

1 **Title Page**

2 Shifting concepts of urban spatial heterogeneity and their implications for sustainability

3 Author affiliation: Weiqi Zhou^{1*}, Steward T. A. Pickett², and Mary L. Cadenasso³

4 ¹ State Key Laboratory of Urban and Regional Ecology, Research Center for Eco-Environmental
5 Sciences, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing 100085, People's Republic of China

6 ² Cary Institute of Ecosystem Studies, Box AB, Millbrook, New York 12545 USA

7 ³ Department of Plant Sciences, University of California Davis, Mail Stop 1, PES 1210, One
8 Shields Ave, Davis CA 95616 USA

9 Corresponding author: Weiqi Zhou, 86-10-62849268, wzhou@rcees.ac.cn

10 Keywords: Ecology in cities, Ecology of cities, Spatial heterogeneity, Urban sustainability, Urban
11 design

12

13 **Abstract**

14 *Context* Spatial heterogeneity has myriad influences on ecosystem processes, ecosystem
15 services, and thus the sustainability of urban areas. It acts as a medium for urban design,
16 planning, and management to determine how processes affecting sustainability can operate and
17 interact. Therefore, how spatial heterogeneity is conceptualized and measured in cities is crucial
18 for enhancing sustainability.

19 *Objectives* We show that the two most commonly used, but contrasting paradigms of urban
20 ecology, ecology IN versus ecology OF the city, determine how spatial heterogeneity is thought
21 of and used in different ways. We identify the key implications of these theoretical contrasts for
22 the practice and assessment of sustainability in urban areas.

23 *Methods* We review and compare the different ways in which ecology IN versus ecology OF the
24 city affect how to conceptualize, model and map urban spatial heterogeneity. We present a new
25 framework to guide the comparison of spatial heterogeneity under the two paradigms.

26 *Results & Conclusion* The integrative nature of this new framework becomes apparent under
27 the ecology OF the city paradigm, because it recognizes the hybrid social and bioecological
28 nature of heterogeneity in urban ecosystems. The hybrid approach to patchiness resonates with
29 the three pillars of sustainability – environment, society, and economy. We exemplify how the
30 more comprehensive and integrated framework of spatial heterogeneity under the ecology OF
31 the city paradigm 1) supports more effective measurement and integration of the three
32 components of sustainability, 2) improves management of heterogeneous urban ecosystems,
33 and 3) satisfies calls for improved ecological tools to support urban ecosystem design.

34

35 I. Introduction

36 With the majority of the world's population already living in cities, and the projected increase in
37 both urban population and urbanized land cover, how cities, suburbs, and exurbs can contribute
38 to global sustainability is a pressing concern (Grimm et al. 2008; Wu 2013; Childers et al. 2014;
39 Pickett and Zhou 2015). Indeed, whether and how urban regions themselves can become more
40 sustainable is an urgent question. Spatial heterogeneity is one of the fundamental concepts in
41 contemporary ecology (Scheiner and Willig 2011). It has myriad influences on ecosystem
42 processes, ecosystem services, and thus the sustainability of urban areas (Pickett and
43 Cadenasso 1995; Cadenasso and Pickett 2008; Turner et al. 2001; Wu 2010). Spatial
44 heterogeneity in social-ecological systems (SES) itself constitutes an important component of
45 adaptive capacity for resilience (Walker et al. 2004, Wu and Wu 2013; Zurlini et al. 2013).
46 Furthermore, it mediates environmental equity and many other important adaptive capacities
47 that can affect resilience, and through it, the attainment of sustainability (Yohe and Tol 2002;
48 Carpenter et al. 2005). Therefore, spatial heterogeneity in urban systems acts as a medium for
49 urban design, planning, and management to determine how processes affecting sustainability
50 can operate and interact (Band et al. 2005; Jenerette et al. 2006; McDonnell and Hahs 2009;
51 Huang et al. 2011; Roy Chowdhury et al. 2011; Zhou et al. 2011a; Boone and Fragkias 2012;
52 Pickett et al. 2016). How researchers frame the measurement of heterogeneity can affect how
53 features promoting sustainability are modeled, assessed, and planned in cities, suburbs, and
54 exurbs. Conceptual framing is fundamental to solving urban problems and facilitating
55 application (Koskela 2008).

56 There are two commonly used paradigms to describing and quantifying the ecological structures
57 and processes of urban systems: the "ecology *in* cities," and the "ecology *of* cities" (Grimm et
58 al. 2000; McDonnell and Hahs 2009). These two paradigms have become familiar enough to be
59 used in introductory urban ecology textbooks (e.g., Gaston 2010; Douglas and James 2014).

60 These paradigms suggest contrasting ways of conceiving the spatial heterogeneity of urban
61 mosaics, and hence, understanding how heterogeneity applies to sustainability. This paper
62 articulates for the first time how the paradigms of ecology *in* the city and ecology *of* the city
63 conceptualize, model and map urban spatial heterogeneity in different ways, and the key
64 implications of these theoretical contrasts for the practice and assessment of sustainability in
65 urban areas (Figure 1). This is an important effort in light of the relative neglect of ecological
66 perspectives in considering sustainability in social-ecological landscapes (Burger et al. 2012).
67 The earlier ecology *in* the city paradigm emphasized biological structures and conservation
68 within the urban fabric (Pickett et al. 1997; McPhearson et al. 2016). We present a new
69 framework that exposes the contrast in how spatial heterogeneity is treated differently under the
70 more inclusive ecology *of* the city paradigm. The framework explores the improvements in
71 understanding, modeling and mapping spatial heterogeneity that come from the shift toward
72 conceptualizing ecosystem heterogeneity as a hybrid of social and bioecological components.
73 The framework recognizes this shift as a fundamental component of the ecology *of* the city
74 paradigm. The integrative nature of heterogeneity exposed by this new framework, and the
75 associated improvements in the measurement of patchiness, resonates with the three realms or
76 pillars of sustainability – environment, society, and economy (Curwell et al. 2005, Jenks and
77 Jones 2010). This resonance emerges from the fact that the framework recognizes structures
78 representing each of the three realms. We exemplify how the more comprehensive and
79 integrated framework of spatial heterogeneity under the ecology *of* the city paradigm 1) supports
80 more effective measurement and integration of the three components of sustainability, 2)
81 improves management of heterogeneous urban ecosystems, and 3) relates better to design in
82 urban ecosystems.

83 II. Urban Spatial Heterogeneity and Sustainability

84 Urban heterogeneity consists of spatial differentiation in the physical, biological, and social
85 structures of urban areas (Pickett et al. 2016; Cadenasso et al. 2007). Social scientists, urban
86 designers, and urbanists consider spatial heterogeneity to be one of the fundamental aspects of
87 urban systems (Luck and Wu 2002; McGrath et al. 2007; Pickett et al. 2013). Spatial
88 heterogeneity can take many forms in cities. Patches exist as differences in biological and
89 physical features such as vegetation, surface permeability, and the kinds and density of
90 infrastructure (Band et al. 2005). Social heterogeneity is exemplified by wards, zones, blocks,
91 and neighborhoods. Land use types are additional examples of urban heterogeneity based on
92 human activities as the criterion discriminating patches. Heterogeneity of land uses and social
93 functions exists as particular mixtures of residential types, property regimes, or economic
94 activities (Grove and Burch 1997). Such spatial differentiation emerges from the existence and
95 divergence of social groups, from economic clustering, and the development of architectural
96 enclaves (Shane 2011). The scales and patterns of these various heterogeneities can affect the
97 human and social capital or capacities in an urban area, the spread or isolation of physical
98 hazards and social vulnerabilities, environmental inequity, and the boundaries among
99 management units regardless of land ownership (Boone and Fragkias 2012).

