoring throughout implementation.
- 1604 ● Implementation requires careful consideration of interactions between building systems,
1605 ventilation, and climate management across local and wider urban scales to maximise co-
1606 benefits and prevent unintended consequences.
- 1607 ● Comprehensive assessment of GBI thermal resilience potential requires integrating
1608 physical temperature measurements with subjective human adaptation factors, leveraging
1609 technologies like remote sensing, digital-twins, and AI to improve heat risk mapping
1610 across demographics.
- 1611 ● Long-term GBI robustness requires science-based plant selection informed by ecological
1612 and evolutionary research on species' adaptability to harsh urban environments and
1613 changing climate conditions, creating low-maintenance, long-lived solutions.
- 1614 ● Multi-scalar environmental planning must align interventions across block,
1615 neighbourhood, watershed, and metropolitan scales, to overcome spatial mismatches
1616 between fragmented deployments and broader ecological processes.
- 1617 ● Urban BI requires context-sensitive restoration approaches that balance inherent risks
1618 (e.g., flooding and water-borne diseases) with potential benefits to urban character,
1619 ecosystem services, and community wellbeing.

1620 **Social barriers**

- 1621 ● Justice frameworks must be embedded throughout planning, design, and governance
1622 processes, acknowledging historic inequalities while ensuring inclusive approaches that
1623 prevent green gentrification and actively disrupt cycles of environmental marginalisation.
- 1624 ● Planning must incorporate traditional ecological knowledge and heritage values beyond
1625 tokenistic engagement, as interventions that resonate with community identity enhance
1626 both ecological performance and long-term stewardship of GBI.
- 1627 ● Successful implementation requires addressing social adoption barriers through genuine
1628 community engagement that aligns technical and ecological priorities with local values,
1629 reforming fragmented institutional structures, and ensuring equitable access.
- 1630 ● Safety concerns must be systematically addressed through integrated approaches
1631 combining CPTED principles, smart technologies, and community participation to ensure
1632 all residents feel secure and welcome.

1633 ● The tension between ecological functionality and conventional aesthetics can be addressed
1634 through design elements that signal human care, institutional reforms that value resilience
1635 over immediate visual appeal, and approaches that transform public understanding of
1636 "beautiful" landscapes.

1637 **Economic barriers**

1638 ● Scaling GBI investment requires developing innovative financing mechanisms (eco-
1639 bonds, conservation-linked debt) and leveraging new technologies for credible ESG
1640 metrics that attract private capital while properly valuing nature's contribution to economic
1641 prosperity.

1642 ● Recognising GBI's true value requires institutional realignment through standardised
1643 capital accounting frameworks like SEEA, performance-based asset management
1644 approaches aligned with ISO 55000, and credible market mechanisms that monetise ES.

1645 ● Implementation requires standardised cost-benefit methodologies incorporating real-world
1646 proxies, long-term case studies, and life-cycle assessments that capture previously
1647 overlooked intangible benefits, enabling decision-makers to quantify cultural, health, and
1648 biodiversity values despite high upfront costs.

1649 **Governance barriers**

1650 ● Urban land constraints can be addressed by maximising existing infrastructure through
1651 strategic integration of micro-scale interventions like green roofs, walls, permeable
1652 surfaces, and pocket parks that deliver multiple benefits without requiring land acquisition
1653 or contributing to further sprawl.

1654 ● Advancing GBI in urban design requires data-driven three-dimensional spatial design
1655 strategies, interdisciplinary integration of ecological and grey infrastructure, innovative
1656 policies, and active community engagement to elevate GBI from isolated interventions to
1657 a foundational element of resilient urban development.

1658 ● Implementation demands both strong environmental frameworks across governance levels
1659 and reformed educational curricula to equip professionals with systemic thinking skills
1660 that build resilience into urban governance structures and outlast electoral cycles.

1661 ● Bridging the GBI-walkability disconnect requires multiscale integration strategies that
1662 combining green corridor networks with streetscape interventions, supported by GIS-
1663 powered spatial analysis and inclusive governance mechanisms, to fragmented urban
1664 landscapes into interconnected systems.

1665 Twelve integrated recommendations derived from 21 barriers were developed. Each
1666 recommendation is mapped to its specific barrier(s) in the list below, with comprehensive
1667 linkage details provided in SI Table S13.

1668 ***Strengthen interdisciplinary collaboration to overcome siloed GBI approaches.*** Cross-
1669 sectoral cooperation among ecologists, planners, engineers, climate and air pollution scientists
1670 can shift focus from single-issue solutions to multifunctional strategies. Employing ecological
1671 production functions and ES frameworks enables holistic planning, enhancing biodiversity,
1672 mitigating urban heat, minimising air pollution and optimising energy usage in buildings
1673 (Sections “Siloisation in urban GBI studies” and “Conflict control among urban environmental
1674 challenges”). This recommendation is aimed at municipal policy makers and planners,
1675 fostering inter agency and cross sectoral collaboration.

1676 ***Prioritise science-driven species selection and adaptive design to minimise environmental***
1677 ***threats.*** For example, to avoid air quality disbenefits, selection of low-allergenic and insect-
1678 pollinated species using tools such as OPALS, can reduce respiratory health impacts in
1679 vulnerable groups with higher allergy susceptibility, while choosing plants with minimal
1680 bVOC emissions prevents secondary air pollution. Incorporating optimal canopy structures and
1681 staggered arrangements maintains street-level ventilation and prevents pollution trapping
1682 (Sections “Unintended consequences” and “Pathways to resilient GBI via plant adaptation”).
1683 This recommendation is directed at urban ecologists, planners, and public health professionals,
1684 encouraging species choice and adaptive design to reduce pollution and allergen risks.

1685 ***Harness microclimate modelling and AI for indoor-outdoor ventilation needs and GBI***
1686 ***design.*** To integrate GBI into urban ventilation strategies, there is a need for strengthening
1687 collaboration among planners, architects, ecologists, and health experts. Using urban
1688 microclimate models and integrating machine learning with GI mapping can help develop
1689 context-specific solutions that preserve airflow, protect HVAC inlets, and prevent heat and
1690 pollutant entrapment, while ensuring vegetation is spatially configured for maximum benefit
1691 (Sections “Urban ventilation” and “GBI trade-offs”). This recommendation highlights the role
1692 of urban planners and ecologists in applying microclimate modelling and AI for evidence-
1693 based airflow, heat regulation, and pollution management.

1694 ***Integrate thermal adaptation and vulnerability information into GBI planning.*** Shift the
1695 focus from generalised cooling benefits to nuanced human thermal adaptation, particularly for
1696 vulnerable populations. Remote sensing, digital twins, and heat exposure evaluation can
1697 identify urban overheating risks to develop targeted interventions that align with both

1698 physiological response patterns and microclimate (Sections “Thermal resilience” and
1699 “Environmental injustice and GBI decision making”). This recommendation calls on urban
1700 planners, public health agencies, and adaptation teams to embed vulnerability mapping into
1701 planning to better target interventions for sensitive populations.

