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1 Neighbourhood greenspace quantity, quality and socioeconomic
2 inequalities in mental health

3

4

5 **Abstract**

6 There is tentative evidence suggesting that socioeconomically disadvantaged groups may benefit
7 more from access to neighbourhood greenspace and therefore could be a lever for narrowing
8 socioeconomic inequalities ('equigenesis') in mental health, although studies are equivocal. One
9 potential explanation for this inconsistency is differences in study designs, particularly how
10 greenspace is measured. Most previous studies are from high income countries, and there has been
11 no investigations into equigenic environments in China. Using survey data collected from 26
12 neighbourhoods in Guangzhou, China, this study examines whether local greenspaces may narrow
13 socioeconomic inequalities in health (i.e. equigenesis) in the Chinese context. The study is the first
14 to explore the contribution of greenspace in reducing socioeconomic inequalities in mental health
15 in the Chinese context. It uses Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI), Street View
16 Greenness (SVG) and self-reported neighbourhood greenness quality as estimates of residential
17 greenness exposure Results show that SVG-quantity, SVG-quality and self-reported greenspace
18 quality narrow the neighbourhood socioeconomic inequalities in mental health. Our findings
19 demonstrate the importance of improving equity in local green infrastructure for promoting health
20 equity through urban planning and design, including improving access to green spaces, and
21 providing more street trees in socioeconomically disadvantaged neighbourhoods.

22

23

24

25 **Keywords**

26 Greenspace quantity; Greenspace quality; Socioeconomic inequalities; Mental health;
27 'Equigenesis' theory

28

29 1. Introduction

30

31 The increase in the prevalence of mental health problems has become a major policy concern
32 across the world, with huge financial implications for many countries (Frankish et al., 2018; Wu et
33 al., 2021). Mental health problems can cost the global economy as much as \$16 trillion from 2010
34 to 2030 if it does not get enough attention (Frankish et al., 2018). Socio-economic inequalities in
35 mental health have become a global public health issue for a long time (Marmot and Bell, 2012).
36 Although great efforts have been made to reduce inequalities in mental health (Nguie et al., 2010),
37 people with low SES are still more likely to have worse mental health, since they are often unable
38 to access sufficient health-related resources (e.g., psychological counseling) (Lorant et al., 2003).
39 One opportunity for helping to narrow the socioeconomic inequalities in mental health is
40 enhancing the provision of neighbourhood greenspace (Mitchell et al., 2015; Pearce et al., 2016).
41 'equigenesis' theory indicates that the health of people with low socio-economic status (SES) or

42 living in socioeconomically disadvantaged neighbourhood may disproportionately benefit from
43 key social, physical or service environments (Mitchell et al., 2015; Pearce et al., 2016). However,
44 existing evidence for 'equigenesis' theory is inconsistent (Feng and Astell-Burt, 2017; Maas et al.,
45 2006; McEachan et al., 2016; Sugiyama et al., 2016). Some studies find evidence to support it
46 (Maas et al., 2006; McEachan et al., 2016), while others do not (Feng and Astell-Burt, 2017;
47 Sugiyama et al., 2016). Some scholars further argued that the inconsistency of existing evidence
48 may be partly due to the measurement of greenspace (e.g., greenspace quantity v.s greenspace
49 quality) (Feng and Astell-Burt, 2017). Such hypothesis has not be fully confirmed and needs to be
50 further investigated.

51

52 This study aims to explore whether neighborhood greenspace quantity and quality have stronger
53 associations with mental health for socioeconomic disadvantaged groups ('equigenesis') in China
54 using street view data and survey data collected from 26 neighbourhoods of Guangzhou. It
55 particularly focuses on the extent to which greenspace quantity and quality moderate the
56 association between residents' SES and mental health. This study extends previous research in
57 several respects. First, it enhances our knowledge of the 'equigenesis' theory in developing
58 countries. Existing evidence from 'equigenesis' related studies in China and other developing
59 countries is inconsistent (Hong et al., 2021; Wu et al., 2021), which indicates that different
60 findings are found in different parts of the world. One possible explanation for such inconsistency
61 may be due to the different ways in which the analyses have been operationalized, including the
62 various ways in which SES has been measured (e.g. educational-level, income) and greenspace
63 exposure captured (e.g. distance to nearest greenspace, % greenness of area). Second, and related,
64 previous studies have tended to evaluate socioeconomic circumstances at the area level which may
65 be a weak proxy for individual-level SES, and unsurprisingly the results are mixed (Feng and
66 Astell-Burt, 2017; Sugiyama et al., 2016). In this study, socioeconomic circumstances are
67 measured at both individual and neighbourhood levels which improves our understanding of
68 socioeconomic inequalities in health. Third, the current study uses a range of theoretically-driven
69 metrics to measure the level of neighbourhood greenspace exposure, thereby enabling the
70 comparison between greenspace quantity and quality.