100 Heterogeneity is key to sustainability because spatial differentiation can appear in each of the
101 three realms -- environmental (Zurlini et al. 2013), social (Chaudhury et al. 2011), and economic
102 (Irwin et al 2009). Many have argued that sustainability is a tripartite suite of societal goals,
103 involving integrity and integration of environmental, social, and economic structures and
104 processes (Turner 2010; Wu 2010; Boone and Fragkias 2012; Redman 2014). Of course, urban
105 systems will not be sustainable in the sense of limiting resource extraction and waste disposal
106 to local sources and sinks only within their boundaries (Wu 2013). For this reason, urban
107 sustainability is best conceived as a trajectory toward – or away from – the ideals expressed by
108 a normative, social decision-making process (Childers et al. 2014).

109 There are many steps between the broad conception of sustainability and the practical
110 improvement of a system (Koskela 2008). This is particularly true in urban systems, where
111 effectively integrated conceptions and data sets connecting the biophysical environment, social
112 processes, and economic drivers are still being developed. Spatial heterogeneity in urban
113 systems determines how processes affecting sustainability operate and interact (Band et al.
114 2005, Jenerette et al. 2006, McDonnell and Hahs 2009, Boone and Fragkias 2012). Therefore,
115 how spatial heterogeneity is conceptualized and measured in cities is crucial for enhancing
116 urban sustainability (Burger et al. 2012; Zurlini et al. 2013). The two framing paradigms -- the
117 ecology *in* cities and the ecology *of* cities (Grimm et al. 2000; McDonnell and Hahs 2009; Pickett
118 et al. 2008), can determine how the insights of heterogeneity are ultimately applied to
119 sustainability.

120 III. The Earlier Framework: Measuring Spatial Heterogeneity under the Ecology IN Cities 121 Paradigm

122 The first of the contrasting paradigms to develop was the ecology *in* cities (Grimm et al. 2000;
123 McDonnell and Hahs 2009). This approach was the earliest to emerge, and has a long history in
124 Europe and Asia. After World War II, with the need to rebuild damaged cities, inventories of
125 vacant lands and the plants and animals they supported were undertaken (Sukopp et al. 1995).
126 An immediate concern was to contribute to the effective planning in cities, and to retain
127 biological amenities within them (Breuste et al. 1998). The general approach under this
128 paradigm is to focus on biologically dominated locations in urban areas (Stearns and Montag
129 1974). The predominant disciplinary motivation is from fields such as organismal biology,
130 biological ecology, conservation, and wildlife biology (Wu 2014) .

131 A. Analog Patches under the Ecology IN Cities.

132 The concerns of the ecology *in cities* paradigm result in a focus on biological patch types that
133 are analogs of habitats familiar outside of cities. It is such patches that are traditionally accorded
134 conservation and ecological value in urban systems (Platt et al. 1994). Forests (McDonnell and
135 Hahs 2008), desert, wetland (Ehrenfeld 2000), and grassland patches (Golubiewski 2006) are
136 thus common study subjects (Figure 2A, B). Consequently, the sampling methodologies
137 developed in wild and rural instances of those systems are simply transported intact to their
138 analogs in cities and suburbs. There have been refinements in method, such as developing
139 inconspicuous plot marking strategies, or the use of global positioning systems to facilitate
140 repeated sampling of urban research plots, while making them invisible to the merely curious or
141 the intentionally destructive.

142 When social attributes of the system are considered by the ecology *in cities* approach,
143 aggregate and coarse scale parameters are often chosen (McIntyre et al. 2000). The adjacent
144 territory to the focal biological patch was sometimes characterized by such things as human
145 population density, degree of urbanization, land use types, or road density (Medley et al. 1995;
146 McDonnell et al. 1997; Zhou et al. 2011b). Social scientists were apparently rarely consulted in
147 most such characterizations; rather, commonly or publically available data sources were
148 employed following the intuition of ecologists about the relevant social or built contexts (Zipperer
149 et al. 2000). The built or socially dominated patches became the “other” in a simple
150 dichotomous contrast with the biological patches of interest (Figure 2B). This conceptual choice
151 means that the environmental pillar of sustainability will be represented by those biologically
152 dominated patches in cities. Any biologically generated services will only be recognized if they
153 are associated with such patches. Although ecosystem or ecological services may exist outside
154 of patches identified as ecologically defined, they will not be visible to such a dichotomous
155 classification approach.

156 B. Modeling Approaches to Heterogeneity under the Ecology IN Cities

157 Two kinds of models, the *patch-corridor-matrix* and the *patch mosaic* are generally used by
158 ecologists to represent the spatial heterogeneity of landscapes. Under the ecology *in cities*
159 paradigm, the *patch-corridor-matrix* model has usually been adopted to represent the spatial
160 heterogeneity of urban landscapes (Cadenasso et al. 2013). This model stems from island
161 biogeography and metapopulation theory and is exemplified by the initial theory of American
162 landscape ecology. With this model, urban areas are conceived of as a relatively homogeneous
163 matrix of developed lands, embedded with discrete and non-exhaustive, biologically dominated
164 patches, such as forests and parks (Sukopp et al. 1995). These biologically dominated green
165 and “natural” patches are generally the research foci, and the matrix is taken to be the hostile
166 surroundings or simplified as a source of disturbance (e.g., Sukopp et al. 1995; Kong 2010;
167 Zhou et al. 2011b), in order to examine the effect of the city on the ecology of organisms
168 (Medley et al. 1995; Figure 2B).

169 C. Mapping Spatial Heterogeneity under the Ecology IN Cities

170 Because spatial heterogeneity in cities is frequently represented as land use/land cover,
171 patches have typically been generated from thematic land use/land cover maps (Turner et al.
172 2001; Luck and Wu 2002). These maps are derived from remotely sensed data, by grouping
173 adjacent pixels with the same category of land cover/land use (Turner et al. 2001, Luck and Wu
174 2002). This approach can provide automatic patch delineation and classification. Methods
175 employed in the past have been largely based on available medium- and low-resolution
176 datasets, for example, the widely available and long-term record provided by Landsat (e.g.,
177 Luck and Wu 2002; Buyantuyev et al. 2010).

178 Land use/land cover data derived from remotely sensed imagery with medium spatial resolution
179 works well, in general, for mapping relatively large biological patches such as forest remnants,
180 agricultural fields, and large golf courses (Buyantuyev et al. 2010; Qian et al. 2015b), which are

181 generally the focal patches with studies of ecology *in cities* (Figure 2C and E). These data and
182 mapping approaches also work well for the matrix, that is, the surrounding developed
183 environments (Figure 2C and E). Dichotomous division of the landscape into biologically
184 dominated patches versus the built matrix is served by this technique. The resultant
185 classifications may have a low *categorical* resolution, in which developed areas are simplified as
186 the relatively homogeneous built matrix, sometimes treated as background or degree of
187 disturbance (Medley et al. 1995; McDonnell et al. 1997; Zhou et al. 2011b), which are in fact
188 very heterogeneous in land cover/land use (Figure 2).