1702 ***Integrate social dimensions explicitly into GBI research frameworks and performance***
1703 ***evaluation.*** Future studies should systematically incorporate metrics for social acceptance,
1704 cultural relevance, safety perception, and equity outcomes when assessing GBI effectiveness,
1705 moving beyond purely ecological or technical indicators (Sections “Cultural perspectives on
1706 GBI”, “Social adoption hindering implementation of GBI” and “Balancing climate adaptation
1707 and aesthetic goals in urban GBI”). This recommendation is aimed at urban researchers, social
1708 scientists, and local governments, embedding equity, cultural acceptance, and community
1709 priorities in GBI performance evaluation to embed equity, cultural and social acceptance.

1710 ***Promote cross-disciplinary collaboration to align GBI design with community realities.***
1711 GBI planning must co-develop ecological functions and social values by involving social
1712 scientists, community groups, and community knowledge holders during initial planning and
1713 design phases (Section “Social adoption hindering implementation of GBI” and “Safety and
1714 security barriers in GBI implementation”). This recommendation emphasises collaboration
1715 between planners, social scientists, local governments, and community groups to co-develop
1716 designs that balance ecological benefits with lived social values.

1717 ***Develop context-sensitive policies that balance ecological resilience, public safety, and***
1718 ***aesthetic expectations.*** Urban policies should guide GBI implementation to address real and
1719 perceived safety concerns, respect diverse cultural aesthetics, and ensure equitable access,
1720 avoiding one-size-fits-all greening solutions (Sections “Safety and security barriers in GBI
1721 implementation”, “Balancing climate adaptation and aesthetic goals in urban GBI” and “Land
1722 scarcity and urban sprawl”). This recommendation is directed at landscape architects and urban
1723 designers, ensuring the balance between ecological function and aesthetics to guide GBI
1724 implementation to align with aesthetics and equity.

1725 ***Strengthen financial ecosystem through standardised ESG metrics and monitoring.***
1726 Prioritise the development and global adoption of resilient, standardised ESG metrics and risk
1727 valuation frameworks, leveraging emerging technologies such as AI, earth observation, and
1728 satellite data. Reliable and comparable data will strengthen GBI valuation, support better risk
1729 assessment, and attract sustainable investments (Sections “Financial barriers to GBI
1730 implementation” and “Challenges in recognising GBI as assets”). This recommendation calls

1731 on investors, financial institutions, and local governments to adopt robust and standardised
1732 ESG metrics, providing reliable data for valuation, risk assessment, and sustainable investment.

1733 ***Scale innovative financing mechanisms for GBI deployment.*** Expand the use of green/blue
1734 bonds, and debt-for-nature swaps by creating clear, accessible frameworks for environmental
1735 and social impact evaluation. Third-party certifications and structured de-risking mechanisms
1736 will help build investor confidence and close the biodiversity financing gap (Sections “Lack of
1737 comprehensive cost-benefit analysis” and “Conflicts in promoting GBI and walkability”). This
1738 recommendation urges financial institutions and developers to expand access to GBI through
1739 frameworks that evaluate and communicate environmental and social impacts.

1740 ***Align financial regulation and incentives with biodiversity and natural capital goals.***
1741 Incorporate ecological risks into finance regulations and monetary and fiscal policies. Coupled
1742 with incentives such as tax benefits and blended finance models, this will encourage larger and
1743 more stable investments in GBI (Section “Financial barriers to GBI implementation”,
1744 “Challenges in recognising GBI as assets” and “Lack of comprehensive cost-benefit analysis”).
1745 This recommendation highlights the need for policymakers, local governments, and investors
1746 to align fiscal and regulatory instruments with biodiversity protection and natural capital
1747 objectives.

1748 ***Prioritise micro-scale, three-dimensional GBI to optimise urban land use.*** Support micro-
1749 scale, three-dimensional GBI, including rooftop greenery, vertical gardens, and pocket parks
1750 promote ecological diversity and liveability in space-constrained urban areas. Ensure
1751 integration into city sustainability plans with long-term maintenance strategies (Section “Land
1752 scarcity and urban sprawl”). This recommendation is aimed at urban planners, architects, and
1753 developers, promoting compact 3D solutions such as green roofs, vertical gardens, and pocket
1754 parks.

1755 ***Embed GBI in urban planning through adaptive governance and policy incentives.***
1756 Position GBI as a core element of urban planning rather than a supplementary feature.
1757 Implement integrated spatial planning and foster collaboration across sectors and disciplines.
1758 Adopt adaptive governance structures that offer clear incentives for ecological design. Ensure
1759 GBI aligns with economic, social, and environmental objectives to support resilient, inclusive
1760 cities (Section “Urban design barriers”, “Lack of clear GBI implementation policies” and
1761 “Conflicts in promoting GBI and walkability”). This recommendation emphasises the role of
1762 local governments, policymakers, and planners in embedding GBI as core infrastructure

1763 through adaptive governance and policy frameworks that integrate economic, social, and
1764 environmental priorities.

1765 This synthesised framework advances GBI implementation by connecting theory with
1766 practice, enabling a shift from standardised contextually responsive models that reflect local
1767 conditions across environmental, social, economic, and governance dimensions.
1768 Interdisciplinary collaboration is essential to align diverse stakeholder priorities, supported by
1769 long-term monitoring to assess performance and trade-offs. Adaptive governance must reflect
1770 complex urban dynamics. The future of GBI lies in science-driven, justice-oriented approaches,
1771 transitioning from isolated, aesthetic interventions to multifunctional, context-sensitive
1772 systems. As climate pressures grow, integration with PVs and data-driven monitoring will
1773 enhance energy resilience and urban cooling. Equity, inclusion, and participatory governance
1774 must underpin implementation, while embedding natural capital in policy and finance is key to
1775 scaling investment and achieving climate-resilient, inclusive urban futures.

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1833 **DECLARATION OF INTERESTS**

1834 The authors declare no competing interests.

1835 **SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION**

1836 It can be found online at <https://doi.org/XXXXX>.

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3593 **List of Figures Captions**

3594 **Figure 1.** The topic areas covered in this review demonstrate a sustainability framework
3595 encompassing environmental, social, economic, and governance barriers hindering GBI
3596 implementation.

3597 **Figure 2.** Contrasting potential outcomes of GBI at streets and household scale in an urban
3598 setting: unintended negative effects (left, red font) versus positive environmental benefits from
3599 strategic implementation (right, green font).

3600 **Figure 3.** Five less discussed social barriers that hinder effective urban GBI implementation.
3601 These barriers include environmental injustice, cultural disconnect, social adoption challenges,
3602 safety concerns, and aesthetic conflicts. Without inclusive and adaptive planning, they can
3603 undermine long-term GBI outcomes.

3604 **Figure 4.** Schematic representation of the six financial challenges obstructing urban GBI
3605 implementation. The illustration highlights how deeply embedded financial barriers can
3606 silently inhibit the growth and success of GBI initiatives. These barriers are further explored in
3607 the relevant sections of this review, where their origins, implications, and context-specific
3608 dynamics are discussed in detail.

