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What might 'just green enough' urban development mean in the context of climate change adaptation? The case of Taipei Metropolis, Taiwan.

Leslie Mabon^{1*} and Wan-Yu Shih²

1. School of Applied Social Studies, Robert Gordon University, Garthdee Road, Aberdeen AB10 7QG Scotland, United Kingdom. E: l.j.mabon@rgu.ac.uk; T: +0044 (0)1224 263210; F: +0044 (0)1224 263222 (*=corresponding author)

2. Department of Urban Planning and Disaster Management, Ming-Chuan University, 5 De Ming Road, Gui Shan District, Taoyuan City 333 Taiwan, R.O.C. E: shih@mail.mcu.edu.tw

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What might ‘just green enough’ urban development mean in the context of climate change adaptation? The case of Taipei Metropolis, Taiwan.

HIGHLIGHTS

- Climate adaptation needs reconsideration of equity in urban greening, as ecosystem function comes from range of greenspaces
- Risk of reinforcing inequality via structural issues in planning processes must be balanced with risk of harm from inaction
- In Taipei, site-specific controversies about greenspace in urban development challenge evidence-based adaptation planning
- Taipei illustrates how excessive pragmatism towards how greening is achieved may sideline or obscure justice concerns
- Taipei suggests scientific and political competences required for strategic greening make equity planning more complex

1 FULL FINAL MANUSCRIPT

2

3 What might ‘just green enough’ urban development mean in the context of climate change
4 adaptation? The case of urban greenspace planning in Taipei Metropolis, Taiwan.

5

6 ABSTRACT

7

8 This paper argues that climate change adaptation through strategic greenspace planning
9 requires scholars and planners to think differently about what equity means in an urban
10 greenspace context. We use the heat mitigation potential of greenspace and the case of Taipei
11 Metropolis in Taiwan to assess challenges arising from thinking about fairness in terms of
12 distribution of benefits from greenspace functions, as opposed to fairness in greenspace
13 accessibility and availability. Urban greening to foster ‘resilient’ communities arguably
14 deflects from – or even exacerbates - structural causes of vulnerability, with benefits accruing
15 disproportionately to more affluent or empowered groups. Yet the need for practical action on
16 climate threats in cities is urgent, and for heat, strategic greenspace use considered
17 systematically across a city may mitigate effects through the cooling effect of vegetation. The
18 challenge is thus to balance the justice concerns associated with urban greening with this
19 tangible risk reduction potential.

20

21 We undertake content analysis of articles from two Taiwanese newspapers – the *Taipei Times*
22 and the *China Post* - to assess how heat and greenspace issues have been discussed in urban
23 governance debates within Taipei. We suggest change adaptation through urban greening
24 raises three challenges for equity thinking: (a) guiding planning and governance processes
25 with scientific understanding of how greenspace functions are delivered, even in the face of

26 urban development pressures and site-specific controversies; (b) tempering the social
27 cohesion and practical deployment benefits of neighbourhood-level greening with the need
28 for specific understanding at the city-wide level to most effectively realise ecosystem services;
29 and (c) linking targeted adaptation actions with broader rationales for urban greening, whilst
30 not diluting justice concerns. We caution that pragmatism towards all urban climate
31 adaptation via greening as intrinsically ‘good’ must not serve as a blinder to the need for
32 accompanying social policy measures to reduce unequal vulnerability to climate risks.

33

34 Keywords: climate change adaptation; ecosystem services; equity planning; Taipei; urban
35 greenspace; urban heat island effect.

36

37 HIGHLIGHTS

38

- 39 ● Climate adaptation needs reconsideration of equity in urban greening, as ecosystem
40 function comes from range of greenspaces
- 41 ● Risk of reinforcing inequality via structural issues in planning processes must be
42 balanced with risk of harm from inaction
- 43 ● In Taipei, site-specific controversies about greenspace in urban development
44 challenge evidence-based adaptation planning
- 45 ● Taipei illustrates how excessive pragmatism towards how greening is achieved may
46 sideline or obscure justice concerns
- 47 ● Taipei suggests scientific and political competences required for strategic greening
48 make equity planning more complex

49 1. Introduction

50

51 This paper elaborates questions raised by climate change adaptation for addressing equity
52 issues in urban greenspace planning. We take the heat mitigation potential of greenspace as a
53 point of departure to consider the challenges and complexities that may arise when
54 considering equity in terms of distribution of benefits arising from greenspace functions, as
55 opposed to purely issues of access and availability.

56

57 Greenspace planning of course considers many factors, of which cooling service is only one.
58 However, the urban heat island (UHI) effect - higher temperatures in urban areas than their
59 rural surroundings – is one of the crucial issues for urban climate change adaptation (Gill,
60 Handley, Ennos, & Pauleit, 2007; Roszenweig, Solecki, Hammer, & Mehrotra, 2011).
61 Development patterns lead to uneven distribution of physical exposure and societal
62 vulnerability to heat across cities, with recognition that more vulnerable people - elderly,
63 low-income or marginalised groups such as migrants or ethnic minorities – may be
64 disproportionately exposed to heat risk (Harlan, Brazel, Prashad, Stefanov, & Larsen, 2006;
65 Byrne et al., 2016). Greenspaces can have a cooling effect through the lower radiance,
66 increased evapotranspiration and greater shading provided by vegetated surfaces (Bowler,
67 Buyung-Ali, Knight, & Pullin, 2010). This may be realised through preservation and
68 development of urban greenspace, thinking about cooling as one of the functions greenspace
69 provides (e.g. heat mitigation, water storage, air purification) beyond its recreational potential
70 (Hebbert, 2008; van Leeuwen, Nijkamp, & de Noronha Vaz, 2010) (see Table 1 for
71 definitions). Nonetheless, urban development processes may also influence how greenery is
72 distributed within a city, potentially accruing towards more affluent areas (Apparicio, Pham,
73 Séguin, & Dubé, 2016) and/or displacing more vulnerable groups through processes such as

74 environmental gentrification (Dooling, 2009). Due to its cooling function – and the fact
75 greenspace is an important measure in urban planning – heat mitigation through greenspace is
76 therefore a useful starting point for a conversation on how climate change adaptation might
77 require scholars to think differently about greenspace equity in urban development.

78

79 Our case study is Taipei City in Taiwan. Global warming and rapid urbanisation are
80 significantly increasing temperatures in Taipei (Bai, Juang & Kondoh, 2011; Hsu et al., 2011).
81 The thermal comfort-increasing potential of green infrastructure has been evaluated in the
82 national-level Adaptation Strategy to Climate Change in Taiwan (Council for Economic
83 Planning and Development [CEPD], 2012). However, development and deployment of green
84 infrastructure for UHI mitigation in Taipei has thus far not been as fully developed as it could
85 have (Huang et al., 2013). The inadequacy of guidelines for addressing heat mitigation via
86 strategic green infrastructure planning at the local-level could arise due to lack of awareness
87 on how the heterogeneity of heat exposure is influenced by urban development; inadequate
88 evidence to develop land use strategies for mitigating heat exposure; low policy priority
89 compared to other climate impacts; and limited integration of climate change adaptation into
90 existing urban planning systems (e.g. Chang, Seto & Huang, 2013; Mabon and Shih, in press).

91

92 Chu, Anguelovski, and Roberts (2017) suggest that in such situations of demonstrable
93 potential but a challenging socio-political context, urban environmental planning targeted
94 strategically at climate adaptation gains may transcend traditional sectoral barriers to climate
95 action. We therefore use one particular goal, heat mitigation, as a point of departure to
96 evaluate the extent to which 'strategic action' may balance up with the risk of overlooking or
97 reinforcing existing inequalities in the rush for short-term adaptation gains. Specifically, we
98 assess the potential of existing 'just green enough' (Curran & Hamilton, 2012; Wolch, Byrne,

99 & Newell, 2014) and ‘equity planning’ (Metzger, 1996; Zapata & Bates, 2015) frameworks
100 to safeguard equity within strategic climate adaptation responses. Thus far, these concepts
101 have largely been applied in relation to accessible usable greenspaces such as playgrounds
102 (Talen & Anselin, 1998) and nature walks (Curran & Hamilton, 2012) as opposed to areas
103 such as agricultural lands, rivers and wetlands which are not planned for the use of people yet
104 are crucial to delivering ecosystem function. Like Talen and Anselin (1998), we understand
105 spatial *equity* to mean ‘equality’ in the context of how questions of need, fairness or justice
106 are addressed across space. We look at how potential equity issues have arisen over time in
107 Taipei in relation to (a) which locations in the city are getting attention in greenspace
108 discussions; (b) whose voices are most prominent in discussions around heat and greening;
109 and (c) what current rationales and pathways to greening are and how well suited they may be
110 to equitable climate adaptation. We argue that maintaining equity thinking within strategic
111 action for climate adaptation may require: recognising that controversy over greenspace
112 access and allocation may not sit with the manner in which greenspace functions like cooling
113 are delivered and distributed; acknowledging the value of neighbourhood-scale actions but
114 also their potential limitations in delivering ecosystem services; and ensuring more broad-
115 based rationales for greening actions do not dilute or sideline justice concerns.

116

117 *[INSERT TABLE 1 NEAR HERE: TERMINOLOGY AND DEFINITIONS]*

118

119 2. Theoretical and conceptual background

120

121 Recent critical social science scholarship indicates that urban planning responses to climate
122 change - including greening - are not value-neutral and may if adopted uncritically perpetuate
123 or exacerbate existing inequalities (e.g. Anguelovski et al., 2016; Castan Broto, 2017). This

124 paper speaks to this literature by considering the additional complexities that arise from
125 considering equity within the full suite of greenspaces across a city (e.g. agricultural lands,
126 rivers, wetlands) which deliver ecosystem functions.

127

128 2.1. Green inequality, resilience and consensus

129

130 Different approaches have sought to consider how greening is distributed within a city.
131 Concepts such as 'luxury effect' (Hope et al., 2003; Liu & Hite, 2013) and 'green inequality'
132 (Apparicio et al., 2016) argue greening may disproportionately accrue to affluent areas. This
133 applies to benefits such as climate risk reduction (Gill et al., 2007) and more specifically
134 cooling (Harlan et al., 2006; Byrne et al., 2016) which come from the existence value of
135 greenspace; and also to health (Ward Thompson et al., 2012), psychological (Fuller, Irvine,
136 Devine-Wright, Warren, & Gaston, 2007) and social cohesion (Jim and Chan, 2016) benefits
137 that can build adaptive capacity and relate to the use value of greenspace. More vulnerable
138 populations are less likely to live in areas which have well-planned greenspaces, and/or have
139 less ability to fund, maintain and develop such spaces in cities. This further increases the heat
140 risk they face (Reckien et al., 2017). Moreover, environmental (Dooling, 2009) and green
141 gentrification (Wolch et al., 2014) (hereafter 'green gentrification') suggests that urban
142 greening initiatives may, by improving environmental quality, lead to increases in land and
143 housing prices, thereby forcing out of the area the vulnerable people that the initiatives were
144 intended to benefit. In Taipei, it has been argued in Jou, Clark, & Chen (2016) that
145 participation in municipal-led greening initiatives has served as cover to allow developers
146 access to land and planning privileges.