71

72

73 2. Literature review

74

75 2.1 Greenspace and health inequalities

76

77 'Equigenesis' theory suggests that people with low SES or living in socioeconomically
78 disadvantaged neighbourhood may benefit more from key social, physical or service environments
79 such as greenspace (Mitchell et al., 2015; Pearce et al., 2016), which indicates that greenspace
80 may narrow the SES inequalities in health. Evidence of equigenesis comes mostly from European
81 studies, most notably work on greenspace and mental health (Mitchell et al., 2015; Pearce et al.,
82 2016). Mitchell et al. (2015) pointed out that people with low SES or living in SES disadvantaged
83 areas can benefit more from greenspace than those who live in higher SES areas, because people
84 living in higher SES areas can benefit their health through different health-related resources and
85 greenspace is only one of them. However, public greenspace is shared by all residents, so even

86 people with low SES or living in SES disadvantaged areas can still benefit from local greenspace
87 (Mitchell, 2013) which promotes greater health equity. There are further empirical studies support
88 the 'equigenesis' theory for mental health (Maas et al., 2006; McEachan et al., 2016). For example,
89 Mass et al. (2006) found that people with low SES benefit more from greenspace exposure for
90 their mental health. However, other studies did not report any supportive evidence for this theory
91 (Feng and Astell-Burt, 2017; Sugiyama et al., 2016). For instance, Sugiyama et al. (2016) did not
92 find evidence to support that greenspace can narrow the psychological distress inequalities for
93 people with different SES.

94 95 2.2 Measurement of greenspace and equigenesis

96
97 Some scholars argued that the inconsistency of the moderating role of greenspace may be partly
98 due to the measurement of greenspace (Feng and Astell-Burt, 2017). In some places, greenspace is
99 with high quantity but low quality (i.e unsafe) and local residents may reduce their access to it
100 (Jiang et al., 2019; Weimann et al., 2017; Zhong et al., 2020). Under such circumstance, people
101 with low SES or living in socioeconomically disadvantaged neighbourhood can not benefit more
102 from greenspace exposure. Previous studies mainly focus on the effect of greenspace quantity and
103 greenspace quality has been largely ignored (Van Dillen et al., 2012). Thus few studies have
104 investigated the 'equigenesis' theory based on greenspace quality (Feng and Astell-Burt, 2017).
105 The lack of attention on greenspace quality for most previous studies is mainly due to
106 methodological limitations (Brindley et al., 2019). Traditional methods for assessing greenspace
107 quality include two approaches: one is survey questionnaire which asks respondents a single
108 question about their perception of their neighbourhood greenspace (Feng and Astell-Burt, 2017);
109 the other is field audit which requires human auditors to walk through the neighbourhood and rate
110 quality score based on a rating scale (Van Dillen et al., 2012). However, both of these approaches
111 have limitations including self-reported bias, inefficient, human-intensive and expensive, so they
112 may be not applicable to large scale studies. In recent years, some scholars begin to use street view
113 images for field audit, because it can help investigators save more time and provide them with
114 plenty of field scenery in research areas (Rundle et al., 2011). For example, Lu (2019) assessed
115 greenspace quality based on street view data and found its results are similar to that from actual
116 field audit. Thus, further combining street view data with machine learning method can proceed
117 the application of greenspace quality for large scale health studies.

118 119 120 121 3. Methodology

122 123 **Data**

124 This study used the survey data to explore whether greenspace has an equigenic impact on mental
125 health association in China. The survey data were collected in Guangzhou by a research team from
126 Sun Yat-Sen University between March and August in 2017. The survey respondents were
127 selected based on a multi-stage stratified PPS (probability proportionate to population size)
128 sampling technique. First, 26 residential neighbourhoods (she qu) were selected randomly from
129 seven districts (qu) (Fig S1). Second, 39 households from each sampled neighbourhood were

130 chosen randomly. Last, one adult member from each household was chosen to answer the
131 questionnaire based on the Kish Grid. The questionnaire has a filter section which aims to exclude
132 participants who are under 18, do not live in the targeted neighbourhood, or are students. The
133 survey yielded a total of 1003 valid respondents. The demographic characteristics of the
134 participants are consistent with the general population based on census data in Guangzhou (Table
135 S1), which indicates that the study samples are representative. The questionnaire survey was
136 approved by Sun Yat-sen University and all participants gave informed consent.