189 D. Land Cover Classification under the Ecology IN Cities

190 Under the ecology *in cities* paradigm, the spatial heterogeneity of urban ecosystems is classified
191 using the thematic land cover/land use maps generated from low and medium spatial resolution
192 imagery (Figure 2C), as described above. The technique generates patches by grouping similar
193 and spatially adjacent pixels with the appropriate pre-determined category of land cover/land
194 use (Figure 2E). While the boundaries of the patches tend to be coarse due to the low spatial
195 resolution of the data, patches in general work well for relatively large, biologically dominated,
196 analog patches (e.g., forest patches, agricultural fields), which are the foci of studies following
197 the ecology *in cities* paradigm.

198 This approach, however, has limitations for areas that integrate built and non-built areas, which
199 is a typical characteristic in urban areas (Figure 2E). This is because, first, the medium spatial
200 resolution data are inadequate to capture the fine-scale spatial heterogeneity within these
201 integrated areas. But more fundamentally, it is also due to how the spatial heterogeneity of
202 urban ecosystems is conceptualized and modeled under the ecology *in cities* paradigm
203 (Cadenasso et al. 2007). Examining the coarsely-conceptualized patches under the ecology *in*
204 cities approach, using high spatial resolution imagery reveals internal complexity that may have

205 ecological significance (Cadenasso 2013). With very high spatial resolution data, the fine-scale
206 spatial heterogeneity can be well characterized. For example, lawns and trees can be clearly
207 separated from buildings and paved or bare surfaces (Figure 2D and F). However, such
208 discrimination in and of itself does not represent the hybridity of the patchiness of the urban
209 systems, as non-built components are separated from the adjacent building, for example, or
210 lawns and trees are not linked with the building within a parcel. As urban ecologists and urban
211 designers are increasingly interested in the reciprocal interactions between built and non-built
212 components (Redman et al. 2014; Cadenasso et al. 2013, McGrath 2013), there is a need to
213 shift the paradigm in conceptualizing, modeling, and mapping spatial heterogeneity of urban
214 systems. This interest is promoted by the ecology *of* cities paradigm, as described next.

215 IV. A New Framework: Measuring Spatial Heterogeneity under the Ecology OF Cities Paradigm

216 We turn now to a new framework for measuring spatial heterogeneity under the other major
217 paradigm for urban ecology, the ecology *of* cities. The ecology *of* cities approach was
218 introduced to herald a more integrative, interdisciplinary approach to urban ecology than had
219 characterized American ecological science before that time (Grimm et al. 2000; McPhearson et
220 al. 2016). In other words, the approach is concerned not just with biological versus built patches.
221 Rather, it aims to represent both a spatially and a conceptually comprehensive view of an urban
222 system. The patches that had, under the ecology *in* cities paradigm, been treated as a simple
223 “other” are now disaggregated into more specific patches that are hypothesized to be relevant to
224 the functioning of the urban system (e.g. Cadenasso et al. 2007; Zhou et al. 2014) (Figure 2B
225 versus F). These patches are defined as hybrid compositional elements, including both built and
226 non-built components.

227 A. Hybrid Patchiness under the Ecology OF Cities

228 The ecology of cities paradigm takes a social-ecological rather than an organismal stance to
229 spatial heterogeneity. Even the theory of the built environment has been characterized as
230 focusing on a social-ecological system (Moffatt and Kohler 2008). Ecology of cities describes
231 spatial heterogeneity using hybrid compositional elements. The hybridity of individual,
232 structurally defined patches includes both built and non-built components (Moffatt and Kohler
233 2008, Palazzo and Steiner 2011). Therefore, characterizing hybrid patches would require
234 discriminating such elements as individual buildings, driveways, lawns, and individual trees,
235 such hybridity can address structure along three complex dimensions for any given area
236 simultaneously: the proportion and kind of vegetative cover; the proportion and nature of ground
237 surfaces; and the proportion and nature of built structures (Cadenasso et al. 2007). The
238 HERCULES (High Ecological Resolution Classification for Urban Landscapes and
239 Environmental Systems) classification is an example of a tool that operationalizes this
240 fundamental assumption of social-ecological hybridity under the ecology of the city paradigm. It
241 is certainly possible to use other land cover classifications (e.g. Larondelle et al. 2014). In the
242 HERCULES case, patches differ from one another by the proportion of these three major kinds
243 of cover elements considered together. They are thus hybrid patches, and not strictly biological,
244 or strictly social, or strictly pervious/impervious (Cadenasso et al. 2007). Hybridity reflects the
245 origins of patch structure and functioning from both biophysical and social-economic sources.
246 For example, property parcels in the same neighborhood built at the same time may have
247 similar proportional cover of vegetation and buildings, and the resident households may have
248 similar social-economic status and management strategies (Grove et al. 2014).

249 The structural features of hybrid patches clearly reflect biological processes, such as plant
250 invasion, survival, and succession (Adams 2005), as well as features that clearly express social
251 criteria (Machlis et al. 1997), such as zoning and construction regulations (Ben-Joseph 2005) or
252 investment in pavement or buildings (Irwin 2010). Patches may contain more than one kind of

253 feature. For example, patches can contain different types and amounts of features such as
254 buildings, impervious surfaces, and trees (Cadenasso et al. 2007). The patches delimited using
255 this comprehensive approach emphasize structure based on the three defined dimensions
256 simultaneously. The patches differ in the degree of each major component, not an “on/off”
257 dichotomy. Ecology of the city accepts, for example, that a patch can have fine-scale
258 characteristics of traditional urban, forest, and agricultural (e.g. grass) classes simultaneously
259 (Figure 2G&H).

260 B. Modeling Approaches to Heterogeneity under the Ecology OF Cities

261 Hybrid patches require a different modeling strategy than analog patches. Under the ecology of
262 the city paradigm, the spatial heterogeneity of urban landscapes has been represented by the
263 patch mosaic model (Forman 1995; Pickett and Cadenasso 1995). With the patch mosaic
264 model, urban landscapes are represented as mosaics of mutually exhaustive, discrete patches.
265 To be able to address hybridity, patches must be identified and mapped based on multiple
266 criteria such as variation in plant community composition or land use/land cover. Patches can
267 also be delineated based on a contrast in an ecological process, such as rates of denitrification.
268 Consequently, different criteria, practices, and processes may suggest different patch mosaics,
269 depending on the specific research or management question addressed.

270 Other kinds of structure, such as identity and function of social institutions, street and highway
271 networks, property regimes, and zoning can all be represented as additional layers. In addition,
272 more specific information about household and institutional decision making, or the structure of
273 social or built networks, or the distribution of social attitudes and actions can complement the
274 structural classification as well.

