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1 Dynamic greenspace exposure and residents' mental health in Guangzhou,

2 China: From over-head to eye-level perspective, from quantity to quality

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Ruoyu Wang*, Zhiqiang Feng, Jamie Pearce, Suhong Zhou, Lin Zhang, Ye Liu

4

5 ABSTRACT

6 Natural environments especially greenspace may play an important role in enhancing people's 7 mental health. However, the existing literature mainly assesses greenspace exposure in people's 8 residential neighbourhood ignoring the dynamic nature of daily movements and residential 9 histories. Also, most research assesses greenspace from an 'over-head' perspective whereas an 10 'eye-level' perspective may better capture people's experiences of greenspace, including its quality. 11 We examine the importance of capturing people's eye-level greenspace exposure across different 12 places people occupy in their everyday lives. We construct four measures of greenspace capturing 13 overhead (NDVI), eye-level quantity and quality (Street View Greenness (SVG)) and self-reported 14 neighbourhood greenness exposure. First, we assessed greenspace exposure in residential 15 neighbourhoods, workplaces, recreational places, mobility path and previous residential 16 neighbourhood. The four greenspace indicators were not associated with each other, suggesting 17 they capture different aspects of greenspace. Second, we examine the associations between 18 dynamic greenspace exposure and residents' mental health using survey data collected from 26 19 neighbourhoods of Guangzhou, China. The results show that all measures in residential places are 20 associated with mental health. However, only SVG-quality in recreational places is positively 21 associated with mental health, while both SVG-quantity and SVG-quality in participant's mobility 22 path are associated with mental health. Our findings demonstrate eye-level greenspace quality is 23 more important in relation to mental health. Policymakers and planners should focus not only on 24 residential neighbourhoods, but also consider the wider environments that people encounter in 25 their everyday lives.

26

27 Keywords

28 Eye-level greenspace; Greenspace quality; Mental health; Activity places; Mobility path

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31 1. Introduction

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In many countries, including China, rapid urbanization and growing urban footprints, have often led to a rapid shrinkage of accessible greenspace (Li et al., 2017) with implications for urban residents' opportunities for interaction with the natural environment. Exposure to natural environments especially greenspace is important for residents, since evidence shows that they are important for urban residents' physical and mental health (Gascon et al., 2015; Groenewegen et al., 2012; Hartig et al., 2014; Markevych et al., 2017; Rosenberg, 2017). There are three 39 potential main mechanisms through which greenspace influences people's mental health, 40 including restoring capacities (restoration), building capacities (instoration) and reducing exposure 41 to environmental stressors (Gascon et al., 2015; Hartig et al., 2014; Markevych et al., 2017). First, 42 the restorative effects of greenspace can be explained by both stress reduction theory (SRT) and 43 attention restoration theory (ART) which suggest that greenspace can mitigate mental stress 44 (Kaplan, 1995; Ulrich et al., 1991). Second, instoration effect of greenspace indicates that 45 greenspace can encourage residents to be more physically active and enhance the social cohesion 46 within their neighbourhoods which are both beneficial for mental health (Liu et al., 2019; Liu et 47 al., 2020; Ye et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2019). Last, greenspace can also reduce the negative effects 48 of environmental hazards such as noise and air pollution on mental health (Dzhambov et al., 49 2018a; Dzhambov et al., 2018b). However, whilst some empirical work finds greenspace to be 50 beneficial for mental health (Astellburt et al., 2012; Helbich et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2019; Sarkar et 51 al., 2018; Triguero-Mas et al., 2015; Triguero-Mas et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2019), others have not 52 found such an association (Alcock et al., 2015; Boers et al., 2018). In recent years, some scholars 53 contend that the inconsistency of previous studies may be mainly due to two methodological 54 reasons (Markevych et al., 2017): (a) techniques adopted to measure green space; and (b) 55 capturing the full array of places where people are exposed to greenspace.

56

57 With respect to the techniques adopted to measure green space, in recent years, scholars are 58 increasingly arguing that previous studies do not sufficiently integrate a human-centric approaches 59 to greenspace measurement, including their eye-level experiences in, and perceptions of, such 60 spaces (Guthman and Mansfield, 2013; Rosenberg, 2017; Senanayake and King, 2019). Two 61 aspects of greenspace exposure assessment are particularly relevant here including measuring 62 greenspace from an over-head perspective to an eye-level perspective and also capturing the 63 quality of greenspaces, rather than relying on simplistic measures of the quantity of greenspace in 64 a particular area. With regards to the first domain, natural environments exposure including 65 greenspace, are normally measured using GIS (Geographic Information System) approaches 66 (Groenewegen et al., 2012; Markevych et al., 2017), which may overlook people's actual 67 ground-level environment exposure (Helbich et al., 2019; Ye et al., 2018). The over-head 68 measures do not include for example detailed information about street plants, particularly 69 smaller elements such as shrubs or lawns which are relevant to people's perception and 70 experience of the environment. Helbich et al. (2019) demonstrate, this omission is important 71 from a population health perspective. They found a positive association between greenspace 72 assessed by street view images (i.e eye-level measures) and mental health, but no association 73 between greenspace assessed by NDVI (Normalized Difference Vegetation Index) (i.e., an 74 overhead measure) and mental health. Also, previous nature-exposure experiments indicate that a 75 short-term eye-level greenspace interaction can help them mitigate psychological stress, restore 76 energy, and thus may have beneficial effects on mental health (Bodin and Hartig, 2003; Browning 77 et al., 2020; Hartig et al., 1991; Hartig et al., 2003; Jiang et al 2020). However, eye-level 78 greenspace has received far less attention than overhead-view greenspace due to some key 79 methodological limitations (Helbich et al., 2019; Markevych et al., 2017). Traditional ways for 80 assessing people's eye-level natural environments exposure are either based on respondents' 81 questionnaire (Takano et al., 2002) or field audit (de Vries et al., 2013; Van Dillen et al., 2012). 82 Approaches using questionnaires usually asks respondents about their views of greenspaces