147

148 Urban greening is increasingly justified through its contribution to ecosystem services and
149 building resilience (e.g. Hunter & Brown, 2012; Steiner, 2014; Meerow & Newell, 2017).
150 Thinking of urban greening in this way is argued to go beyond the health and aesthetic
151 arguments outlined above and emphasise the value urban greening brings to society in
152 responding to environmental issues through, for example, UHI mitigation or rainfall retention
153 (Gill et al., 2007). These ecosystem services can in turn be linked to quality of life and
154 comfort issues for people via, for instance, pollution reduction or climate regulation (Schekte,
155 Haase, & Breuste, 2010). However, use of ecosystem services framings to build cross-sector
156 consensus on the value of urban environments (e.g. Roberts et al., 2012; Baro et al., 2016)
157 has been argued to lack clarity on definitions and practical courses of action (Matthews, Lo,
158 & Byrne, 2015); over-simplify the complex socio-political landscape behind environmental
159 problems (Norgaard, 2010); or even perpetuate inequality through replication of capitalist
160 processes of economic valuation (Kosoy & Corbera, 2010). The time component involved
161 must also be borne in mind, Jim (2004) noting benefits and effects of greening actions are
162 realised across generations.

163

164 'Resilient' cities too have faced criticism. Parnell (2016) charts the emerging centrality of
165 cities to sustainable development thought, which is reflected in high-profile initiatives aimed
166 at urban resilience (e.g the Rockefeller Foundation's *100 Resilient Cities* Programme; the
167 *New Urban Agenda*; the *UN Global Compact Cities Programme*; and the aim of Sustainable
168 Development Goal 11 to "make cities inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable" (United
169 Nations, 2015, para. 1)). Yet there is a critical social science backlash against resilience
170 thinking (Meerow, Newell, & Stults, 2016). This centres on concerns that governance based
171 on 'resilience' shifts attention away from underlying justice concerns (Lockie, 2016) and acts
172 - especially when linked with sustainability - as a depoliticising concept where a focus on

173 consensus reinforces existing power relations and maintains the status quo (e.g. Clark, 2013).
174 A focus on making cities and the communities within them resilient to 'inevitable' shocks is
175 argued to be a diversion from reflection on the need for deeper structural change (Kaika,
176 2017). Chu et al. (2017) concede that whilst strategic planning for climate change adaptation
177 may be able to transcend sectoral interests and make gains in practical action, it may not be
178 able to facilitate this kind of deeper political economic restructuring in cities.

179

180 These concerns over ecosystem services and resilience occupy separate fields. Yet there is a
181 common concern that current trends in urban environmental governance and planning
182 processes towards building consensus on the need for 'resilient' cities may not be up to the job
183 of ensuring justice for the most vulnerable members of society. In theory, there would
184 therefore be good reasons to be suspicious of the ability of large-scale, municipal-led
185 greening initiatives, undertaken within current urban governance frameworks under the aim
186 of building 'resilience', to be able to deliver greening benefits equitably (e.g. Haase et al.,
187 2017). However, a UHI mitigation and climate change adaptation context adds additional
188 complexity. Setting aside debates on what 'resilience' means in urban governance and why
189 (Meerow et al., 2016), in an engineering and risk management context, 'success' in building
190 resilience can be viewed as the ability of organisations, groups and individuals to anticipate
191 the complexity of the real world before failures and harm occur (Hollnagel, Woods, &
192 Leveson, 2006). deVerteuil and Golubchikov (2016) similarly argue that 'resilience' may in
193 situations help to sustain survival, thus acting as a necessary precursor for the kind of deeper
194 reflection outlined above. In this way, greening might be important in making cities 'resilient'
195 to impending climatic changes by acting to anticipate and prevent future harm – as we now
196 discuss.

197

198 2.2. Taipei, climate change and spatial planning

199

200 Policy, planning and socio-cultural context are very dynamic spheres, hence our intention is
201 not to evaluate how equitable Taipei's greenspace planning processes are in relation to
202 climate adaptation or even heat mitigation *per se*, but rather to use recent greenspace debates
203 in the city to make more general observations about the challenges that thinking in terms of
204 functional greenspace raises for equity planning. Under the IPCC RCP 8.5 scenario (business
205 as usual), Taipei will see average summer temperatures increase by 1.125 to 1.25 ° C over the
206 2021-2040 period (Taiwan Climate Change Protection and Information Platform [TCCIP],
207 2017). Even under the RCP 2.6 scenario (i.e. radical emissions reductions), Taipei average
208 summer temperatures are still set to increase by 0.625 to 0.75 ° C over the same period
209 (TCCIP, 2017). Liu et al. (2010) note that the decadal mean number of hot days increased
210 from 5-22 days/year to 37 days/year in the 2000s. Taipei also has an ageing population -
211 nearly 15% of the population in 2016 were over 65 (Taipei City Government, 2016). This
212 ageing trend is set to continue in Taipei, with the elderly being among the most vulnerable
213 groups to extreme heat (Chen et al., 2016).

214

215 In short, even under ambitious climate mitigation pathways, Taipei is arguably already
216 'locked in' to potentially harmful levels of warming and to an increase in vulnerable
217 population in the near future. Furthermore, the need to renew national electricity
218 infrastructure may well increase electricity prices (Tung, Tseng, Huang, Liu, & Hu 2013),
219 limiting potential for air conditioning use. As such, the *Adaptation Strategy to Climate*
220 *Change in Taiwan* (CEPD, 2012) considers land use and green infrastructure. Nevertheless,
221 to realise cooling benefits, this must be deployed in a systematic manner (Gill et al., 2007)
222 through actions such as preserving green hills, expanding parks, planting urban trees and

223 forests, and proliferation of ground and roof vegetation (Bowler et al., 2010; City of Stuttgart,
224 2017). In Taipei, for instance, the findings of Shih (2017b) indicate that preservation of
225 existing large greenspaces, the extension of greenery at greenspace edges, and the connection
226 of 'cool islands' may be effective to extend cooling. From this evidence, it can therefore be
227 summarised that cooling via green intervention is not an 'anything goes' approach, requiring
228 coordinated strategic action with scientific knowledge and organisational capability.

229

230 Nonetheless, in cities like Taipei, current land ownership, property and planning processes
231 are very complex, involving negotiation between municipal governments, private developers,
232 planning consultants and civil society. Bristow (2010) holds that political differences impact
233 upon public policy-making (including planning) in Taiwan, with opposition grounded in
234 political difference acting as a barrier to agreement on planning progress. This influence of
235 political motivation on land use management has been observed in Taipei specifically (Chou
236 & Chang, 2008; Shih, 2010), where Liu (2013) also observes the emergence of NGOs and
237 community groups lobbying government institutions for improvement of living conditions in
238 the city. In New Taipei City, Shih and Chang (2016) note how lobbying by investors and
239 private developers can inform processes of land allocation and land use. Shih and Chang
240 (2016, pp. 1245-6) go on to argue in the case of development right transfer that "the profit-
241 driven urban growth coalition often trumps public-oriented planning actions". In Taipei,
242 decisions over land use and configuration of the built environment are hence informed by
243 wider political processes and societal discourses. This in turn has tangible effects on where in
244 the metropolis development actions are undertaken, and where attention may be focused.
245 Chang et al. (2013) explain in the context of flooding how this may present problems for
246 climate adaptation in the city. Chang et al. argue that Taipei City Government's overall focus
247 on urban economic development has led to development in at-risk locations, with limited

248 coordination between sectors making it difficult to undertake actions that are appropriate
249 across space.

250

251 In sum, there is evidence to suggest that political processes and societal discourses in Taipei
252 inform the nature of spatial planning, adding additional complexity to the processes within
253 which adaptation responses are planned. Whilst contributing to cooling through greening
254 requires coordinated implementation and rapid action, the existing urban governance
255 processes through which this coordination will likely have to be achieved in Taipei may
256 hence be susceptible to the equity and justice concerns raised in Section 2.1.

257

258 2.3. Synthesis: potential challenges to equity thinking when considering greenspace functions
259 for climate adaptation

260

261 We do not intend to set up a ‘false choice’ in response to a complex urban issue, as Slater
262 (2014) warns. However, if we understand that:

263

264 (a) climate change is happening, and that even with dramatic reductions in carbon
265 dioxide emissions, cities like Taipei are already 'locked in' to potentially harmful
266 warming;

267 (b) greenery has scientifically demonstrated potential to play a part in cooling urban areas,
268 and thus contribute to reducing harm in the face of warming trends;

269

270 But also that:

271

272 (c) relatively swift action is required to understand how greening may mitigate increasing
273 UHI effects and realise this harm reduction;

274 (d) UHI mitigation through greening needs specific technical actions, both in targeted
275 areas and across the city as a whole, to extend cooling beyond greenspaces and out to
276 citizens;

277 (e) planning processes in cities like Taipei at present involve managing complex relations
278 between municipal government departments, planning consultants, private developers,
279 civil society groups, communities and others, with structural change a slow process;

280

281 Issues such as cooling raise challenges for how we think about justice in urban greening.
282 Namely, to imagine technically suitable pathways to UHI mitigation via greenery that
283 acknowledge the realities of climate change and can come to fruition reasonably quickly
284 within the nature of current planning processes, whilst all the time keeping the emphasis on
285 delivering cooling benefits to the most vulnerable people and keeping a critical check on
286 more fundamental criticisms of resilience and green gentrification. Using the case study of
287 Taipei Metropolis, in this paper we sketch out some of the challenges to reappropriating
288 equity thinking within this complex situation.

289

290 To do so, we evaluate two related ways of conceptualising fairness in urban governance:
291 equity planning, and ‘just green enough’ thinking. In equity planning, urban planners work
292 towards programmes and policies that explicitly redistribute benefits to more marginalised
293 members of society (Metzger, 1996). Equity planning has a strong interest in understanding
294 and redressing spatial inequality, and has been applied in public facility and open space
295 contexts such as public playgrounds (Talen & Anselin, 1998), tree canopy cover (Danford et
296 al., 2014) and urban agriculture (Horst, McClintock, & Hoey, 2017). One tool which helps to

297 understand how processes such as planning create or reinforce inequalities is an equity lens,
298 essentially a series of questions to help decision-makers understand possible impacts of their
299 actions on disadvantaged communities (Williams-Rajee & Evans, 2016; Horst et al., 2017).
300 In Section 4 we loosely use an ‘equity lens’ approach to structure our evaluation of urban
301 greening in Taipei. ‘Just green enough’ thinking (Curran & Hamilton, 2012) is more specific
302 to the gentrification and capitalisation concerns of urban greening, but shares a common
303 interest with equity planning in ensuring marginalised groups are not further disenfranchised
304 by planning processes. ‘Just green enough’ strategies may include: shaping green space
305 projects by community requirements; small-scale and scattered green interventions; and
306 accompanying policies such as rent stabilisation (Wolch et al., 2014). Using insights from
307 Taipei, we hence assess what thinking about greenspace comprehensively in terms of
308 function (Jim, 2004) might mean for equity planning and ‘just green enough’ thinking in a
309 climate adaptation context of this nature.