275 The contrast between the familiar land use categories and hybrid patches illustrates the
276 difference between improvement in spatial resolution and a shift in conceptual resolution. A

277 variety of patches delineated using the familiar criteria of land use may all be classified as
278 residential, but these patches may differ from one another in the kind and amount of vegetation,
279 the details of the surface covers, and the proportion and configuration of buildings (Cadenasso
280 et al. 2007). A multidimensional approach that exposes the differences within residential land
281 use classes, especially beyond the refinement based on building density, is a conceptual
282 refinement, not just a refinement in spatial resolution of the data. The concepts used in
283 modeling patches are the fundamental assumptions on which patch delimitation is based. The
284 spatial data resolution is a part of the tool kit that can be used to generate either coarsely
285 parsed or highly conceptually resolved patch mosaics. Spatial and conceptual resolution are
286 different.

287 C. Mapping Spatial Heterogeneity under the Ecology OF Cities

288 Research questions using the ecology *of* cities paradigm, frequently require an understanding of
289 fine-scale heterogeneity, for example, discriminating such elements as individual buildings,
290 driveways, individual trees, and lawns (Cadenasso et al. 2007, Zhou et al. 2008). To adequately
291 map these individual structural elements, very high spatial resolution imagery is preferred (Zhou
292 and Troy 2008; Qian et al. 2015a). With the continuous launching of new commercial satellites
293 and advances in aerial photogrammetry, very high-spatial resolution imagery is becoming widely
294 available and affordable.

295 In addition to the need for high spatial resolution data, studies under the ecology *of* city
296 paradigm employ new approaches for hybrid patch mapping. The traditional approach, grouping
297 adjacent pixels with the same category of land cover/land use generally creates patches of
298 single landscape features (e.g., paved surfaces, or lawns), where built and non-built
299 components are separated (Figure 2E). This traditional approach is inadequate to capture the
300 hybridity of the patches. Therefore, there is a need to apply hybrid approaches such as that

301 illustrated by HERCULES (Cadenasso et al. 2007), to quantify the fine-scale heterogeneity in
302 urban landscapes that integrate the built and non-built components of the system, to better
303 understand their reciprocal interactions (Grimm et al. 2000; Zhou et al. 2014; Qian et al. 2015b).

304 A hybrid approach that capitalizes on the strengths of visual interpretation and object-based
305 image analysis can serve this integrative need (Zhou et al. 2014). Compared to digital image
306 processing approaches, visual interpretation is better for delimiting hybrid patches that
307 incorporate built and non-built components (Zhou et al. 2014). Meanwhile, recent advances in
308 object-based image analysis allow obtaining highly accurate urban land cover data from high
309 spatial resolution imagery to discriminate individual structural components of patches such as
310 individual trees, lawns, and buildings (Zhou et al. 2008). With this hybrid approach, mapping
311 spatial heterogeneity under the ecology of cities consists of two steps. First, patches are
312 generated through visual interpretation, based on a set of rules. These patches typically contain
313 a mix of built and natural land cover features (e.g., Figure 2H). These within-patch land cover
314 features are then classified using object-based image analysis, in which the delineated patches
315 serve as pre-defined boundaries for finer-scale segmentation and classification (Zhou et al.
316 2014). Finally, patches are classified based on the within-patch proportional cover of features.
317 This hybrid approach integrates the ability of humans to detect pattern with an object based
318 image analysis that accurately and efficiently quantifies the components that give rise to that
319 pattern, and therefore provides an effective means for hybrid patch mapping and classification
320 (Zhou et al. 2010; Zhou et al. 2014).

321 D. Land Cover Classification under the Ecology OF Cities

322 With the ecology of cities paradigm, urban ecosystems are represented by a mosaic of hybrid
323 patches that each contains a mix of built and natural land cover features (Figure 2F). These
324 patches can use pre-defined boundaries of social patches such as parcels or census block

325 groups, or biophysical boundaries such as watersheds, or delineated according to certain
326 classification systems such as HERCULES (Cadenasso et al. 2007; Zhou et al. 2010; Zhou et
327 al. 2014). These patches can be classified, for example, based on within-patch types and
328 proportion of land cover features (Cadenasso et al. 2007; Zhou and Troy 2008). This can be
329 done either through visual interpretation, or based on identification of land cover features with
330 very high spatial resolution generated from object-based image analysis (Zhou et al. 2010; Zhou
331 et al. 2014). With the object-based approach, the resultant classifications of land cover features
332 not only provide more accurate patch classification (Zhou et al. 2010), but also provide more
333 flexibility in patch classification, which was envisioned as a key feature in developing
334 HERCULES (Cadenasso et al. 2007). Such flexibility allows different classification schemes with
335 contrasting categorical resolutions to be developed based on diverse research questions (Zhou
336 et al. 2014). For example, if either research, management, or design needs more or less
337 categorical resolution in land cover features, the classes can be easily obtained by recoding the
338 continuous percent cover of the land cover feature(s) within a patch.

339 Additionally, the integration of built and non-built areas into social-ecologically relevant patches
340 may also correspond to patches having social significance (Zhou et al. 2014). For example,
341 neighborhoods that were built at the same time, especially if they were built by the same
342 developer, will likely have similar amounts of woody and herbaceous vegetation, and building
343 cover. Neighborhoods with similar structure would be captured as a single patch, which may
344 also represent social organization in the community, for example, a neighborhood association.
345 This ability to assess the degree of match between the ecological and social datasets is crucial
346 for implementing integrated social-ecological research. In addition, hybrid patch boundaries
347 often coincide with aggregations of property parcels, which are individually the basic social land
348 management unit (Grove et al. 2014). Classifications that do not integrate built and non-built
349 components would not be able to capture this reciprocal relationship. In fact, patches can also

350 be classified based on their social attributes by overlaying additional social data layers, or a
351 combination of both biophysical and social attributes.

352 V. The Ecology OF Cities and Hybrid Heterogeneity for Urban Sustainability

353 The pursuit of urban sustainability will be affected by the spatial heterogeneities in each of its
354 three realms, i.e., environment, society, and economy. In each of the three realms, contexts,
355 processes, and hazards exist, and these will either constrain or enhance sustainability (Childers
356 et al. 2014). We have traced the implications of two frameworks (Figure 1) for measuring urban
357 spatial heterogeneity under the two contrasting paradigms of urban ecology, starting with their
358 differing conceptions of spatial heterogeneity, through the modeling approaches each entails,
359 and ending with the most appropriate methodologies for generating classifications and maps at
360 spatial and categorical resolutions suitable to the goals of each paradigm. A social-ecological
361 systems (SES) framework is highly relevant to identifying and achieving normative sustainability
362 goals because the three realms of sustainability span both social-economic and biophysical
363 features (Redman 2014). However, our analysis suggests that the lens through which spatial
364 heterogeneity is viewed within an SES will be important for the practical pursuit of sustainability.