3609 **Figure 5.** (A) Each numbered icon in this figure illustrates the core challenges in CBA that
3610 hinder the GBI implementation; (B) Targeted strategies, each linked to one or more of the
3611 challenges listed in (A), that help overcome CBA challenges in GBI implementation and drive
3612 more informed, fair investment decisions (Section “Lack of comprehensive cost-benefit
3613 analysis”); and (C) Barriers, potentials and benefits of integrating GBI and walkability
3614 strategies in urban design (Section “Conflicts in promoting GBI and walkability”).

3615 **Figure 6.** Governance and policy barriers to GBI implementation and corresponding solutions.
3616 Each pillar highlights a critical challenge - land scarcity and urban sprawl, urban design
3617 limitations, unclear policies, and disconnect with walkability - alongside strategic interventions
3618 required to overcome each barrier.

Table 1. Summary of key relevant review papers from the past decade on GBI research.

Author (year)	Key focus area of review	What was covered
Wang et al. ⁵⁵⁶	Understanding ecosystem services provided by urban GBI, using a bibliometric analysis to map research trends and knowledge clusters.	Identified major themes such as air quality improvement, biodiversity support, urban cooling, water management, and soil functions.
Zarei and Shahab ⁵⁵⁷	Identifying the success factors and implementation challenges of NbS in GI, and categorised barriers across institutional, social, economic, and technical dimensions	Classified 21 underexplored barriers (e.g., governance gaps, cultural resistance, undervaluation of biodiversity, and financing limitations) from over 500 studies.
Chau et al. ⁵⁵⁸	Understanding the barriers and challenges to implementing GI, with particular insights from Melbourne's urban policy and planning context.	Recognised obstacles such as fragmented governance, insufficient funding, lack of technical expertise, and limited political prioritisation.
Seidu et al. ⁵⁵⁹	Understanding the integration of green and grey infrastructure systems in dense urban regions	Presented institutional, technical, financial, and governance challenges, such as a lack of professional capacity, and outlined effective guidelines, including adopting hybrid design approaches and leveraging digital tool.
Kim and Kim ⁵⁶⁰	Understanding the evolution of research on GI for urban flooding	Highlighted technical hydrological performance studies toward socio-ecological frameworks, hybrid blue-green-grey systems, and multi-disciplinary approaches to GI for flood resilience.
Tao et al. ⁵⁶¹	Integration of Computational Fluid Dynamics and Machine Learning for urban GI	Examined role of integrated computational fluid dynamics-machine learning approaches for urban GI design, specifically heat mitigation and air quality improvement.
Dobrinić et al. ²⁹	Use of computational learning for GI mapping optimisation	Reviewed various techniques of deep learning for GI mapping used in sustainable urban development.
Kumar et al. ⁵¹⁶	Barriers, significances, successful case studies and greening initiatives opportunities in urban settings	Emphasized the need for a holistic, inclusive, and cross-sectoral collaboration combined with a forward-looking approach to urban greening to build cities that are more resilient, sustainable, and equitable.
Li et al. ³⁰	Environmental justice in NbS implementation	Identified key challenges and offered recommendations for NbS uses in managing UHI, flooding, wildfire, COVID-19 and air pollution.
Muñoz and Silva ³¹	Urban planning tools to expand GI in public spaces	Analysed 126 global strategies leveraging GI to address extreme climate change events.
Sobhaninia et al. ²⁸	Optimal location of GI to mitigate UHI and manage stormwater	Assessed 8 GI types, integrating environmental, social, and economic factors to support informed placement decisions.
Khalili et al. ⁴⁵	Methods for evaluating urban GI benefits	Reviewed monitoring, remote sensing and modelling approaches assessing GI's impact on

		heat regulation, human thermal experience and air pollution. Identified strengths, limitations and key parameters of each method.
Kumar et al. ⁵	Overheating in urban areas and role of GBGI	Examined 51 types of GBGI to understand their effectiveness in reducing urban heating.
Kumar et al. ⁴	Air pollution mitigation and GBGI	Assessed the air quality benefits of 51 GBGI types across urban environments.
Perera et al. ⁵⁶²	GBI policy framework in 12 global cities	Highlighted the emphasis on vegetation cover in policies and the need for GBI-policies alignment at state and local government levels.
Przestrzelska et al. ⁴⁰	GBI in rainwater management	Revealed GBI's limited applicability in diverse climates and research bias towards high-GDP countries.
Tate et al. ³⁹	Economic evaluation of GBI interventions	Revealed a lack of stakeholders involvement and underrepresentation of studies from low-income and emerging economies.
Debele et al. ³³	Global role of NbS in mitigating natural hazards	Consolidated and analysed NbS case studies worldwide; showing effectiveness in reducing natural hazard and climate changes.
de Quadros and Ordenes ³⁶	GI strategies for pedestrian thermal comfort	Identified street trees, green walls, and green spaces as effective cooling tools; green roofs had minimal pedestrian-level impact.
Li and Lange ³⁷	GBI and stress resilience	Explored links between urban landscapes with green cover (gardens, parks, wetlands, corridors, rivers, canals) and stress responses.
Potter et al. ³⁵	Health benefits of GBGI exposure	Confirmed positive health outcomes from GBGI, though mechanisms remain insufficiently understood.
Adnan et al. ³⁸	Heat vulnerability and mitigation in Australia	Highlighted the usefulness of GI and water-conscious urban planning in reducing heat-related risks.
Evans et al. ⁵⁶³	ES from urban agriculture and GI	Demonstrated that community gardens, green spaces, parks and allotments provide a wide array (16+) of ES.
Jones et al. ⁶	ES, trade-offs and synergies among urban GI	Provided a new typology of GI, and reviewed the literature to create a matrix of GI x ES delivery to inform planning and illustrate synergies and trade-offs for environmental and social outcomes.
Almaaitah et al. ³²	GBI's dual role in UHI mitigation and stormwater management	Found strong evidence for stormwater benefits, with fewer studies focused on UHI mitigation effectiveness.
Choi et al. ⁵⁶⁴	Co-benefits and trade-off for different GI types	Found GI strategies primarily focused on climate adaptation, with limited attention to socio-cultural benefits.
Kumar et al. ¹²³	Monitoring methods for NbS performance against natural hazards	Analysed NbS monitoring methods and instruments to assess their effectiveness and challenges in addressing droughts, heatwaves, floods, landslides, storm surges, and coastal land loss.
Kumar et al. ⁴⁷	Modelling approaches for NbS efficiency	Assessed hydrological and hazard modelling methods for evaluating NbS, outlining benefits and data limitation. Highlighted the necessity to