310

311 3. Method

312

313 3.1. Rationale and sources

314

315 This paper uses content analysis (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005) of newspaper articles to
316 understand how issues relating to benefits from urban greening, with a particular focus on
317 cooling, are discussed in Taipei. Urban environmental planning encompasses a range of
318 sectors and spans formal and informal processes (e.g Huang & Pai, 2015; Miner, Taylor,
319 Jones, & Phelan, 2016). As we elaborate in Section 4.1., these wider societal debates and
320 issues have been demonstrated in Taipei too to inform spatial and environmental planning
321 outcomes (e.g. Chang et al., 2013; Shih & Huang, 2016). Fuller understanding of the societal

322 dimensions of urban greening in Taipei hence necessitates looking beyond government policy
323 documents to understand the range of actors involved in the issue, and how their interests are
324 balanced through processes of urban environmental governance (Castan Broto, 2017).
325 Newspaper coverage has been argued to be one way of mapping out this broader context
326 which constitutes climate- and environmental governance (McComas & Shanahan, 1999;
327 Woods, Fernandez & Coen, 2012; Pulver & Sainz-Santamaria, 2017). It is however important
328 to clarify that, like Pulver & Sainz-Santamaria (2017), for the purposes of this study we focus
329 only on the interpretative function of newspaper coverage. That is, we are interested in how
330 newspaper coverage mirrors – and gives us insight into – local, national and international
331 events and debates over time. The question of whether the newspaper articles reviewed for
332 Taipei have driven policy attention is separate, and outside the scope of our study. To
333 elaborate the relationship between broader societal issues and specific planning actions, when
334 required we support our analysis of newspaper content with reference to specialist academic
335 literature (i.e. peer-reviewed articles and books/book chapters) on the society-planning
336 interface in Taipei written by scholars with significant familiarity with the local context.

337

338 The sources sampled were two English-language Taiwanese newspapers – *Taipei Times* and
339 *The China Post*. These are regarded in journalism scholarship as being among the largest
340 English-language daily newspapers in Taiwan (Neilan, 2001; McDaniel, 2009) and at the
341 time the research was undertaken were the last two English-language newspapers in print in
342 Taiwan. The *Taipei Times* is considered to have a stronger pro-Taiwan editorial line, whereas
343 the *China Post* leans more to softer policy towards and greater linkage with China. Both
344 newspapers report on local issues in Taipei, featuring a mix of factual reporting and also
345 clearly-marked editorials from different sectors of society (e.g. academia, business, NGOs).
346 Sampling the *Taipei Times* and the *China Post* hence fits with the overall aims of the study

347 by giving a broad-based survey of the urban governance landscape in Taipei within which
348 greening and heat issues are considered, from two newspapers of comparable size and
349 standing but, for balance, with different political perspectives representing a key political
350 divide in Taiwan. To more precisely understand the linkage between overarching socio-
351 political issues and specific planning practices, as above academic literature relating to
352 planning policies and practices in Taipei was also surveyed. This drew on the authors'
353 knowledge of key planning academics in Taiwan, and was augmented with a literature search
354 for peer-reviewed articles on the socio-political aspects of planning in the city. This scholarly
355 literature was used to evaluate the significance of the themes identified in the newspaper
356 articles.

357

358 English-language newspapers were sampled due to resourcing and capabilities of the research
359 team. This is clearly a limitation of the research, and a comparable study of Chinese-language
360 media would be valuable follow-on research. Nonetheless, given the standing of the
361 newspapers and our interpretative use of their articles (i.e. to track issues raised, lines of
362 argument reported and actors involved over time), when combined with academic planning
363 scholarship they can be considered an insight into the greening and heat landscape in Taipei.

364

365 3.2. Data and analysis

366

367 This paper is a development of a mixed-method qualitative and quantitative study into
368 newspaper reporting of greenspace issues in Taipei (Mabon and Shih, in press). In this paper,
369 we focus on in-depth qualitative analysis of the article content and on understanding the
370 relationship to the theories of equity in urban greening outlined in Section 2.1. We undertake
371 directed content analysis, reading to identify themes which have arisen in previous theoretical

372 or empirical work but also being prepared to develop new or refined themes if required.
373 Hsieh and Shannon (2005) argue the value of a directed approach is that it allows the
374 researcher to read the text in light of work that has gone before, refining or challenging this
375 scholarship through analysis and discussion. Our aim is to assess how issues of equity in
376 urban greening and planning, which have been discussed at length in the literature, have
377 played out over time in relation to an emerging issue and context (urban heat mitigation via
378 greening in Taipei). This directed qualitative analytical framework, allowing us to go beyond
379 the content of the articles and draw links to extant environmental- and social science research
380 undertaken in Taipei and elsewhere, enables us to both acknowledge and nuance extant
381 scholarship. Content analysis of this nature, which provides room to acknowledge wider
382 context, has been deemed appropriate in analogous research into newspaper reporting of
383 climate issues (e.g. Asayama & Ishii, 2014; Pulver & Sainz-Santamaria, 2017).

384

385 Articles from 1 December 1999 to 31 March 2016 were selected from each publication. This
386 study period was selected to give as large a data sample as possible, spanning the period from
387 the first day of winter in the earliest year that news articles from the sampled publications
388 were available online (1 December 1999), through to the last day of the month in which the
389 data collection phase for the project was scheduled to conclude (March 2016). To identify
390 relevant articles, each publication's website (<http://www.taipeitimes.com> and
391 <http://www.chinapost.com.tw>) was searched for articles containing the words/phrases 'heat',
392 'heat island', 'greenery', 'greenspace', 'green space', 'green infrastructure', 'climate change',
393 'global change', 'green roof', 'renewable energy', 'mitigation', 'green house gases',
394 'greenhouse gases', 'heat wave', 'heatwave' and 'urban trees'. This encompassed the wider
395 context in which greenery and greenspace is discussed in Taipei beyond heat mitigation, as
396 well as the interface between excess heat and greenery. Returned articles unrelated to the

397 specific study aims or not relevant to Taiwan (such as syndicated news association reports
398 relating to excess heat in locations other than Taiwan) were excluded. However, articles
399 discussing heat and greenery in other cities such as Kaohsiung or in Taiwan generally were
400 included, as they provide analogous cases or contextual background which may reflect and/or
401 feed into discussions around greenspace in Taipei. This process returned a sample of 96
402 articles, 34 from the *China Post* and 62 from the *Taipei Times* (see Supplementary Material),
403 of which 59 - 15 from the *China Post* and 44 from the *Taipei Times* - were deemed to have
404 sufficient relevance to warrant further analysis.

405

406 Each article was read fully, and statements referring to heat and/or greenery were identified.
407 For each statement, the sector of the speaker, the category/topic of the statement, and tone of
408 the statement were recorded. This process returned 224 statements. The categories and topics
409 for coding were developed iteratively within the research team following the directed content
410 analysis approach (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005), identifying themes through reading the articles
411 but with an eye on refining/challenging themes in extant greenspace governance scholarship
412 summarised in Section 2.1. The categories used for this coding are presented in Table 2. The
413 individual statements were then grouped into argument clusters under these themes via an
414 'argument mapping' exercise (van Egmond & Hekkert, 2012; Mabon & Shih, in press). This
415 argument map acted as a heuristic tool to visualise the identified themes and help the
416 researchers spot lines of argumentation, and was used in tandem with a second more holistic
417 reading of the articles. Given the aim of evaluating equity issues around greenspace function
418 in Taipei, this second reading focused on identifying and refining the themes laid out in the
419 argument map, looking for extracts which supported or challenged issues around urban
420 greening and resilience.

421

422 Intercoder reliability was assessed by getting an additional researcher independent from the
423 project to independently code a 20% sample of articles. This process returned a
424 Krippendorff's Alpha (Hayes & Krippendorff, 2007) of 0.82 for topic identification of overall
425 articles; 0.78 for statement categorisation within articles and 0.81 for tone of statements
426 within articles. Krippendorff's Alpha assesses the agreement between two or more observers
427 describing the units of analysis separately from each other. Perfect agreement among the
428 observers on the codes assigned to observations would record 100% or a Krippendorff's
429 Alpha of 1.00, whereas the complete absence of agreement would record a Krippendorff's
430 Alpha of 0.00 (Hayes and Krippendorff, 2007). The scores reported above for our hence
431 study suggest around 80% agreement across all categories, consistent with what is considered
432 good intercoder reliability for qualitative research (McComas & Shanahan, 1999).

433

434 Such iterative analysis, whereby the validity of the findings comes through the evidence
435 presented and its relation to underpinning theory, is argued to be appropriate for qualitative
436 research of this nature (Henwood & Pidgeon, 2012). Moreover, over the course of the paper
437 we follow the Mays and Pope (1995) principles for rigour in qualitative research by: (a)
438 setting out the theoretical framework and context (see Section 2); (b) describing the sampling
439 strategy and fieldwork (see earlier in this Section); (c) describing procedures for data analysis
440 and involving more than one researcher in the process; (d) using evidence that can be
441 inspected independently (see Supplementary Data for full list of news sources used); and (e)
442 providing quotes to demonstrate the relationship between our interpretations and the evidence.

443

444 *[INSERT TABLE 2 NEAR HERE: CATEGORIES USED FOR CODING ARTICLES]*

445

446 4. Findings

447

448 We preface the findings by summarising the reviewed newspaper articles. The relatively
449 small number of articles (and statements) across the time frame means the proportions
450 reported ought to be treated with caution. Figure 1 shows that the number of words written
451 about heat and greenery is increasing over time in both frequency and volume, and that there
452 may be more attention in the summer and autumn months when temperatures in Taipei are
453 higher (Huang et al., 2013). For both the *China Post* and the *Taipei Times*, the number of
454 articles addressing heat and/or greenery has increased over time, and the topics these articles
455 address has become more diverse (Table 3). The dominant sectors whose statements are
456 reported within the articles are academia/research and government, however NGOs and
457 politicians are also emerging more in recent years (Table 4). Statements relating to climate
458 change and UHI mitigation have also been increasingly reported within the articles, with a
459 corresponding increase in statements relating to environmental issues more generally (Table
460 5). Lastly, the nature of greenery mentioned in the articles changes over time, with less focus
461 on generic greenery and large-scale greenspaces and increasing prominence of
462 community/neighbourhood-scale greenspaces as well as trees and plants (Table 6).