365 A. Spatial Heterogeneity under Ecology OF Cities Reflects Integrated Sustainability Goals

366 The ecology *in* cities paradigm focuses on the persistence and resilience of biotically dominated
367 patch types or ecotopes (McPhearson et al. 2016). Patches are conceived simply as either
368 bioecological resources and services, versus the contrasting, and usually biotically hostile,
369 social and built matrix (Sukopp et al. 1995). Such dichotomous classifications are well
370 supported by the patch-corridor-matrix modeling approach (Cadenasso et al. 2013), and coarse
371 spatial thematic imagery allows planning maps to portray the starkly contrasting categories.
372 Maps of city-wide or metropolitan park systems or plans, and plans for metropolitan greenbelts
373 exemplify this dichotomous approach. Furthermore, the image analysis approaches operate at

374 the coarse spatial scales useful for city-wide or regional urban planning that identifies and maps
375 forest, wetland, grassland, or other biotically-dominated patches (e.g., Yaro and Hiss 1996).
376 These are resources or locations of concern in a planning-with-nature or ecological planning
377 strategy (Sukopp and Weiler 1988; Sukopp et al. 1995).

378 As useful as such an approach is, and as valuable as it has been for highlighting ecologically
379 sensitive or service-providing areas that require protection or restoration in the urban fabric
380 (Haase et al. 2014), it is a limited approach to sustainability in the broader sense. With ecology
381 *in the city*, the approach yields classifications, analyses, and maps that support only the
382 environmental pillar of sustainability.

383 In contrast, the *ecology of cities* paradigm promotes improvements in the assessment of
384 heterogeneity that can better support tripartite (e.g. Redman 2014) sustainability goals. It does
385 this in several ways. First, it recognizes that patches, the basic unit of spatial heterogeneity, are
386 hybrids of socially mediated and biophysically mediated elements, including vegetation,
387 buildings, and unvegetated surfaces, whether paved or bare. Second, it supports spatial
388 modeling that exposes the detailed structure of the entire urban mosaic, rather than
389 representing cities as two-phase systems of bioecological patches versus a built and social
390 matrix. Finally, the *ecology of cities* pays attention to all elements of the spatial mosaic, and
391 helps connect ecological with other disciplinary approaches that have addressed the city as a
392 complex whole (McPhearson et al. 2016). Consequently, the heterogeneity revealed by the land
393 modeling approaches that reflect the *ecology of cities* paradigm can be used to evaluate and
394 track structural features that support sustainability in the bioecological realm, as well as in the
395 social and economic realms (e.g., Pincetl 2010). This inclusiveness within patches is particularly
396 relevant to the goal of helping to facilitate sustainability in urban systems. The integrative nature
397 of the *ecology of cities*, and its approach to patchiness resonates with the three pillars of
398 sustainability (Buijs et al. 2010). *Ecology of cities* achieves this resonance by including in its

399 patch classifications structures that represent environment, society, and economy. The
400 framework under the ecology *of* cities paradigm can help flesh out the spatial and functional
401 aspects of integrated social-ecological systems. It offers novel mechanistic detail to this
402 overarching coupled-system conception.

403 B. Management Implications of Comprehensive Patch Assessments

404 The contrasting spatial modeling approaches under the two paradigms have divergent
405 implications for management. Under the ecology *in* cities paradigm, management focus is on
406 the large, discrete, biotically-dominated patches within the urban matrix. These areas have been
407 widely recognized to have value for ecosystem services; however, this focus neglects sites that
408 the ecology *of* cities paradigm would not *a priori* exclude. Indeed, the framework under the
409 ecology *of* cities paradigm represents the spatial heterogeneity of urban systems as
410 comprehensive mosaics. There should be no “blank spaces” on maps of urban heterogeneity
411 under the ecology *of* cities paradigm. Importantly, “left over spaces” such as derelict lands,
412 slivers of lightly or unmanaged land on the edges or rarely visited fringes of parcels, must also
413 be included in ecological maps of urban mosaics for purposes of management (Troy et al. 2007;
414 Qian et al. 2015a). These sites may contribute to biodiversity, stormwater management,
415 microclimate mitigation and other services. Similarly, yards, lawns, and gardens can contribute
416 important ecosystem services in urban regions (Golubiewski 2006), even though such sites are
417 not considered primarily as ecotopes or biotic patches that support conservation.

418 The approach for measuring spatial heterogeneity under the ecology *of* cities paradigm
419 suggests that management for the public good may be impaired if the focus is confined to public
420 lands. As an example, many cities (e.g., Baltimore, New York City, and Los Angeles) have
421 established Urban Tree Canopy (UTC) goals as a part of their sustainability plans to achieve
422 such benefits as microclimate regulation, stormwater management, and cultural ecosystem

423 services. The UTC planning in Baltimore, Maryland, has provided a model that has been
424 adopted by many other cities (Locke et al. 2010). The Baltimore UTC plan calls for a doubling of
425 the city's tree canopy, from the current 21% to approximately 40% by 2030. Spatial analysis of
426 the tree cover in Baltimore documented the existing patches of trees, patches of herbaceous
427 vegetation, and the area potentially available for planting, that is, sites not covered by streets,
428 parking lots, or buildings (Troy et al. 2007). Superimposing the parcel boundaries on these
429 patch maps led the city planners to conclude that private property owners and renters would
430 have to be engaged to achieve the new canopy goals. There was simply not enough land in the
431 public domain to support enough new tree canopy to double the city's tree cover. These plans
432 must rely on the involvement of private land owners and managers who are responsible for 70%
433 of the area of many municipalities. Understanding the details of patches outside of the large
434 parcels that an ecology *in the city* approach would have emphasized was required for an
435 effective management plan, and suggested that active engagement with diverse and
436 differentially environmentally-aware neighborhoods and property holders was needed (Troy et
437 al. 2007).

438 The urban heat island (UHI) also exemplifies managing integrated social-ecological
439 heterogeneity. From an ecology *in cities* perspective, urban heat island refers to the
440 phenomenon that cities are generally warmer than their surrounding areas. In fact, air and land
441 surface temperatures (LST) within urban areas vary tremendously across space (Huang et al.
442 2011; Figure 3A). These variations in LST are significantly related to the uneven distribution of
443 tree canopy in the city (Figure 3B), not only the large patches of greenspaces, but also those
444 numerous tiny patches of green cover embedded in built areas. More importantly, the unevenly
445 distributed urban tree canopy, and thus the heat islands, were significantly correlated to the
446 spatial distribution of population with different racial and socio-economic status. In general,
447 people of color (Figure 3C), or in poverty (Figure 3D) are more likely to live in neighborhoods

448 with higher temperatures (Huang et al. 2011). An ecology *of* cities approach that focuses on the
449 entire urban mosaic, instead of only the large green patches, is necessary for effective UHI
450 mitigation, as well as for achieving environmental justice (Boone and Fragkias 2012).

