

Bigger, more diverse and better?

Mapping structural diversity and its recreational value in urban green spaces.

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Abstract

Are bigger green spaces more diverse in terms of their natural and manmade elements? Does higher diversity mean they are more attractive to users and encourage more diversity of activities, and thereby provide a wider range of recreational ecosystem services? We assessed and classified the recreational services in green urban spaces in the city of Oslo, by combining multidimensional biophysical mapping based on the structural diversity index (SDI), with users' importance scores as an approach to non-monetary valuation of urban parks. Our results reveal that size is a weak and non-linear determinant of structural diversity. On the other hand, stated preferences are correlated with structural elements. Urban green spaces classification could be improved by combining structural diversity indicators with structural preference studies. At the same time, our structural diversity measure did not cover the full range of recreational services across the spectrum of urban green spaces. We discuss potential extensions of the structural diversity index for urban green space in order to cover a wider range of green spaces - from cemeteries to peri-urban forest - and the recreational opportunities provided by them.

Keywords:

Urban green spaces, structural diversity, recreation, cultural ecosystem services, size.

1. Introduction

The presence of blue-green spaces and structures in cities contributes to the quality of life in many ways (Chiesura, 2004) involving a wide range of ecosystem services and benefits. Urban green spaces contribute to the quality of life in the city, such as aesthetic and recreation services (Bolund & Hunhammar, 1999; Martín-López, Gómez-Baggethun, Lomas, & Montes, 2009). In a global context where more than half the world's population lives in cities, compared with about 14% a century ago (United Nations, 2001), those services are crucial for population well-being (Kaplan & Kaplan, 1989, Elmqvist et al. 2015). Understanding social and cultural values of recreation is important for urban planning (La Rosa, Spyra, & Inostroza, 2016), but also complex to study because urban areas have high environmental, cultural and social diversity (Gómez-Baggethun & Barton, 2013). Our study focuses on urban recreational services in the city of Oslo, Norway.

Recreational value

Satisfying recreational experiences depends on the design of natural and manmade elements, and on amenities meeting visitors' interests and demands (Edwards et al., 2012; Manning et al., 2011). Recent studies dealing with the relationship between green urban areas' characteristics and visitors' activities

52 and demands propose integrating methods to assess both the supply and demand of recreational
53 services. For instance, integrated studies use indicators of preferences, use, and spatial composition
54 of green spaces (e.g. Caspersen & Olafsson, 2010; Edwards et al., 2012; Tyrväinen, Mäkinen, &
55 Schipperijn, 2007; Voigt, Kabisch, Wurster, Haase, & Breuste, 2014) which, when assessing the usability
56 of urban green spaces requires high resolution of spatially explicit data (Farrugia, Hudson, &
57 McCulloch, 2013; Sheate et al., 2012). Planning and designing green spaces' could be improved with
58 better understanding of their characteristics and the relationship with use and enjoyment across
59 diverse social groups of users (Arnold & Shinew, 1998; Chiesura, 2004; Faehnle, Bäcklund, & Tyrväinen,
60 2011; Schwab, 1993).

61 In recreation research, recreational quality is conceived as the degree to which environmental
62 opportunities meet people's preferences (Manning et al., 2011). Understanding the diversity of
63 opportunities provided by urban green spaces is important since even participants in the same activity
64 may differ in terms of their environmental preferences (Edwards et al., 2012; Gundersen, Tangeland,
65 & Kaltenborn, 2015). Various research and planning efforts have elaborated systematic measurements
66 of the recreational experience in urban green space. Based on how urban populations perceive and
67 experience urban green spaces, concepts such as "park characteristics" (Grahm & Stigsdotter, 2010;
68 Nordh, 2010), "social values" (Tyrväinen et al., 2007), "experience classes" (Caspersen & Olafsson,
69 2010), and 'sociotopes' (Ståhle, 2006) have been developed to help planners and designers understand
70 the recreational qualities of these spaces. Many of the characteristics that have been identified to
71 describe recreational quality of green spaces (such as "historicity", "visual scale", "coherence" and
72 "ephemera" (Tveit, Ode, and Dry 2006)) are not possible to measure in a quantitative way. Thus,
73 quantitative assessments that include the observable structural composition and diversity in
74 recreational urban spaces, and their importance may be an alternative to map recreational values in
75 an urban setting.

76 77 *Structural elements of the urban green spaces and their value for recreation activities*

78
79 Recreational services from urban green spaces are co-produced by biotic, abiotic and constructed
80 structures, all contribute to enhance the recreational qualities of urban space: variety of opportunities
81 and physical settings, sociability and cultural diversity (Burguess, Limb, & Harrison, 1988). Criteria
82 such as land use, ground and water, historic character, naturalness and spaciousness (Coeterier, 1996),
83 as well as size and the presence of facilities (Coles & Bussey, 2000) have an effect on the level of use.
84 Regarding the elements of urban green spaces, several authors report trees, forest and wooded areas
85 as important determinants of the recreational value (Cohen et al., 2006; Kaczynski & Henderson, 2008;
86 Nordh, Alalouch, & Hartig, 2011; Shores & West, 2008; Voigt et al., 2014), but other land-uses with a
87 diversity of flowers, birds and other wildlife can be highly valued as well (Shoard, 2003). Nordh and
88 Ostby (2013) found that the structures that contribute the most to high ratings on psychological
89 restoration in small urban green spaces were "natural" structures, including 'a lot of grass' followed
90 by 'a lot of flowers/plants' and 'water features'. Dunnett, Swanwick, and Woolley (2002), Nordh and
91 Ostby (2013), and Voigt et al. (2014) also found that proximity to water is highly valued. In addition to
92 natural and water elements, other recreational infrastructures are also important for public use of
93 green urban areas: sport facilities and pathways, toilet facilities, playgrounds, sitting features, lighting,
94 dog facilities, drinking fountain and swimming areas, public transport access, and silence and
95 tranquility areas (Gundersen & Frivold, 2008; Nordh and Ostby, 2013; Nordh et al., 2011; Voigt et al.,
96 2014; and references therein). Presence of people can affect the suitability of green spaces for
97 recreation both positively and negatively depending on various factors; e.g. the expectations of the
98 visitors, crowdedness, behavior, and kind of activities that are conducted (Edwards et al., 2012; Grahm
99 & Stigsdotter, 2010; Gundersen & Frivold, 2008; Nordh, 2010; Tveit et al., 2006; Tyrväinen et al., 2007).
100 Negative perceptions of green urban areas also occur, such as fear of forested areas, especially among
101 female users (e.g. Skår, 2010).

102

103 Park quantity, measured as the percentage area covered by public parks, has been found to be a strong
104 predictor of self-reported well-being in cities (Larson et. al 2016) and several studies reveal that the
105 size of green urban areas influences the provision of ecosystem services. For instance, the provision of
106 habitat quality for fauna depends on size (Bolund & Hunhammar, 1999), and a significant climatic
107 function can only be expected when park size exceeds one hectare (Tyrväinen, Pauleit, Seeland, & de
108 Vries, 2005). Urban forest size appears to increase the quality of space for humans, as revealed by
109 house prices (Kong, Yin, & Nakagoshi, 2007). Studies in the UK have shown that urban parks have a
110 minimum size of about two hectares to be attractive for visitors and that attractiveness increases when
111 green spaces are connected by footpaths (Coles & Bussey, 2000). In addition, the literature suggests
112 that the size of urban green spaces is related to the diversity of elements they contain (Voigt et al.,
113 2014). However, the relationship between green urban areas' size and the diversity of structural
114 elements present is not well studied.

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116 Are bigger green spaces usually more diverse and if they are, does higher diversity mean that they are
117 more attractive to users? Kaplan and Kaplan (1989) refer to the diversity of elements in green spaces
118 as 'complexity', and suggest that preferences for complexity is bell-shaped, in the sense that too much
119 diversity gives an impression of a "messy" environment and too little diversity of a "boring"
120 experience. Therefore, more detailed knowledge of green spaces' functional diversity in terms of the
121 recreational services perceived by urban dwellers should be useful for the establishment, maintenance
122 and restoration of urban recreational areas.