463

464 In sum, societal discussion around heat and greenery reported in the sampled media has
465 surfaced more frequently over time, and has engaged with a broader range of topics (Figure 2
466 visualises the breadth of arguments, with a full argument map included in the Supplementary
467 Data). A wider range of voices appear to be being reported within these discussions, with
468 increasing prominence of smaller-scale urban greenery within Taipei and increasing visibility
469 of climate and UHI mitigation issues. To consider how equity planning thinking may have to
470 be developed within this climate change adaptation landscape, we divide our analysis into
471 broad areas of place; people; and process and power. This structure is commonly considered

472 within equity lenses, including by City of Portland and Multnomah County when integrating
473 equity into their Climate Action Plan (Williams-Rajee & Evans, 2016).

474

475 *[INSERT FIGURE 1 NEAR HERE: NUMBER OF WORDS WRITTEN ABOUT HEAT AND*
476 *GREENERY OVER TIME. (NOTE: Q1=DECEMBER OF PREVIOUS YEAR, JANUARY,*
477 *FEBRUARY; Q2=MARCH, APRIL, MAY; Q3=JUNE, JULY, AUGUST; Q4=SEPTEMBER,*
478 *OCTOBER, NOVEMBER)]*

479 *[INSERT FIGURE 2 NEAR HERE: ARGUMENT MAP FOR HEAT AND GREENERY IN*
480 *TAIPEI (SOURCE: MABON AND SHIH, IN PRESS)]*

481 *[INSERT TABLE 3 NEAR HERE: ARTICLE TOPICS OVER TIME]*

482 *[INSERT TABLE 4 NEAR HERE: SECTOR OF STATEMENT-MAKERS OVER TIME]*

483 *[INSERT TABLE 5 NEAR HERE: DISTRIBUTION OF ARGUMENT CATEGORIES OVER*
484 *TIME]*

485 *[INSERT TABLE 6 NEAR HERE: TYPES OF GREENERY MENTIONED OVER TIME]*

486

487 4.1. Place: where are greening debates happening?

488

489 We first look at where in Taipei debates around greenspace and UHI mitigation have flared
490 up. Tan, Feng, and Hwang (2016) in the case of Singapore indicate that discussions over how
491 to manage urban greenspace are informed by – and reflect – bigger issues of power and trust
492 between different sections of society, and that these socially-informed decisions affect
493 management actions and hence ecological conditions. Section 2.2. indicates this may be the
494 case in Taipei too. Sampled newspaper articles relating to heat and greenery give us an
495 insight into the wider context within which greenspace planning actions are debated. UHI
496 mitigation has been drawn in to controversies over the role of greenspace in large-scale, high-

497 profile developments within the city. For instance, an article describing a plan to turn
498 Songshan Airport into a large park cites a city politician:

499

500 *Yao suggested that the airport be relocated so that a riverside park can be developed on the*
501 *land along the Keelung River (基隆河). More green space in the urban area would not only*
502 *reduce the "heat island effect" in the city, but also expand the space city residents have to*
503 *engage in leisure activities, he said (politician, reported in Taipei Times, November 18, 2012)*

504

505 The Taipei Dome controversy - a long-running debate over the development of a former
506 tobacco factory site into an indoor arena as opposed to preservation as greenspace – also
507 drew out UHI mitigation arguments to support positions. Organisation of Urban Re-S
508 (OURs), an NGO focused on urban development issues, made claims about cooling effects of
509 greenspace in an article about opposition to the Taipei Dome:

510

511 *OURs added in a press release that the average nighttime temperature in metropolitan Taipei*
512 *was about 3 ° C higher than the global average, and that the number of days in downtown*
513 *Taipei where temperatures rose above 35 ° C was also increasing. The group called for the*
514 *creation of a green space at the dome site to prevent an increase in the urban heat island*
515 *effect, modulate sudden rainfall and maintain biodiversity (NGO, reported in Taipei Times,*
516 *August 31, 2011)*

517

518 Heat mitigation is used here to support OURs' broader aim of preserving greenspace, even if
519 the underlying statement about higher temperatures than the global average arguably does not
520 convey scientifically surprising or significant information. Less controversially, heat
521 mitigation potential was also raised in reporting on a new farm park project in Neihu District

522 on site of former Taipei Flower Market, through a Parks and Street Lights Office explanation
523 of the project value:

524

525 *The farm base will allow residents to grow greens and experience the fun of farming [...] A*
526 *study is being conducted on the feasibility of collecting rainwater and surface water for the*
527 *wetland, the officials said, suggesting that the project could maintain biodiversity and reduce*
528 *the urban heat island effect* (Parks and Street Lights Office, reported in *Taipei Times*, April
529 15, 2015)

530

531 In all of the above, cooling is not the main or only rationale for greenspace creation or
532 preservation. Heat mitigation is instead used by actors to support other reasons to create or
533 preserve greenspace, and to justify or oppose potentially controversial developments. This
534 breadth of rationales is to be expected given the range of reasons for which greenspace may
535 be managed (e.g. flood management, biodiversity conservation, societal benefit), of which
536 cooling is but one. What may make this problematic for considering equity in availability of
537 greenspace cooling function, however, is that discussion centered on accessibility and
538 development at several sites of high controversy may not encompass the full range of
539 greenspaces delivering functions, or indeed the distribution of exposure and vulnerability to
540 heat within a city in a spatially comprehensive way. Indeed, reporting on differences in heat
541 risk within Taipei Metropolis reflects the still-emerging nature of knowledge on
542 heterogeneity of heat exposure within the city, such as an op-ed in which an academic argues
543 for the need for a heat wave warning system:

544

545 *The heat island effect caused by high rise buildings and high density clusters of buildings will*
546 *make summer temperatures in Taipei soar above those felt in, say, Kaohsiung, and heat*

547 *waves are going to hit Taipei residents much harder* (academic, writing in *Taipei Times*, July
548 14, 2010)

549

550 Another academic in an op-ed on lack of green space in Taipei states:

551

552 *Climate change has become an issue in urban development all over the world, and the heat-*
553 *island effect in the Taipei basin is becoming increasingly obvious. In summer, beneath clear*
554 *blue skies, heat is trapped in the basin, pushing the temperature up to record levels. With the*
555 *additional factor of radiant heat emanating from the concrete jungle, temperatures in Taipei*
556 *sometimes measure close to 39 ° C* (academic, writing in *Taipei Times*, September 2, 2010)

557

558 The only mention of a specific location within Taipei where heat-related effects were
559 observed - Wanhua District - comes in a factual article on temperatures and heat-related
560 events during period of extreme heat:

561

562 *Taipei's temperature reached 38.3 ° C on Wednesday. The record-breaking high was 38.6 ° C,*
563 *which occurred in 2010. Three seniors were found dead in Wan Huah District, with officials*
564 *blaming the deaths on the high temperatures* (staff reporter, *China Post*, July 13, 2012)

565

566 Newspaper articles are not expected to go into the same level of technical depth as academic
567 papers or planning materials. It is of course also true that scholarly knowledge to support
568 adaptation decisions in Taipei is emerging, such as that contained within the *Taipei Climate*
569 *Change Adaptation Plan* (Huang et al., 2013). However, considering Section 2.2. and the
570 ways in which broader societal discourses and political processes can inform land use
571 decisions and provision of public facilities, it is worth noting some of the complexities in

572 distribution of exposure and vulnerability in comparison to the aforementioned locations
573 which have historically gathered socio-political interest due to controversy. For instance,
574 Shih (2017b) identifies differences of over ten ° C in land surface temperatures across Taipei
575 City. Vulnerability too varies according to demographic and socio-economic factors, and in
576 relation to the hazard being discussed (e.g. large elderly and low-income populations
577 identified as making Wanhua and Datong Districts vulnerable to flood risk (Lin et al., 2012);
578 low availability of shelters arguably limiting preparedness for flood and typhoon hazards in
579 Zhongshan, Beitou and Shilin Districts (Chou & Lee, 2014). Clearly drivers and locations of
580 heat vulnerability will differ, but the point is that spatial distribution of heat risk – and the
581 locations in which greening may provide benefit in mitigation – is thus rather more complex
582 than the way in which it has traditionally been discussed by the politicians, NGOs and even
583 government officials who feed into planning processes.

584

585 Taipei Metropolis hence illustrates additional complexity for greenspace equity planning in a
586 climate change adaptation context. As well as the spatial differences in social vulnerability to
587 which equity planning thinking is already well aware (e.g. Danford et al., 2014), there are
588 also significant differences in physical exposure across the city which need to be reckoned
589 with, but which might not necessarily sit with the spaces and locations that the more
590 influential voices in the urban governance area have focused on. Clearly we are not claiming
591 that planners in Taipei are unaware of or ignoring the scientific basis for where greening
592 actions to mitigate heat are required. However, this indicates that applying 'just green enough'
593 thinking to discussions on greenspace function entails finding ways to ensure that scientific
594 understanding of how and where greenspace can deliver cooling remains able to guide
595 governors and planners in the face of urban development pressures and site-specific
596 controversies. These controversies may take a less informed view of the way in which heat

597 and other climate risks are distributed across the city, and how the cooling function of
598 greenspace may mitigate their effects. We return to the challenges of bringing such evidence
599 into planning processes in Section 5.

600

601 4.2. People: who is doing the greening?

602

603 We now assess the different actors involved in undertaking greening within Taipei.
604 Challenges in recent years are illustrated by the Regulations of Bulk Reward for Urban
605 Renewal and the associated 'Taipei Beautiful' programme. The Regulations of Bulk Reward
606 for Urban Renewal allowed developers an increase in the permitted floor-to-area of new
607 developments, on the condition that they implement environmental or community
608 improvements (Construction and Planning Agency of the Ministry of the Interior [CPAMI],
609 2014). The 'Taipei Beautiful' programme likewise granted developers increased floor-to-area
610 ratios (up to 10%), on the condition that derelict sites were temporarily 'greened' for 18
611 months in the run-up to the 2010 Taipei International Flora Expo.