451 A final example is stormwater management beyond urban riparian zones. Urban areas are
452 recognized to be significant and growing contributors to coastal pollution (Peierls et al. 1991).
453 This, in combination with knowledge derived from agricultural landscapes that riparian function
454 could reduce nitrate pollution to coastal and estuarine waters, promoted an ecology *in* cities
455 strategy for nitrate management. The strategy was basically to restore riparian forest structure,
456 sometimes along with restoration of a more sinuous channel morphology. This strategy may not
457 work, however, if riparian function has been altered in urban landscapes (Cadenasso et al.
458 2008). In fact, detailed examination of the actual denitrification processes in urban riparian
459 zones indicated that the capacity of those zones was inadequate to the task. The former
460 floodplains, in which the anaerobic conditions and large carbon sources required by denitrifying
461 bacteria were reduced by the “urban stream syndrome,” did not support the expected
462 denitrification (Groffman et al. 2003). Altered ecological function in urban riparian zones and the
463 burial of many urban streams motivated a conclusion that additional locations in the entire
464 watershed should be depended on to perform these functions. In essence, the new
465 management strategy was based on expanding the conception of the riparian zone from the
466 stream-side to all locations in the urban watershed where land and water meet (Cadenasso et
467 al. 2008). When managers learned this, they reoriented their management of polluted storm
468 water from a primarily riparian focus to a whole-watershed focus (Hager et al. 2013). This shift
469 required assessing the hybrid nature of patchiness throughout urban watersheds. The hybrid
470 nature of these assessments was emphasized by the need to incorporate the network of storm
471 drain pipes into the spatial delimitation of watershed patches. This approach is likely to be
472 useful in many urban systems, given that urban designers are increasingly concerned with the

473 role of riparian zones in their practice (Musacchio 2009). Like the urban tree canopy goals,
474 engagement with properties and communities far from the streams was deemed necessary to
475 achieve the contribution of nitrate reduction to urban sustainability.

476 C. Hybrid Heterogeneity under the Ecology OF Cities Paradigm Supports Urban Design

477 Here we turn attention to the relationships of the ecology *of* the city to the interventions
478 embodied in urban design. Urban design focuses on the architecture, landscape architecture,
479 and social program of intentional, spatially specific architectural and infrastructural interventions
480 in cities, suburbs, and exurbs (Shane 2011; Palazzo and Steiner 2011; Musacchio 2008). It is
481 possible to consider designs to be experiments which, when monitored appropriately, can
482 generate knowledge relevant to improving designs elsewhere (Felson et al. 2013). Indeed, the
483 design process as a creative intervention can involve ecological scientists along with other
484 stakeholders and various design specialists from conception, through visioning, through
485 construction and on to performance evaluation (Felson et al. 2013). We expect an inclusive
486 ecology *of* the city perspective to be most useful in such interaction.

487 Design can be motivated by one or more of the three pillars of sustainability -- environment,
488 economy, and society (Musacchio 2008), as well as by attention to resilience as a mechanism
489 that supports or thwarts different goals of sustainability (Pickett et al. 2013). Our interest here is
490 to link that focus with the contrasts between the ecology *in* and the ecology *of* paradigms. We
491 do not have space to review detailed designs or plans even from an ecological perspective
492 (e.g., see Pickett et al. 2013); however, the shift in paradigms in urban ecology is important
493 because urban designers are becoming increasingly concerned with the ecological functionality
494 of their designs (Musacchio 2009, McGrath and Pickett 2011; Felson et al. 2013; Pickett et al.
495 2013, Steiner 2014). Hence their work can be considered to relate to an inclusive ecology *of* the
496 city perspective (McGrath 2013), a perspective that encompasses comprehensive and

497 extensive spatial mosaics. Mosaic thinking is a spatially explicit form of systems thinking that
498 recognizes the spatial arrangement of the components of urban ecosystems can have functional
499 significance (Pickett et al. 2016). When mosaic thinking from ecology combines with ideas of
500 the creation of space from a social perspective to suggest that urban patches and urban
501 mosaics are co-produced by biophysical and by social processes (Lachmund 2013). Co-
502 production applies to all forms of intentionality in design as well as to patches in cities, such as
503 some of the extensive green infrastructure of Berlin that owe much of their structure to
504 unsupervised plant colonization and succession (Lachmund 2013).

505 Ecological design may target specific patches of fine- to medium-scales, but the best
506 ecologically-aware design encourages the effective interaction of specific projects with the
507 larger, functional urban mosaic (Cadenasso and Pickett 2008; Wu and Wu 2013; Waldheim
508 2012). Greenways, riparian restoration and stream daylighting, tree-lined boulevards slowing
509 automobile traffic and isolating it from muscle-powered traffic are examples of the role of
510 connectivity and spatially extensive context in design. Less grand in scope, but important to the
511 control of stormwater in neighborhoods are such strategies as sharing of bioswales,
512 consolidating impervious surface, and clustering of tree canopy among adjacent parcels in
513 existing neighborhoods (McGrath et al. 2013). Ecological urban design parallels the ecology of
514 cities perspective because it acknowledges that any given project, whether large or small, has
515 an ecosystem context and has structural and functional implications for the larger patch mosaic
516 of urban ecosystems (McGrath 2013; Palazzo and Steiner 2011). Urban design aiming for
517 ecological benefits should deal explicitly with the details of how a project connects with the
518 patch mosaic model of an urban system, and what the reciprocal relationships of the project
519 patch are with adjacent and distant patches in the system (McGrath 2013; Wu and Wu 2013;
520 Niemelä 2014; Wolf and Housley 2014). The neighbor-based low-impact development or
521 retrofitting mentioned above, can be complemented by metropolitan plans and incentives, and

522 by local community social engagement. The larger scales can be encompassed by
523 megaregional visions and operationalized by an inclusive dynamic mosaic or "metacity" model
524 (McGrath and Shane 2012).

525 There are other parallels between the concerns of ecology of cities and urban design. They both
526 deal with hybrid patches (Moffatt and Kohler 2008), such that designers are essentially always
527 designing local ecosystems (Cadenasso and Pickett 2008). In addition, both fields require land
528 cover classifications that have sufficient *categorical* resolution to provide projects with an
529 appropriately detailed context for individual patches. For example, designing residential projects
530 as hybrids of vegetation, surface covers, and buildings rather than as examples of low, medium,
531 or high density, may yield different results. A case in point is the conversion of a multistory
532 warehouse to housing in Hoboken NJ was designed to expose the control of stormwater in this
533 low elevation site, as well as disperse use of water and installation of productive and ornamental
534 greenspace on roof and adjacent plaza (Marshall 2013). Hybrid designs include the relatively
535 fine scale green infrastructure shared by neighbors mentioned above, as well as more
536 substantial green infrastructure suffused throughout a community. The contemporary ecology of
537 cities shares with ecological urban design an interest in how urban heterogeneity is represented
538 (McGrath et al. 2007). These disciplines share 1) the need for refined categories to understand
539 patch structure (Shane 2011), 2) a view that patches are biophysical-built-social hybrids (Moffatt
540 and Kohler 2014), and 3) a deep interest in promoting sustainability (Beatley 2000). Because
541 sustainability requires focusing ecological, social, and economic lenses on the same places, it
542 becomes a shared goal of urban ecology and urban design (Steiner 2014).