(Takano et al., 2002) while field audit method usually depends on experienced investigators who 83 84 visit the neighbourhood and rate based on certain scale (de Vries et al., 2013; Van Dillen et al., 85 2012). Both methods have limitations including being subject to individual's biases, labour-intensive and time-consuming. Recently, with the development of geospatial big data and 86 87 machine learning approaches, scholars have introduced a new approach assessing eye-level 88 greenspace exposure based on street view images (Li et al. 2015). This shift from over-head 89 perspective to human-centric perspective offers opportunities for enhanced assessments of 90 exposure and therefore more robust studies of health-environment relations. As for the second 91 domain, previous studies mainly focus on the effects of greenspace quantity (Groenewegen et al., 92 2012; Hartig et al., 2014; Rosenberg, 2017). However, some scholars have argued that research on 93 neighbourhood greenspace and mental health should focus more on quality than quantity (Mitchell 94 and Popham, 2007; Van Dillen et al., 2012). Greenspace quality provides an assessment of 95 people's attitudes towards their surroundings, which may have different effects on people's 96 mental health outcomes (Astell-Burt et al., 2014; Francis et al., 2012; Van Dillen et al., 2012). For 97 example, van Dillen et al. (2012) found that residents' mental health is more clearly associated 98 with greenspace quality than it is with quantity. Two main factors might influence the lack of 99 attention on greenspace quality (Brindley et al., 2019). First, there are conceptual issues of 100 greenspace quality, it is hard to find a universal definition (Brindley et al., 2019). Quality of 101 greenspace refers to maintenance and qualities of a space including multi-dimensions of both 102 physical and social components. For example, Van Dillen et al. (2012) measured quality by scoring levels of accessibility, maintenance, variation, naturalness, colourfulness, clear 103 104 arrangement, shelter, absence of litter, safety and general impression, while Zhang et al. (2017) 105 used six item scale related to facilities, amenities, natural features, incivilities, accessibility and 106 maintenance. Second, the omission of quality may be also due to methodological limitations 107 (Brindley et al., 2019). Similar to eve-level greenspace quantity, greenspace quality is usually 108 assessed through two methods including questionnaires (Feng and Astell-Burt, 2017a, 2017b, 109 2018) and field audit (de Vries et al., 2013; Van Dillen et al., 2012). Both methods have obvious 110 limits including being labor-intensive, time-consuming and cannot be applied to a large study area. 111 The trend of paying more attention on greenspace quality than greenspace quantity also reflects 112 the importance of human-centric perspective in health-environment studies.

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115 In addition to concerns about whether greenspace measures sufficiently capture the human experience of such spaces, greenspace-health studies have also been critiqued for relying on 116 117 measures based on people's residential neighbourhoods rather than attempting to capture people's 118 daily activity places (working place and recreational place). This is a concern for epidemiological 119 analyses as approaches relying on residential exposure assessments may misestimate peoples' 120 greenspace exposure (Van Ham and Manley, 2012). The residential neighbourhood is usually 121 defined by administrative units and people's exposure to greenspace is calculated by the total greenspace within this area (Helbich, 2018). This assessment of exposure can reflect people's 122 123 most salient environmental exposure, since many people spend most of their time in residential 124 area (Helbich, 2018). However, this exposure metric ignores people's daily mobility patterns 125 (Kwan, 2012, 2018). Besides residential neighbourhood, people may spend much of their time in 126 the work place and/or recreation space, so people's exposure to greenspace in these two places

should also be considered (Schönfelder and Axhausen, 2003). Last, people's daily mobility paths 127 128 connecting these activity places may also be considered for environment exposure since their daily 129 commuting from place to place takes up a lot of time (Van Ham and Manley, 2012). People's most 130 mobility-based environment exposure can be captured through their daily mobility paths. However, 131 the information on work place, recreational place and travel routes can be collected using a travel 132 diary or GPS (Global Position System) equipment (Li et al., 2018). The former method is relatively straightforward to implement, but it may cause potential bias since it is self-reported, 133 134 while the latter method is often more accurate but is also time-consuming, costly and may cause 135 potential ethical concerns.

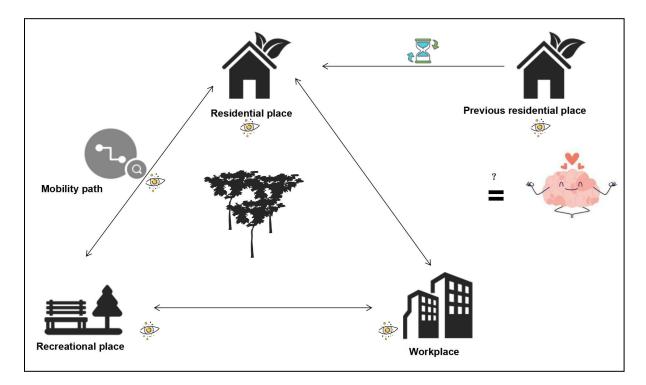
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137 Also, the association between greenspace exposure and mental health over people's residential 138 history has attracted attention in recent years (Pearce et al., 2018; Pearce et al., 2016; Pearce, 139 2018). Since people may move from one residential neighbourhood to another over their life 140 course and the nature of residential greenspaces may change significantly over time, analyses of 141 the greenspace exposure based on current neighbourhood greenspace can underestimate the effect of greenspace (Wheeler et al., 2012). People's previous residential neighbourhood environment 142 143 exposure may influence mental health later in life and previous residential neighbourhood 144 environment exposure can interact with current residential neighbourhood environment exposure 145 and have synergistic effects on mental health (Pearce et al., 2018; Pearce et al., 2016; Pearce, 146 2018). Therefore considering greenspace exposure in previous residential neighbourhoods is also 147 important. This method can reflect the lag effect of environment exposure, since environment may 148 not have influence on people's health immediately. The effects of the environment on people's 149 health may be cumulative, so previous environment exposure also matters. However, it is usually 150 challenging to obtain detailed information of people's previous environment exposure.

151

152 This study examines the association between dynamic greenspace exposure and residents' mental 153 health among Chinese people using survey data collected from 26 neighbourhoods in Guangzhou 154 (Fig 1). The study extends previous research in several aspects. First, it enhances our knowledge 155 of the psychological benefits of greenspace exposure in China by considering both greenspace 156 quantity and quality. Second, it takes into account of both over-head view greenspace exposure and eye-level greenspace exposure. Third, instead of only focusing on residential neighbourhood, 157 158 this study further explores greenspace exposure through different exposure assessments including 159 activity places, mobility path and previous residential neighbourhood.