		develop multi-scale process-based models to better assessment NbS benefits.
Toxopeus and Polzin ⁴⁰⁸	Financing challenges and solutions for NBS (parks, trees, allotment gardens and GBI)	Identified key funding barriers and proposed strategies to improve benefit valuation and public-private investment balance.
Veerkamp et al. ³⁴	GBI and ES delivery (local temperature regulation, stormwater management, waste processing, air pollution control, pollination services, and recreational and aesthetic benefits)	Emphasised gaps in ES and GBI coverage; most studies focused on temperature regulation and aesthetics, often in parks or unspecified green spaces.
Kumar et al. ⁵⁶⁵	Operationalizing NBS for hazard mitigation	Analysed the European policy frameworks applicable to hydrometeorological hazards for NBS in policy and proposed NBS planning with focus on co-benefits and co-designed.
Shah et al. ⁵⁶⁶	Frameworks and indicators for hydro-meteorological risk in NBS	Suggested a framework for assessing vulnerability and risk within the scope of NbS. Critiqued existing hazard and risk assessment indicators, calling for more inclusive NBS relevant metrics.
Ying et al. ⁵⁶⁷	Strategic GI implementation	Described GI as a multidisciplinary utility for delivering environmental and socioeconomic benefits simultaneously, with Europe and US leading in GI research.
Debele et al. ⁵⁶⁸	Revised NbS concepts and classification of hydro-meteorological hazards	Examined the impacts of hydro-meteorological risks (HMHs) in Europe and explores how NbS can strengthen resilience, reduce adverse effects of HMHs, and support environmental sustainability.
Ruan et al. ⁵⁶⁹	Understanding the positive and negative impacts of GI on the food-water-energy nexus	Developed a framework to characterise the role of GI in sustaining food-water-energy nexus.
Meng et al. ⁵⁷⁰	Quantification of the food-water-energy nexus in urban green and blue infrastructure	Highlighted that most GBGI studies examine isolated benefits or life-cycle impacts, while neglecting transboundary effects.
Bellezoni et al. ⁵⁷¹	Understanding how urban green and blue infrastructure influences the food, water, and energy nexus.	Established need for policies and research to shift from isolated to integrated approaches to fully connect GBI for sustainable urban futures.
Venkataraman et al. ⁵⁷²	Health and wellbeing outcomes of GI for water management	Found limited evidence on human health impact; emphasised the need for community support and maintenance of GI.
O'Brien et al. ⁴⁶	Cultural ES of urban GI	Classified wellbeing outcomes form 7 GI types into capability, experiences and identities.

Table 2. Summary of environmental barriers, challenges, and potential solutions. Each barrier is discussed in detail in the following subsections, outlining key issues and mitigation strategies.

Environmental barriers	Challenges	Overcoming challenges
Conflicts between GBI and Net Zero Goals ^a	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Photovoltaic (PV) competes for space with existing GBI. • Tree shading affects PV performance. • PV and GBI net-zero goals and other environmental benefits are poorly studied. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Green roof and BI can be used as alternatives for PV placement. • GBI can reduce cooling energy demand, reducing some PV needs. • Use modelling tools to evaluate carbon emission and sequestration potential for both GBI and PV.
Siloisation in urban GBI research and planning ^b	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Decision-makers focus on single-issue problems rather than multi-functional solutions. • Fragmentation of green spaces impacts biodiversity, local climate, energy consumption, and wellbeing. • Green corridors studied mainly for biodiversity impacts, neglecting other benefits. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cross-disciplinary approaches and inclusive systems-based analysis. • Ecological production function based modelling assessment is suitable to identify shortfalls for mitigation actions. • ES framework provides context for comprehensive assessment.
GBI trade-offs ^h	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • GBI benefits vary across spatiotemporal scales. • A lack of integrated tools to holistically assess ecosystem service 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identify effective links between GI types using real time monitoring. • Integrated modelling and remote sensing can address the trade-offs efficiently.
Unintended consequences ^c	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Certain vegetation emits bVOCs, leading to SA and ozone (O₃). • Wind-pollinated species increase respiratory issues with allergenic pollen. • Dense vegetation can disrupt airflow, trapping pollutants. • GBI contributes to GHG emissions, reducing sequestration potential. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Select species with low bVOC emissions, minimal allergenic traits, strong pollutant deposition. • Location specific design with hedgerows as alternatives to tall canopies in street canyons. • Periodic hydrological and soil management to limit GHG emissions.
Plant adaptation and resilience in urban environments Pathway to resilient GBI via plant adaptation ^g	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Urban environments push species beyond their realized niches. • Literature on plant stress tolerance in urban environments is limited. • Decision-making relies primarily on practitioners' expert judgment. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Select plants based on phenotypic plasticity for resilience to stress such as heat and drought. • Introduction of species from surrounding biomes that match urban niches. • Integrate scientific data with tools support evidence-based practitioner decisions.

<p>BI integration challenges Challenges linked to BI in urban environmentsⁱ</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • BI presents dual character as benefits and risks. • Space constraints and urbanization restrict implementation of blue spaces. • Climate and geography limit BI options in arid or elevated regions. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Design BI away from populous areas to avoid nighttime heat and maximise benefits. • Implement participatory planning and community involvement to address the space issue. • Restore rivers and daylight buried streams to reintegrate waterway.
<p>Achieving synergistic control^d</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Large street trees are beneficial to reduce UHI and noise but could restrict pollutant dispersion. • High GI evapotranspiration is beneficial to UHI mitigation but worsens water shortage in dry seasons. • BI is effective in UHI mitigation and water management but could release GHG and pollutant gases. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Multi-functional planning that considers the needs of various urban challenges for synergistic management.
<p>Urban ventilation and air quality impacts^e</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • GBI can alter city breathability by increasing resistance to airflow which restricts the dispersion of air pollution. • Poorly planned GI may obstruct building heating, ventilation and air conditioning (HVAC) inlets, worsening IAQ. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Integrate microclimate models to mitigate UHI while minimizing airflow blocking. • Use machine learning methods to understand the nexus between GBI, city, and building ventilation.
<p>Thermal resilience and microclimate^f</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Research focuses on cooling effects rather than adaptation dynamics. • Most studies examine GBI effects mainly on general populations, neglecting vulnerable groups. • Surface temperature alone inadequately represents microclimate conditions. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Integration of environmental factors with human comfort considerations Development of city-scale overheating risk warning systems with focused strategies for vulnerable groups. • Adaptation of digital twins, remote sensing, and AI for analysing microclimate heat mitigation strategy.

Source: ^aSection “GBI potential conflict with net zero goals”, Fig. S1, Table S2; ^bSection “Siloisation in urban GBI studies”, Fig. S5, Table S3; ^cSection “Unintended consequences”, Fig. S6, Table S4; ^dSection “Conflict control among urban environmental challenges”, Fig. S8; ^eSection “Urban ventilation”, Table S5; ^fSection “Thermal resilience”, Table S7; ^gSection “Pathways to resilient GBI via plant adaptation” Table S8; ^hSection “GBI trade-offs”; ⁱSection “Challenges linked to BI in urban environments”.

Table 3. Summary of social, economic and governance barriers to GBI implementation, along with corresponding potential solutions. Each barrier listed is further elaborated in the relevant sections of this review, where the source and context of the challenges are discussed in detail.