123

124 A step in this direction is to systematize the information about the biophysical elements of urban green
125 space. We followed the approach by Voigt et al. (2014) who proposed a classification of the structural
126 elements in green spaces according to three dimensions: natural elements, abiotic site conditions and
127 recreational infrastructure. To make the method rapid to implement in the field, the authors recorded
128 structural elements as present/absent. Their method requires relatively modest data-collection effort
129 at the same time as it provides sufficient detail for planning of urban green spaces, while covering a
130 wide range of aspects of usability. We extended the approach by estimating a 'relative importance
131 score' which combines the biophysical qualities and their functional importance for recreation as
132 perceived by green space users. We discuss how the relative importance scores constitute a mapping
133 of non-monetary values of recreational services from green spaces. The relative importance score for
134 urban green space structures is inspired by functional diversity mapping (e.g. Craven, Filotas, Angers,
135 & Messier, 2016).

136

137 We aimed to test four hypotheses about the recreational value of green spaces in Oslo: 1) whether
138 there is an association between green space size and the diversity of biotic, abiotic and man-made
139 elements. 2) If higher diversity of structural elements gives more opportunities to people with different
140 recreational interests. 3) Whether people's activities and preferences for green space are associated
141 to specific structural elements. 4) Whether the green space features and recreational opportunities
142 are spatially structured in Oslo.

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146 **2. Methods**

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148 *Study area*

149 The City of Oslo's built-up area spans 15,270 ha, where 18.5% are urban green spaces, being 1%
150 cemeteries, 14.44% public open spaces and 3.1% parks. Parks are managed green spaces within the
151 built zone. Public open spaces ("friorråder" in Norwegian) are largely unmanaged green spaces within

152 the built zone open to the public. In the following parks, public open space and cementaries are
153 collectively referred to as “green space”.

154 Six percent of the Oslo Municipality is fresh water, with ten main streams running through the urban
155 area. The city is situated at the end of the Oslo Fjord, and is surrounded by seawater and islands to the
156 south, and boreal forests to the North and East (Oslo European Green Capital 2016 Application).

157 Oslo had 624,000 inhabitants in 2013, and population projections indicate that the city will number
158 about 800,000 people in 2030 (Oslo Municipality, 2015). National and municipal protected areas for
159 conservation make up almost 10 % of the area in Oslo municipality, and are located in the built-up
160 area, on islands and in the surrounding forest. The fjord and the forests, combined with the city’s green
161 spaces, waterways and islands, constitute a unique blue-green infrastructure, providing multiple
162 ecosystem services for Oslo’s residents, including valuable habitats for biodiversity conservation in
163 Norway (Fig. 1).

164
165 Since 1960s there has been numerous of research studies understanding the recreational value of
166 fringe forest in Oslo (e.g. Gundersen et al., 2015), research on the recreational value of green spaces
167 in the inner city in Oslo have been largely neglected (Barton, Vågnes-Traaholt, & Blumentrath, 2015).
168 Oslo Municipality has recently joined a national effort to map and value recreational areas following
169 guidance by the Norwegian Environment Agency (Norwegian Environment Agency, 2014). The
170 guidance uses a broad classification scheme and non-monetary valuation based on expert judgement,
171 informed by consultations with user interests. The methodology proposed in the guidance refers
172 mainly to criteria of accessibility, but does not offer specific indicators of recreational area quality,

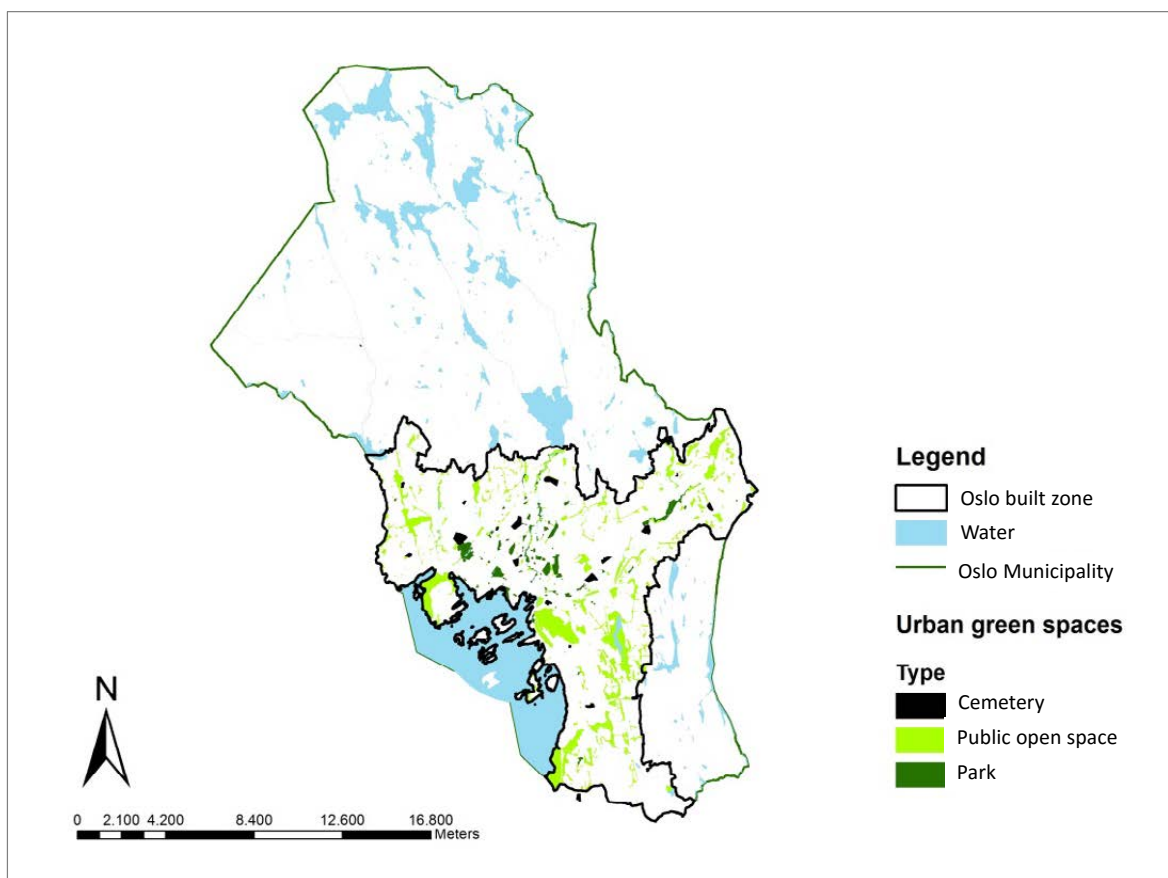


Figure 1. The study area defined as green spaces within the built zone of Oslo Municipality.

173 which could be used to make a more informed expert judgement about relative value. The structural
 174 diversity index fills this gap, while our survey of a sample of green space users demonstrates a
 175 systematic approach to gathering non-monetary valuation data.

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178 Osломarka comprises the forested area bordering Oslo’s built-up area. The Marka Act (2009)
 179 establishes that the forest be managed primarily for recreation. While forestry is permitted,
 180 development of further recreational infrastructure is strictly regulated and housing development
 181 generally prohibited.

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Methodology approach

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To test our four hypotheses about the recreational value of green spaces in Oslo, we used several
 186 methodological approaches, summarized in Table 1.

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Table 1. Methods and analyses used to test each hypothesis formulated at the beginning of the study.

Hypothesis	Method and data analyses	
<i>H1: Size-diversity. Structural diversity will correspond positively with green space size</i>	Mapping structural elements and green space size	Spatial data analyses: Structural Diversity Index - SDI
<i>H2: Diversity-opportunity. Higher diversity of structural elements gives more opportunities to people with different recreational interests</i>	Mapping structural elements and interview survey	Statistical data analyses: PCA Analyses
<i>H3: Preference and activity clustering. Cluster of preferences and activities are associated with specific structural elements</i>	Interview survey	Statistical data analyses: PCA Analyses
<i>H4: Spatial structure. The composition and recreational opportunities of green spaces in Oslo are spatially structured.</i>	Mapping structural elements and interview survey	Spatial data analyses: Structural Diversity Index – SDI; Relative Importance Score – RIS; Moran’s I test; and Hot Spot Analyses

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a) Mapping structural elements

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The mapping exercise recorded the presence of 30 structural elements occurring in green spaces in
 194 the inner city zone included in the study area (Figure 1). The selection of the elements was based
 195 following two criteria: the spatial data availability in the municipality and the importance for
 196 recreational value in urban green spaces as cited in the literature. The presence/absence of each of
 197 the elements shown in Table 2 was assessed in 547 green space polygons. The Municipality of Oslo
 198 facilitated the cartography in shapefile format (points, polygons or lines). In the case of the elements
 199 “public transport access” and “swimming areas” we considered their presence if the element was
 200 within a *buffer* area of 100m around each polygon. We included bus, tram, metro and train in public
 201 transport data. Different assumptions were made for the following landscape elements:

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We defined *forest or grass dominance* when the forest or grass cover within the polygons occupied
 204 more than 60%, and we defined “balance” between forest and grass as both land covers being present
 205 in the same polygon with each occupying between 40 and 60% of the surface. *Potential congestion*
 206 was an indicator of the probability of the area of being crowded. We considered congestion to be
 207 “high” and “low” where the average population density within the polygon was higher and lower than
 208 4600 inhabitants/km², respectively. We calculated street lighting point density and classified polygons
 209 into two levels: polygons where more than 50% of the area had low light points density (<10 points/ha)
 210 were classified as low light density, while polygons with more than 50% of area had light point density
 211 (>10 light points/ha) were classified as high light point density. We considered that “varied terrain”
 212 occurred when more than 30% of the green space surface had a slope of 20% or higher. Regarding
 213

214 “Silence and tranquility areas” we included 14 areas that Oslo Municipality has designated as blue-
 215 green quiet areas (The Noise Action Plan, 2008-2013), i.e. areas for outdoor recreation and cultural
 216 activities that are shielded from main sources of noise.

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Table 2. Structural elements included in the mapping exercise of the green spaces in Oslo.

Biotic elements	Abiotic elements	Man-made elements	
Forest dominance	Fountain	Public transport access	Swimming area
Grass dominance	River/water course/stream	Sitting facility	Silence/tranquility area
Balanced forest/grass	Lake/pond	Grill/Picnic	Cultural/art element
Old/big tree	Varied terrain	Fishing area by the fjord	Urban agriculture area
Tree species diversity		Dog facility	High presence of people
Shrub		Playground	Low presence of people
Fruit tree		Walking/Cycle path	High intensity lighting
Flowerbed		Sport equipment	Low intensity lighting
Wild plants and animals		Bars/restaurant	

219 Table 2 in appendix provides a complete definition list of structural elements.

220

221 Note in Table 2 that the resolution of structural elements is limited in describing public open spaces with unmanaged
 222 vegetation – e.g. forest structure is limited to “forest dominance” and “tree species diversity”. Similarly, special geological
 223 features have not been identified, or are partially considered in the category “varied terrain”. Finally, the diversity of
 224 structures such as headstones in cemeteries are not identified, or limited to the category “cultural/art element”.

225

226 *b) Survey*

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228 In order to demonstrate a methodology for recreational preference assessment we conducted an in-
 229 person survey of students at the University of Oslo. Previous studies have argued that student samples
 230 from across university faculties are representative of a diversity of aesthetic preferences (Stamps, 1999).
 231 However, our study deals with activity preferences that may differ considerably between students and
 232 other social groups. Our aim was to test the methodology by using a student sample that is low cost
 233 and, at the same time, sufficiently heterogeneous to demonstrate a preference survey methodology
 234 that could be used to assess preferences by the whole population.

235

236 We selected students to answer the questionnaire at different points of the *Blindern campus*, where
 237 most of the faculties of the University of Oslo are located. Interviews were conducted during the breaks
 238 and at entrance to highly frequented places (cantina, café, bar, park, library, etc.) with systematic
 239 random interception. The survey was conducted in November-December 2014 by a single interviewer.
 240 In total 85 questionnaires were completed for the purpose of testing the survey methodology. The
 241 questionnaire was divided into two main sections: (1) questions designed to assess the preference of
 242 respondents regarding structural elements of the urban green spaces in the study area (Table 2); (2)
 243 the activities that respondents conducted in parks. The list of structural elements of green spaces was
 244 determined based on available land cover data, and park management and infrastructure data
 245 provided the Urban Environment Agency. The first section of the questionnaire used a Likert-scale
 246 (Bernard, 2012) to record perceived importance on a scale from 0 to 10 (0= not important and 10=
 247 very important) following the question “*How important is the presence of the following elements when
 248 you decide to visit a park in Oslo?*” In the second section, we asked “*Which outdoor recreational
 249 activities do you practice on a regular basis when you visit parks?*”. The predefined activity categories
 250 was based on a shortened list from Chiesura (2004): 1) *to do sports*, 2) *to meet others*, 3) *to play with
 251 children*, 4) *to walk the dog*, 5) *to listen and observe nature*, 6) *to get inspiration* and 7) *other (specify)*”
 252 . The final open category captured uses such as to relax, study, and read.

253

254 *c) Spatial data analyses*

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256 A spatial analysis was carried out using ArcMap10 (ESRI) for the following variables:

257

- Green spaces size.

258 - A normalized value for structural diversity elements in each green space was calculated, hereafter
259 called the Structural Diversity Index (SDI). The normalized value ranged from 0 to 1 and expressed
260 the proportion of structural elements present in each area in relation to the total pool of structural
261 elements. SDI was also calculated for each class of structural elements (biotic, abiotic and man-made
262 structures).

$$SDI = (\text{sum elements present in polygon}) / (\text{total nr elements } (n=30)) \text{ (Equation 1)}$$

263
264
265 - Respondents' preferences for structural elements reported for parks were used to calculate "relative
266 importance scores" for structural elements in all green spaces, including cementaries and public open
267 spaces. RIS is the sum of the structural elements present weighted by the average stated preference
268 for each element based on Likert scale scores. This approach enables a non-monetary valuation of
269 the recreation service provided by a given green space based on its structural diversity. It similar to
270 importance-weighting of green structures used in methodologies to map recreational services such
271 as ESTIMAP (Zulian, Paracchini, Maes, & Liqueste, 2013; Zulian, Polce, & Maes, 2014).

$$RIS = \text{sum} (\text{elements present} * \text{average stated preference}) \text{ (Equation 2)}$$

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274 To understand the spatial distribution of the SDI and RIS values across green spaces, we used Spatial
275 Autocorrelation (Moran's I Test) and Hot Spot analyses available in ArcMap. Hot Spot Analyses
276 identifies statistically significant spatial clusters of high values (hot spots) and low values (cold spots)
277 across the study area. Moran's I provide a test of whether green spaces' structural diversity and
278 relative importance are randomly distributed across Oslo or spatially clustered. The use of reported
279 importances for structures in parks to predict importances in all green spaces represents an
280 extrapolation of the survey data.

281 d) Statistical data analyses

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283
284 We used Principal Component Analysis (PCA) to identify the main patterns in the respondents'
285 preferences for structural elements in urban green spaces. The input table consisted of the structural
286 elements in green spaces (30) and the scores given to these elements by the 85 respondents. Patterns
287 would suggest whether respondents could be grouped according to element preference profiles. A
288 second set of PCAs was conducted to identify which green space structures the individual respondents
289 specifically associated with particular activities (i.e. the six specified activities, and the seventh
290 category 'other'. We used a pseudo-canonical ordination algorithm to explore the relationship
291 between preferred green space elements and the main activities conducted by the respondents in
292 green spaces. In this analysis, recreational activities were introduced as supplementary variables after
293 deriving the principal components from the respondents' preferences for structural elements. The
294 most popular recreational activities were in decreasing order: *to meet others*, *to do sports*, *to get
295 inspiration*, *activities with children*, *to walk the dog*, and *to listen to and observe nature*. To test the
296 significance of the relationship between green space elements and the preferred activities we
297 conducted a redundancy analysis (RDA) with forward selection and the Holm P-value correction
298 method to account for multiple testing errors (ter Braak & Smilauer, 2012). The ordination analyses
299 were conducted with CANOCO v. 5.04 (ter Braak & Smilauer, 2012).