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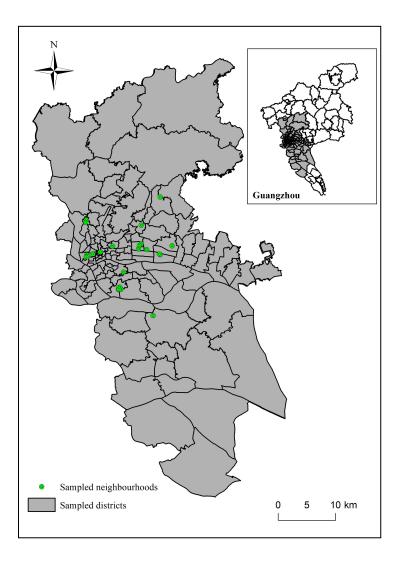


- 164 Fig. 1 The conceptual framework
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- 166 2. Method

167 2.1. Survey data

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169 A questionnaire survey collected basic information on residents' social communication, daily 170 activities and health was administered in Guangzhou between March and August 2017. The survey 171 aimed to reflect the challenges and ways to improve urban planning and community building 172 among residents. Data were collected by 20 trained investigators. The 26 residential 173 neighbourhoods (she qu) were selected from six inner-city districts of Guangzhou (Yuexiu, Haizhu, 174 Panyu, Baiyun, Tianhe, and Liwan) using a multi-stage stratified probability proportionate to population size (PPS) sampling technique. Investigators then randomly chose sampled households 175 from each neighbourhood using the systematic sampling method. At the last stage, investigators 176 177 chose one household member from each household using the Kish Grid method (Fig 2). The 178 survey yielded a total of 1003 valid participants. The questionnaire survey was approved by Sun 179 Yat-sen University (SYSU) and all participants gave informed consent. Individual-level data items 180 solicited through the questionnaires includes personal characteristic (demographic and 181 socioeconomic characteristics), residential and employment information, physical activity, 182 self-reported health conditions, social interactions, and activity logs.



184

185 Fig. 2 The location of sampled neighborhoods.

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188 2.2. Dependent Variables: Mental health

190 Mental wellbeing was measured using the five-item World Health Organization Well-Being Index 191 (WHO-5) (Heun et al., 2001) and is one of the most widely used tools to assess mental wellbeing. The WHO-5 consists of five items, which are related to positive mood, vitality and general 192 193 interests over the past two weeks (1. I have felt cheerful and in good spirits, 2. I have felt calm and 194 relaxed, 3. I have felt active and vigorous, 4. I woke up feeling fresh and rested, 5. My daily life 195 has been filled with things that interest me). Each item is scored on a six-point Likert scale, 196 ranging from "never" to "every time." We calculated the sum score of WHO-5, ranging from 0 to 197 25. The WHO-5 has been shown to have good validity and reliability across many countries 198 (Guðmundsdóttir et al., 2014). Cronbach's alpha indicated a high internal consistency among the 199 five items (>0.82).

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202 2.3. Independent Variables: Greenspace exposure

204 NDVI

In order to assess residents' over-head view greenspace exposure, we used the satellite-based 205 206 NDVI (Tucker, 1979) as a surrogate of greenspace exposure. We used satellite images from 207 Landsat8 OLI (Operational Land Imager) and TIRS (Thermal Infrared Sensor) at a 30 m \times 30 m 208 spatial resolution to calculate the NDVI exposure. Data were obtained for 2016 from the USGS 209 EarthExplorer (https://earthexplorer.usgs.gov/). We used cloud-free images in the greenest season 210 (August) to avoid distortions, although Guangzhou is subtropical and so remains green year round. 211 NDVI values vary between -1 and 1. A higher value indicates a higher density of healthy 212 vegetation.

213

214 Street view greenness quantity

215 We use street view data to assess eye-level greenspace exposure. The images were extracted from 216 Tencent Map [https://map.qq.com/] which is China's most comprehensive online map. It provides 217 street view images taken from various positions and has been widely used in previous studies (Helbich et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2019). Based on OpenStreetMap (Haklay and Weber, 2008), we 218 219 constructed street view sampling points along the road network. The sampling points were 100 220 metre apart. Following previous studies (Helbich et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2019), for each 221 sampling point, we collected four images from four main cardinal directions (i.e., 0, 90,180, and 222 270 degrees). In total, 285,144 street view images were obtained for the study area.

223

224 Following previous studies (Helbich et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2019), to extract greenspace objects 225 (e.g., grasses, trees) we used a fully convolutional neural network for semantic image 226 segmentation (FCN-8s) (Long et al., 2015) based on the ADE20K dataset (Zhou et al., 2019) of 227 annotated images for training purposes. The accuracy of the FCN-8s was with 0.814 for the 228 training data and 0.811 for the test data. A flowchart for FCN-8s in this study can be found in Fig 229 S1. Then, street view greenspace quantity per sampling point was determined as the ratio of the 230 number of greenspace (e.g., trees and grasses) pixels per image summed over the four cardinal 231 directions to the total number of pixels per image summed over the four cardinal directions. For 232 each neighbourhood or exposure place, the street view greenspace quantity was calculated from 233 the average score of all sampling point within the 1000-m buffer.

234

235236 Street view greenness quality

237

238 First, we collected the training dataset from the set used in the SVG quantity assessment. 239 Specifically, 2000 images were randomly selected. Then, the selected images were scored (0-10) 240 based on greenspace quality attributes from previous studies (Van Dillen et al., 2012) including accessibility, maintenance, variation, naturalness, colourfulness, clear arrangement, shelter, 241 242 absence of litter, safety and general impression (Cronbach's alpha=0.85). Then, a random forest 243 model (Breiman, 2001) for automatic rating was trained by fitting each rating quality scores with 244 the proportion of 151 elements from the image segmentations. Last, we used this automated 245 scoring system to score all images on ten quality attributes.

