

1 **Spatial scale influences values and perceptions of green open space.**

3 **Abstract**

4 It is important for landscape planners and managers to understand how urban residents value and
5 interact with green open spaces. However, the effect of spatial scale on values and perceptions of
6 green open spaces has to date received little attention. This study explored the influence of spatial
7 scale using Public Participation GIS (PPGIS) methods in the Lower Hunter region of Australia. By
8 asking respondents to assign markers denoting various values and preferences to green spaces
9 displayed on maps of their suburb and municipality, the influence of scale could be assessed
10 experimentally. A greater abundance and diversity of value markers were consistently assigned at
11 the suburb scale, yet this pattern was more pronounced for some values (e.g. physical activity) than
12 others (e.g. nature, cultural significance). The strength of this relationship was related to socio-
13 demographic variables such as education and income. These results have implications for
14 understanding human-environment relationships and the use of PPGIS techniques to inform
15 environmental planning.

17 **Key Words**

18 Green open space; landscape values; human-nature relationships; Public Participation GIS; Spatial
19 Scale

20 **1. Introduction**

21

22 There is increasing recognition of the importance of incorporating landscapes values into
23 environmental planning and management. One dominant body of literature has framed this
24 challenge in terms of maximising the use and non-use goods and services humans derive from
25 ecosystems (de Groot *et al.* 2010, Díaz *et al.* 2015). Yet other literature has recognised more
26 nuanced understandings of human-environment relationships (Muhar *et al.* 2017). The concept of
27 assigned values (Brown 1984), while proposed more than 20 years ago, is useful in furthering
28 research on human-environment interactions, since it recognises that people value environments for
29 different reasons, many of which may not be commensurable or exchangeable (Bryan *et al.* 2010,
30 Ives and Kendal 2014). This differs from mainstream economic theory, which has underpinned the
31 ecosystem services concept (Flint *et al.* 2013). More recently, scholars have begun to recognise that
32 people interact with, value and benefit from ecosystems via complex multi-directional relationships
33 (Chan *et al.* 2016). One example of this is the embodied ecosystem perspective (Raymond *et al.*
34 2017) that brings together the various relations among mind, body, culture and environment.
35 Reasons for incorporating values, perceptions and preferences into environmental planning and
36 management can be both pragmatic (i.e. resulting in improved environmental outcomes) and
37 normative (it is intrinsically important that people's values are accommodated in decision-making)
38 (Reed 2008, Ives and Kendal 2014). Research on landscape values is increasingly designed to
39 inform environmental planning and management (see Kahila-Tani *et al.* 2016). However, to date,
40 evidence for tangible improvement in environmental outcomes remains scant because of difficulties
41 in identifying cause and effect, and the historical disconnect between academia and formal land use
42 planning processes (Brown 2012).

43

44 With rapid urbanisation characterising the 21st Century, it is vital that green spaces are planned and
45 managed well to promote ecological sustainability and human health and wellbeing (Ives and Kelly

46 2016; Sandifer et al. 2015; Swanwick et al. 2003). Urban and suburban green spaces allow for a
47 variety of complex interactions between people and nature (Konijnendijk *et al.* 2013, Andersson *et*
48 *al.* 2014, Hunter and Luck 2015). In seeking to understand these interactions, some recent studies
49 have focussed on accessibility of green spaces at difference scales (e.g. Van Herzele and
50 Wiedemann 2003, Gupta *et al.* 2016). Research has highlighted that open spaces of different
51 ‘functional levels’ (e.g. neighbourhood parks, district parks, urban forests) have different qualities
52 and serve different purposes (Van Herzele and Wiedemann 2003). The health and wellbeing
53 benefits of urban green space are well recognised in the literature (Lee and Maheswaran 2011,
54 Konijnendijk *et al.* 2013), but there is also increasing awareness of the importance of interaction
55 with urban nature in shaping positive attitudes and psychological orientations towards nature (Soga
56 *et al.* 2016). For example, the recent concept of ‘nature routines’ has been used to highlight how
57 regular interaction with natural areas can shape children’s development of an affinity for nature
58 (Giusti et al. 2015). In this study, we focus primarily on cognitive dimensions of relationships with
59 urban green spaces: values, preferences and perceptions. However, we recognise that these do not
60 exist in a disembodied state but emerge from a variety of direct and indirect interactions with urban
61 nature (see Raymond et al. 2017).