300 3. Results

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303 *What is the relationship between the size of urban green spaces and the diversity of structural
304 elements?*

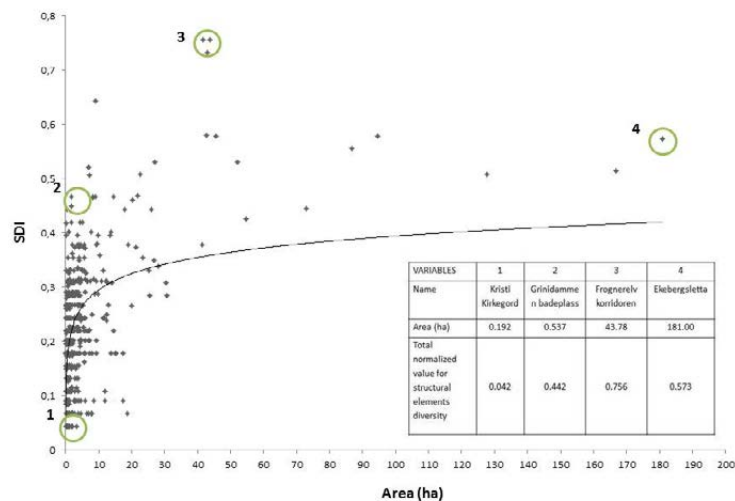
305
306 Figure 2 shows the relationship between the normalized value for structural diversity elements – SDI -
307 (vertical) and green spaces' size in hectares (horizontal). There is a non-linear positive relationship
308 between both variables below about 5 ha. Above this size of green space, the diversity of structural

309 elements remains mostly constant between values of 0.3 and 0.6. Figure 2 also shows four examples
 310 of extreme cases where small green spaces can have low (1) or high (2) structural diversity, and
 311 similarly for big green spaces (3 and 4). However, green spaces bigger than 40 ha have a minimum
 312 structural diversity of 0.35.

313

314 To illustrate which kind of structural diversity is better represented across green space size (size
 315 classification based on Oslo Municipality, 2009), we calculated an index of structural diversity (SDI) for
 316 each type of biotic-, abiotic-, and built- structures included in the mapping exercise (Table 3). For all
 317 the green space size categories, man-made elements have the lowest representation in the SDI (lowest
 318 diversity of structures). Despite having the largest number of possible elements in the SDI, any one
 319 green space contains only a few of the possible built structures that could be present. 'Pocket green
 320 spaces' and 'small green spaces' cover almost the same biotic structural diversity as 'medium green
 321 spaces'. Biotic structural diversity is higher than abiotic diversity for pocket and small green spaces.
 322 Medium and big green spaces have larger abiotic structural diversity than pocket and small green
 323 spaces. By far, abiotic SDI was highest in the largest green spaces. In general, green spaces smaller than
 324 0.5ha had similar biotic, abiotic and man-made structural diversity (Table 3).

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Figure 2. Relationship between the structural diversity index (SDI) (y) and green spaces' size in hectares (x). Extreme examples of green spaces: 1) small size and low structural diversity, 2) small size and middle-high structural diversity, 3) medium size and highest structural diversity, and 4) biggest size and middle-high structural diversity.

Table 3. Biotic, abiotic and man-made elements. Structural diversity index – SDI - across 5 categories of green spaces according to their size. Mean and 95% confidence interval

GREEN SPACE SIZE	BIOTIC ELEMENTS		ABIOTIC ELEMENTS		MAN-MADE ELEMENTS	
	Mean SDI	95%CI	Mean SDI	95%CI	Mean SDI	95%CI
Pocket (<0.1ha)	0.170	0.145 - 0.196	0.106	0.040 - 0.173	0.071	0.047 - 0.096
Pocket (<0.3ha)	0.205	0.184 - 0.226	0.129	0.083 - 0.175	0.083	0.069 - 0.097
Small (0.1-0.5ha)	0.208	0.185 - 0.232	0.163	0.110 - 0.216	0.105	0.086 - 0.124
Medium (0.5-10ha)	0.226	0.215 - 0.236	0.274	0.249 - 0.300	0.146	0.135 - 0.156
Big (>10ha)	0.326	0.285 - 0.368	0.531	0.456 - 0.605	0.255	0.211 - 0.299

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Note: partially overlapping definitions of pocket green spaces are used for comparability with definitions in Oslo Municipality (2009) and Nordh, H., & Østby, K. (2013). Green spaces include parks, cementaries and unmanaged public open spaces.

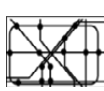





























What are the preferences for different park structural elements?

Respondents indicated *public transport* as the most preferred element (Table 4), followed by *dominance of grass, balance between forest and grass* and *lake/pond*. The least valued elements are *dog facilities, fishing areas, high presence of people* and *playgrounds*. There is a positive relationship

341 ($R^2=0.13$) between mean ranking of the preference score for the elements and their presence (%) in
 342 green spaces in Oslo. In other words, the most common park characteristics are generally the most
 343 preferred. Some elements (*lake/pond, forest dominance, old big trees*) are more highly ranked
 344 compared to their relative occurrence. On the other hand, there are very common elements that are
 345 not highly ranked (*low intensity lighting*).

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Table 4. Respondent preference ranking of structural elements in parks.

	Structural feature	Mean ranking	Std. deviation	% Presence		Structural feature	Mean ranking	Std. deviation	% Presence
	Public transport access (Transport)	7.44	2.50	72.1		Silence/tranquility areas (Silence)	5.40	2.99	20.8
	Grass dominance (Grass)	7.22	2.02	78.6		Tree species diversity	5.27	2.84	ND
	Balanced forest/grass (Balanced)	6.89	2.28	19.9		Cultural/art element (ArtCult)	5.07	2.62	7.3
	Lake/pond (LakePond)	6.63	2.52	5.8		Fountain (Fountain)	4.88	2.77	1.8
	Sitting facility (Sitting)	6.62	2.69	39.3		Sport equipment (Sport)	4.85	3.10	11.5
	River/stream (Stream)	6.52	2.48	44.4		Swimming area (Swim)	4.81	2.90	4.2
	Forest dominance (Forest)	6.22	2.48	1.6		Urban agriculture area (Agro)	4.47	2.70	9.9
	Walking/Cycle path (WalkCycl)	6.18	2.55	14.8		Fruit tree (Fruit)	4.34	2.59	3.1
	Low presence of people (LowCong)	6.18	2.32	79.9		Bars/restaurant (Bars)	3.97	2.79	1.3
	Old/big tree (Old_big)	6.14	2.75	6.4		Shrubs (Shrub)	3.95	2.13	44.4
	High intensity lighting (HighLigh)	6.14	2.47	21.9		Low intensity lighting (LowLight)	3.81	2.18	78.1
	Grill/Picnic (Picnic)	5.96	2.67	2.4		Playground (Play)	3.66	2.96	5.5
	Flowerbed (Flower)	5.90	2.77	7.7		High presence of people (HighCong)	3.55	2.10	19.6
	Wild plants and animals (Wildlife)	5.75	2.87	21.4		Fishing area by the fjord (Fishing)	2.74	2.48	2.0
	Varied terrain (Slope)	5.56	2.28	23.7		Dog facility (Dog)	2.67	2.67	1.6

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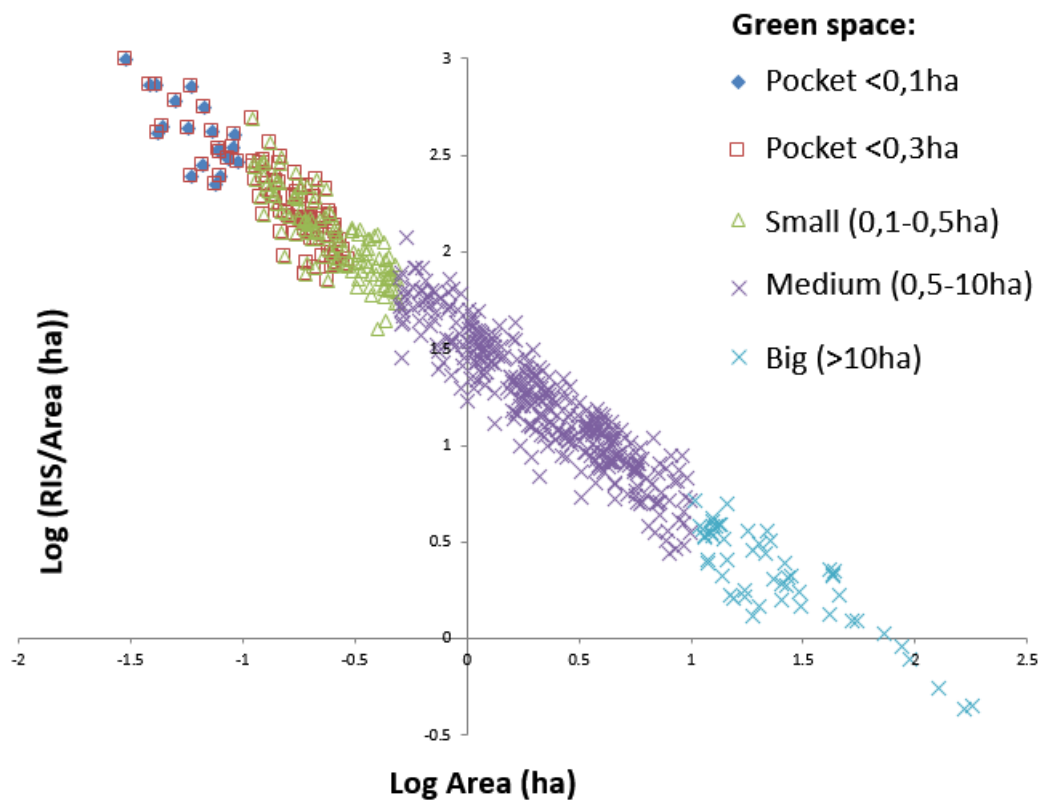
349 The relative importance score (RIS) weights the importance of structural diversity index in all green
 350 spaces by the stated relative preferences for each structural feature in parks. In other words, we
 351 transfer preferences observed for structural elements in parks to all green space types. RIS ranged
 352 from 14.58 to 97.17 and explains a gradient of recreation potential where high RIS values indicate more
 353 important structural diversity as valued by respondents. We found that high RIS values (>50) are
 354 concentrated in medium-sized and big green spaces (see Table 1 Appendix), thus “bigger” was both