612

613 Superficially at least, 'Taipei Beautiful' was promoted by Taipei City Government as a means
614 of removing poor-quality buildings and increasing greenspace in the city by incentivising
615 developers to undertaken pro-environmental actions, as quoted in an article reporting a range
616 of viewpoints on 'Taipei Beautiful':

617

618 *Taipei City's latest urban renewal program will create a 6.3 hectare green space and*
619 *improve the city's landscape, the Taipei City Government said yesterday, denying the plans*
620 *will greatly benefit private land investors (Taipei City Government, reported in Taipei Times,*
621 *August 26, 2010)*

622

623 The Urban Renewal Act (CPAMI, 2011, para. 1) similarly set out "to promote a well-planned
624 urban land redevelopment, revitalize urban functions, improve urban living environments,
625 and to increase public interest." Although such policies could have been argued to be a
626 pragmatic means of encouraging developers to engage in pro-environmental actions and thus
627 facilitate rapid deployment of greenery across the city, the result was scepticism towards both
628 developers and the municipal government. For example, an article reporting concerns on the
629 short-term nature of the programmes conveyed responses from NGOs and opposition
630 politicians:

631

632 *Democratic Progressive Party (DPP) Taipei City Councilor Kao Chia-yu (高嘉瑜) yesterday*
633 *accused the city government of profiting conglomerates and contributing to skyrocketing*
634 *housing prices [...] Huang Jui-mao (黃瑞茂), board chairman of OURs, a non-profit*
635 *organization that combats speculation and urban renewal projects that benefit private*
636 *investors, described the program as a fraud that profited private investors and urged the city*
637 *government not to sacrifice green space for the sake of gains for a few investors (opposition*
638 *politician and NGO chair, reported in Taipei Times, April 28, 2011)*

639

640 This perception of prioritisation of economic development over integrated long-term greening
641 in turn was translated into wider suspicion of the municipal government's competences and
642 motives, as illustrated in a biographical piece on an NGO founder:

643

644 *Most governments, argued Winkler, are doing as much as possible to keep people from*
645 *understanding how extreme the situation actually is — whether it is climate change, the heat*

646 *island effect or the environmental impact of removing thousands of trees for the International*
647 *Flora Exposition on bio-life.* (NGO leader, reported in *China Post*, May 30, 2011)

648

649 The above extracts reflect concerns seen in Taipei (e.g. Jou et al., 2016) and other contexts
650 about green gentrification and private sector profiteering, in that participation in greening has
651 been perceived as a means for developers to boost profit with limited attempt from the city
652 government to provide safeguards to ensure environmental benefits accrue to citizens.
653 Significant from a climate change adaptation perspective is that in Taipei, municipal attempts
654 to make tangible gains on greening by engaging the private sector have back-fired. Over-
655 extending pragmatism around the means and motivation through which greening is achieved
656 to encompass developers appears to have lost the support - or at least hardened the opposition
657 - of opposition political parties and NGOs. This has the effect of actually reducing the
658 possibility for the desired consensus on greening actions to emerge. The fact that these
659 academics and NGOs have potential to shape public opinion through processes such as
660 writing op-eds, and hence turn wider public sentiment against municipal policy, illustrates the
661 risk that over-stretching greening policy based on pragmatism may have if the objective is
662 making practical gains on greening.

663

664 By contrast, the role of neighbourhood-scale interventions in response to environmental
665 issues have drawn more positive sentiment. For example, a piece on generally high
666 environmental quality and abundant greenery in the Fujin Street area quotes a district chief:

667

668 *Cheng said the community had been active in creating a green environment for many years.*
669 *Aside from planting banyan, bodhi and some other trees on the sides of the street as well as*

670 *in the park, the community has also been diligent in trimming those trees, she said* (district
671 chief, reported in *Taipei Times*, June 4, 2011)

672

673 And an academic, in an op-ed on the value of greenery to Taipei, writes:

674

675 *[T]here is much Taipei can achieve if every public garden, green space, tree-lined street and*
676 *ancient tree — even community farms and rooftop gardens — can, under the jurisdiction of a*
677 *citywide ecological system, use safe layouts and be responsive to the nation' aging society. If*
678 *Ko's administration could do this, and also implement policy guidance and provide technical*
679 *advice to assist non-governmental organizations and increase the responsibility of*
680 *neighborhood and district leaders for the management of the ecological environment and*
681 *social welfare, then Taipei can truly become a leader in green-city policy* (academic, *Taipei*
682 *Times*, January 30, 2015)

683

684 The implication is that actions undertaken at the neighbourhood scale by community groups
685 may be a force for good in facilitating city-wide greening. Such community-level actions in
686 spatial planning have been evaluated positively in Taiwan (Peng, Kuo, & Lin, 2010), and also
687 other tropical/subtropical Asian cities where greenspace is at a premium (e.g. Tan, Wang, and
688 Sia (2013) on Singapore; Jim and Chan (2016) on Hong Kong). There may hence be value in
689 considering the role of neighbourhood-level greening in aiding climate adaptation actions like
690 UHI mitigation, particularly as extension of greenery beyond formal greenspaces and into
691 communities is consistent with the actions environmental science research (e.g. Bowler et al.,
692 2010) indicates may maximise cooling. Initiatives such as *Open Green*, whereby
693 communities in Taipei City work in partnership on greenspace planning on issues such as

694 elderly wellbeing, environmental quality and social innovation, could be a base for this
695 (Taipei Open Green, 2017).

696

697 However, there may be limits to how well these community-scale actions can maximise
698 ecosystem services. The need for specific ecological knowledge to maintain diversity and
699 build ecosystem services (Jim, 2004) makes the necessity of cooperation between
700 communities and municipal governments – and the need to build competence in realising
701 strategic land use – even stronger. Examples of challenges faced in Taipei in managing
702 greenspace at small scales (e.g. community spaces, rooftop gardens, green walls) for strategic
703 purposes are illustrated in the newspaper articles:

704

705 *"Rooftop gardens require a detailed knowledge of plant biology, hydraulic engineering and*
706 *architecture. It's not only about what looks good." [...] it is best for landscapers or architects*
707 *to be involved in the design and construction of rooftop gardens. At present interior*
708 *designers design most gardens on old buildings in Taipei because landscapers and architects*
709 *tend to focus on large projects, such as new buildings or park designs (civil engineer,*
710 *reported in Taipei Times, June 12, 2005)*

711

712 *It has recently become trendy to hang greenery on buildings in an effort to stop radiant heat*
713 *from penetrating indoors. However, parks and green spaces do much more to conserve water*
714 *and provide shade, acting as a basic defense against the heat-island effect for the whole city*
715 *(academic, writing in Taipei Times, September 2, 2010)*

716

717 *[National Taiwan University] students tried to plant seasonal vegetables by reading farming*
718 *manuals and books, but the heat that radiated from the concrete surfaces seemed to shrink*

719 *whatever sprouts dared to show signs of thriving. After much puzzling over the garden, the*
720 *students began perfecting the farming methods through experience and experimenting*
721 (university students, reported in *China Post*, March 10, 2014)

722

723 Whilst greening at household and neighbourhood levels offers potential in delivering
724 localised social benefits, it is thus important that not only communities, but also municipal
725 government staff involved in developing and realising partnerships, have access to the skills,
726 knowledge, funding and policy support to realise ecosystem functions like cooling. Scholarly
727 literature has emphasised such maintenance and quality management requirements for street
728 greenery not only in Taipei, where hot summers place stress on greenery (Lin & Huang,
729 2013), but also Hong Kong, where a lack of skilled practitioners to manage street trees has
730 likewise been argued to limit potential for strategic neighbourhood greening (Jim & Chan,
731 2016; Jim, 2017). Moreover, given our concern with equity issues, particular attention ought
732 to be paid to ensuring partnerships are developed in areas of high exposure or vulnerability
733 and not only in existing ‘charismatic’ sites like the Fujin Street example mentioned earlier in
734 this section. This may entail – as per the quote above - planners and architects being willing
735 to work at community level rather than on flagship projects. Despite the technical
736 requirements of strategic greening, caution must also be exercised to avoid the criticisms of
737 community-led planning in Taipei made by Raco, Imrie, and Lin (2011), whereby
738 interventions from external ‘experts’ were seen as patronising or unwelcome.

739

740 These insights from Taipei illustrate a key challenge to addressing equity concerns related to
741 availability of the ecological functions of greenspace. On one hand, whilst consensus-
742 building on urban greening may seem appealing given the urgency of action required for
743 climate change adaptation, care must be taken not to over-extend pragmatism to developers

744 and lose support from civil society actors who are also crucial in greenspace development and
745 preservation. On the other, although partnerships between communities, planners and
746 municipalities are understood positively in both ‘just green enough’ and equity planning
747 contexts and can help meet communities’ specific greenspace requirements, the ability of
748 small-scale actions to contribute to coordinated city-wide ecosystem services may be limited.
749 The challenge is thus to balance the equity concerns of larger-scale actions, with the techno-
750 scientific limits of ‘bottom-up’ actions.

751

752 4.3. Process and power: why is greening being undertaken?

753

754 We last evaluate processes and rationales for greening in Taipei over time, assessing their fit
755 with strategic understanding of greenspace for ecosystem functions like heat mitigation.
756 Following Section 4.2. and community-scale greening, two articles report on Taipei City
757 Government activity with communities to enhance greening:

758

759 *Although part of the motivation of the greening campaign is to promote the horticulture*
760 *exposition, its more far-reaching mission is to increase citizen involvement in environmental*
761 *landscaping and eventually transform Taipei into a permanent "garden city," Chen said [...]*
762 *through the campaign, the city government is trying to instill an appreciation for plants*
763 *among residents, further encouraging them to grow and cherish flowers. (Department of*
764 *Economic Development, reported in *China Post*, August 20, 2009)*

765

766 *For those who wish to enjoy cherry blossoms in Taipei, the Yangmingshan National Park (陽*
767 *明山國家公園) is no longer the only destination, following a project led by the Taipei City*

768 *Government which has overseen the renovation of 251 community parks, including the*
769 *planting of cherry trees and flowers, transforming the parks into scenic gardens for residents*
770 *[...] In Songshan District (松山), six community parks have become popular recreational*
771 *areas for residents, with cherry blossoms and maple trees attracting people who come to*
772 *enjoy the flowers and greenery on a daily basis (Taipei Times, March 2, 2013)*

773

774 Greenspace development has historically been framed in terms of recreational and aesthetic
775 benefits provided to citizens, especially visual qualities provided by flowers and attractive
776 trees. Even argumentation for greening positioned more closely to strategic land use has
777 emphasised general environmental quality within the city, as per an op-ed on biodiversity and
778 the future of Taipei Circle:

779

780 *A future Taipei Circle full of ecological significance would be sure to attract a variety of*
781 *flowers, plants, insects and birds that would enrich the diversity of the area's natural*
782 *environment. It could even act as a big air filter, reducing pollution and muffling noise.*
783 *Having a green traffic circle at this urban intersection would also enhance the slower, more*
784 *easygoing aspect of the city. An old district such as Datong does not need to be, and indeed*
785 *cannot be, made into another commercial zone (nature writer, writing in Taipei Times,*
786 *November 25, 2014)*

787

788 These broad-based arguments come from a range of perspectives - nature writers, staff
789 journalists, those tasked with economic development - whereas arguments in favour of UHI
790 mitigation as a strategic greenspace planning action reported in Sections 4.1. and 4.2. tend to
791 be confined to academics, environmental NGOs and engineers. To evidence this, over half of
792 statements in the analysed articles relating to UHI mitigation and climate change are made by

793 academics or government departments. For heat mitigation, for example, 25% of statements
794 (n=6) are made by academics, with a further 25% (n=6) made by government departments.
795 For climate change, 23.8% (n=5) of statements come from academia, and 33.3% (n=7) from
796 government departments. By contrast, arguments grounded in general environmental quality
797 or health and wellbeing are distributed more evenly across sectors. The sector with most
798 statements relating to environmental quality is civil society at 22.2% (n=8); and the sector
799 making most statements about health and societal benefit is press reporters (28.6%, n=12)
800 (see Supplementary Data for full crosstabulation). Rationales for urban greening grounded
801 narrowly in climate change adaptation may hence struggle to gain traction beyond a narrow
802 range of actors with technical expertise. The final extract indicates that connecting strategic
803 land use (in this case biodiversity) with more generic arguments about general environmental
804 quality, health and wellbeing may make it a shorter step for non-technical stakeholders (e.g.
805 other municipal government sections, communities) to engage with greening actions and
806 move forwards in the practical direction of greening to realise strategic benefits.