246

In this way, we collected scores of ten attributes of greenspace quality for all images. Ten quality attributes for all images achieve high internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha>0.80). Following previous studies (Lu, 2019; Van Dillen et al., 2012), greenspace quality score for each image was calculated by the average score of all 10 attributes. For each neighbourhood or exposure place, the street view greenspace quality was calculated by the average score of all sampling point within the 1000-m buffer. More details of this approach can be found in supplement file..

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255 Perceived greenspace quality

Following previous studies (Feng and Astell-Burt, 2017a, 2017b, 2018), we also evaluated neighbourhood greenspace quality through a self-reported question. Respondents were asked "Do you agree with the following statement about living in this neighbourhood: You feel comfortable in the greenspace or park in this neighbourhood". Responses to the statement were either "5=highly agreed", "4=agreed", "3=general", "2=disagreed" or "1=highly disagreed".

261

262 Covariates

263 We adjusted for a series of confounding demographic covariates: sex (males vs female), age (in 264 years), education attainment (primary school or below; high school; college and above), marital 265 status (single and not cohabiting, divorced, and widowed vs married vs cohabiting), hukou status 266 (registered permanent residence vs registered temporary residence), average monthly household 267 income, with chronic disease (yes vs no), current smoking (current smoker vs non-smoker) and 268 alcohol consumption statuses (drinker vs non-drinker). At the neighbourhood level, following 269 Frank et al. (2006), we chose three land use-related variables including population density 270 (continuous in person/km²), street intersection density (continuous in number of intersections/km²) 271 and land use mix (continuous variable which ranges from 0-1). Previous studies suggest that 272 environmental contextual variables such as air pollution and noise may confound the association 273 between greenspace and mental health (Dzhambov et al., 2018c; Markevych et al., 2017; Yuchi et 274 al., 2020), so we also control for PM2.5 (fine particulate matter with a diameter of 2.5 µm or less) 275 and perceived noise in our analysis. PM2.5 was derived from the 2016 Global Annual PM2.5 data 276 grid, which uses MODIS, MISR and Sea WiFS Aerosol Optical Depth (AOD) data with 277 geographically weighted regression, and available from the NASA Socioeconomic Data and 278 Applications Center (SEDAC) at a 1k m \times 1km spatial resolution (Van Donkelaar et al., 2016). 279 Last, we used a self-reported scale to measure respondents' perceived noise pollution. 280 Respondents were asked how the following noise pollution within their local neighbourhood 281 influence their life (range from 'no such a problem=1' to 'very serious=5'): 'The noise of road 282 traffic', 'The noise produced by subways, light rail, trains, etc.', 'The noise from the restaurant 283 and so on', 'The noise of the house decoration' and 'The noise from construction sites, factories, 284 etc'. (Cronbach's alpha>0.80). We averaged scores of the above items, and higher scores mean the 285 higher level of perceived noise pollution.

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290 Table 1. Descriptive statistics for the variables

Variables	Proportion/Mean (Standard Deviation)
Outcome	
WHO-5 (0-25)	15.27(3.60)
Predictors	
Residential neighbourhood (buffer size=1000m) n=1003	
NDVI [median (IQR)]	0.10(0.04)
SVG-quantity [median (IQR)]	0.19(0.08)
SVG-quality	5.64(0.39)
Self-reported greenspace quality	3.12(0.86)
Working place (buffer size=1000m) n=998	
NDVI [median (IQR)]	0.10(0.03)
SVG-quantity [median (IQR)]	0.19(0.08)
SVG-quality	5.42(0.38)
Recreational place (buffer size=1000m) n=809	
NDVI [median (IQR)]	0.09(0.04)
SVG-quantity [median (IQR)]	0.19(0.07)
SVG-quality	5.43(0.34)
Mobility path (buffer size=500m) n=994	
NDVI [median (IQR)]	0.09(0.02)
SVG-quantity [median (IQR)]	0.19(0.05)
SVG-quality	5.40(0.30)
Previous residential neighbourhood in 2012 (buffer size=1000m) r	n=862
NDVI [median (IQR)]	0.09(0.03)
Individual covariates	
Gender (%)	
Male	49.95
Female	50.05
Age	36.41(9.68)
Marital status (%)	
Cohabiting	5.38
Married	80.06
Single and , divorced or widowed	14.56
Hukou status (%)	
Local hukou	80.96
Non-local hukou	19.04
Education (%)	
Junior high school or below	6.38
Senior high school	27.52
College or above	66.10
Gross monthly household income (Chinese Yuan)	15637.19(8488.45)

The presence of chronic disease (%)	
Yes	12.86
No	87.14
Current smoking status (%)	
Current smoker	39.38
Non-smoker	60.62
Current drinking status (%)	
Drinker	42.07
Non-drinker	57.93
Perceived noise (1-5)	2.25(0.69)
Built environment covariates	
Population density (person/km ²)	46687.33(30382.95)
Intersection density (number of intersections/km ²)	89.83(66.24)
Land use mix (0-1)	0.13(0.02)
PM _{2.5} (µg/m3)	35.89(0.81)

293

294 2.4. Exposure assessments

295

296 **People's daily activity places**

We assessed greenspace exposure in three activity places including residential neighbourhood, working place and recreational place. The location of working place and recreational place (i.e place where they take physical activity) were reported by respondents. We evaluated environment exposure at working place and recreational place based on a 1000-m circular buffer of their geocoded location. For residential neighbourhood, we evaluated environment exposure based on 1000-m circular buffers of their centroids.

303

304 Mobility path

In the survey, participants were requested to recall all of their activities for the latest weekdays and 305 306 weekend. These items include each of the activity locations or stay points (residences, workplaces, 307 restaurants, shopping places, recreational places) and travel characteristics including origin, 308 destination, transportation mode and duration. Based on these detailed activity log data, the path 309 for each participant was delineated using individual trajectory recalled by participants and the trajectory was drawn based on the shortest path between each two reported location. A total of 310 311 14,439 items were recorded in their activity logs, so there are approximately 14.4 activities 312 recorded for each participant. A 500-m road buffer was used for assessing greenspace exposure in 313 travel routes.

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315 **Previous neighbourhood**

We also considered greenspace exposure in respondents' previous housing address in 2012 (24% respondents changed their neighbourhood). We evaluated greenspace exposure at previous housing address based on NDVI with 1000-m circular buffers.