137

138

139 **Measures**

140 Outcome

141

142 *SCL-90 Depression and Anxiety*

143 We used the SCL-90 (Symptom Checklist-90) to evaluate participants' depression and anxiety
144 (Morgan et al., 1998). Depression was measured by thirteen-item depression subscale of SCL-90
145 (Symptom Check List-90) (Morgan et al., 1998) while anxiety was measured by eight-item
146 depression subscale of SCL-90 (Morgan et al., 1998). The SCL-90-Depression scale is related to
147 depressive symptoms over the past week while the SCL-90-Anxiety scale is related to anxious
148 symptoms over the same period. Each item is rated on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from
149 "never" to "serious." We calculated the sum score of SCL-90-Depression (13-65) and
150 SCL-90-Anxiety (8-40). The higher the score, the more depressive (anxious) symptoms. The
151 SCL-90 has been shown to have good validity and reliability across many countries (Kim et al.,
152 1992). Cronbach's alpha indicates a high internal consistency among the five items (both>0.80).

153

154

155 Exposure to neighbourhood greenness

156

157 Since the inconsistent findings of 'equigenesis' theory may be partly due to the measurement of
158 greenspace (Feng and Astell-Burt, 2017), we used both greenspace quantity and quality in this
159 study.

160

161 *NDVI*

162 We used remote sensing data at a 30 m spatial resolution to calculate the normalized difference
163 vegetation index (NDVI) (Tucker, 1979). These data were obtained for the year 2016 from the
164 USGS EarthExplorer (<https://earthexplorer.usgs.gov/>). We used cloud-free data in the greenest
165 season (August) to avoid distortions. Also, following previous studies (Markevych et al., 2017),
166 we omitted pixels with a negative NDVI value for this study. NDVI for each neighbourhood was
167 calculated by averaging NDVI value of all pixels within the neighbourhood buffer (1000-m
168 circular buffer).

169

170

171 *SVG-quantity*

172 We used street view data to calculate street view greenness quantity (SVG-quantity). The street
173 view images were collected from Tencent Map[<https://map.qq.com/>] which is the most

174 comprehensive online map in China (Deng et al., 2019). We collected images from each sampling
175 point constructed along the road network based on OpenStreetMap (Haklay and Weber, 2008) at
176 100m intervals. The sampling points were randomly selected throughout the research area. In total,
177 71286 sampling points were constructed and four images from four main cardinal directions (0,
178 90,180, and 270 degrees) were collected for each sampling point. Following previous studies
179 (Wang et al., 2021b, c), we calculated SVG-quantity based on the ADE20K training data
180 (<https://groups.csail.mit.edu/vision/datasets/ADE20K/>) (Zhou et al., 2019) and a fully
181 convolutional neural network for semantic image segmentation (FCN-8s) (Long et al., 2015).
182 This method has been proven to achieve high accuracy for identifying greenspace (trees and
183 grasses) from street view images (Wang et al., 2021b, c). Then, SVG-quantity per sampling point
184 was calculated by the proportion of greenspace pixels per image summed over the four cardinal
185 directions to the total number of pixels per image summed over the four cardinal directions. Last,
186 SVG-quantity for each neighbourhood was calculated by averaging SVG-quantity of all sampling
187 points within the neighbourhood buffer (1000-m circular buffer).

188

189

190 *SVG-quality*

191 We also used street view data to assess street view greenspace quality (SVG-quality). We
192 randomly selected two thousand images for data training which were scored (0-10) based on ten
193 attributes including accessibility, maintenance, variation, naturalness, colourfulness, clear
194 arrangement, shelter, absence of litter, safety and general impression (Cronbach's $\alpha=0.85$)
195 (Van Dillen et al., 2012). Then, we used a random forest model (Breiman, 2001) for automatic
196 rating training and it was trained by fitting each greenspace quality attribute score with the
197 proportion of 151 elements from the image segmentations. After training the random forest model,
198 we used it to score ten attributes of greenspace quality for all images in 71286 sampling points.
199 More details can be found in the supplementary file. Following existing studies (Van Dillen et al.,
200 2012), greenspace quality score in each image was assessed by the mean score of all ten
201 attributes. For each neighbourhood, the SVG-quality was calculated by the mean score of all
202 sampling points within the 1000-m buffer. More details of this approach can be found in Wang et
203 al. (2021a).

204

205

206 *Self-reported greenspace quality*

207 Following Feng and Astell-Burt (2017), we evaluated self-reported neighbourhood greenspace
208 quality through a single question included in the questionnaire. Respondents were asked "Do you
209 agree that you feel comfortable in the greenspace or park in this neighbourhood". Responses to the
210 statement ranges from "1=strongly disagree" to "5=strongly agree". Existing studies pointed out
211 that people's sense of comfort in urban greenspace is an important indicator of general
212 greenspace quality (Brindley et al., 2019; Gidlow et al., 2012). Therefore, the proposed
213 self-reported question aims to evaluate participants' general impression of the neighbourhood
214 greenspace quality.