355 “more diverse” and “better” (more important). However the relationship between RIS/area and Area
356 decreases exponentially when green spaces increase in size (log scale in Figure 3), indicating that
357 pocket and small parks are ‘cost-effective’ providers of recreational opportunity (in terms of surface
358 area).

359

360 The Global Moran’s I statistics are positive and significant (p -value <0.01), indicating that SDI and RIS
361 are spatially clustered. The Hot Spot Analyses shows that SDI is more homogenously distributed across
362 Oslo than RIS. However, in general more structurally diverse parks are found towards the center of the
363 built area, with more “SDI cold spots” in the built-up regions bordering the forest of Osloomarka (in
364 blue). When stated preferences are considered, green spaces in the center have higher relative
365 importance (“hot spot”) than green spaces in the outskirts (in red) (Figure 4).

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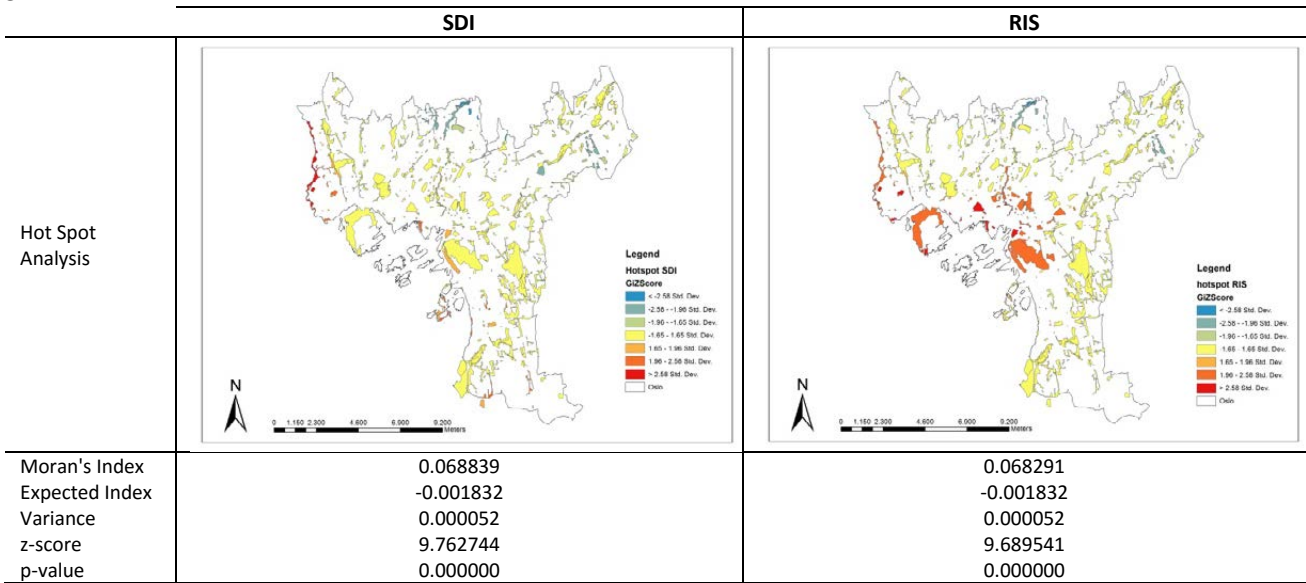
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Fig 3. Structural diversity per unit green space area for different sized green spaces. Green space size classification based on Oslo Municipality (2009).

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374 **Fig 4. Spatial distribution of the SDI (left panel) and RIS (right panel) across the green spaces.** Hot Spot Analyses ranged
375 from cold spots (in blue) to hot spots (in red).

376
377

378 *Is there an association between preferences and structural elements in parks?*

379

380 Regarding the preferences for structures in parks we found two main tendencies explained by the PCA
381 axes (Figure 5, left). The horizontal gradient explains preferences ranging from a high to a low diversity
382 of elements in parks. Elements such as *walking and cycle path, silence or balance between forest and*
383 *grass* highly explain this gradient. The vertical gradient explains preferences for high naturalization of
384 parks (*forest, low congestion, low light, wildlife, varied terrain, etc.*) to a more urban preferences,
385 characterized by the presence of human structures (*public transport, sitting, high congestion and high*
386 *lightening, grass, bars, etc.*).

387

388 There are several correlations among preferences for elements (thin green arrows in Figure 5, left
389 panel). Abiotic-aquatic elements (*stream, lake/pond, fishing and swimming areas*) have been scored
390 similarly by the respondents, but not in the case of *fountain*. High correlation is also found among
391 biotic feature (*forest, wildlife and old and big tree*) and among human structures related to social
392 relations (*bars, sitting, picnic, transport, etc.*).

393

394 The distribution of the respondents along the PCA axis reflects a distinction between the two groups
395 mentioned above (Figure 4, right panel). A greater concentration of respondents is located along the
396 horizontal axis, with preferences varying from high structural diversity, to preferences for individual
397 elements. The vertical axis distinguished between preferences towards “more urban” (down) and
398 “more natural” (up) parks. A majority of the respondents indicate a preference for “more urban” parks.
399 These are characterized by the presence of human-made elements such as *grass* and *high congestion*
400 *of people*. Some extreme answers (top of right hand panel) show strong preferences for wild and
401 natural green spaces with a medium or low structural diversity index.

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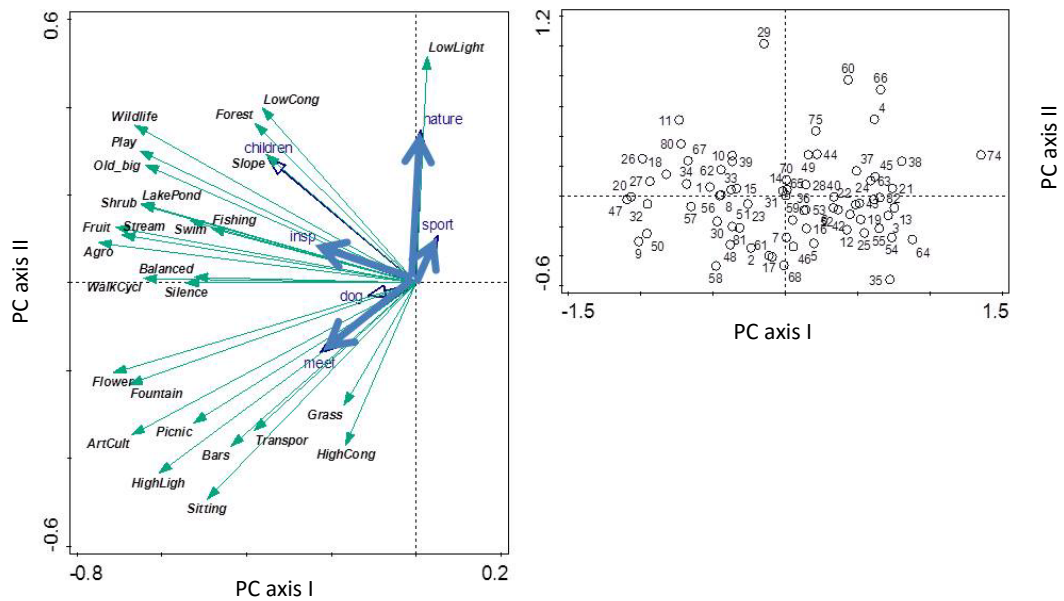


Figure 5: Principle component (PC) ordination diagram of respondents' preference scores of green space structural elements.