543 VI. Conclusion

544 Tracing the concepts, models, and applications of two contrasting paradigms for the study of
545 urban ecological science has exposed different approaches to urban heterogeneity and their

546 divergent implications for sustainability. The traditional framework for measuring spatial
547 heterogeneity under the classical ecology *in* the city paradigm supports a narrow view of
548 sustainability that focuses on the persistence and viability of biologically dominated patches in
549 cities, towns, and suburbs. There are many intrinsic and social benefits that derive from the
550 persistence of green patches and networks of green patches in the urban fabric, and the
551 ecology *in* cities approach supports those services. However, a more complete view of
552 sustainability, one that encompasses the requisite biophysical, social, and economic processes,
553 is better supported by a new framework under an ecology *of* cities paradigm. This paradigm has
554 encouraged the modeling of hybrid patches, and the assembly of those patches into dynamic
555 spatial mosaics that exhaustively represent an urban area. There are new remote sensing
556 platforms, image analysis tools, and land cover classification methodologies that support these
557 new conceptions and models. The ecology *of* cities paradigm and the concepts and tools it
558 supports are a novel, practical application of the social-ecological systems framework, which
559 link with pressing concerns for increased sustainability in urban management and design.

560 **Acknowledgements**

561 This research was funded by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (Grant No.
562 41371197 and 41422104) and the One Hundred Talents program. The support of the U.S.
563 National Science Foundation LTER program (grant DEB 042376), CAREER program (DEB-
564 0844778), and Urban Sustainability Research Coordination Network (RCN 1140070) is also
565 gratefully acknowledged.

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792 **Figure Legends**

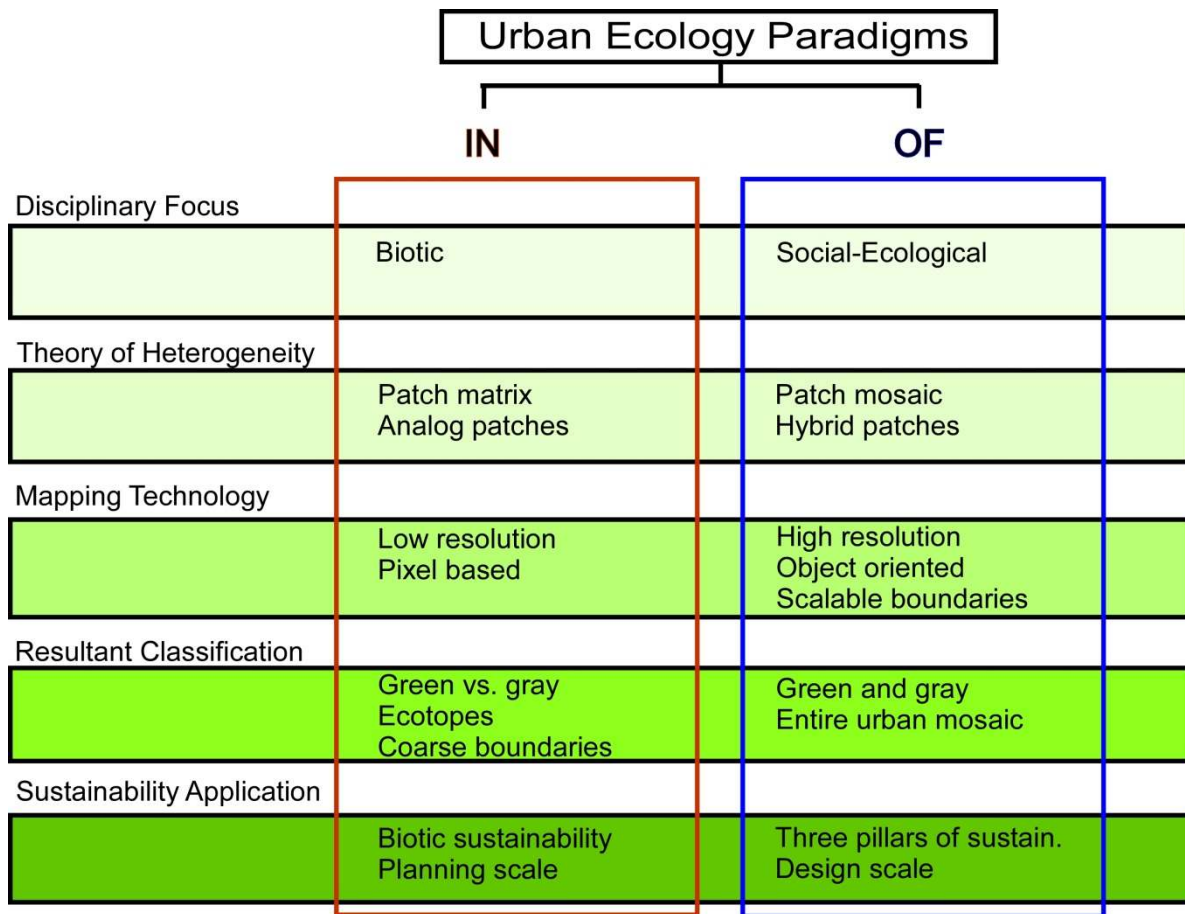
793 **Figure 1:** Diagram of the argument that contrasting paradigms of urban ecology research entail
794 different approaches to conceptualizing and modeling spatial heterogeneity, and that these
795 ultimately inform different applications of urban ecology to sustainability.

796 **Figure 2:** Conceptualizing, modeling, and mapping spatial heterogeneity of urban systems
797 under the two paradigms, ecology *in* the city and ecology *of* the city. (A) False-color infrared
798 aerial photo of an urban landscape in metropolitan Baltimore, MD, USA that serves as the base
799 layer for the different models and maps in subsequent panels; (B) with the ecology *in* the city
800 paradigm, urban systems are frequently mapped as biologically dominated patches, shown here
801 in green, embedded within the built matrix, which is considered to be relatively homogeneous;
802 (C) Land cover/land use classification from 30 m Landsat TM data; (D) Land cover/land use
803 classification from 0.6 m resolution aerial imagery; (E) Patches generated from the land
804 cover/land use classifications in panel C; (F): Patches generated from land cover classifications
805 in panel D; (G) Parcels as hybrid social patches, where the boundaries of parcels were overlaid
806 on the aerial photo; (H) the hybrid patches derived from the 0.6 m resolution imagery based on
807 the HERCULES classification.

808 **Figure 3:** Variation in land surface temperature (LST), tree canopy, race, and income across
809 the core of the Baltimore MD, USA, metropolitan area. (A) Gradient of LST where dark red is the
810 warmest and dark blue the coolest. (B) Distribution of tree canopy cover, decreasing from dark
811 green to light green. (C) The proportion of African American and Latino residents by census
812 block group represented by a gradient of brown fill. (D) The proportion of residents with incomes
813 classified below the federal poverty level ranging from high to low a gradient of brown fill. (E)
814 The location of Baltimore City, MD, USA.