215

216 SES indicators

217

218 We used three SES indicators (extracted from the questionnaire) including income, education
219 attainment and neighbourhood deprivation index (NDI) (Sampson et al., 2002). First income was
220 assessed by gross monthly household income (Chinese Yuan) reported by respondents. Second,
221 educational attainment was assessed based on self reported highest qualifications. Last, following
222 Sampson et al. (2002) and Liu et al. (2017), NDI was developed based on four census indicators at
223 the neighbourhood level including homeownership rates, unemployment rates, low levels of
224 education, and low status occupation. The homeownership rate was the proportion of residents
225 living on their own property in the neighbourhood. The unemployment rate was the proportion of
226 unemployed residents in the neighbourhood. The low level of education referred to the proportion
227 of residents with education attainment level lower than high school. The low-status occupation
228 represented the proportion of residents working in the unskilled occupations. We used principal
229 component analysis to combine neighbourhood deprivation index from the above four indicators.

230

231

232 Covariates

233

234 Following previous studies (Wang et al., 2019b,c), we controlled for individual sociodemographic
235 covariates: gender, age, marital status, hukou status (registered permanent residence vs registered
236 temporary residence), current smoking status and current drinking status. As for
237 neighbourhood-level covariates, we adjusted for population density, street intersection density and
238 land use mix following Frank et al. (2006). The summary of descriptive statistics was shown in
239 Table 1.

240

241 **Methods**

242 We used multilevel linear regressions to examine the associations between greenspace exposure
243 and mental health as well as the moderating effect of greenspace exposure for SES-mental health
244 association due to the hierarchical structure of our data (individuals are in level 1 while
245 neighbourhoods are in level 2). First, we estimated the association between greenspace exposure,
246 SES indicators and mental health outcomes (Models 1 and 2). Second, we estimated the
247 moderating effect of greenspace indicators on NDI-mental health association (Models 3 and 6).
248 Third, we estimated the moderating effect of greenspace indicators on education-mental health
249 association (Models 4 and 7). Last, we estimated the moderating effect of greenspace indicators on
250 income-mental health association (Models 5 and 8). As for the moderation analysis, we mainly
251 focused on the interaction terms. If the interaction terms are significant and the direction is
252 opposite to SES indicators, then it indicates that greenspace exposure mitigates SES disparities in
253 mental health and 'equigenesis' theory is supported by our findings. The analyses were performed
254 by Stata 15.1 (StataCorp., College Station, TX, USA) using the 'mixed' command.

255

256

257 Table 1

258 Descriptive statistics.

259

Variables	Proportion/Mean (Standard Deviation)
Outcome	

SCL-Depression	21.1(8.1)
SCL-Anxiety	17.0(6.7)
Predictors	
NDVI [median (IQR)]	0.1(0.0)
SVG-quantity [median (IQR)]	0.2(0.1)
SVG-quality	5.6(0.4)
Self-reported greenspace quality	3.119(0.9)
SES indicators	
NDI	0.2(0.169)
Education (%)	
Junior high school or below	6.4
Senior high school	27.5
College or above	66.1
Gross monthly household income (Chinese Yuan)	15637.2(8488.5)
Individual covariates	
Gender (%)	
Male	50.0
Female	50.0
Age	36.4(9.7)
Marital status (%)	
Cohabiting	5.4
Married	80.1
Single, divorced or widowed	14.6
Hukou status (%)	
Local hukou	81.0
Non-local hukou	19.0
Current smoking status (%)	
Current smoker	39.4
Non-smoker	60.6
Current drinking status (%)	
Drinker	42.1
Non-drinker	57.9
Built environment covariates	
Population density (person/km ²)	46687.3(30383.0)
Intersection density (number of intersections/km ²)	89.8(66.2)
Land use mix	0.1(0.0)

260

261

262 4. Results

263

264 Model 1 (Table2) presents the baseline model for SCL-Depression scores. SVG-quality
265 (Coef.=-4.9, SE=1.9) and self-reported greenspace quality (Coef.=-0.1, SE=0.1) were both
266 negatively associated with SCL-Depression scores, but neither NDVI (Coef.=2.3, SE=2.2) nor

267 SVG-quantity (Coef.=-2.2, SE=1.2) is found to be associated with SCL-Depression scores.
 268 Compared with respondents with junior high school or below educational attainment, respondents
 269 with college or above educational attainment had lower SCL-Depression scores (Coef.=-1.4,
 270 SE=0.5). Hence, gross monthly household income was negatively associated with
 271 SCL-Depression scores (Coef.=-0.1, SE=0.1), while NDI was positively associated with
 272 SCL-Depression scores (Coef.=15.5, SE=6.0)..