Barriers	Challenges	Overcoming challenges
Social barriers		
Environmental injustice ^a	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Historical segregation and systemic inequalities • Unequal distribution of green spaces and ecosystem benefits • Green gentrification displacing vulnerable populations • Exclusion of marginalised groups from decision-making 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Integrate justice frameworks into GBI planning and design • Prioritise investments in underserved communities • Enable early and meaningful community participation • Link local actions to broader multi-scalar governance
Cultural disconnection ^b	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Under-recognition of the Cultural Ecosystem Services (CES) • Exclusion of local and traditional knowledge • Poorly contextualized GBI undermining heritage • Ignoring culturally specific landscape preferences 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Integrate CES into GBI frameworks • Embed local and traditional knowledge into planning • Apply heritage-sensitive and culturally adaptive design • Foster co-creative public engagement
Public adoption ^c	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Low public awareness of GBI benefits • Misalignment between expert planning and community needs • Lack of early participation weakening stewardship • Disconnection between technocratic approaches and local realities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Embed continuous community participation from early stages • Design GBI to enhance perceived safety and usability • Link GBI benefits visibly to daily life • Use environmental education to build trust and ownership
Safety concerns ^d	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Vegetation creating surveillance blind spots • Obstructed visibility at entry points • Poorly monitored parks linked to antisocial behavior • Crime stigma reducing GBI use • Over-securitization limiting access 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Apply Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design (CPTED) principles • Use smart lighting, CCTV, and IoT monitoring discreetly • Promote participatory design and local stewardship • Balance safety needs with social inclusivity
Aesthetic tensions ^e	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Public preference for ornamental over functional landscapes • Functional GBI perceived as messy or neglected • Policies favor visual aesthetics over ecological resilience 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Apply “cues to care” strategies to improve aesthetic acceptance • Foster aesthetic literacy and public engagement • Integrate multifunctional and adaptive design approaches
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Economic barriers 		
Financial undervaluation ^f	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Biodiversity undervalued. • Private funding limited 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use green/blue bonds, debt-for-nature swaps

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cost-effectiveness is hard to demonstrate • Weak Environmental, Social and Governance (ESG) metrics 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strengthen ESG with AI and satellite data • Build resilient financial systems
Asset recognition issues ^g	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Existing Accounting Standards only consider built infrastructures as assets • Local governments face financing limits • Co-benefits of natural assets are undervalued 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adopt Environmental Economic Accounting and ISO 55000 standards • Integrate GBI into policies • Create biodiversity and water credits. • Reform asset accounting
Lack of comprehensive Cost-benefit analysis ^h	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ecosystem services, biodiversity and well-being are often excluded. • High upfront costs • Data gaps and inconsistency in valuation methods • Weak ESG metrics and lack of standardized evaluation methods 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use real-world proxies and life-cycle assessments • Develop inclusive, standardized cost-benefit analysis • Collect localised, context-specific, stakeholder-driven data in both costs and benefits
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Governance/policy barriers 		
Land use and space constraints ⁱ	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High land competition in dense cities • Rising land values reduce feasibility • Fragmented green networks • Reliance on grey infrastructure systems 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Promote adaptive, space-efficient GBI • Prioritise micro-scale interventions (e.g., green roofs, permeable pavements) • Strengthen land use regulations
Urban design barrier ^j	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conflicting demands among land uses • Poor integration of ecological functions • Weak coordination across spatial scales 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Apply holistic and 3D spatial planning • Design multifunctional and compatible GBI • Use policy incentives to support implementation
Policy fragmentation and regulatory gaps ^k	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of clear, binding GBI legislation • Institutional silos and poor coordination • Inconsistent environmental standards 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Implement legal and regulatory reforms • Enhance inter-jurisdictional coordination • Support capacity building and training
Integration challenges ^l	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • GBI not embedded in walkability or transport systems • Disjointed planning undermines synergies • Poor alignment with social and ecological priorities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Foster multi-scale and cross-sector planning • Strengthen participatory governance • Deploy spatial analysis tools (e.g., GIS) for integration

Source: ^aSection “Environmental injustice and GBI decision making”, Table S9; ^bSection “Cultural perspectives on GBI”, Table S10; ^cSection “Social adoption hindering implementation of GBI”; ^dSection “Safety and security barriers in GBI implementation”, Table S11; ^eSection “Balancing climate adaptation and aesthetic goals in urban GBI”, Table S12; ^fSection “Financial barriers to GBI implementation”; ^gSection “Challenges in recognising GBI as assets”; ^hSection “Lack of comprehensive cost-benefit analysis”; ⁱSection “Land scarcity and urban sprawl”; ^jSection “Urban

design barriers”; ^kSection “Lack of clear GBI implementation policies”; ^lSection “Conflicts in promoting GBI and walkability”.

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Table 4. Summary of the most relevant studies highlighting cost-benefit analysis (CBA) hindering GBI implementation along with the key recommendations to overcome these challenges.