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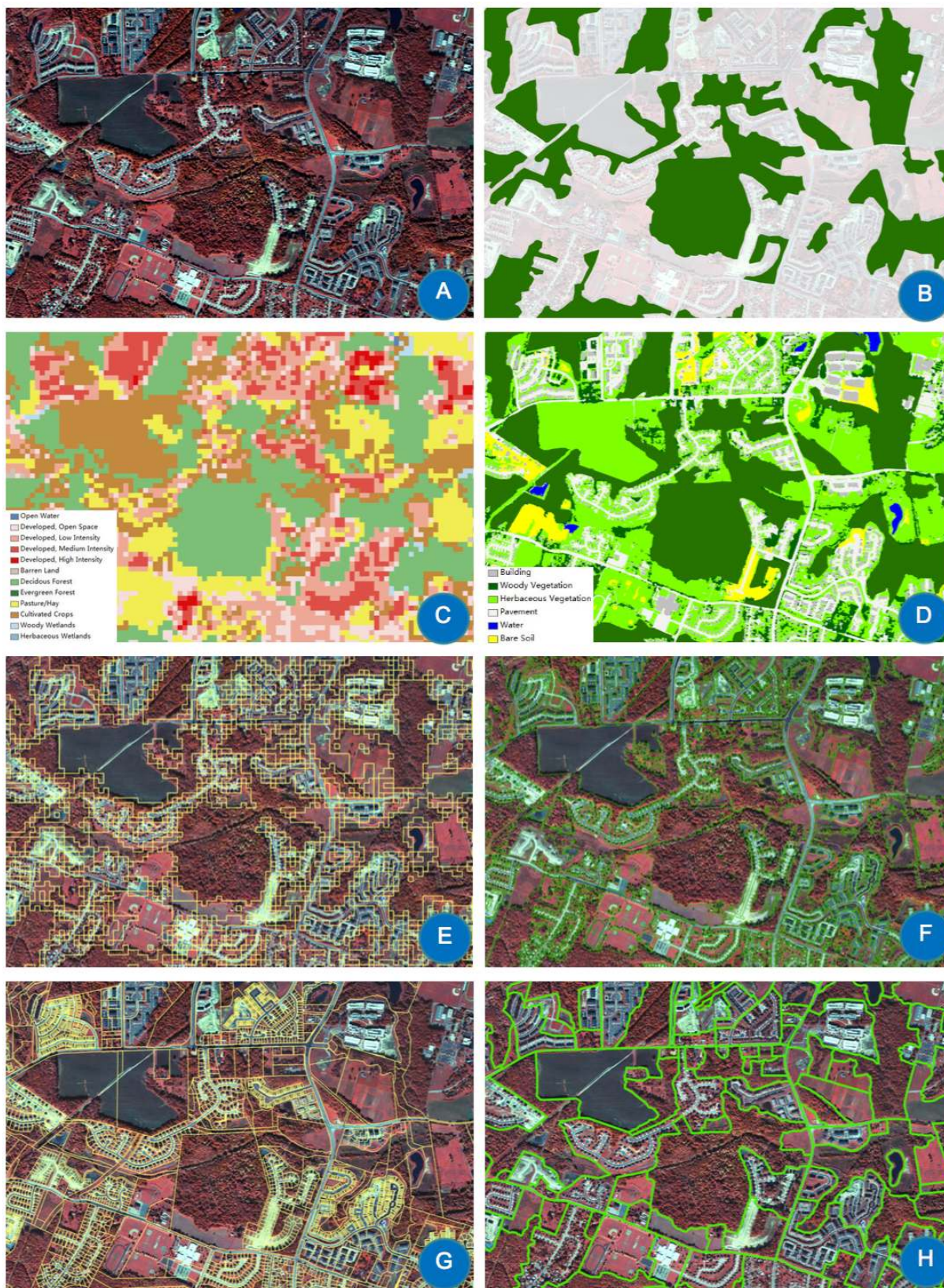


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Figure 1

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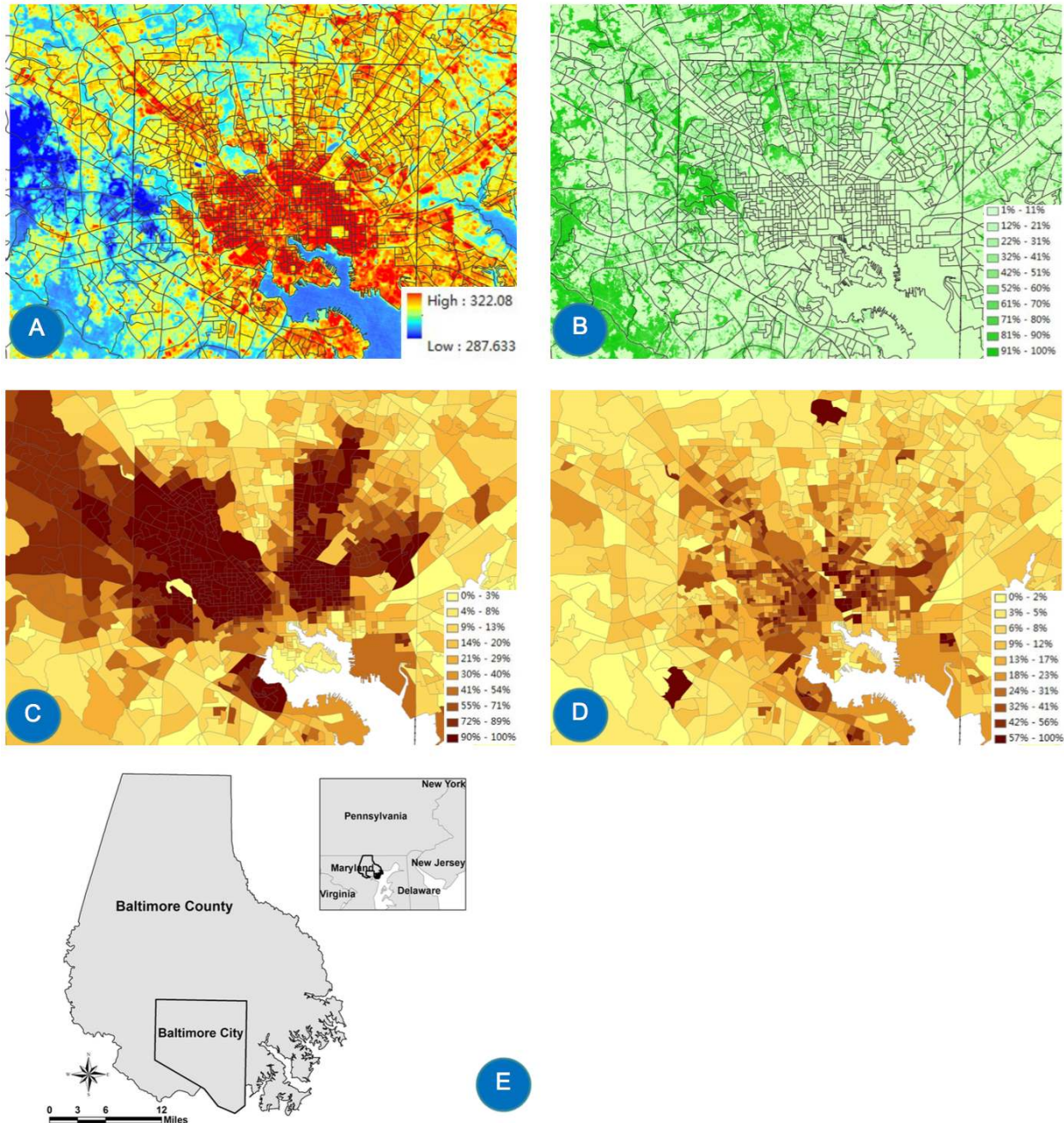


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Figure 2

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Figure 3