62
63 Accounting for the diverse values, preferences and perceptions that urban residents associate with
64 their green spaces is vital for the planning and management of urban landscapes. Public
65 participation GIS researchers have developed techniques for understanding the diversity of
66 landscape values (e.g., aesthetic, recreation, intrinsic) and activity preferences (e.g., jogging, social
67 interaction, walking) for green open space, and how they vary across user characteristics (Brown et
68 al. 2014), urban form/physical setting characteristics (Wang et al. 2015; Kytta et al. 2016), or a
69 combination of these attributes (Raymond *et al.* 2016). The diversity of residents’ preferred
70 activities (e.g., fast walking, jogging, cycling) can vary according to a park’s type (e.g., sport park,
71 natural park, school park) and area (Brown et al. 2014; Ives et al. 2017), as well as locational

72 features such as proximity to the park and a sufficient number of parks in the neighbourhood (Wang
73 et al. 2015; Ives et al. 2017). Different types of landscape values and activity preferences can be
74 associated with different user groups and geographic settings (Raymond *et al.* 2016). Even dense
75 urban areas with few green open spaces can be valued for a range of experiential qualities (Kyttä *et*
76 *al.* 2016). Sometimes these values and preferences are incompatible, leading to the potential for
77 values conflict between different user groups (Brown and Raymond 2014).

78

79 Collectively, these empirical works on the non-monetary valuation of green open spaces point to the
80 need to manage for a diversity of value types across a diversity of user groups and physical qualities
81 of place. However, in some instances it may be important to not only manage for values diversity,
82 but also value intensity and rarity (Bryan *et al.* 2010) as a function of distance from one's place of
83 residence. In the economics literature, the travel cost method is regularly used to understand how
84 much individuals are willing to pay to visit areas as a function of distance from their homes. Most
85 studies employ the theoretical framework proposed by Becker (1965) by using a combination of
86 revealed and stated preference data to estimate a value of time which is uniform in all activities and
87 under all circumstances (e.g. Bateman *et al.* 2002), although more recent studies are using socio-
88 demographic data like the wages of travellers to identify the opportunity value of travel time (Fezzi,
89 et al. 2014; Ovaskainen et al. 2012). In contrast, the random utility model does not consider spatial
90 proximity, but assesses the value of a site by calculating the probability of visitation according to
91 how frequently or sequentially sites are visited (Morey et al. 1991) or where sites may be
92 aggregated (Parsons and Needelman 1992).

93

94 In the geography literature, Norton and Hannon (1997b) proposed a place-based theory of
95 environmental valuation which suggests that the intensity of environmental valuation is highest in
96 the here and now and is discounted from the home perspective across time and space. Brown et al.
97 (2002) tested this theory across 15 communities in Alaska by inviting a random sample of local

98 residents to identify and map 12 place-based (otherwise termed landscape or social values) on a
99 map of Kenai Peninsula using public participation GIS. General support was found for this place-
100 based theory of valuation: individuals assigned more value dots to places closer to their community
101 place of residence than places further away. When examining specific value types, direct use
102 values (e.g., aesthetic, recreation) were overall found closest to one's community of residence,
103 whereas indirect use values (e.g., intrinsic) were found further away. More recently, Brown et al.
104 (2015) offered a home range theory of values wherein values reflect different currencies or levels of
105 importance to an individual and are dynamic with respect to time and location.

106

107 However, more targeted research is needed on how spatial scale influences the distribution and
108 types of values and preferences, particularly in the context of PPGIS studies (Brown and Kyttä
109 2014). In their review, Matsuoka and Kaplan (2008) call for further examination of scale in relation
110 to the benefits people receive from green space. While the importance of scale in the provision and
111 physical accessibility of green open space has begun to receive attention (e.g. Gupta *et al.* 2016),
112 the effect of scale on public perceptions and values is less clear. PPGIS studies that utilise paper-
113 based maps normally have a single, fixed scale. While digital PPGIS often enables users to zoom
114 between scales when assigning markers, we are aware of only one study that has explicitly explored
115 the effect of spatial scale on the importance of green spaces to urban residents. Bijker and Sijtsma
116 (2017) identified this gap in the literature and examined using an online PPGIS survey how urban
117 residents in the Netherlands, Germany, and Denmark appreciated and used green space at the
118 neighbourhood, region, national and world level. They found that urban residents have a 'portfolio
119 of places' across different scales, with local green spaces rated as slightly less attractive but visited
120 frequently and green spaces at wider spatial scales rated as more attractive but visited less
121 frequently. The present study contributes further empirical evidence to this question, using a
122 different method (paper maps), and in a different study context.