2.5. Multilevel analysis 320

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322 To assess the linkage between greenness exposure and mental health, we fitted multilevel linear 323 regressions (Raudenbush and Bryk, 2002). Multilevel models were preferable over single-level 324 models due to the hierarchical structure of our data where individuals are nested in neighbourhood. The full multilevel model was specified as follows:

325

 $WHO_{ij} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{ Greenspace indicator}_j + \beta_2 Covariates_{ij} + \beta_3 Covariates_j + \mu_{ij} + \phi_j$

where \mathbf{i} represents individuals and \mathbf{j} represents neighbourhoods. Greenspace indicator_i 326 327 represents a vector of neighbourhood-level variables of greenspace indicator (e.g. NDVI and

328 SVG). Covariates_{ii} represents a vector of individual-level covariates. Covariates_i represents a

329 vector of neighbourhood-level covariates. μ_{ii} and ϕ_i represent random errors at the individual

330 level and the neighbourhood level, respectively. Variance inflation factors (VIF<3) suggested no 331 severity of multicollinearity among predictors. ICC (Intra-class correlation coefficient) for the null 332 model (0.39) confirmed the necessity of multilevel models, as living within the same 333 neighbourhood accounted for 39 percent of the total variance in respondents' WHO-5 index.

334

First, we regressed WHO-5 index on covariates (Model 1). Second, we added residential 335 336 neighbourhood greenspace indicators into model 1 (Model 2). Third, we added working place 337 greenspace indicators into model 1 (Model 3). Fourth, we added recreational place greenspace 338 indicators into model 1 (Model 4). Fourth, we added mobility path greenspace indicators into 339 model 1 (Model 5). Fifth, we added previous residential neighbourhood greenspace indicators into 340 model 1 (Model 6). For robustness test for the relationships between greenspace mental health 341 based on different exposure assessments, we adjusted all greenspace indicators in a single model 342 (Model 7). We repeated our analyses with different buffer sizes (place-based measures: 800-m and 343 1500-m; mobility-based measures: 300-m and 800-m). STATA v.15.1 was used for the statistical 344 analysis (STATA, Inc. College Station, TX USA).

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3. Results 348

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350 3.1. Descriptive Statistics

352 The average WHO-5 scores for all respondents was 15.27 (SD: 3.60). In residential 353 neighbourhoods, the median NDVI score was 0.104 (IQR:=0.041) and median SVG-quantity 354 score was 0.19 (IQR:=0.08), while average SVG-quality and self-reported greenspace quality 355 scores were 5.64 (SD:=0.39) and 3.12 (SD:=0.86), respectively. For the work place measures, the 356 median NDVI score was 0.10 (IQR:=0.03) and median SVG-quantity score was 0.19 (IQR:=0.08),

- while the average SVG-quality scores was 5.42 (SD:=0.38). For the recreational place measures, the median NDVI score was 0.09 (IQR:=0.04) and median SVG-quantity score was 0.19 (IQR:=0.07), while the average SVG-quality scores was 5.43 (SD:=0.39). For the mobility path measures, the median NDVI score was 0.09 (IQR:=0.02) and median SVG-quantity score was 0.19 (IQR:=0.05), while the average SVG-quality scores was 5.40 (SD:=0.30). Also, the median
- 362 NDVI score was 0.09 (IQR:=0.03) in respondents' previous residential neighbourhood in 2012.
- 363

364 The characteristics of the study population are summarized in Table 1. About half of participants 365 were male (49.9%) and the average age was 38.4 years. Most respondents were married (80.06%) and were registered as temporary residents (80.96%). Approximately 27.52% of respondents had a 366 367 high school education and 66.10% possessed a college level education. The average gross monthly 368 household income was 15637.19 Chinese Yuan, while the average score of perceived noise was 369 2.25. Most respondents did not have chronic diseases (87.14%). About two thirds of respondents 370 were either non-smoker (60.69%) or non-drinker (57.93%). The socio-economic characteristics of 371 the study population is similar to general population based on census data in Guangzhou (Table 372 S1), which indicates samples in this study are sufficiently representative. As for built environment 373 covariates, the average population density, intersection density and land use mix index were 374 respectively 46687.39 person/km², 89.83 intersections/km² and 0.13. The average concentration of 375 PM2.5 was 35.89 µg/m3.

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379 3.2. Correlation Analysis

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381 The Spearman correlation coefficients were used to assess correlation between different 382 greenspace measures. Using the residential neighbourhood measures, self-reported greenspace 383 quality score was positively associated with SVG-quantity (rSp=0.04) and SVG-quality score 384 (rSp=0.11). For the work place measures SVG-quantity score was positively associated with 385 SVG-quality score(rSp=0.85). For the recreational place measures, NDVI score was negatively 386 associated with NDVI in neighbourhood (rSp=-0.25), SVG-quantity (rSp=-0.10), SVG-quality 387 (rSp=-0.14) and self-reported greenspace quality score (rSp=-0.11) in residential neighbourhood. 388 For the mobility path measures, NDVI score was positively associated with NDVI score in 389 residential neighbourhood (rSp=0.28). SVG-quantity core was also positively associated with 390 SVG-quantity in residential neighbourhood (rSp=0.38). Also, SVG-quality score was positively 391 associated with SVG-quality score (rSp=0.26) and self-reported greenspace quality score 392 (rSp=0.04) in residential neighbourhood. Last NDVI score in previous residential neighbourhood 393 was positively associated with NDVI score in current residential neighbourhood (rSp=0.15).

Table 2. Results of correlation tests: greenspace indicators in different exposure places.