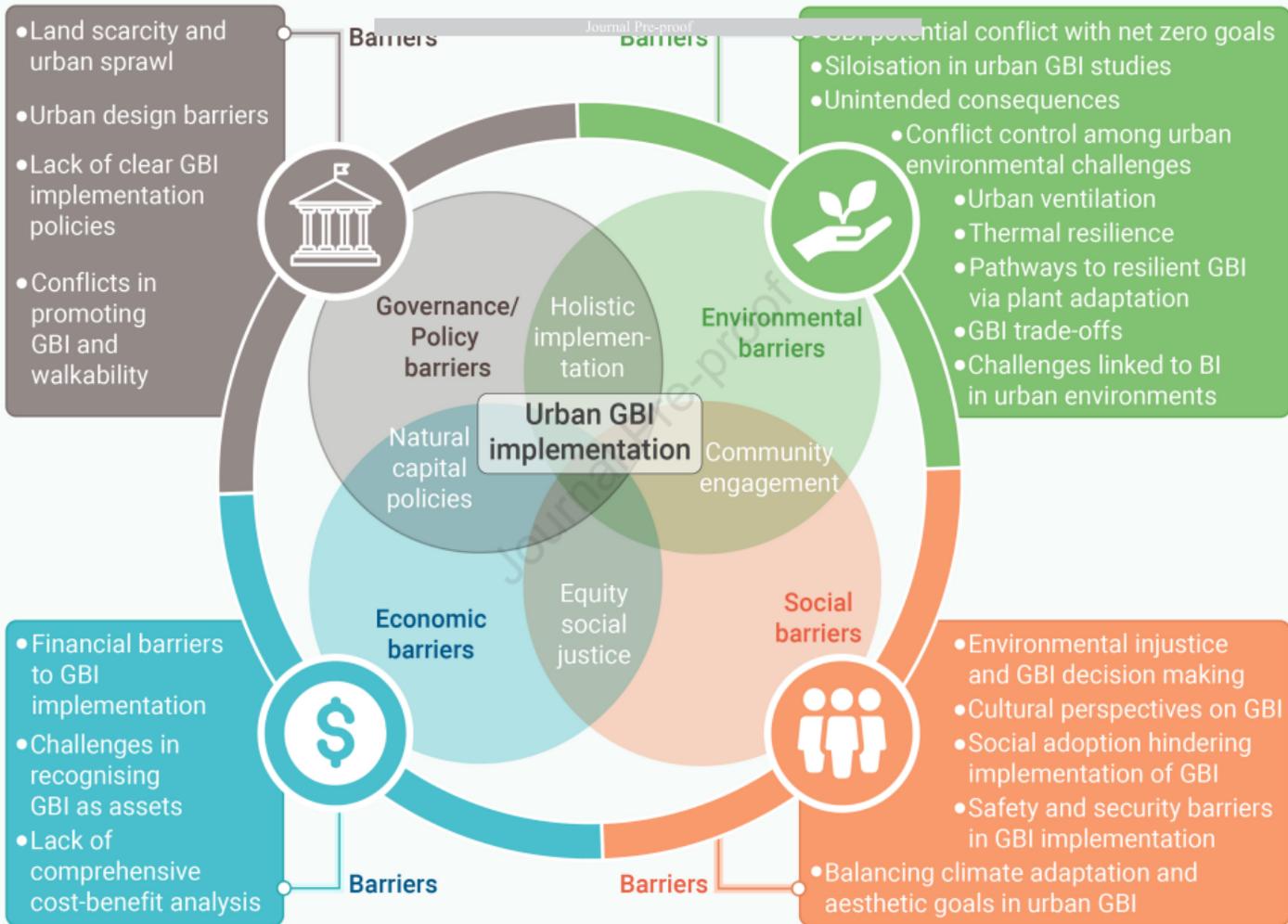
CBA challenges	Case study/review	Key findings	Key recommendations	Reference
Challenges in monetizing intangible benefits	Ayutthaya Island, Thailand	Valuing ES is difficult, limiting recognition of mitigation benefits.	Develop indicators reflecting various ecosystem service to enhance valuation.	Vojinovic et al. ⁴⁴⁴
	43 U.S. States, D.C., and Canada	Challenges in quantifying intangible benefits due to GI's complex structure.	Collect detailed data to better understand and value intangible benefits.	Kim and Song ⁴⁴⁵
	Systematic review (79 articles)	Difficulty in monetising benefits like well-being and noise reduction; often excluded from economic evaluations.	Develop consistent methodologies to account for intangible benefits.	Teotonio et al. ⁴⁴³
	Literature review (129 studies)	Challenges in monetizing intangibles such as quality of life, well-being, and biodiversity.	Utilize multicriteria analysis to quantify these benefits for integration into CBAs.	Manso et al. ⁴⁴²
Exclusion of Co-benefits and externalities	Systematic review, 114 observations	Many CBAs overlook indirect benefits and environmental externalities underrepresenting GBI.	Combine CBA with complementary methods such as multi-criteria analysis, cost-effectiveness analysis, and qualitative assessments to better capture co-benefits.	Chelli et al. ⁴³⁶
	Sheffield, England and other European cities	Traditional valuations often miss co-benefits like health, equity, and ecosystem resilience.	Adopt holistic frameworks and increase public sector engagement to support investments that reflect all benefits.	Wild and Gill ⁴⁴¹
	Case Study: Modesto, California, U.S.	Existing CBAs may exclude urban forestry co-benefits such as species variability and ecological functions.	Promote research on species-level ecological performance to better incorporate of benefits into economic models.	McPherson ⁵⁷³
Lack of Comprehensive data and standardized methods	Bruges, Belgium	Difficulty in estimating exact values due to combined use, non-use, and investment values.	Develop a clear handbook to guide users in generating and understanding benefit transfer values.	Vandermeulen et al. ⁵⁷⁴

	Sint Maarten Island, Caribbean	Challenges in monetizing co-benefits and uncertainties due to data availability and local issues.	Include a broader range of co-benefits to improve data collection and integration.	Alves et al. ⁴³⁹
	Barcelona and Badalona, Spain	Lack of reliable data and standardized methods for hydrological performance of GI.	Use approaches like Monte Carlo simulations to address uncertainties.	Locatelli et al. ⁴⁵³
	Rapid Evidence Assessment (1700 documents)	Lack of reliable data and standardized methods for assessing NBS impacts.	Develop new methods beyond traditional CBAs to improve data collection and integration.	Raymond et al. ⁴⁵⁵
	Book review (Europe, North America, China)	Lack of comprehensive data and standardized methods for evaluating NBS effectiveness.	Systematically analyse data, including CBAs, and identify causal mechanisms to improve data collection and standardisation.	Kabisch et al. ⁴⁷⁵
	London, UK	Lack of comprehensive data and standardized methods for evaluating physical and social outputs of community gardens.	Use simplified CBA methodologies to improve accessibility and standardization.	Schoen et al. ⁴³⁸
CBA uncertainty	Oslo, Norway	CBAs are sensitive to data availability, uncertainties, and model assumptions.	Validate results using real-world data sources, such as insurance data, to improve accuracy.	Wilbers et al. ⁴⁴⁰
	Jung-gu, Seoul, South Korea	Uncertain assumptions and regional factors reduce reliability of CBA.	Undertake additional region-specific studies that consider environmental, socio-economic, and physical factors to improve decision-making.	Shin and Kim ⁴³⁷
	Madrid, Spain	Critique of CBAs due to uncertain assumptions, discounting and lack of communicating output uncertainties.	Consider both monetary and biophysical values in decision-making to reduce uncertainty.	Almenar et al. ⁵⁷⁶
	Newcastle, UK	Difficulty in monetarily valuing multiple benefits of GBI.	Use tools like CIRIA BeST to structure assessments for quantifying and monetizing each benefit.	O'Donnell et al. ⁵¹⁷
High costs and uncertain	Tanyard branch	Green roofs have a higher NPV compared to	Gain more experience and establish long-	Carter and Keeler ⁴⁵⁰

return on investment (ROI)	watershed, Athens, GA, USA	conventional roofing, indicating higher costs and uncertain ROI.	term warranties to justify investments.	
	Grand rapids, Michigan, USA	High costs and uncertain ROI for green roofs; negative NPVs unless part of LEED-certified buildings.	Incorporate green roofs into LEED-certified buildings to leverage additional benefits like rent premiums.	Nordman et al. ⁴⁵¹
	Genoa, Italy	High installation and maintenance costs lead to uncertain ROI, especially for intensive green roofs.	Recommend tax incentives to improve ROI.	Perini and Rosasco ⁴⁵⁸
	Southern France and Rotterdam, Netherlands	Benefits from avoided damages are often insufficient to cover costs, leading to high costs and uncertain ROI.	Adapt public funding rules to assess for cross-sectoral assistances of NBS.	Le Coent et al. ⁴⁵²
	Systematic review (116 articles)	Elevated costs and uncertain return on investment stem from insufficient knowledge about expenses, benefits, and impacts.	Develop guided examples of cost calculation, depreciation, and discounting to aid in creating credible business cases.	Van Oijstaeijen et al. ²⁰⁸
	Kuala Lumpur and Johor Bahru, Malaysia	High costs and uncertain ROI of green roofs, particularly for local authorities make the economic worth unclear.	Integrate intensive green roofs on flat rooftops to reduce costs and improve ROI.	Shazmin Shareena and Nur Amira ⁵⁷⁷

Table 5. Key urban design challenges hindering effective GBI implementation and potential technical and strategic solutions.