123

124 Knowing how residents are likely to value and interact with green spaces within a neighbourhood
125 and across neighbourhood and municipal regions can inform how green space networks are
126 designed and managed. Some types of attributes of green spaces (e.g., spaces for children's nature-
127 based play) may need to be managed at the neighbourhood scale, or municipality scale (e.g.,
128 swimming facilities), whereas other features (e.g., long-distance walking trails) may need to be
129 managed at both scales. Understanding the values that people place on such attributes can therefore
130 inform the distribution of management resources across different scales. Such efforts may also shed
131 light on to how drivers of environmental change operate at and across different scales; for example,
132 how changes in landscape might affect ecosystem service provision and their beneficiaries across
133 different scales (Durance *et al.* 2016). There is a general view that larger scales of management
134 provide opportunities for 'joined up thinking' between upstream land managers and downstream
135 beneficiaries (Poppy *et al.* 2014), but we propose that green open space management efforts may
136 need to be varied according to differences in the perceived qualities of places identified at different
137 geographic scales. In this way, green open space management is likely to be nested in a multi-scale
138 spatial hierarchy.

139
140 In this study, our primary research question is how spatial scale affects the intensity, type and
141 diversity of values, preferences and negative perceptions of green open spaces. Secondary to this is
142 the question of whether the influence of spatial scale differs according to socio-demographic
143 factors. We employ a novel study design using Public Participation GIS methods to answer these
144 questions. This article builds upon the findings of Ives *et al.* (2017), which focussed on how
145 environmental characteristics and landscape structure influenced the values and preferences local
146 residents had for neighbourhood open spaces. The present study utilises the same dataset but
147 emphasises differences in data collected at two different spatial scales. We consider these findings
148 in the context of theories of landscape values and human-environment interactions as a way of
149 improving environmental planning and management practice.

150

151 **2. Methods**

152

153 2.1 Survey design and administration

154

155 Four suburbs were selected for analysis, nested within two Local Government Areas (LGAs) in the
156 Lower Hunter Valley, in southeastern Australia. One thousand residents were mailed survey
157 packets after expressing their willingness to participate during an initial screening process of
158 telephone calls to phone numbers within an existing database. Age bias was minimised by asking
159 respondents to indicate their age and ensuring that >20 % of respondents were aged 18-35 and
160 >20% 35-55. The two suburbs within the Lake Macquarie LGA were Charlestown and Toronto, and
161 those within the Port Stephens LGA were Nelson Bay and Raymond Terrace (Fig. 1). These were
162 selected because they are experiencing significant urban development and have a range of different
163 green open spaces. Four hundred and eighteen responses were returned from a potential 972 after
164 accounting for packets that were returned to sender, resulting in a response rate of 43%.

165

166 < Insert Figure 1 Here >

167

168 The survey instrument contained a paper map of the resident's suburb (scale = 1:13,500) and the
169 broader LGA area (scale = 1:116,000). Respondents were able to assign markers to either map,
170 thereby enabling any preference for one scale over another to be observed for each participant. The
171 region of the LGA scale map that was covered by the finer scale suburb map was coloured to force
172 respondents to assign marker dots to the fine scale map (see Figure 2). The maps displayed official
173 municipal green spaces, significant roads and walkways and extant tree cover. In addition to the
174 paper map, the survey packet included a separate 'interactive' map legend, comprised of
175 descriptions of park values preferred activities and negative perceptions that corresponded to

176 numbered marker dots for participants to stick to the map (red, 6 mm diameter, six per marker
177 attribute). Participants were instructed to stick the marker dots denoting specific values, important
178 activities or negative perceptions to any location on either of the maps where they felt it
179 appropriate. Participants could assign as many or as few marker dots as they wished (up to the
180 maximum of six per attribute type), and were not restricted to placing dots in formally identified
181 open spaces. The survey booklet also included questions on socio-demographics such as gender,
182 age, education, occupation, income and housing status of respondents, and space for participants to
183 respond openly about their satisfaction with open space in their area.