273

274 Model 2 (Table2) presents the baseline model for SCL-Anxiety scores. SVG-quality (Coef.=-5.1,
 275 SE=2.4) and self-reported greenspace quality (Coef.=-0.1, SE=0.0) were both negatively
 276 associated with SCL-Anxiety scores, but no evidence is supportive of that NDVI (Coef.=2.1,
 277 SE=3.2) or SVG-quantity (Coef.=-2.4, SE=1.5) is associated with SCL-Anxiety scores. Compared
 278 with respondents with a junior high school or below education, respondents with a college or
 279 above education had lower SCL-Anxiety scores (Coef.=-1.4, SE=0.7). Similarly to results for
 280 depression , gross monthly household income was negatively associated with SCL-Anxiety scores
 281 (Coef.=-1.8, SE=0.8), while NDI was positively associated with SCL-Anxiety scores (Coef.=22.7,
 282 SE=8.6).

283

284 Table 2. The multilevel models for the association between greenspace exposure and
 285 SCL-Depression scores.

286

	Model 1 Coef. (SE)	Model 2 Coef. (SE)
Fixed part		
NDVI	2.3(2.2)	2.1(3.2)
SVG-quantity	-2.2*(1.2)	-2.4(1.5)
SVG-quality	-4.9**(1.9)	-5.1**(2.4)
Self-reported greenspace quality	-0.1**(0.1)	-0.1**(0.0)
NDI	15.5***(6.0)	22.7***(8.6)
Senior high school (referenced group= Junior high school or below)	-0.7(0.5)	-0.7(0.6)
College or above (referenced group= Junior high school or below)	-1.4**(0.5)	-1.4**(0.7)
Gross monthly household income	-0.1**(0.1)	-1.8**(0.8)
Individual covariates		
Male (referenced group= Female)	-0.3(0.3)	-0.2(0.4)
Age	-0.0(0.0)	0.0(0.0)
Local hukou (referenced group= Non-local hukou)	-0.0(0.3)	-0.1(0.4)
Married (referenced group= Cohabiting)	0.4(0.4)	-0.3(0.4)
Single and not cohabiting, divorced or widowed (referenced group= Cohabiting)	0.2(0.3)	-0.1(0.1)
Drinker (referenced group= Non-drinker)	-0.2(0.3)	-0.0(0.4)
Current smoker (referenced group= Non-smoker)	-0.2(0.4)	-0.5(0.5)
Built environment covariates		
Population density	0.8(3.5)	0.5(4.9)
Intersection density	-0.0(0.0)	-0.0(0.0)
Land use mix	-83.7(59.8)	-98.4(84.6)

Constant	46.6**(23.2)	63.0*(32.6)
Random part		
Var (Neighbourhoods)	15.4***	31.2***
Var (Individuals)	13.0***	18.5***
Number of individuals	1003	1003
Number of neighbourhoods	26	26
Log likelihood	-2753.1	-2935.0
AIC	5546.3	5910.0

287 Note: Coef. = coefficient; SE = standard error; AIC = Akaike information criterion. *p < 0.10, **p
288 < 0.05, ***p < 0.01.

289
290

291 Table 3 shows the moderating effect of greenspace exposure on the association between SES and
292 SCL-Depression scores. Model 3 indicates that SVG-quantity, SVG-quality and self-reported
293 greenspace quality negatively moderate the association between NDI and SCL-Depression scores
294 especially showing that SVG-quantity, SVG-quality and self-reported greenspace quality weaken
295 the positive effect of NDI on SCL-Depression scores. Model 4 shows that SVG-quality and
296 self-reported greenspace quality moderate the association between educational attainment and
297 SCL-Depression scores in that SVG-quality and self-reported greenspace quality weaken the
298 negative effect of higher educational attainment on SCL-Depression scores. Model 5 indicates that
299 SVG-quality and self-reported greenspace quality moderate the association between gross monthly
300 household income and SCL-Depression scores and shows that SVG-quality and self-reported
301 greenspace quality weaken the negative effect of gross monthly household income on
302 SCL-Depression scores.