	Residential neighbourhood			Working place			Recreational place		Mobility path		resid	Previous residential neighbourhood		
				Self-reported	1									
	NDVI	SVG-quantity	v SVG-quality	greenspace	NDVI	SVG-quantity	SVG-quality	NDVI	SVG-quantity	V SVG-quality	NDVI	SVG-quantity SVG-	quality NI	DVI
				quality										
Residential neighbourhood NDVI	1													
Residential neighbourhood SVG-quantity	-0.35	1												
Residential neighbourhood SVG-quality	-0.16	0.58*	1											
Residential neighbourhood self-reported greenspace quality	-0.01	0.04**	0.61***	1										
Working place NDVI	0.04	-0.03	0.01	0.00	1									
Working place SVG-quantity	0.07	-0.10	0.08	0.03	0.29*	1								
Working place SVG-quality	0.09	-0.09	0.03	0.03	0.31	0.85**	1							
Recreational place NDVI	-0.25**	-0.10**	-0.14**	-0.11**	-0.07	-0.03	-0.07	1						
Recreational place SVG-quantity	-0.25*	-0.64	-0.28	-0.03	-0.02	0.05	0.06	-0.21	1					
Recreational place SVG-quality	-0.17*	-0.63	-0.18	-0.01	-0.00	-0.06	-0.07	0.08	-0.87	1				
Mobility path NDVI	0.28**	-0.33	-0.32	-0.16	0.19	0.07	0.10	0.31	0.23	0.19	1			
Mobility path SVG-quantity	0.09	0.32**	0.37*	0.06*	-0.01	0.04	0.04	-0.05	0.23	0.18	0.26*	1		
Mobility path SVG-quality	0.10	0.36*	0.29**	0.04**	0.02	0.05	0.10	-0.04	0.24	0.23	0.34*	0.69 1		
Previous residential neighbourhood NDVI	0.15**	-0.11	-0.05	-0.03	0.08	0.04	0.02	-0.06	0.12	0.10	0.06	0.01 0.04	1	

Note: *p < 0.10, **p < 0.05, ***p < 0.01.

395	
396	3.3. Multilevel Analysis
397	
398	Table 3 illustrates the association between covariates and mental health. Married respondents had
399	lower WHO scores than respondents who were cohabiting (Coef. = -1.43, SE=0.41). Respondents
400	with senior high school education attainment had lower WHO scores than respondents with junior
401	high school or below education attainment (Coef. = -0.85, SE=0.40). As for the built environment,
402	population density was positively associated with WHO scores (Coef. = 4.34, SE=1.43) while
403	intersection density was negatively associated with WHO scores (Coef. = -0.01, SE=0.00).
404	
405	Table 3. The association between covariates and mental health (baseline model).
406	

	Model 1
	Coef. (SE)
Fixed part	
Individual covariates	
Male (referenced group= Female)	0.27(0.25)
Age	0.00(0.00)
Married (referenced group= Cohabiting)	-1.43***(0.41)
Single, divorced or widowed (referenced group= Cohabiting)	-0.49(0.45)
Local hukou (referenced group= Non-local hukou)	0.28(0.23)
Senior high school (referenced group= Junior high school or below)	-0.85**(0.40)
College or above (referenced group= Junior high school or below)	-0.13(0.38)
Gross monthly household income	-1.00*(0.53)
With chronic disease (referenced group= Without chronic disease)	-0.18(0.28)
Current smoker (referenced group= Non-smoker)	-0.43(0.29)
Drinker (referenced group= Non-drinker)	0.13(0.24)
Perceived noise	-0.28*(0.15)
Built environment covariates	
Population density	4.34**(1.73)
Intersection density	-0.01***(0.00)
Land use mix	39.80(29.41)
PM _{2.5}	-0.83(0.73)
Constant	27.05(22.29)
Random part	
Var (Neighbourhoods)	4.64**
Var (Individuals)	7.37**
Number of individuals	1003
Number of neighbourhoods	26
Log likelihood	-2460.38
AIC	4958.772

407 Note: Coef. = coefficient; SE = standard error; AIC = Akaike information criterion. *p < 0.10, **p

 $408 \qquad < 0.05, \, {}^{***}p < 0.01.$

409

410 Table 4 illustrates the association between greenspace exposure and mental health based on 411 different exposure assessments adjusted for individual and neighbourhood covariates. Model 2 412 shows greenspace-mental health association using the residential neighbourhood measures. NDVI 413 (Coef. = 1.75, SE=0.83), SVG-quantity (Coef. = 2.60, SE=0.63), SVG-quality (Coef. = 2.54, 414 SE=0.78) and self-reported greenspace quality score (Coef. = 0.41, SE=0.11) were all positively 415 associated with WHO-5 scores. Model 3 shows greenspace-mental health association using working place measures. None of the greenspace indicators were significantly associated with 416 417 WHO-5 scorese. Model 4 shows greenspace-mental health association using recreational place 418 measures. Only SVG-quality was positively associated with WHO-5 scores (Coef. = 2.51, 419 SE=0.69). Model 5 shows greenspace-mental health association using mobility place measures. 420 Only SVG-quantity (Coef. = 0.59, SE=0.17) and SVG-quality (Coef. = 1.46, SE=0.49) was 421 positively associated with WHO-5 scores. Model 6 shows greenspace-mental health association 422 using the previous residential neighbourhood measures. No evidence can support NDVI in 423 previous residential neighbourhood was related to current WHO-5 scores. In model 7 different 424 greenspace indicators based on different exposure assessments were added simultaneously. 425 Despite some differences in magnitude, the greenspace-WHO-5 scores associations found for different greenspace indicators based on different exposure assessments remained the same. To 426 427 assess the robustness of our results we repeated our analyses using 800m and 1500m buffers to 428 estimate greenspace exposure (300m and 800m buffers for mobility path). The results were not 429 substantively altered (results available on request).

Table 4. The association between greenspace exposure and mental health in different exposure places.

	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7
	Coef. (SE)	Coef. (SE)	Coef. (SE)	Coef. (SE)	Coef. (SE)	Coef. (SE)
Variables						
Residential neighbourhood (buffer size=1000m) n=10	03					
NDVI	1.75**(0.83)					0.69**(0.34)
SVG-quantity	2.60***(0.63)					2.23***(0.53)
SVG-quality	2.54***(0.78)					1.98***(0.54)
Self-reported greenspace quality	0.41***(0.11)					0.61***(0.13)
Working place (buffer size=1000m) n=998						
NDVI		0.04(0.08)				0.01(0.08)
SVG-quantity		0.05(0.23)				0.06(0.30)
SVG-quality		0.04(0.45)				0.02(0.51)
Recreational place (buffer size=1000m) n=809						
NDVI			0.02(0.14)			0.08(0.15)
SVG-quantity			0.64*(0.34)			0.33(0.34)
SVG-quality			2.51***(0.69)			1.88***(0.71)
Mobility path (buffer size=500m) n=994						
NDVI				-0.08(0.13)		-0.03(0.14)
SVG-quantity				0.59***(0.17)		0.53**(0.21)
SVG-quality				1.46***(0.49)		2.15***(0.55)
Previous residential neighbourhood in 2012 n=862						
NDVI					0.04(0.09)	0.00(0.10)

Note: Coef. = coefficient; SE = standard error. *p < 0.10, **p < 0.05, ***p < 0.01. Models are adjusted for all covariates.