184

185 < Insert Figure 2 Here >

186

187 We distinguish between values, activity preferences and negative perceptions of green spaces. We
188 consider these to be distinct but related constructs existing in the cognitive realm. The landscape
189 values we investigated are ‘assigned values’, which “emerge from the interaction between a subject
190 and an object” (Brown 1984) and are commonly the focus of PPGIS studies (Brown 2004).

191 Participants were asked to assign markers to the map that, “show the places you value for the
192 following reasons”:

- 193 • Aesthetic / Scenic (e.g. places that are visually attractive)
- 194 • Activity / Physical Exercise (e.g. places you value because they provide opportunities for
195 physical activity)
- 196 • Native Plants and Animals (e.g. places you value for the protection of native plants and
197 animals)
- 198 • Nature (e.g. places to experience the natural world)
- 199 • Cultural Significance (e.g. opportunities to express and appreciate culture or cultural
200 practices such as art, music, history or indigenous traditions)
- 201 • Health/Therapeutic (e.g. places you value for mental or physical restoration)

202 • Social Interaction (e.g. opportunities for you to interact with other people)

203

204 Activity preference items were designed to reveal places that were important for different embodied
205 interactions with urban parks (as opposed to values which did not necessitate direct engagement).

206 Participants were asked to assign markers to the map that, “show the green open spaces that are
207 important to you for the following activities”:

208 • Casual recreation (e.g. relaxed walking, kite flying, throwing Frisbee, walking the dog etc.)

209 • Exercise for fitness (e.g. jogging, cycling, brisk walking, formal exercise activities or group
210 sports.)

211 • Social activities (e.g. picnics, barbecues etc.)

212 • Children’s play (e.g. areas for children to explore, have fun etc.)

213 • Nature appreciation (e.g. activities such as bird watching, bush walking, photography etc.)

214

215 Items about the negative perceptions of green open spaces revealed places that participants
216 associated with various unfavourable qualities. Participants were asked to assign markers to the
217 map that, “show the green open spaces you feel have the following negative qualities”:

218 • Unappealing (e.g. neglected, damaged, unaesthetic, ugly)

219 • Scary/Unsafe (e.g. dangerous or threatening)

220 • Noisy (i.e. disturbingly loud or noisy)

221 • Unpleasant (unpleasant or exposed to the elements, i.e. too hot, too windy, no shade or
222 shelter etc.)

223

224 These items were adapted from existing typologies of landscape values used in previous PPGIS
225 studies (Tyrväinen et al. 2007; Brown et al. 2002). These typologies were further refined following
226 interviews with key stakeholders such as government, industry and Non-Governmental

227 Organisation representatives from the Hunter Valley area, meetings with local government staff,
228 and focus groups with community members from both municipalities.

229

230 A series of incentives and reminders were employed to enhance response rates, based on the
231 principles of the tailored design method (Dillman 2007). This included a gift of six packaged postal
232 stamps, an opportunity to win a \$100 AUD shopping voucher. Two reminder postcards were also
233 mailed to survey recipients at two-week intervals and an additional complete survey packet was
234 sent to non respondents after this time. The survey design and administration procedure was
235 reviewed and approved by [*identity hidden for peer review*] University's ethics board (project
236 06/13).

237

238 2.2 Data analysis

239

240 Returned maps were scanned and the marker dots were digitised. Counts of respondent's value
241 markers on both maps were collated and were analysed statistically using R (R Core Team 2015). A
242 Chi-Square test was used to assess an overall difference in marker dot abundance between the
243 suburb and LGA scale maps, with data aggregated for all respondents. The number of respondents
244 assigning attribute markers to the maps was calculated to ascertain whether a propensity to map at a
245 particular scale was observable. In addition, the mean number of markers assigned per respondent
246 was also calculated. Differences in marker abundance between specific value types were assessed
247 using Wilcoxon signed-rank tests, which allowed data from every respondent to be included, thus
248 increasing statistical power.

249

250 The diversity of marker dots at both scales for each individual was calculated using the 'diversity'
251 function in the 'vegan' package in R. Specifically, the Shannon diversity metric was used because it
252 accounts for both the number of unique attributes (in this case value types) and their relative

253 abundances (or evenness). Differences in value diversity between the two map scales was also
254 analysed via a Wilcoxon signed-rank test.