Left panel: The PC axis I indicates respondents' preferences for a few elements in green spaces (high PC axis I score) to a high diversity of elements (low PC axis I score). PC axis II shows groupings of elements (thin green arrows) according to preferences from high naturalization of parks (e.g. low light, low congestion, wildlife, old big trees) to more urban park preferences (e.g. high congestion, sitting, grass, transport, bars). Thick blue arrows indicate the preferred activities (6) reported by the responds. Activity variables were passive variables in the PCA analysis (not affecting the ordination of the element scores).

Full name of the structural elements can be found in Table 4. Full name of the variables are the following: to meet others (meet), to do sports (sport), to get inspiration (insp) and to listen and observe nature (nature)

Right panel: PC ordination diagram of the 85 respondents showing the spread along PC axis I and PC axis II according to their preference scores for each structural element. Some respondents scored a few elements very high and other very low (right section in the diagram), and others scored several elements high (left section in the diagram)

Are particular structures related to a particular activity in parks?

We included the most popular activities among the respondents (*to meet others, to do sports, to get inspiration and to listen and observe nature*) in the analyses and tested the association between activities and the structures that are preferred for these activities with the RDA (see Figure 1 – Appendix).

To meet with others is the only statistically significant activity in the model ($P < 0.05$) and is associated with the 'urban type' of green space elements (e.g. *picnic, sitting and grass* elements; see also Fig. 5). Other correspondence between activities and structural elements are not statically significant, but some trends can be observed (Fig. 5). *Slope, high light, walking and cycle paths and forest* appear to be important elements for engaging in sport activities in parks. *Slope* and *good lighting* are correlated, as well as *forest* and *walking and cycle paths*. This trend differentiates between i) daily sport activities, mainly related to running in a varied terrain and good illumination; and ii) sport activities in a forest habitat with wildlife and following a path. A high number of elements are similarly important for the respondents *to get inspiration* in green spaces, and those are the following: *old and big trees, forest, stream, lake/pond, wildlife, low congestion, low light, grass and art/cultural elements*.

440 Two types of preferences are related to *getting inspiration from parks*: i) some respondents relate
441 *inspiration* with sitting or walking/cycling surrounded by nature (*forest or grass*) with presence of *old*
442 *and big trees* while ii) others relate inspiration with green spaces with presence of *water elements* and
443 *wildlife*, and with solitude and a natural atmosphere. Elements considered important for *to listen and*
444 *observe nature* are similar with *to get inspiration: stream, lake/pond, old and big trees, wildlife, forest*
445 and *grass*. Respondents who prefer water elements differ from those with high preferences for biotic
446 elements. Preference for water elements are highly correlated with *sitting features* and the preference
447 for biotic elements with *walking and cycle paths*.
448 The results also indicate that different people choose different elements to conduct the same activity
449 (e.g. some use 'park-like elements - sitting, grass, etc.' for inspiration, whereas other seeks *forest, low*
450 *congestion, etc.*). The only activity that corresponded significantly with structural elements is *to meet*
451 *with others*.

452 Maps in Figure 2 – Appendix shows an application of the PCA results for parks with a ranking map of
453 all green spaces' potential to satisfy each activity based on the elements present and their value as
454 reported by the respondents. Following this approach all green spaces can be categorized into
455 "experience classes" based on the structures present, illustrating the spatial complementarity of green
456 spaces across the cityscape.

457

458 **3 Discussion**

459

460 *Structural diversity and green space size*

461

462 Some authors have found that size is an important factor for recreational service delivery of urban
463 green spaces (Coles & Bussey, 2000; Tyrväinen et al., 2005). We evaluated this relationship in two
464 steps; first the correlation between green space size and structural diversity; and second the relative
465 importance of individual structures as observed for parks. Our results reveal that size is not a very good
466 determinant of structural diversity. Green spaces with the same size can be very different in terms of
467 composition. In Oslo, pocket, small and middle green spaces have similar biotic SDI values

468 On the other hand, when we combined SDI with stated preferences for structural elements as observed
469 for parks, we found that the relative importance index increases exponentially with size, and that the
470 highest RISs are achieved only in large green spaces. In terms of biotic elements, we can consider that
471 pocket and small green spaces are substitutes for medium green spaces because they cover almost the
472 same biotic structural diversity (Table 3). However, pocket and small green spaces fail to cover a
473 considerable range of the preferences among respondents, especially because man-made elements
474 are not well represented in small and pocket green spaces, and those were highly valued by a group
475 of respondents (i.e. respondents who scored high elements such as bars, grass, transport, Fig. 5). As
476 medium sized green spaces are relatively space consuming and have high opportunity costs from
477 foregone property development, our findings can contribute to new districts design (e.g. the new
478 urban conversion in Hovinbyen, Oslo). Pocket and small green spaces with high proportion of biotic
479 structural make them key elements in a blue-green strategy for the city.

480 Based on the findings we also think that the urban green spaces classification based on size currently
481 used by Oslo Municipality (2009) to conduct 'gap analysis' for green spaces could be improved by
482 incorporating structural diversity indicators.

483 *Structural diversity and recreation opportunities*

484

485 All of our analyses support the assertion in the literature that preferences are highly heterogeneous
486 (e.g. Edwards et al., 2012; Grahn & Stigsdotter, 2010; Gundersen & Frivold, 2008; Nordh, 2010; Tveit

487 et al., 2006; Tyrväinen et al., 2007). We find this even for our demonstration sample of university
488 students focusing on preferences for structures in parks. We therefore tested the hypothesis that what
489 people seek in urban parks is a diversity of natural and man-made facilities that in turn encourage
490 diversity of activities (Burgess et al., 1988; Van Herzele & Wiedemann, 2003). However, our results
491 indicate that university students enjoy low structural diversity parks with some specific elements,
492 especially parks with a high level of “natural” elements (*silence, walking and cycle path, and balanced*
493 *between grass and forest*) as we have defined them in our study. Thus, structural diversity in itself is
494 not such a good proxy of the recreational service provided by green space. Although complexity has
495 been found to be an important factor for experience (e.g. Edwards et al., 2012; Kaplan & Kaplan, 1989;
496 Tveit et al., 2006), there is evidence that preference value is low when complexity is both very low and
497 very high (bell shaped). When complexity is very high, the readability of the environment is low; i.e. in
498 a “messy” environment it could be difficult to orient oneself (Kaplan & Kaplan, 1989).

499
500 In addition, the indices we used (SDI and RIS), while appropriate for urban parks, do not capture the
501 structural diversity of on the one hand, cementaries with a large diversity of built structures, and the
502 other hand unmanaged peri-urban forests, bogs, lakes, pastures with high biotic and abiotic structural
503 diversity. Although the Osломarka can be considered an area with low structural diversity in terms of
504 the urban green space elements in our typology, it is highly valued for the opportunities it provides for
505 traditional outdoor recreational activities and nature experiences in a peaceful and quiet environment
506 (Odden, 1998). In addition, natural structural diversity has been reported to have positive effects on
507 mental health and creativity (Atchley, Strayer, & Atchley, 2012).

508
509 The Municipal Plan to 2030 proposed the designation of “activity zones” in the fringe of Marka along
510 the built area, providing higher diversity of built elements and accessibility (Oslo Municipality, 2015).
511 For the Oslo case study, the Marka forest can presently be considered an area offering recreational
512 opportunities low on structural diversity of specifically urban green space elements. Other authors
513 have reported that natural structural diversity has positive effects on mental health and creativity
514 (Atchley et al., 2012). However, we note that the indices we used (SDI and RIS), while appropriate for
515 urban green spaces, do not fully capture the structural diversity of natural and semi-natural
516 ecosystems (forests, bogs, lakes, pastures etc.).