431 4. Discussion

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444

433 The novelty of this study is that this is the first study of the association of green space with mental 434 health to use a greenspace quality assessment based on street view data and machine learning. Second, we included both over-head and eve-level greenspace exposures which bring 435 436 human-centric perspective into greenspace-health association. Third, we also took into account 437 exposure in different activity spaces including residential neighbourhood, activity places, mobility 438 path and previous residential neighbourhood. This can help us further solve some of the limitation 439 caused by Uncertain Geographic Context Problem (UGCoP) (Kwan, 2012). There are two main 440 findings from this study. First, different measurements of greenspace (over-head vs eye-level 441 perspective; quantity vs quality) may reflect different aspects of greenspace. Second, greenspace 442 exposure assessments (activity places and mobility path) matters for greenspace-mental health 443 association.

445 Although over-head greenspace has been shown to be important and related to health, eye-level 446 greenspace may better represent people's actually perceived greenness on the ground compared to 447 overhead-view assessments. Our findings provide empirical support to Wang et al. (2019) and 448 Helbich et al. (2019), who both indicated the differences between two approaches when measuring 449 greenspace exposures. Also, greenspace quantity and quality may also reflect different aspects of 450 greenspace. Compared with greenspace quantity, quality is more subjective but reflective of 451 people's actual attitude towards greenspace (Brindley et al., 2019). Our findings are consistent 452 with van Dillen et al. (2012) and Feng et al. (2018) who both highlighted that greenspace quality 453 is more related to people's subjective feelings. However, self-reported greenspace quality score 454 was positively associated with SVG-quantity and SVG-quality in residential neighbourhood. This 455 further indicates that eye-level greenspace is similar to self-reported greenspace and can reflect 456 people's greenspace exposure on the ground. NDVI score in recreational place was negatively 457 associated with greenspace indicators in residential neighbourhood. A possible explanation is that 458 residents who live in neighbourhood with less greenspace are more eager for more greenspace in 459 spare time, so they are more likely to seek for recreational places with more greenspace. Hence, in 460 mobility path, greenspace indicators are positively associated with that in residential 461 neighbourhood. This may be because residents living in greener neighbourhood are more likely to 462 find a greener street at the point of origin (near residential neighbourhood). Also, residents will not 463 choose a route mainly based on its greenness, but are more likely to choose the shortest path, so 464 when begin with a greener street, people are more likely to be exposed to more greenspace in the 465 route (Li et al., 2018; Mennis et al., 2018). Last NDVI score in previous residential neighbourhood 466 was positively associated with NDVI score in current residential neighbourhood. The reason may 467 be that residents have a certain dependence on the previous living environment, so living in 468 greener neighbourhood previously may motivate residents to find a similar neighbourhood when 469 they have to move to another neighbourhood.

470

471 Our results also suggest that residential neighbourhood greenspace may exert beneficial effects on 472 psychological well-being in an urban population based on different indicators. This is consistent

430

with cross-sectional studies (Dzhambov et al., 2018a; Dzhambov et al., 2018b; Groenewegen et al., 473 474 2012; Triguero-Mas et al., 2015; Triguero-Mas et al., 2017) that found positive association 475 between neighbourhood NDVI and mental health. Similarly, our research confirms the two recent 476 studies in China which showed that neighbourhood SVG-quantity benefits mental health for urban 477 residents (Helbich et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2019). This is consistent with previous 478 nature-exposure experiments which highlight the capacity-restoring effect of greenspace stimulus 479 on mental wellbeing (Bodin and Hartig, 2003; Browning et al., 2020; Hartig et al., 1991; Hartig et 480 al., 2003). Although based on field audit, previous studies also found that greenspace quality was 481 positively related to mental health (de Vries et al., 2013; Van Dillen et al., 2012). Our study is the 482 first using street view data to assess greenspace quality and provide further evidence that 483 greenspace quality in residential neighbourhood is positively associated with mental health. The 484 positive association of self-reported green space quality with mental health showed in our study is 485 also supportive ofrecent studies in Australia (Feng and Astell-Burt, 2017a, 2017b, 2018) and in 486 China (Zhang et al., 2019). All these findings suggest that greenspace in residential neighbourhood 487 plays an important role in influencing people's mental health and the reason may be that people 488 are more likely to spend most of their time in or around residential neighbourhood than other 489 places, so environment exposure within residential neighbourhood matters for their health-related 490 behaviors and outcomes (Helbich, 2018).

491

492 As for activity places measures, our findings suggest that only SVG-quality in recreational place 493 was positively associated with mental health while none of the workplace greenspace indicators 494 was associated with mental health. Although focusing on schoolchildren two recent studies in 495 Barcelona, Spain (Amoly et al., 2014; Dadvand et al., 2015) both found that NDVI around school 496 is positively associated with mental health for children. However, we found no association 497 between greenspace around the workplace and mental health for adults. Previous studies from 498 China indicated that visible indoor greenspace is beneficial for mental heath in the workplace (Jia 499 et al., 2018; Xue et al., 2016), while the visible outdoor greenspace around work places has no 500 significant impact on mental health (Wu et al., 2021). Since most people work in indoor 501 environments (e.g, high-rise buildings) in inner-city districts of Guangzhou (Zhou and Peng, 502 2020), one possible explanation for our findings relating to workplaces is that adults spend most of 503 their time working indoors in China and thus are not influenced by the outdoor surrounding 504 environment. Hence, previous studies indicated that visiting greenspace for leisure may encourage 505 people to take physical activity which in turn reduces stress (Orsega-Smith et al., 2004; Wilhelm 506 Stanis et al., 2009). One of the previous experiments also found that recreational running in a park 507 provides people with psychologically restoration (Bodin and Hartig, 2003). Our results suggest 508 that only SVG-quality in recreational place was positively associated with mental health and the 509 reason may be that people go to recreational place mainly for taking physical activities and relax 510 themselves, so they may have higher requirement for the surrounding greenspace such as its 511 aesthetic value which is more related to quality than quantity.