255

256 Finally, to analyse the effect of socio-demographics on the difference between value marker
257 abundance at the two spatial scales, Spearman rank correlation and Mann-Whitney U tests were
258 conducted in R, depending on the independent variable of interest. The proportional difference for
259 attribute k was calculated as $\frac{\sum_i Sub_{ik} - \sum_j LGA_{jk}}{\sum_j LGA_{jk}}$, where $\sum_i Sub_{ik}$ represents the number of dots for
260 attribute k at the suburb scale and $\sum_j LGA_{jk}$ represents the number of dots for attribute k at the LGA
261 scale. Tests were also performed with the difference between Shannon diversity scores as the
262 dependent variable. The socio-demographic variables that were analysed were age, gender, income,
263 education level, and the number of years respondents had lived in the Local Government Area.

264

265 3. Results

266

267 Respondents mapped a total of 9290 marker dots at the suburb scale and 4027 markers at the LGA
268 scale. The average number of markers assigned per respondent was 31.86 markers across both
269 maps. Yet more markers were assigned at the suburb scale (Table 1), with an average of 22.22
270 placed on the suburb map and 9.64 on the LGA map. The effect of map scale on marker abundance
271 was found to be statistically significant when all value markers were considered together ($\chi^2 =$
272 403.78, d.f. = 15, $P < 0.0001$). There were also more respondents who failed to assign any markers
273 to the LGA scale map than the suburb scale (Table 1). These results suggest that people have a
274 greater propensity to map at the local scale in addition to assigning more markers overall. The trend
275 of greater numbers of marker dots at the suburb scale than the LGA scale was consistent across all 4
276 suburbs (Charlestown: $\chi^2 = 242.77$, d.f. = 15, $P < 0.0001$; Toronto: $\chi^2 = 111.77$, d.f. = 15, $P <$
277 0.0001; Nelson Bay: $\chi^2 = 164.03$, d.f. = 15, $P < 0.0001$; Raymond Terrace: $\chi^2 = 257.82$, d.f. = 15, P
278 < 0.0001).

279

280 For every value type, more marker dots were assigned by respondents at the suburb scale than the
281 LGA scale (Table 1). This is demonstrated visually in Figures 3 and 4. Wilcoxon tests of
282 differences in marker abundance between individual value types were all found to be significant,
283 although the effect size was greater for some values (e.g. Activity/Physical Exercise) than others
284 (e.g. Cultural Significance) (see Table 1 for statistics). For each attribute, the total number of
285 respondents who assigned markers at the suburb scale was greater than those who assigned markers
286 at the LGA scale (Table 1). The Shannon diversity of value types was found to be greater at the
287 suburb scale than the LGA scale (Wilcoxon signed-rank test: $V = 8373$, $P < 0.0001$).

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289 < Insert Figure 3 Here >

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293 < Insert Table 1 Here >

294

295 Correlation and Mann-Whitney U tests of the influence of socio-demographic variables on the
296 difference in (i) the abundance of all value marker types and (ii) the Shannon diversity of value
297 markers between suburb and LGA scale maps revealed some significant results. Details of these
298 significant results are shown in Table 2. Some key results include females assigning more markers
299 the local suburb scale over the LGA scale for health/therapeutic values (mean deviation marker
300 abundance for males: LGA = 0.52, suburb = 1.06; mean abundance for females LGA = 0.50, suburb
301 = 1.53) and scary/unsafe perceptions (mean marker abundance for males: LGA = 0.20, suburb =
302 0.46; mean abundance for females LGA = 0.05, suburb = 0.52), more highly educated residents
303 favouring the regional/LGA scale than less educated residents, and those who have spent longer in

304 the region more likely to assign markers for social activities and exercise for fitness at the regional
305 scale.

306

307 < Insert Table 2 Here >

308

309 Qualitative responses also highlighted the importance of the local scale. Three key themes emerged
310 from participants' responses: concern over future development impinging upon local green space,
311 accessibility constraints, and a desire for facilities and management of local green spaces to be
312 improved. Thirty-six participants directly mentioned concerns about the loss of open spaces and
313 ecological habitat due to development. For example: "retaining bushland is extremely valuable for
314 future generations and for children to enjoy the range of experiences for free play, exploration and
315 appreciation". Many of the concerns about the proximity of local green space and residents' ability
316 to access it were in the context of parents with young children. Finally, comments about facilities
317 included issues such as installation and maintenance of toilets, structures, trees for shade and
318 drinking fountain facilities – all matters that are particularly pertinent at the local scale.