Challenges	Solutions	References
Spatial integration challenges	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Vertical greening systems • Optimize structural load distribution • Incorporating hydroponic or modular planters • Rooftop agriculture with lightweight substrates and automated irrigation systems 	Xi et al. ⁴⁹⁰ , Su et al. ⁴⁹¹ , Blair and Johnson ⁴⁹²
Functional conflicts	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bioretention areas integrated into parking lots • Permeable pavements paired with underground retention systems • Bio-retention facilities replace conventional drainage channels 	Cortinovis et al. ⁴⁹³ , Ronchi et al. ²⁴³ , Pogliani et al. ⁴⁹⁴
Multi-scale coordination challenges	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Map ecological corridors • Align regional networks with site-specific development • Ensuring GBI integration across urban scales 	Pauleit et al. ⁴⁹⁵ , Xi et al. ⁴⁹⁷ , Xi et al. ⁴⁹⁶ , Xi et al. ⁴⁹⁸ , Kanniah ⁴⁹⁹
Maintenance deficiencies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Drought-resistant plant communities and modular • Easily replaceable components 	Tabatabaee et al. ⁵⁰⁰ , Rosa et al. ⁵⁰¹ , Barbosa et al. ⁵⁰²
Policy and technological lag	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • GBI design by embedding resilience thinking • Tax abatements and regulatory updates • Interdisciplinary collaboration 	D'Amato and Korhonen ⁵⁰³ , Fuenfschilling et al. ⁵⁰⁴ , Davies and Laforteza ³⁴⁴ , Tapia and Reith ⁵⁰⁶ , Tapia et al. ⁵⁰⁵ , Ahmed and de Oliveira ⁵⁰⁷