517 518 *Use and preferences for certain structural elements*

519
520 The spatial distribution of structural elements and their relative importance diverge. Including the
521 preferences for the different structural elements and weighting of SDI, helped to understand the
522 different recreational services provided by green structures in Oslo. We found that diverse green
523 spaces with highly ranked elements are concentrated in the city center, while areas with relatively few
524 such qualities – as measured by our SDI - are concentrated near the Marka forest. As mentioned above,
525 the indices we used (SDI and RIS), are appropriate for urban parks, but fail to capture adequately the
526 structural diversity of natural and semi-natural ecosystems, because built structures are over-
527 represented in our typology compared to biotic and abiotic ones. Here, results are biased by the urban
528 character of the SDI criteria. The typology could be refined to include a higher diversity of biotic and
529 abiotic elements known to be appreciated in recreational activities (i.e. berry and mushroom picking,
530 bird watching and listening, collecting plant parts (flowers, cones), climbing on trees and rocks). Some
531 elements in urban green spaces are specifically related to particular activities, as Voigt et al. (2014)
532 have found. The monumental and floral diversity of cementaries, and different cultural-religious
533 norms regarding active and passive recreational uses also make it clear that cementaries and parks
534 should be differentiated in further mapping of preferences (Swensen et al. 2016).

535
536 Nevertheless, a core finding in our study is that different people choose different elements to conduct
537 the same activity. This result is in line with earlier findings that those who participate in the same

538 activity may differ in terms of environmental preferences (Gundersen & Frivold, 2008). Only *'to meet*
539 *with others'* is consistently associated with certain structural elements. We found a distinction across
540 types of green spaces preferences: more natural vs. with more human intervention, along a gradient
541 of structural diversity (e.g. Kopomaa, 1995; Yli-Pelkonen, Pispala, & Helle, 2006) and across types of
542 leisure activities (active/passive) (e.g. Voigt et al., 2014).

543 These findings are in agreement with previous studies which propose a classification of green spaces
544 depending on the experience class they offer across a gradient of 'strongly man-made' to 'natural'
545 elements (Caspersen & Olafsson, 2010; Gundersen et al., 2015; Zulian et al., 2013, Larson et al. 2016).
546 Green space design and planning needs to consider whether green spaces should have a high diversity
547 of elements per unit area or whether green spaces across a city should cover this variation of
548 preferences. Our results support the idea of establishing zoning of uses across a natural continuum
549 from man-made to nature dominated environment (Gundersen et al., 2015) and different functional
550 levels of green spaces (Van Herzele & Wiedemann, 2003). In this sense, they are in line with the
551 Municipal Plan to 2030 in Oslo that proposed a stronger zoning, with designation of "activity zones" in
552 the fringe of Oslomarka along the built-up area, providing higher diversity of built elements and
553 accessibility (Oslo Municipality, 2015).

554

555 **Conclusions**

556

557 This research proposed several methods to characterize urban green spaces that links green space
558 qualities to citizens preferences for recreation services as a set of assessment tools that can capture
559 the ranges of green space functionality. We argue that the coupling of biophysical qualities with data
560 on use/preferences has not received sufficient attention in the urban recreation services mapping
561 literature, and also a component seldom included in green space planning. To this end, we combined
562 the 'structural diversity index' developed by Voigt et al. (2014) with visitors' activities and stated
563 preferences. This allowed us to create a ranking of green spaces based on relative importance, a
564 methodological approach of urban green structure valuation.

565

566 We found that size is not a proportional determinant of structural diversity of green spaces. Similar
567 green space sizes offer a big variability of diversity of elements. Results reveal that in terms of the
568 diversity of biotic elements, as defined in our study, pocket and small green spaces are partial
569 substitutes for medium green spaces, but not for man-made elements. These findings support the
570 establishment of pocket and small green spaces with more man-made infrastructures, where possible.
571 We find that pocket and small green spaces are important supplements to existing green structure in
572 the city of Oslo. Nevertheless pocket and small green spaces require a 'backbone' of larger green
573 spaces with complementary uses.

574

575 A higher diversity of structural elements does not necessarily offer more opportunities for people with
576 diverse recreational interests. Preferences are highly heterogeneous and low structural diversity with
577 certain elements was also highly valued by a large number of respondents. Although we found a
578 distinction across types of park preferences, people enjoy the same structural elements for a high
579 number of different activities. Current typologies of urban parks, including the SDI, fail to adequately
580 describe the richness of elements in all green spaces with a more natural character. These include
581 larger areas used for recreation in urban fringes, forest and semi-natural habitat remnants within the
582 build-up zone, as well as cemeteries. Since these areas are important and complementary in terms of
583 the recreational services they provide, future research could develop a more comprehensive typology
584 of urban green space qualities.

585

586 Our results highlight the possibility of zoning, not of uses directly, nor of specific types of structures,
587 but a “soft zoning” of structural diversity itself across a wilderness gradient. This would facilitate a
588 diversity of activities compatible within an experience class, leaving people to choose where to carry
589 them out, allowing a greater diversity of preferences to be expressed across the cityscape. By
590 combining information on stated preference for structural elements with the structural diversity index
591 we demonstrate how to distinguish the recreational potential of different green spaces.
592

593 We used a convenience sample of university students to demonstrate our approach. However, the
594 methodology could be extended to other social groups to cover the social diversity of the urban
595 population. Our results show a high diversity of preferences for different structural elements in green
596 spaces and that these preferences are not too tightly related to specific activities in which urban
597 dwellers commonly engage. The structural diversity index that we developed combined with
598 preference data could provide better empirical support for the planned mapping and valuation
599 of recreational areas by municipalities in Norway.
600

601 602 603 **Acknowledgments** 604

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Appendix

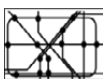





























Green Space size classification	Relative Importance Score - RIS	Number of green spaces	% of green spaces	Number of hectares	% of hectares
Pocket (<0.1ha)	<25	7	31,82	0,42	16,54
	25-50	15	68,18	0,94	37,01
	51-75	0	0	0	0
	>75	0	0	0	0
Pocket (<0.3ha)	<25	30	29,41	5,11	30,69
	25-50	70	68,63	11,22	67,39
	51-75	2	1,96	0,32	1,92
	>75	0	0	0	0
Small (0.1-0.5ha)	<25	31	23,66	7,64	21,57
	25-50	98	74,81	27,46	77,53
	51-75	2	1,53	0,32	0,90
	>75	0	0	0	0
Medium (0.5-10ha)	<25	44	12,94	101,34	10,15
	25-50	245	72,05	681,5	68,30
	51-75	50	14,70	205,8	20,62
	>75	1	0,29	9,1	0,91
Big (>10ha)	<25	3	5,56	49,15	2,73
	25-50	20	37,04	321,32	17,83
	51-75	22	40,74	853,31	47,34
	>75	9	16,67	578,66	32,10

Table 1. RIS values across green spaces size classification based on Oslo Municipality (2009) (Pocket parks <0.1 has; Pocket parks <0.3ha; Small parks 0.1-0.5 has; Medium parks 0.5-10 has; Large parks >10 has)