319

320 **4. Discussion**

321

322 This study has shown that the diversity and abundance of values and activity preferences for green
323 open space is greater at the suburb (local) scale than at the LGA (regional) scale. This is one of the
324 first studies to demonstrate the significant effect of scale using PPGIS techniques, and highlights
325 the importance of considering scale in the design of PPGIS studies. The importance of the local
326 scale is particularly so for values and activities that were most closely related to exercise, health,
327 and social interaction. These functions of open spaces are intrinsically of highest importance within
328 people's home range. Additionally, relatively large differences were also observed for negative
329 perceptions of open spaces, specifically their perception as being scary or unsafe, unpleasant, or

330 noisy. However, there was a difference between the proportional difference between scales and the
331 overall abundance of marker dots. Generally, those values and important activities related to active
332 use of green spaces received very high abundances of markers, despite their dominance at the local
333 scale. This differs from negative perceptions, which, although vastly more significant at the local
334 scale, received relatively few markers overall.

335

336 Socio-demographic factors were shown to exert some influence on the degree to which respondents
337 favoured one spatial scale over another. Many of these relationships are intuitive. For example, the
338 preference older people displayed for health/therapeutic values in their local region could reflect
339 their relative lack of mobility and increasing health concerns with age. It is also widely recognised
340 that safety concerns related to green spaces are more salient for females than males (e.g. Jorgensen
341 *et al.* 2007), and it makes sense that these concerns are most relevant in the vicinity one may
342 encounter regularly. In contrast, people of higher education and income levels and those who had
343 lived longer in the region were more likely to associate certain attributes at the regional (LGA)
344 scale than the local scale (Table 2), although the local scale remained more important overall. This
345 suggests that people are more likely to value green spaces beyond their local area when they are
346 more familiar with the region and have the capacity to experience them. These results align closely
347 with those from a recent PPGIS study in Helsinki, which found that more educated, wealthier and
348 older residents tended to value areas outside of the city more so than younger, less educated
349 residents (Raymond *et al.* 2016). Interestingly, females were found to value green open spaces for
350 health and casual recreation at the local scale more than males, which is contrary to the results
351 identified by Brown *et al.* (2015).

352

353 Compared to Bijker and Sijtsma (2017), this study identified a much stronger effect of spatial scale
354 on the assignment of values for natural areas. However, we consider the two studies to be
355 complementary, since our research focussed on urban and suburban areas and measured importance

356 by the abundance of markers and did not allow respondents to assign a value to each marker. The
357 greater abundance of value and activity marker dots at the local scale in this study provides further
358 supporting evidence for both the home range theory of values (Brown et al. 2015) and the theory of
359 geographic discounting (Norton and Hannon 1997) by identifying the types of values which are
360 most salient at different geographic scales. The local scale was more important for use or interactive
361 values and activities associated with green open spaces (such as health or recreation values), and
362 less important for intangible values such as aesthetics or cultural value. Negative perceptions are
363 also important locally, given they impinge upon the value or utility of a space much more than if
364 this was a place far away. Sotoudehnia & Comber (2011) found that cleanliness and safety were
365 two of the top three factors influencing green space use in Leicester, UK; qualities that are
366 particularly pertinent locally. Previous studies suggest that respondents with higher levels of formal
367 education map values (e.g. aesthetic) at different intensities to respondents with lower levels of
368 formal education (Brown and Reed 2009), and that those with higher levels of education and
369 income assign values further away from their place of residence (Raymond *et al.* 2016). However,
370 this study adds to the PPGIS literature by showing that people's value 'home range' is likely to
371 differ according to the type of values in question, the geographic scale at which those values are
372 assigned, and the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondent.