807

808 Nonetheless, justice issues have been largely absent from the reviewed articles on greening
809 and heat. When raised, justice concerns have tended to come from academics or NGOs, and
810 even then usually as an issue that has been forgotten or marginalised. Examples include an
811 academic, writing on the need to develop methods to include less quantifiable issues in
812 environmental impact assessments:

813

814 *What is the value of wetlands, environmental protection and protecting agricultural*
815 *resources, and who stands to benefit from this value? [...] Today, those who will be affected*
816 *by such projects are overlooked, whether on purpose or by accident, and their values are not*
817 *expressed in the assessment (academic, writing in Taipei Times, September 3, 2010)*

818

819 And an academic quoted in an article reporting on protests against Taipei Dome and calling
820 for creation of green space instead:

821

822 *Liao Pen-chuan (廖本全), an associate professor in National Taipei University's Department*
823 *of Real Estate and Built Environment, said Taipei residents have the right to stand up and*
824 *ask for fresh air, sunlight and greenery, which could be provided by a park (academic,*
825 *reported in Taipei Times, October 31, 2011)*

826

827 This relates to Section 4.1. and the question of who - and where – may benefit the most from
828 greening. Both the above extracts express concern at a *lack* of justice considerations in
829 Taipei's environmental planning debates thus far. Moreover, both come from academics who,
830 whilst having potential to shape public opinion and inform climate adaptation-specific policy
831 (e.g. Huang et al., 2013), may not hold as much sway in lobbying governors and influencing
832 planning directions as, say, private sector developers motivated by urban development (e.g.
833 Jou et al., 2016; Shih & Chang, 2016). More broad-based rationales for greenspace
834 preservation and creation grounded in environmental quality, health and recreation as
835 opposed to risk reduction for a specific hazard like heat may indeed help to enhance buy-in.
836 Yet, as per the resilience and ecosystem services criticisms reviewed in Section 2.1., this
837 emphasis on environmental quality for the city as a whole may mask - if not actively suppress
838 - the fact that risks and benefits are distributed unequally across society.

839

840 Thinking of greenspace in terms of its functions such as cooling thus presents a challenge for
841 'just green enough' action and for equity in climate adaptation. Our evaluation for Taipei
842 indicates that issues such as heat mitigation have remained a niche area within planning

843 debates, and that wider-ranging messaging around greenspace framed in terms of
844 environmental quality and societal wellbeing may stand more chance of sustaining political
845 traction and hence moving towards practical gains on greening. Yet emphasising more
846 ‘accessible’ framings for greenspace such as general environmental quality could risk
847 sidelining the justice and social sustainability concerns which ought to be central to ‘just
848 green enough’ actions and equity planning, regardless of whether they are considered in
849 terms of greenspace accessibility or greenspace function. The strong spatial differentiation of
850 heat risk within a city, both in terms of physical exposure and social vulnerability, means that
851 a technically appropriate planning response will inevitably have to involve some
852 consideration of where within the city strategic greening is required. Nonetheless, when
853 shifting towards thinking about and planning according to greenspace functions, a balance
854 has to be struck between connecting to more mainstream rationales for greening to build
855 support for rapid and sustained action, versus not losing sight of the sorts of people – and
856 locations – who these green interventions ought at base to benefit.

857

858 5. Discussion

859

860 The challenges identified for equitable strategic greening in Taipei reflect those seen in
861 practical applications of both ‘just green enough’ thinking and also equity planning (e.g.
862 Wolch et al., 2014; Horst et al., 2017) in terms of ensuring actions justified in terms of
863 sustainability or general environmental quality do not sideline justice concerns. However,
864 when it comes to UHI mitigation (or, indeed, other forms of climate change adaptation), *not*
865 taking appropriate action could expose already marginalized groups to even greater harms.
866 As equity planning and green inequality have already been discussed at length in the

867 literature, we reflect on three particular challenges raised by the Taipei case for addressing
868 equity issues in climate adaptation via strategic land use.

869

870 The first relates to the role of evidence – here understanding of environmental characteristics,
871 established through scientifically-informed assessments (e.g. Svancara, Brannon, Scott,
872 Groves, Noss & Pressey, 2005) - in governance of a green network for climate change
873 adaptation and other benefits such as biodiversity conservation, air purification, and societal
874 wellbeing. Observations from Taipei illustrate that the way ‘evidence’ about the spatial
875 effects of greenery and heat works its way into, and is used within, reported societal
876 discussion around greening and greenspace topics is itself a social process. For instance, heat
877 mitigation arguments have been deployed strategically by NGOs and civil society to oppose
878 developments like the Taipei Dome. Social and environmental benefits of greenery have been
879 (arguably) adopted strategically by developers in Taipei to gain more favourable building
880 conditions. Equitable green adaptation may hence require careful reflection on how
881 ‘evidence-based planning’ (Svancara et al., 2005) may be guided to deliver benefit to those
882 who need it most. Examples globally suggest this can be done. Factors aiding successful
883 urban environmental planning based on robust ecosystem knowledge include knowledge and
884 political nous of key municipal government departments (e.g. Freund (2001) on departmental
885 leaders' knowledge and vision in Durban); overall municipal vision (Baro et al. (2016) and
886 Depietri, Kallis, Baro, and Cattaneo (2016) on Barcelona’s vision to become a leader in green
887 infrastructure); or political timeliness and connection with socio-economic challenges (e.g.
888 Newell et al. (2013) on Los Angeles Green Alley Program). Attaining equitable outcomes for
889 climate adaptation via greening hence requires both the provision of robust scientifically-
890 informed evidence, and also competence - especially from environmental planners or
891 academics – in navigating the broader political terrain within which urban greenspace

892 planning happens (e.g. Leck & Roberts, 2015; Shih & Mabon, 2017). This involves
893 understanding the key people, framings and forums that can help knowledge of spatial
894 inequality in climate risk gain political traction and inform decision-making.

895

896 The second relates to a common concern in equity planning - the need to remember that
897 inequality in urban greenspace availability can arise from procedural or structural factors.
898 ‘Solutions’ to increase the likelihood of interventions taking root in marginalised
899 neighbourhoods may thus be social or political as well as technical. These could include, for
900 instance, improved citizen engagement in planning processes to understand social context
901 (Jim & Chan, 2016); rent controls and anti-poverty measures (Horst et al., 2017); safeguards
902 to ensure economic benefits accrue primarily to citizens and not to developers (Jou et al, 2016;
903 Horst et al., 2017); and removing administrative or practical barriers to participation in
904 programmes (Danford et al., 2014). Yet when it comes to thinking in terms of functional
905 greenspace serving climate adaptation purposes, the perceived urgency of climate change
906 may mean *any* green intervention in the built environment is viewed as a force for good. The
907 extracts presented in this paper, for instance, talk about UHI mitigation, flood reduction and
908 air quality benefits of greening in Taipei in almost exclusively positive terms regardless of
909 location. However, such pragmatism towards the ecosystem functions of greenspace must not
910 serve as a blinder to ongoing underlying structural causes of unequal exposure to heat risk
911 (e.g Klinenberg, 2002; Harlan et al., 2006). Haase et al. (2017) too express concern that
912 issues of social and spatial inequality remain sidelined in urban greening discussion. When
913 thinking in terms of greenspace delivering specific benefits, then, there is an even greater
914 need to guard against ‘all greening is good’ thinking and to keep a critical check on equity
915 dimensions.

916

917 Third, to realise climate adaptation benefits, the smaller-scale and locally-appropriate projects
918 advocated within both ‘just green enough’ thinking (e.g. Curran & Hamilton (2012) on
919 avoiding gentrification) and equity planning (e.g. Horst et al. (2017) on urban agriculture)
920 also need to be considered in terms of their contribution to a city-wide network (Jim, 2004;
921 Schekte et al., 2010). While these kinds of actions are good for building social capital and
922 enhancing wellbeing, even the best greenspace system planned or created from a ‘bottom-up’
923 approach may not necessarily deliver the most effective ecosystem services due to this need
924 to think in terms of an entire urban ecosystem when it comes to responding to environmental
925 and climatic changes (Tan and Abdul Hamid, 2014). As well as the aims of broadening
926 participation and building partnerships discussed elsewhere in equity planning literature, our
927 findings and the extant literature therefore suggest that working towards equity in availability
928 of greenspace functions for climate change adaptation may also require significant
929 competence at the municipal government level to deliver in concert city-wide physical
930 exposure reduction and social policy measures targeted specifically at vulnerable
931 communities. There is of course also need for reflection on who it is that defines what ‘equity’
932 means, and who is involved in setting the criterion through which ‘equity’ in planning is
933 assessed.

934

935 Lastly, in this paper we have focused only on the cooling function of greenspace. Greenspace
936 may serve many functions (Jim & Chan, 2016), notably in Taipei flood mitigation and
937 disaster preparedness. Trade-offs between UHI mitigation and these other functions due to
938 the change of spatial configuration of green infrastructure may be required in planning
939 discussions (Norton et al., 2015; Meerow & Newell, 2017). Assessing where these trade-offs
940 might occur and how these functions may be balanced is beyond the scope of our paper.
941 However, in the spirit of the preceding discussion it is imperative that there are fair, open and

942 inclusive decision-making *processes* through which these trade-offs are deliberated, and that
943 careful consideration is afforded as to who may be most negatively affected by any trade-offs
944 made in land use change. Moreover, greening is not a catch-all solution for cooling, and
945 ought to be considered as one of only a number of options such as changing roof/pavement
946 colours and building materials, creating wind corridors and changing building layouts
947 (Emmanuel, 2005).