303

304 Table 3. The multilevel models for the association between greenspace exposure and
305 SCL-Depression scores.

306

	Model 3 Coef. (SE)	Model 4 Coef. (SE)	Model 5 Coef. (SE)
Fixed part			
NDVI	2.7(2.6)	2.6(2.5)	2.3(2.2)
SVG-quantity	-2.5*(1.2)	-1.9*(1.1)	-2.2*(1.2)
SVG-quality	-5.2***(1.9)	-5.4***(2.0)	-4.9**(1.9)
Self-reported greenspace quality	-0.1**(0.1)	-0.5**(0.2)	-0.1**(0.1)
NDI	15.2**(6.2)	15.5***(6.0)	15.2**(6.0)
Senior high school (referenced group= Junior high school or below)	-0.8(0.5)	-0.7(0.6)	-0.7(0.5)
College or above (referenced group= Junior high school or below)	-1.4***(0.5)	-1.4**(0.6)	-1.4***(0.5)
Gross monthly household income	-0.2**(0.1)	-0.1**(0.1)	-0.2***(0.1)
Interaction term			
NDVI×NDI	-2.2(9.8)		
SVG-quantity×NDI	-13.1**(6.2)		
SVG-quality×NDI	-20.5**(9.5)		

Self-reported greenspace quality×NDI	-3.0***(0.7)	
NDVI×Senior high school		-0.2(1.2)
SVG-quantity×Senior high school		0.4(1.6)
SVG-quality×Senior high school		0.6(0.8)
Self-reported greenspace quality×Senior high school		0.1(0.6)
NDVI×College or above		-0.3(1.1)
SVG-quantity×College or above		0.1(1.5)
SVG-quality×College or above		0.6**(0.3)
Self-reported greenspace quality×College or above		0.7***(0.2)
NDVI×Gross monthly household income		-0.5(1.0)
SVG-quantity×Gross monthly household income		-2.0(1.4)
SVG-quality×Gross monthly household income		1.4**(0.6)
Self-reported greenspace quality×Gross monthly household income		1.5**(0.7)

307 Note: Models adjusted for covariates. Coef. = coefficient; SE = standard error; *p < 0.10, **p <
308 0.05, ***p < 0.01.

309

310

311 Table 4 shows the moderating effect of greenspace exposure on the association between SES and
312 SCL-Anxiety scores. Model 6 indicates that SVG-quality and self-reported greenspace quality
313 negatively moderate the association between NDI and SCL-Anxiety scores in that SVG-quality
314 and self-reported greenspace quality weaken the positive effect of NDI on SCL-Anxiety scores.
315 Model 7 indicates that SVG-quality and self-reported greenspace quality moderate the association
316 between educational attainment and SCL-Anxiety scores since SVG-quality and self-reported
317 greenspace quality weaken the negative effect of higher educational attainment on SCL-Anxiety
318 scores. Model 8 shows that SVG-quality and self-reported greenspace quality moderate the
319 association between gross monthly household income and SCL-Anxiety scores which means
320 SVG-quality and self-reported greenspace quality weaken the negative effect of gross monthly
321 household income on SCL-Anxiety scores.

322

323 Table 4. The multilevel models for the association between greenspace exposure and SCL-Anxiety
324 scores.

325

	Model 6	Model 7	Model 8
	Coef. (SE)	Coef. (SE)	Coef. (SE)
Fixed part			
NDVI	1.6(3.8)	1.0(3.4)	2.2(3.2)
SVG-quantity	-2.4(1.6)	-2.5(2.3)	-2.2(1.5)
SVG-quality	-5.8**(2.8)	-4.6**(2.1)	-5.3**(2.5)
Self-reported greenspace quality	-0.1**(0.0)	-0.2**(0.1)	-0.2**(0.1)
NDI	21.3**(9.0)	22.7***(8.5)	22.8***(8.6)
Senior high school (referenced group= Junior high school or below)	-0.8(0.6)	-0.2(0.7)	-0.6(0.6)
College or above (referenced group= Junior high school or below)	-1.5**(0.7)	-1.9***(0.7)	-1.4**(0.7)
Gross monthly household income	-1.9**(0.8)	-1.8**(0.8)	-1.8**(0.8)

Interaction term			
NDVI×NDI		-0.3(14.1)	
SVG-quantity×NDI		5.1(7.5)	
SVG-quality×NDI		-16.9**(8.2)	
Self-reported greenspace quality×NDI		-3.1*** (0.9)	
NDVI×Senior high school		1.2(1.4)	
SVG-quantity×Senior high school		2.4(1.9)	
SVG-quality×Senior high school		1.5*(0.9)	
Self-reported greenspace quality×Senior high school		1.0(0.8)	
NDVI×College or above		1.2(1.3)	
SVG-quantity×College or above		3.0*(1.8)	
SVG-quality×College or above		0.2*** (0.1)	
Self-reported greenspace quality×College or above		0.1** (0.1)	
NDVI×Gross monthly household income			-0.1(1.2)
SVG-quantity×Gross monthly household income			-0.2(1.7)
SVG-quality×Gross monthly household income			2.3** (1.1)
Self-reported greenspace quality×Gross monthly household income			1.1** (0.4)

326 Note: Models adjusted for covariates. Coef. = coefficient; SE = standard error; *p < 0.10, **p <
327 0.05, ***p < 0.01.