373
374 This study provides interesting insights into how people relate to nature. Understanding the
375 complexity of human values for nature is vital for effective environmental management outcomes
376 (Ives and Kendal 2014, Muhar *et al.* 2017). First, the variety of values and activities assigned by
377 residents to green open spaces highlights the need to manage for a range of values and user groups
378 (Raymond et al. 2016; Brown et al. 2014). It appears that urban green spaces are important to
379 residents for a variety of instrumental and non-instrumental values, as has been shown elsewhere
380 (Tyrväinen et al. 2007). We concur with Bijker and Sijtsma (2017) who suggested that people
381 require a 'portfolio of places' across different scales that are characterised by different but

382 complementary qualities and functions. Second, the influence of spatial scale emphasises that these
383 values are highly reliant on familiarity and access, and is not only related to one's place identity or
384 place dependence (Brown and Raymond 2007). The recent concept of 'nature routines' (Giusti et al.
385 2015) may also provide guidance in understanding these patterns. According to Giusti et al. (2015),
386 the everyday activities individuals undertake in natural areas help to shape one's values and support
387 connections to nature. It is plausible that the emphasis of positive values at the local scale is a
388 function of these common activities like walking the dog or meeting friends for coffee in the park.
389 Third, the disproportional importance of values at the local scale was seen even for negative
390 perceptions. Although perceived negative qualities received fewer marker dots overall, it highlights
391 that people's interactions with urban green areas are complex and there exists some degree of value
392 ambivalence in the community (c.f. Jorgensen and Tylecote 2007; Manzo 2005). Finally, exploring
393 the assignment of nature and biodiversity values for green spaces provides some insight into the
394 relationship between biodiversity conservation and more traditional functions of urban parks. In line
395 with other values, nature and biodiversity values were also more strongly represented at the local
396 scale compared to the regional scale. This is an interesting result because in the study region,
397 species' populations of greatest conservation concern were present at the regional scale much more
398 than the local scale (Whitehead et al. 2014; Lechner et al. 2015). One possible conclusion from this
399 is that people's direct experience of nature might be important for promoting conservation concern
400 and action, irrespective of the scientifically-verified levels of biodiversity present (c.f. Dallimer *et*
401 *al.* 2012).

402
403 This study showed clearly that the abundance and composition of marker dots differed according to
404 map spatial scale, yet discerning exactly which mechanisms contributed to this result is difficult
405 because of the study design. The methodological approach of this study (paper-based PPGIS
406 mapping) and its location (Hunter Valley, Australia) means it is not possible to fully disentangle the
407 effect of spatial scale on mapped landscape values and activity preferences from the ways people

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409 actually value and interact with urban parks. Indeed, these results could feasibly be the result of (i)
410 greater priority given to the values depicted in the survey at local scales, (ii) specific green spaces
411 available at the regional (LGA) scale failing to have the characteristics that support such values, or
412 (iii) specific green spaces at local scales being more accessible than those at regional scales. A
413 further limitation of this study is that it is not possible to extrapolate these findings to all urban
414 regions. To overcome these limitations, we call for future research to disentangle these factors by
415 enquiring into them directly, for example by asking about perceived qualities of green spaces and
416 their accessibility. Additional studies using these methods in different regions (particularly in
417 different cultural contexts) would also help to understand the generalisability of our results.
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419 This research has a number of implications for urban landscape management, planning and
420 assessment. In addition to the need for urban planners and green space managers to provide a
421 variety of places for residents' requirements and preferences, they must also consider the spatial
422 scale at which different green space functions are most important. Green spaces should be available
423 and accessible in the local vicinity to where people live. This is particularly vital for
424 health/therapeutic, exercise and social interaction values. Thus, we recommend that planners
425 provide facilities that enable these values to be activated near to where people live. However, it is
426 also important for regional green spaces (which are often larger) to be protected and managed
427 carefully. Values and activities related to nature appreciation were not as strongly emphasised at the
428 local scale and nature experiences in extensive, in-tact ecological reserves are likely to differ from
429 and complement those at the local scale. Further, the fact that wealthier and higher educated people
430 tend to have stronger aesthetic values at the regional scale also implies some degree of constraint
431 for other socio-economic groups. We therefore suggest from an environmental justice perspective
432 that local authorities may like to consider ways in which local residents can more easily access the
433 more spectacular or beautiful landscapes that exist outside the local region (c.f. Raymond *et al.*
434 2016). Initiatives like community shuttle buses could be useful here. Negative perceptions towards

436 green spaces should also continue to be managed carefully, particularly at the local scale, to avoid
437 compromising the more positive benefits green open spaces offer to urban residents.