948

949 6. Conclusions

950

951 Our review indicates that, due to concerns over the role of developers in existing greening
952 initiatives and the limited presence of justice concerns, greater reflection on 'just green
953 enough' planning and on equity concerns may be of significant value for UHI mitigation and
954 similar climate adaptation via greening in cities like Taipei. Nonetheless, insights from Taipei
955 suggest three developments to this equity planning thinking for relevance to climate
956 adaptation. First, the heterogeneity of exposure to heat *within* cities means there is a key role
957 for scientific knowledge (both environmental- and social science) in tempering debates about
958 equity in access to greenspace with understanding of how ecosystem functions from
959 greenspace are distributed across a city, and of where vulnerable communities are located in
960 relation to ecosystem services. Second, whilst careful cooperation with developers may be
961 able to realise increases in greenery, there is a risk that such pragmatism may backfire and
962 alienate civil society groups necessary to implement greening. As such, municipal
963 governments may be able to make some gains by developing competence in working
964 collaboratively with communities to develop neighbourhood-scale greening targeted at
965 climate adaptation action. However, whilst these neighbourhood-level actions can help to
966 build community cohesion, their contribution to ecosystem services at a city-wide level may

967 be limited. Third, whilst a narrow focus on heat mitigation may be a 'hard sell' and the
968 general environmental, health and aesthetic benefits of greenery to society as a whole may
969 give an easier pathway to buy-in for greening decisions, this may risk diluting the emphasis
970 on justice. It is thus imperative to develop planning policies (perhaps through engagement of
971 social scientists with planners) that take seriously the question of what delivering 'equitable'
972 benefit means in the context of ecosystem functions from greenspace.

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1321 Figure and Table Legend

1322

1323 Figure 1: Number of words written about heat and greenery over time. (Note: Q1=December
1324 of previous year, January, February; Q2=March, April, May; Q3=June, July, August;
1325 Q4=September, October, November).

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1327 Figure 2: Argument map for heat and greenery in Taipei (source: Mabon and Shih, in press).

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1329

1330 Table 1: Terminology and definitions.

1331

1332 Table 2: Categories used for coding articles.

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1334 Table 3: Article topics over time.

1335

1336 Table 4: Sector of statement-makers over time.

1337

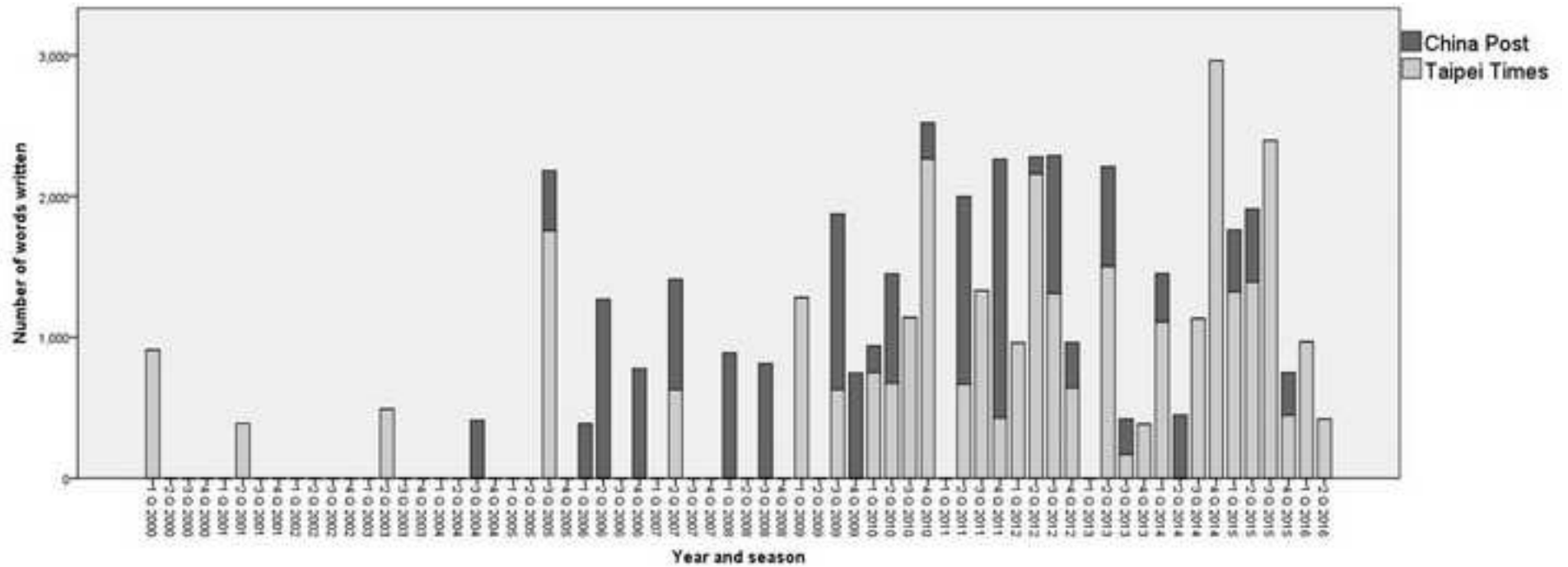
1338 Table 5: Distribution of argument categories over time.

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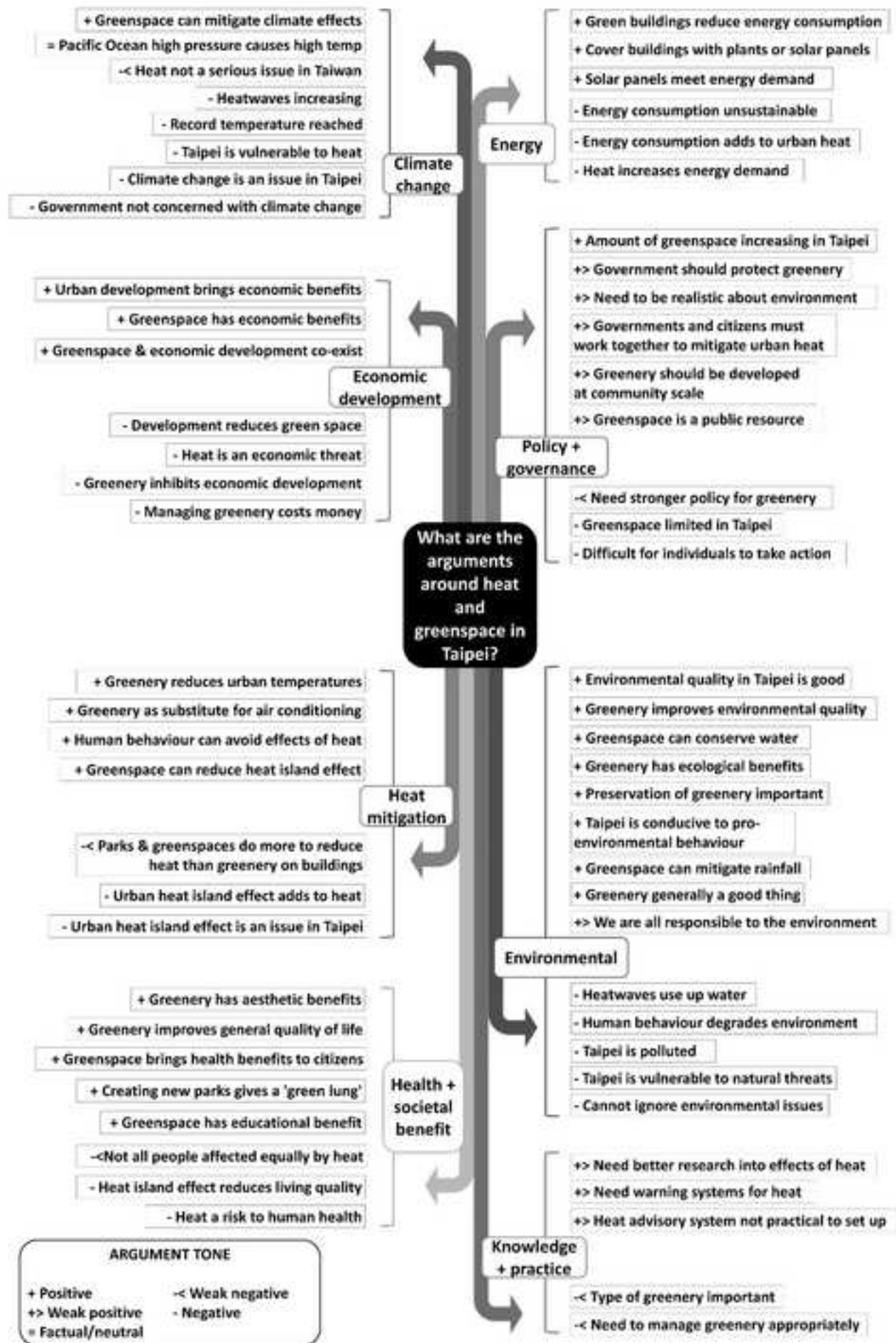
1340 Table 6: Types of greenery mentioned over time.

1341

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What might ‘just green enough’ urban development mean in the context of climate change adaptation? The case of Taipei Metropolis, Taiwan.

Table 1: terminology and definitions

| Term | Definition | How and when used in this paper |
|----------------------|--|---|
| Greenspace | “(N)atural greenspaces in an urban context [...] many types of land in an urban setting from formally designated areas such as parks, areas set aside under legislation such as allotments, to more natural areas such as nature reserves and corridors along river banks” (Comber et al, 2008: 103). Given the dense city context, we also include very small-scale spaces e.g. rooftop gardens, neighbourhood parks, street trees within this (Tan and Jim, 2017). | We use <i>greenspace</i> when discussing sites or locations for vegetation within the city. Given our interest in greenspace function we consider both ‘planned’ and ‘unplanned’ greenspaces. |
| Green infrastructure | “(A)n interconnected network of natural areas and other open spaces that conserves natural ecosystem values and functions, sustains clean air and water, and provides a wide array of benefits to people and wildlife” (Benedict and McMahon, 2002: 1) | Our focus within this paper is on greenspace and greenspace function, however we refer to ‘green infrastructure’ when citing the work of others using this term, in situations when vegetation is created or managed with a stated strategic purpose. |
| Urban greening | Any process which increases the abundance or cover of vegetation in a given area within a city (after Bowler et al, 2010) | We use <i>greening</i> or <i>urban greening</i> to refer to any actions which may increase vegetation within the city. |
| Urban greenery | “[E]ssentially either a human creation or a human modified form of natural vegetation.” (Tan and Jim, 2017: vii) | We use <i>greenery</i> to broadly refer to any piece of vegetation created, modified or managed by humans at any scale. |

What might ‘just green enough’ urban development mean in the context of climate change adaptation? The case of Taipei Metropolis, Taiwan.