Unintended effects of GBI

Positive effects of GBI

Poor air quality due to ventilation obstruction

High energy consumption

GHG emissions from BI

Heat trapping

High bVOC emission

High SOA + O₃

NO_x

High pollen emissions

Tall dense trees

Low SOA + O₃

NO_x

Porous trees

Strategic placed GI

Street hedge

Low bVOC & pollen emission

High yield PV

Efficient HVAC

Improved air quality due to efficient ventilation

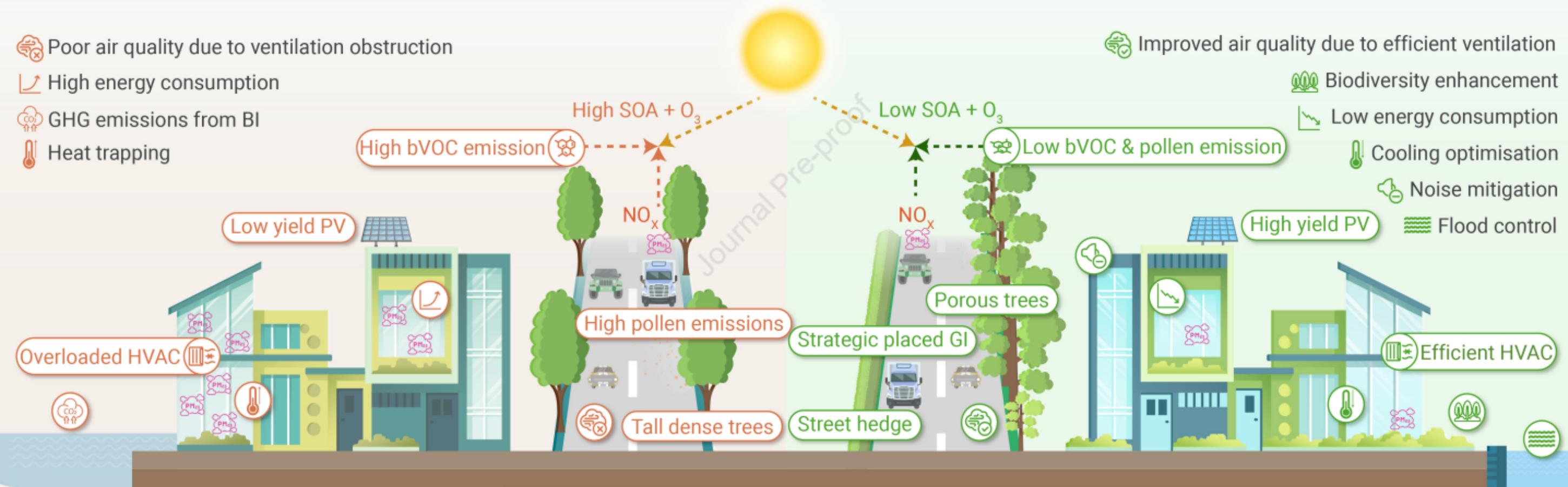
Biodiversity enhancement

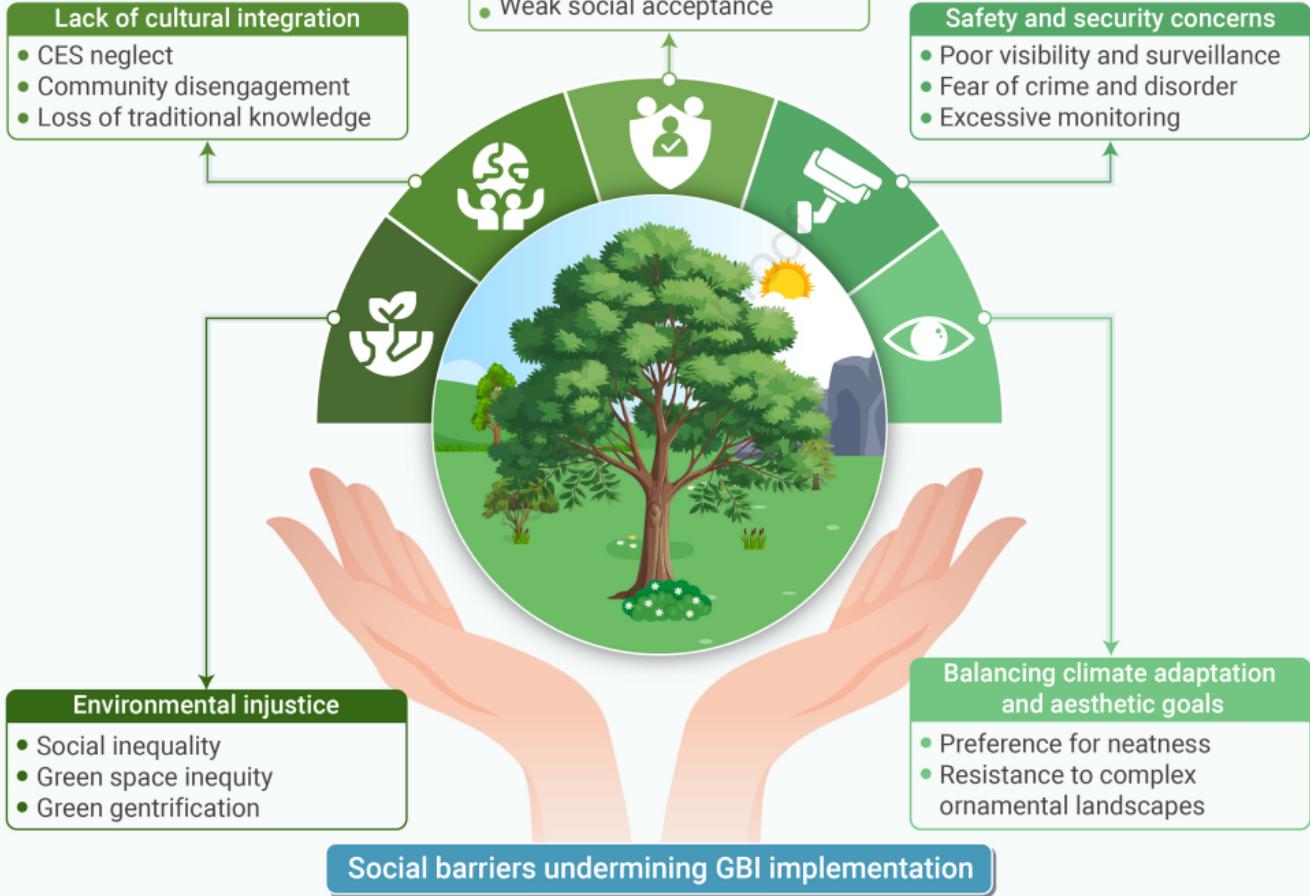
Low energy consumption

Cooling optimisation

Noise mitigation

Flood control





Biodiversity undervalued

Limits investment in green infrastructure projects

Limited private funding

Constrains available capital for GBI initiatives

Cost-effectiveness unproven

Makes securing funding difficult

Weak ESG metrics

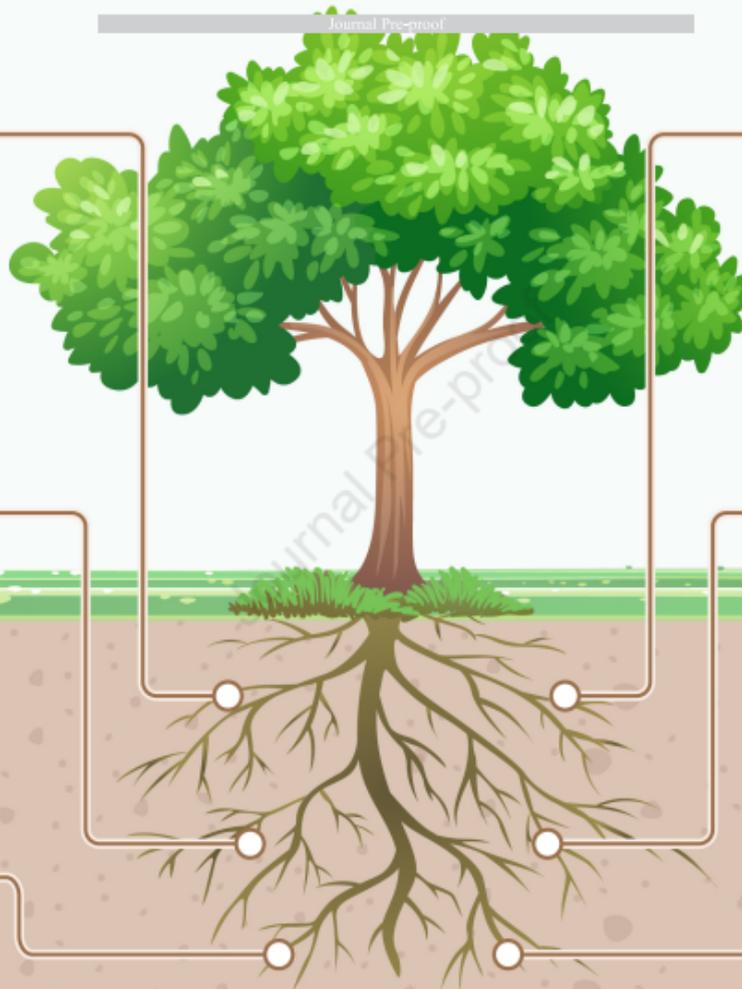
Reduces attractiveness to investors

GBI lacks asset status

Limits investment and financial support

Intangibles excluded

Skews cost-benefit analyses against GBI



A

Limited data-driven decisions

1

Limited data-driven decisions hinder effective GBI planning

**Lack of comprehensive valuation frameworks**

2

Traditional CBA frameworks are inadequate in capturing the full spectrum of GBI benefits

**Intangible benefit exclusion**

3

Intangible benefit exclusion undervalues GBI's true potential

**High costs and uncertain ROI**

4

High costs and uncertain ROI discourage GBI investments



B

Incentivise investments

Offering financial incentives to encourage adoption

Multi-criteria approaches

Combining CBA with other evaluation methods

Inclusive CBA tools

Standardizing methods to capture diverse benefits

Local case studies

Enhancing relevance with on-the-ground data

Proxies for intangible benefits

Using indirect measures to estimate non-monetary benefits

Institutionalise CBA

Embedding CBA in policy for fair evaluation



C

Barriers

- Car-oriented planning
- Grey infrastructure
- "Business-as-usual" mindset
- Land costs
- Traditional indices
- Isolated interventions
- Lack of community involvement
- Technical GBI focus only (e.g., drainage)

**Potentials**

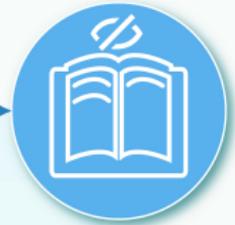
- Street space for green use
- Green corridors
- Pocket parks
- Nature-based, multifunctional design
- Underutilised spaces
- New assessment tools
- Multi-scale approach
- Participatory planning
- Spatial analysis for integration

**GBI + Walkability****Benefits**

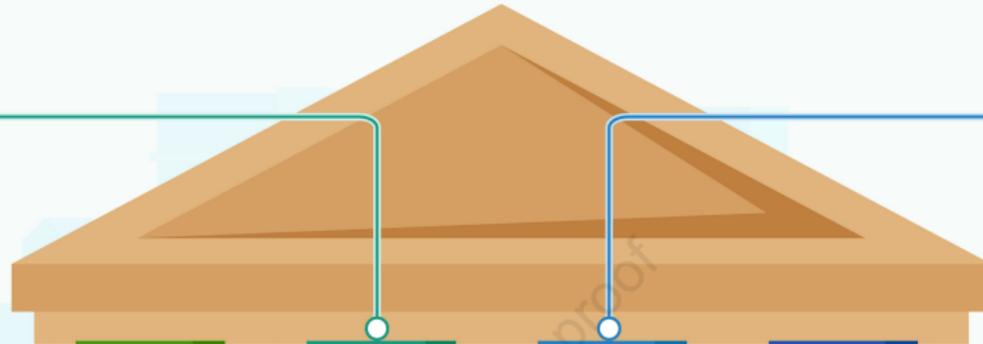
- Healthier and less car-oriented cities
- Climate comfort and better air quality
- Biodiversity and resilience
- Attractive and inclusive spaces
- Long-term and systemic impact
- Local engagement and social cohesion
- Multifunctional spaces (e.g., rainwater, food, habitat)



- Apply integrated spatial planning
- Offer policy support



- Reform legal frameworks
- Improve coordination



Land scarcity
and sprawl

Urban design
barriers

Unclear GBI
policies

Disconnect with
walkability



- Promote compact, adaptive GBI
- Enforce land use regulations



- Encourage public participation
- Use of spatial tools