328

329 5. Discussion

330 This study extends previous research on the modification effects of greenspace quantity and
331 quality on socioeconomic inequalities in mental health ('equigenesis'). First, this is amongst the
332 first studies to systematically explore the moderation effects of greenspace exposure on the
333 association between SES and mental health in a densely populated Chinese context. This is
334 important because it provides novel theoretical insights into the generalizability of 'equigenesis'
335 beyond a high income country context, and in particular whether it offers explanatory power in an
336 urban Chinese context where the demographic, social and health profiles of the local population
337 differ markedly from previous studies. Second, it makes a novel methodological contribution to
338 the 'equigenesis' theory by considering different measurements of greenspace quantity and quality.
339 This also contributes to existing knowledge by integrating green justice into 'equigenesis' theory.
340 Third, this study also measures SES at both the individual and neighbourhood levels which
341 enhances our understanding of 'equigenesis' pathways and theory. Such analysis highlights that
342 'equigenesis' may not be consistent across different scales.

343

344 Our findings suggest that greenspace quality moderates the association between SES indicators
345 and mental health. This finding can be explained by the restoration and instoration mechanisms
346 through which greenspace quality influences mental health. First, greenspace quality may benefit
347 mental health through attention restoration and stress recovery (Douglas et al., 2017; Markevych
348 et al., 2017). Stress reduction theory (SRT) highlights the role of greenspace quality in restoring
349 attention from an adaptive evolutionary perspective (Ulrich et al., 1991), while attention
350 restoration theory (ART) highlights the role of greenspace quality in buffering stress through its
351 restorative features (i.e fascination) (Kaplan, 1995). In comparison with their more advantaged
352 counterparts, people in socioeconomically disadvantaged circumstances may disproportionately

353 benefit through attention restoration and stress recovery through two pathways: (1) the restorative
354 effect of greenspace quality depends on duration of greenspace exposure (Shanahan et al., 2015).
355 Hence, higher SES groups are less constrained in the nature and location of their recreational
356 activities, which may result in these groups spending less time in their local greenspaces with less
357 overall exposure to greenspace in dense urban areas of China (Dipeolu et al., 2021; Jim and Shan,
358 2013); (2) ART indicates greenspaces have four types of restorative quality features such as
359 fascination, being away, extension and compatibility (Kaplan, 1995). However, higher SES
360 individuals are more likely to have a greater range of options for accessing greenspaces beyond
361 their locale, potentially with higher restorative quality and therefore these groups are less reliant
362 on their local greenspace (Jim and Shan, 2013). This assertion is supported by previous work,
363 including for example, Cao et al. (2020) who found that residents with higher SES in China are
364 more able or willing to spend more resources on visiting national parks which can provide them
365 with a sense of tranquility, despite residing in an otherwise sparse suburban area. Therefore, it is
366 plausible that given the unevenness in opportunities and exposures between higher and lower SES
367 groups, the restorative qualities of local greenspaces may be more beneficial to lower SES
368 populations.

369

370 The instoration mechanism is associated with building capacities for mental health, and relevant
371 studies have mainly focused on the mediating role of physical activity and social cohesion (Kruize
372 et al., 2020; Markevych et al., 2017). Greenspace quality may influence people's engagement in
373 outdoor physical activity including walking and cycling because higher greenspace quality may
374 provide further motivation to utilize these resources (de Vries et al., 2013; Lu et al., 2019; Qin et
375 al., 2021; Yang et al., 2021). Hence, higher quality greenspaces provide a more attractive
376 environment for residents to socialize with each other, often enhancing local social cohesion (de
377 Vries et al., 2013). However, people in socioeconomically disadvantaged circumstances may
378 benefit disproportionately through the above two mechanisms due to several reasons: (1) people
379 with higher SES have more choices for physical activity (i.e indoor fitness), so they may take less
380 greenspace-related physical activity such as walking for recreation (Cohen et al., 2013); (2) people
381 in socioeconomically disadvantaged circumstances in China often have poorer social networks, so
382 they are more likely to regard local greenspace as preferred options for social interaction (Jim and
383 Shan, 2013); (3) people with higher SES tend to have greater access to more health-related
384 resources that can enhance mental health (e.g., access to psychological counseling) (Huang et al.,
385 2020), so they may depend less on local greenspace. For example, people living in
386 neighbourhoods with higher social cohesion can benefit from the health-related knowledge of their
387 neighbors and are better supported in their mental health (Elgar et al., 2010). However, people
388 with higher SES have more options for other health-related resource and do not necessarily rely on
389 local greenspace.