Table 2: categories used for coding articles

| Variable | Categories |
|-------------------|---|
| Article topic | Economic development; energy; environmental issue; environmental benefit; excess heat; greenery and greenspace; planning and built environment. |
| Argument type | Climate change; economic development; energy; environmental; health and societal benefit; heat mitigation; knowledge and practice; policy and governance. |
| Sector of speaker | Academia and research; civil society; community groups; government; NGOs; politics; press; private sector. |
| Tone | Positive (including solutions such as green roofs; and also ‘weak positive’ i.e. generally positive / solution-focused but pointing out difficulties or limitations); negative (including problems, such as greenspace getting in the way of economic development; and also ‘weak negative’, i.e. generally negative / problem-focused but pointing out potential solutions); balanced / factual / neutral. |
| Type of greenery | Agricultural land; biodiversity; community space; garden; general environment; green building; greenery; greenspace; park; plants; renewable energy-related; river; rooftop garden; trees. |

What might ‘just green enough’ urban development mean in the context of climate change adaptation? The case of Taipei Metropolis, Taiwan.

Table 3: article topics over time

| Time Period | Article Topic | <i>China Post</i> | <i>Taipei Times</i> |
|--|--------------------------------|--------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1 December 1999 – 31 December 2004 | Economic development | 1 (100%) | 0 (0%) |
| | Energy | 0 (0%) | 0 (0%) |
| | Environmental issue | 0 (0%) | 0 (0%) |
| | Environmental benefit | 0 (0%) | 0 (0%) |
| | Excess heat | 0 (0%) | 0 (0%) |
| | Greenery and greenspace | 0 (0%) | 2 (67%) |
| | Planning and built environment | 0 (0%) | 1 (33%) |
| 1 January 2005 – 31 December 2010 | Economic development | 2 (13%) | 1 (8%) |
| | Energy | 0 (0%) | 0 (0%) |
| | Environmental issue | 1 (7%) | 2 (15.3%) |
| | Environmental benefit | 4 (27%) | 2 (15.3%) |
| | Excess heat | 0 (0%) | 1 (8%) |
| | Greenery and greenspace | 4 (27%) | 5 (38%) |
| | Planning and built environment | 4 (27%) | 2 (15.3%) |
| 1 January 2011 – 31 March 2016 | Economic development | 3 (16.5%) | 2 (4%) |
| | Energy | 0 (0%) | 2 (4%) |
| | Environmental issue | 3 (16.5%) | 4 (9%) |
| | Environmental benefit | 2 (11%) | 6 (13%) |
| | Excess heat | 4 (22%) | 4 (9%) |
| | Greenery and greenspace | 1 (6%) | 12 (26%) |
| | Planning and built environment | 5 (28%) | 16 (35%) |

What might 'just green enough' urban development mean in the context of climate change adaptation? The case of Taipei Metropolis, Taiwan.

Table 4: sector of statement-makers over time

| Time Period | Sector of Statement-Maker | <i>China Post</i> | <i>Taipei Times</i> |
|--|----------------------------------|-------------------|---------------------|
| 1 December 1999 – 31 December 2004 | Academia | 0 (0%) | 0 (0%) |
| | Civil society | 0 (0%) | 0 (0%) |
| | Community group | 0 (0%) | 0 (0%) |
| | Government | 0 (0%) | 4 (66%) |
| | NGO | 0 (0%) | 1 (17%) |
| | Politics | 0 (0%) | 0 (0%) |
| | Press | 0 (0%) | 1 (17%) |
| | Private sector | 0 (0%) | 0 (0%) |
| 1 January 2005 – 31 December 2010 | Academia | 0 (0%) | 23 (44%) |
| | Civil society | 1 (5%) | 2 (4%) |
| | Community group | 3 (15%) | 0 (0%) |
| | Government | 3 (15%) | 5 (10%) |
| | NGO | 0 (0%) | 0 (0%) |
| | Politics | 0 (0%) | 9 (17%) |
| | Press | 13 (65%) | 6 (12%) |
| | Private sector | 0 (0%) | 7 (13%) |
| 1 January 2011 – 31 March 2016 | Academia | 4 (16.5%) | 18 (15%) |
| | Civil society | 0 (0%) | 21 (17%) |
| | Community group | 0 (0%) | 3 (2.5%) |
| | Government | 6 (25%) | 27 (22%) |
| | NGO | 4 (16.5%) | 11 (9%) |
| | Politics | 0 (0%) | 18 (15%) |
| | Press | 7 (29%) | 21 (17%) |
| | Private sector | 3 (13%) | 3 (2.5%) |

What might ‘just green enough’ urban development mean in the context of climate change adaptation? The case of Taipei Metropolis, Taiwan.

Table 5: distribution of argument categories over time

| Time Period | Argument Category | <i>China Post</i> | <i>Taipei Times</i> |
|--|--------------------------------|--------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1 December 1999 – 31 December 2004 | Climate change | 0 (0%) | 0 (0%) |
| | Economic development | 0 (0%) | 0 (0%) |
| | Energy | 0 (0%) | 0 (0%) |
| | Environmental | 0 (0%) | 2 (33%) |
| | Health and societal benefit | 0 (0%) | 1 (17%) |
| | Heat mitigation | 0 (0%) | 0 (0%) |
| | Knowledge and practice | 0 (0%) | 0 (0%) |
| | Policy and governance | 0 (0%) | 3 (50%) |
| 1 January 2005 – 31 December 2010 | Climate change | 1 (5%) | 6 (11.5%) |
| | Economic development | 4 (20%) | 7 (13%) |
| | Energy | 1 (5%) | 4 (8%) |
| | Environmental | 3 (15%) | 5 (10%) |
| | Health and societal benefit | 4 (20%) | 11 (21%) |
| | Heat mitigation | 2 (10%) | 5 (10%) |
| | Knowledge and practice | 1 (5%) | 6 (11.5%) |
| | Policy and governance | 4 (20%) | 8 (15%) |
| 1 January 2011 – 31 March 2016 | Climate change | 3 (12.5%) | 11 (9%) |
| | Economic development | 2 (8.5%) | 15 (12%) |
| | Energy | 1 (4%) | 8 (7%) |
| | Environmental | 5 (21%) | 21 (17%) |
| | Health and societal benefit | 6 (25%) | 20 (16.5%) |
| | Heat mitigation | 3 (12.5%) | 14 (11.5%) |
| | Knowledge and practice | 3 (12.5%) | 8 (7%) |
| | Policy and governance | 1 (4%) | 25 (20%) |

What might ‘just green enough’ urban development mean in the context of climate change adaptation? The case of Taipei Metropolis, Taiwan.

Table 6: types of greenery mentioned over time

| Time Period | Type of green infrastructure mentioned | | China Post | | Taipei Times | |
|------------------------------------|---|--------------------------|-------------------|-----------|---------------------|-----------|
| 1 December 1999 – 31 December 2004 | Community / individual-scale | Community space | 0 (0%) | 0 (0%) | 1 (11%) | 1 (11%) |
| | | Garden | | 0 (0%) | | 0 (0%) |
| | | Green building | | 0 (0%) | | 0 (0%) |
| | | Renewable energy-related | | 0 (0%) | | 0 (0%) |
| | | Rooftop garden | | 0 (0%) | | 0 (0%) |
| | Generic greenery | General environment | 0 (0%) | 0 (0%) | 1 (11%) | 1 (11%) |
| | | Greenery | | 0 (0%) | | 0 (0%) |
| | Large-scale | Agricultural land | 2 (20%) | 0 (0%) | 5 (56%) | 1 (14%) |
| | | Biodiversity | | 0 (0%) | | 0 (0%) |
| | | Embankment | | 0 (0%) | | 0 (0%) |
| | | Greenspace | | 0 (0%) | | 2 (28%) |
| | | Park | | 1 (10%) | | 1 (14%) |
| | | Reclaimed land | | 0 (0%) | | 0 (0%) |
| | Trees and plants | Plants | 8 (80%) | 4 (40%) | 2 (22%) | 1 (11%) |
| Trees | | 4 (40%) | | 1 (11%) | | |
| 1 January 2005 – 31 December 2010 | Community / individual-scale | Community space | 3 (14.3%) | 1 (4.7%) | 4 (21%) | 0 (0%) |
| | | Garden | | 1 (4.7%) | | 0 (0%) |
| | | Green building | | 1 (4.7%) | | 1 (5.25%) |
| | | Renewable energy-related | | 0 (0%) | | 1 (5.25%) |
| | | Rooftop garden | | 0 (0%) | | 2 (10.5%) |
| | Generic greenery | General environment | 11 (52.3%) | 2 (9.5%) | 5 (26%) | 2 (10.4%) |
| | | Greenery | | 9 (42.8%) | | 3 (15.6%) |
| | Large-scale | Agricultural land | 7 (33.3%) | 0 (0%) | 8 (42%) | 0 (0%) |
| | | Biodiversity | | 0 (0%) | | 0 (0%) |
| | | Embankment | | 0 (0%) | | 1 (5.25%) |
| | | Greenspace | | 3 (14.3%) | | 2 (10.5%) |
| | | Park | | 4 (19%) | | 4 (21%) |
| | | Reclaimed land | | 0 (0%) | | 1 (5.25%) |
| | | River | | 0 (0%) | | 0 (0%) |
| | Trees and plants | Plants | 0 (0%) | 0 (0%) | 2 (11%) | 0 (0%) |
| | | Trees | | 0 (0%) | | 2 (11%) |

| | | | | | | |
|---|------------------------------------|------------------------------|-------------|---------------|-------------|-------------|
| 1 January 2011 – 31 March 2016 | Community /individual- scale | Community space | 8 | 0 (0%) | 12 | 6 (8.5%) |
| | | Garden | (50%) | 0 (0%) | (17%) | 0 (0%) |
| | | Green building | | 0 (0%) | | 2 (3%) |
| | | Renewable energy- related | | 0 (0%) | | 3 (4%) |
| | | Rooftop garden | | 1 (6.25%) | | 1 (1.5%) |
| | Generic greenery | General environment | 0 (0%) | 3 (18.75%) | 14 (20%) | 6 (9%) |
| | | Greenery | | 4 (25%) | | 8 (11%) |
| | Large-scale | Agricultural land | 6 | 0 (0%) | 29 | 1 (1.5%) |
| | | Biodiversity | (37.5% | 0 (0%) | (41.5% | 2 (3%) |
| | | Embankment |) | 0 (0%) |) | 0 (0%) |
| | | Greenspace | | 4 (25%) | | 12 (17%) |
| | | Park | | 2 (12.5%) | | 12 (17%) |
| | | Reclaimed land | | 0 (0%) | | 0 (0%) |
| | | River | | 0 (0%) | | 2 (3%) |
| | Trees and plants | Plants | 2 | 0 (0%) | 15 | 1 (1.5%) |
| | | Trees | (12.5%) | 2 (12.5%) | (21.5%) | 14 (20%) |

e-components

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What might 'just green enough' urban development mean in the context of climate change adaptation? The case of urban greenspace planning in Taipei Metropolis, Taiwan.

Statement of no conflict of interest

We hereby confirm that this manuscript is not currently under consideration for publication elsewhere and has not previously been published elsewhere; that neither author has any financial interest or benefit arising from the direct application of their research; and that no funder has had any influence over the research design, execution or analysis.