512

As for mobility path measures, this study indicates that only SVG-quality and SVG-quantity were positively associated with mental health. Previous studies pointed out that both NDVI (Mennis et al., 2018) and SVG-quantity (Li et al., 2018) in mobility path were positively related to mental health for adolescents. The consistent finding for SVG-quantity indicates that exposure to green 517 space during travelling is beneficial to mental health and this may be because most daily travelling 518 includes walking behavior, and street greenery can provide shade protection, and offers restorative environment for pedestrians (Markevych et al., 2017). The inconsistent finding for NDVI may be 519 mainly due to the greenery difference for study areas. Previous studies was conducted in 520 521 Richmond, Virginia where total greenspace coverage is high (neighbourhood average NDVI=0.48), 522 but our study was conducted in inner-city in Guangzhou, where greenspace coverage is low 523 (neighbourhood average NDVI=0.10). With such low coverage of over-head green space, NDVI 524 reflects only large green facilities such as parks (Ye et al., 2018). However, most active transport 525 behaviors (i.e walking and cycling) occur on the street and pedestrians may not choose to go 526 through the park, so NDVI in our study was not associated with mental health. Further, this study 527 provided the first evidence for greenspace quality-mental health association in people's mobility 528 path. This result again is suggestive of the importance of greenspace quality for benefiting mental 529 health. Our findings for mobility path measures support a previous simulated driving experiment 530 which found that visible greenspace exposure on drivers' mobility path (e.g., freeway) has positive 531 impact on their mental status (Jiang et al., 2020).

532

533 Inconsistent with previous studies (Alcock et al., 2014; James et al., 2016; Pearce et al., 2018), we 534 found no evidence to support greenspace exposure in previous neighbourhood is associated with 535 current mental status. Pearce (2018) points out that early neighbourhood environment may affect 536 people's health outcomes in later life for two reasons. First, the effect of environmental exposure 537 may accumulate over life and finally affect health. Second, people may be exposed to a certain 538 kind of environment in critical periods during life and this may affect health later in life. Thus, the 539 inconsistent finding in this study may also be explained by these two reasons. First, we only 540 measure greenspace exposure in a single period before (2012) which is too close to the current 541 period, so the long-term cumulative effect of greenspace can not be measured. Second, previous 542 period (2012) may not be a critical period for any of the respondents in this study.

543

544

545 The following limitations of this study should be noted. First, our research was based on the 546 analysis of cross-sectional data, which made it difficult to infer causation between greenspace 547 exposure and mental health. Second, the activity places and mobility path were self-reported and 548 subjective to recall errors. More objective measures such as journeys from GPS can be used in 549 future studies. Third, we were not able to fully address selection bias. For example, people who 550 had some unobserved attributes (e.g. route preference) which may be related to both greenspace exposure and mental health. Fourth, greenspace quality in this study may not include all 551 552 dimensions, so this indicator may still be influenced by some potential bias. Fifth, the sample size 553 in this study is relatively small and are only collected in a single city, so the results in this study 554 may not be valid in other areas. Sixth, we do not have the information for respondents' indoor 555 working environment characteristics, which may have influence on our finding in workplace. Last, 556 previous studies indicated that there is a dose-response relationship between greenspace and 557 mental health (Jiang et al., 2014; White et al., 2019). Due to the difference in mobility patterns, 558 people may have different doses of greenspace exposure in various activity places, which may 559 explain the significant variations across the different measurements and assessments of greenspace 560 exposure in this study. However, we do not have the information on participants' duration and

dose of greenspace exposure, which prevents inference of the dose-response relationship between greenspace and mental health in different contexts. In future research, portal devices like GPS and wearable cameras can be used to collect detailed data on dynamic greenspace exposure to analyse the dose-response effect of eye-level greenspace in future (Zhang et al 2021). This method can also help researcher record people's visible experience, details of exposure geography, context and elements, which is important for greenspace-health associations (Barnes et al., 2019).

567

568 5. Conclusion

569

570 This study is the first to systematically explore dynamic greenspace exposure and residents' 571 mental health among people living in Chinese cities, using NDVI, SVG-quantity, SVG quality and 572 self-reported greenspace quality as the surrogate of greenspace exposure. No evidence can support 573 that different greenspace indicators are associated with each other, which suggests that they may 574 reflect different aspects of greenspace. Respondents' greenspace exposure in residential neighbourhood are negatively associated with greenspace exposure in recreational place, but 575 576 positively associated with greenspace exposure in mobility path. Results from statistical analyses 577 show that all greenspace indicators in residential neighbourhood, are positively associated with 578 mental health but none of exposures in work place are associated with mental health. Statistical 579 results also show that only SVG-quality in recreational place is positively associated with mental 580 health while only SVG-quantity and SVG-quality in mobility path are associated with mental 581 health. No evidence is found to support that greenspace exposure in previous residential 582 neighbourhood is associated with current mental health. In conclusion, among all spatial context 583 measures for greenspace exposure, residential neighbourhood is still the most important one. To 584 achieve the goal of promoting health and wellbeing through urban planning and design in Chinese 585 urban settings, policymakers and planners are advised to take into account the attributes for 586 greenspace quality such as the accessibility and safety of greenspace instead of developing 587 interventions that seek solely to increase the quantity of available greenspace. Enhancing the 588 various dimensions of greenspace quality in a Chinese urban context will require multi-sectoral 589 action. For instance, transport sector could usefully consider on accessibility to greenspace (e.g., 590 increasing the provision of bus stops around greenspace), while urban designers may focus on 591 naturalness and colourfulness (i.e., improving the design standard of greenspace). Also, to plan for 592 a healthy city, policymakers and planners should not only focus on residential neighbourhood, but 593 also develop interventions that account for residents' activity places and mobility path. For 594 example, decision makers might consider increasing the investment in the provision of greenspace 595 in populated and dense urban area which are frequented by large numbers of people as part of their 596 daily routines.

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600 **Reference**

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692

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