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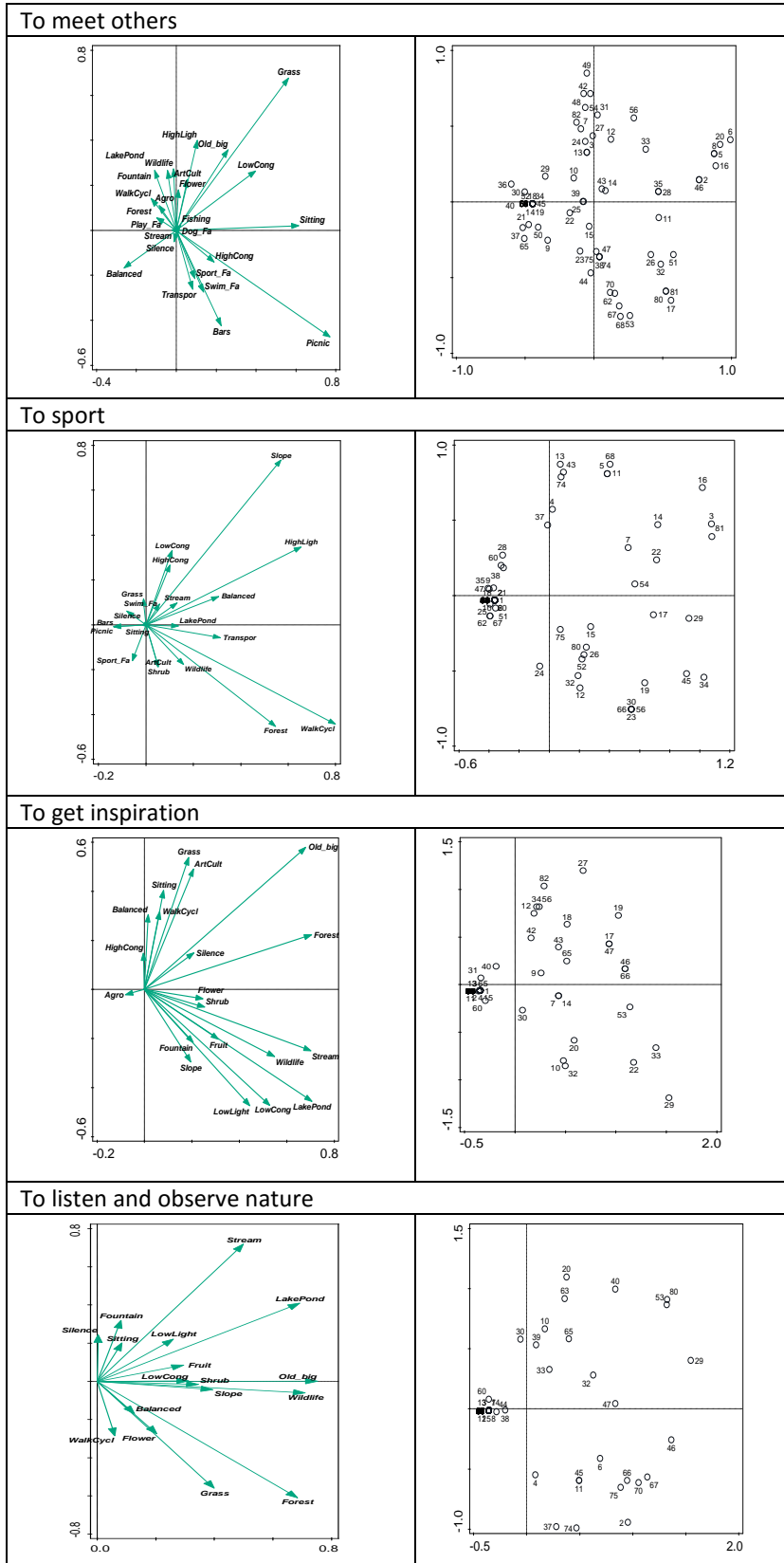
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Table 2. Explanation of structural elements.

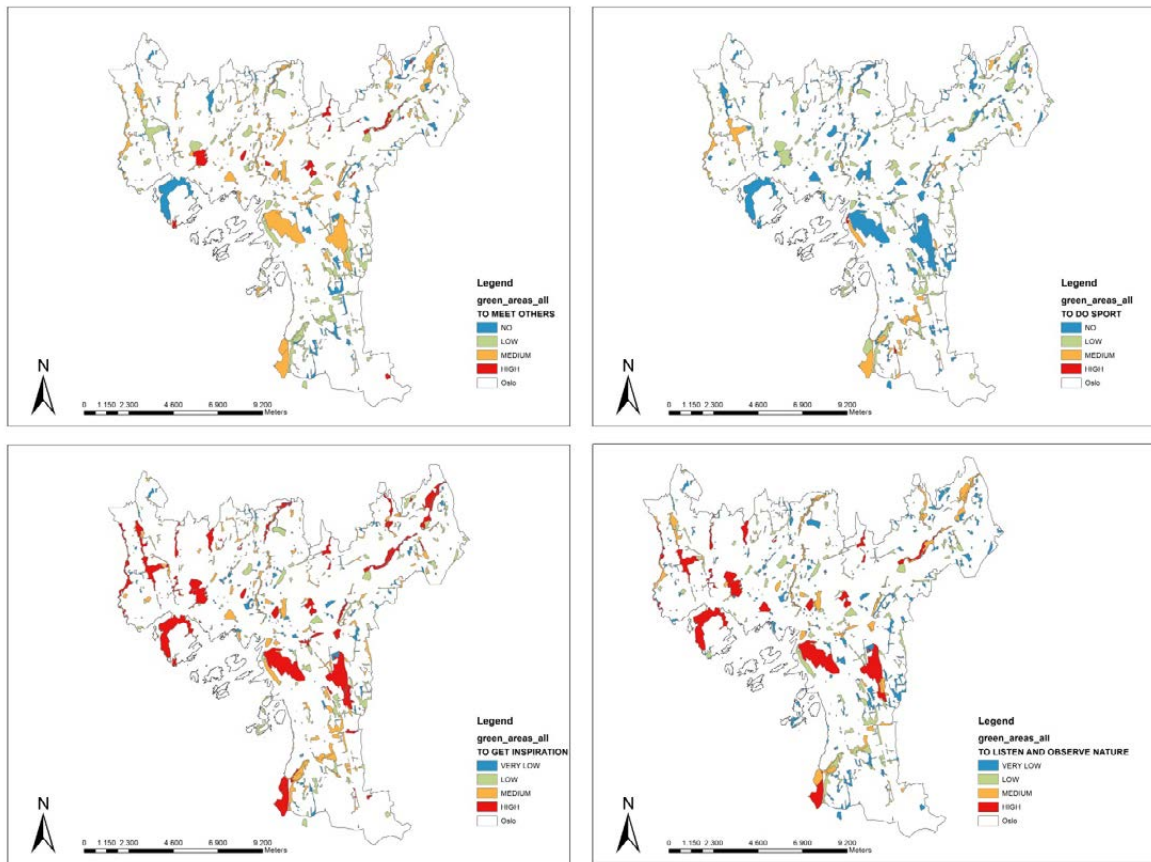
	Structural feature	Explanation		Structural feature	Explanation
	Public transport access (<i>Transport</i>)	bus, tram, metro and train within a <i>buffer</i> area of 100m around each park polygon		Silence/tranquility areas (<i>Silence</i>)	14 areas Oslo Municipality has designated as blue-green quiet areas
	Grass dominance (<i>Grass</i>)	more than 60% of polygon		Tree species diversity	Tree species in managed parks
	Balanced forest/grass (<i>Balanced</i>)	between 40 and 60% of polygon		Cultural/art element (<i>ArtCult</i>)	e.g. sculptures identified in parks
	Lake/pond (<i>LakePond</i>)	presence		Fountain (<i>Fountain</i>)	presence
	Sitting facility (<i>Sitting</i>)	Sitting facilities within green space		Sport equipment (<i>Sport</i>)	presence
	River/stream (<i>Stream</i>)	presence		Swimming area (<i>Swim</i>)	within a <i>buffer</i> area of 100m around each polygon
	Forest dominance (<i>Forest</i>)	more than 60% of polygon		Urban agriculture area (<i>Agro</i>)	designated
	Walking/Cycle path (<i>WalkCycl</i>)	presence		Fruit tree (<i>Fruit</i>)	presence
	Low presence of people (<i>LowCong</i>)	average population density lower than 4600 inhabitants/km ²		Bars/restaurant (<i>Bars</i>)	presence
	Old/big tree (<i>Old_big</i>)	presence		Shrubs (<i>Shrub</i>)	Presence of managed bushes
	High intensity lighting (<i>HighLigh</i>)	more than 50% of area had light point density (>10 light points/ha)		Low intensity lighting (<i>LowLight</i>)	less than 50% of area had light point density (>10 light points/ha)
	Grill/Picnic (<i>Picnic</i>)	presence		Playground (<i>Play</i>)	presence
	Flowerbed (<i>Flower</i>)	Presence of flowerbeds managed by municipality		High presence of people (<i>HighCong</i>)	average population density greater than 4600 inhabitants/km ²
	Wild plants and animals (<i>Wildlife</i>)	Municipally designated wildlife viewing areas		Fishing area by the fjord (<i>Fishing</i>)	presence
	Varied terrain (<i>Slope</i>)	more than 30% of the green space surface had a slope of 20% or higher		Dog facility (<i>Dog</i>)	presence

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679 **Figure 1.** Results of the PCA showing the relationship of elements in urban green space with the most popular recreational
 680 activities revealed by the respondents (to meet others, to sport, to get inspiration, and to listen and observe nature). To the
 681 left, a PCA plot of elements and their association with PCA axis I and II.. To the right, ordination of respondents along PCA
 682 axis I and II.
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685 **Figure 2.** Ranking map of the green spaces potential to satisfy each activity based on the elements present and their value
 686 reported by the respondents.
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