390

391 However, whereas SVG-quantity moderates the association between NDI and mental health, no
392 evidence was found to suggest that NDVI moderates the association between SES indicators and
393 mental health. It is important to acknowledge that this study cannot provide definitive evidence
394 that NDVI and SVG-quantity do not stimulate greater health equity in mental health. There are
395 some potential reasons why evidence of 'equigenesis' was not found for greenspace quantity in this
396 research. First, we used different SES (both individual and neighbourhood level) and mental

397 health indicators which may have influenced the findings. The narrowing of inequities may not be
398 observed for some indicators of SES (e.g., individual SES), but perhaps in other dimensions (e.g.,
399 neighbourhood SES). In this study, the moderation effect of SVG-quantity was only observed with
400 the neighbourhood SES indicator (NDI) which is consistent with previous studies. For example,
401 Dadvand et al., (2014) found that 'equigenesis' was observed for neighbourhood SES indicator (i.e
402 Index of Multiple Deprivation) but not for individual indicator (i.e educational attainment). A
403 possible explanation is that NDI may capture the multidimensionality of disadvantage and a wider
404 set of underlying factors (e.g. lack of local health-related resources) than an individual indicator.
405 This may also apply to different measures of mental health (e.g., depression v.s anxiety). Second,
406 although they have been used widely in previous research, NDVI and SVG-quantity both have
407 limitations in assessing greenspace quantity. NDVI measures greenspace quantity from an
408 over-head perspective and may not account for smaller pockets of vegetation, and therefore not
409 fully capture all visible greenspace (Liu et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2021b; Wu et al., 2021). While
410 SVG-quantity can more comprehensively reflect visible greenspace quantity, there remain
411 limitations. For example, this measure would be less likely to capture greenery in private gardens.
412 It would also be difficult to capture other aspects of balcony greening, especially in areas where
413 buildings tend to be high. Finally, it is also crucial to acknowledge that the effect of greenspace
414 quantity may vary across the lifecourse (Astell-Burt et al., 2014). Astell-Burt et al. (2014) noted
415 that younger and older adults benefit more from greenspace quantity than middle-aged adults, so
416 the narrowing of SES inequities for greenspace quantity may not manifest in our sample which
417 consisted of mostly middle-aged adults.

418

419 The following limitations should be noted. First, we used a cross-sectional study design which
420 prevents us from inferring causation between greenspace exposure and mental health. Second,
421 duration of greenspace exposure was not accounted for which may cause bias. For example, Jiang
422 et al. (2016) found that duration of greenspace exposure is positively associated with mental
423 health. Therefore, without the information of duration of greenspace exposure, we were not able to
424 quantify the effect of greenspace exposure accurately. Third, we measured greenspace exposure
425 without detailed information of the participants' daily activity spaces which may result in the
426 Uncertain Geographic Context Problem (UGCoP) leading to exposure misclassification (Kwan,
427 2012). Hence, we were not able to consider the variation of different greenspace metrics within the
428 neighbourhoods, which may lead to overestimation or underestimation of greenspace exposure for
429 different participants. Fourth, mental health outcomes were self-reported which may lead to some
430 bias since participants may overestimate or underestimate their health status. Fifth, the data were
431 collected from March to August, which has the potential to cause bias due to seasonal changes in
432 mental health status. Last, our self-report greenspace quality metric is assessed based on a single
433 question, so it may not be sufficiently comprehensive to reflect participants' general impression of
434 neighbourhood greenspace quality.

435

436 6. Conclusion

437 This study shows that greater greenspace provision may help to narrow neighbourhood
438 socioeconomic inequalities in mental health. Further studies that elucidate causal relationships
439 between greenspace, and socioeconomic inequalities in mental health are urgently needed. With
440 the increase of conditions including depression, anxiety and suicide, addressing the rise and

441 inequalities in mental health should become a key policy priority in urban China. To achieve the
442 goal of promoting mental health and reducing inequalities through urban planning and design in
443 Chinese cities, policymakers and planners should consider enhancing the provision of
444 neighbourhood green infrastructure, which can better fulfil the requirement of "Healthy China
445 2030" plan (The CPC Central Committee and the State Council, 2016). Also, as the World Health
446 Organization has called for attention on equitable healthier cities for sustainable development
447 (World Health Organization, 2016), policy makers around the world should pay attention not only
448 to greenspace quantity, but also quality, since greenspace quality may be more important to narrow
449 SES disparities in health than quantity.

450

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