438

439 Finally, for researchers using PPGIS techniques to spatially map landscape values, our results
440 highlight that the spatial scale at which a landscape is represented on a map is likely to influence the
441 results obtained. While the importance of spatial scale for the precision of mapped values has
442 already been identified (Brown and Kyttä 2014), this study shows clearly that it is also likely to

443 influence the *composition* of values mapped by respondents. From these results we draw some
444 practical recommendations for researchers and practitioners utilising PPGIS methods. First, we
445 encourage researchers to undertake community consultation exercises (such as focus groups or
446 public meetings) with people from a broad range of locations. Enquiring specifically into the places
447 that people value at different distances from their place of residence or work will help to reveal the
448 most appropriate scale at which to conduct a PPGIS study for the given topical focus. Second,
449 researchers should consider using methods that allow for varying map scales, such as online
450 mapping applications with ‘zoom’ functions, but ensure that the scale at which a feature is mapped
451 is recorded. Finally, the scale at which data are collected should relate to the scale of data
452 application. For example, results from a PPGIS study at a regional scale can reasonably inform
453 regional planning (e.g. siting of new nature reserves), but should not be extrapolated to local land
454 use decision-making (e.g. identifying culturally-significant trees).

455

456 5. Conclusion

457

458 This study has shown that spatial scale is an important factor that influences the type and quality of
459 relationships people have with their surrounding landscapes. Specifically, the local suburb scale is
460 consistently more important than the regional scale for a broad range of positive values, important
461 activities and perceived negative qualities of urban green spaces. This shows not only that people

Moved up [1]: . We note that the methodological approach of this study (paper-based PPGIS mapping) and its location (Hunter Valley, Australia) means it is not possible to fully disentangle the effect of spatial scale on *mapped* landscape values from the ways people actually value and interact with urban parks, nor is it possible to extrapolate these findings to all urban regions.

Deleted: <#>Nevertheless, it has highlighted that spatial scale is an issue that researchers and practitioners should be cognisant of, and has provided a foundation upon which further research can build. ¶

473 relate to nature in complex ways, but that these relationships are influenced by the interactions and
474 experiences that occur in people's daily lives. As interactions with nature are increasingly
475 considered to be a crucial part of the sustainable cities of the future (Hartig and Kahn 2016), there is
476 a clear need for a greater understanding of how spatial scale influences people's experiences of and
477 values for urban green areas. We encourage future research on the importance of scale using
478 complementary research techniques (e.g. qualitative research and observational studies), further
479 differentiation of the kinds of green space characteristics that contribute to scalar differences in
480 assigned landscape values, broadening research into different social, cultural and environmental
481 settings, and an exploration of the relationships between different kinds of relationships with these
482 green spaces (e.g. direct interactions, cognitions, emotions). Such knowledge would provide a
483 valuable evidence-base for the planning and management of sustainable cities of the future.

484

485

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632

633 Tables

634 Table 1. Wilcoxon rank test statistics for comparisons of marker dot abundance between the LGA and suburb scale maps, ranked according to the
635 proportional difference between the two maps.

Attribute name	Type	Number of respondents assigning markers		Mean number of markers per respondent		Total assigned markers			V	P
		Suburb	LGA	Suburb	LGA	Suburb	LGA	Total		
Unappealing	Negative perception	164 (40.4%)	45 (11.1%)	0.94	0.19	381 (83.0%)	78 (17.0%)	459	1893	<0.001
Exercise for fitness	Activity	314 (77.3%)	134 (33.0%)	2.05	0.51	832 (80.0%)	208 (20%)	1040	4106	<0.001
Scary/unsafe	Negative perception	104 (25.6%)	35 (8.6%)	0.47	0.13	192 (78.7%)	52 (21.3%)	244	781	<0.001
Casual recreation	Activity	323 (80.0%)	167 (41.1%)	2.15	0.64	873 (77.2%)	258 (22.8%)	1131	4146	<0.001
Unpleasant	Negative perception	68 (16.7%)	22 (5.4%)	0.31	0.09	125 (76.7%)	38 (23.3%)	163	600	<0.001
Activity/physical exercise value	Value	339 (83.5%)	193 (47.5%)	2.78	0.89	1130 (75.8%)	360 (24.2%)	1490	6373	<0.001
Noisy	Negative perception	78 (19.2%)	29 (6.9%)	0.32	0.10	130 (75.6%)	42 (24.4%)	172	567	<0.001
Social interaction value	Value	280 (69.0%)	155 (38.2%)	1.82	0.61	738 (74.8%)	248 (25.2%)	986	5840	<0.001
Children's play	Activity	275 (67.7%)	151 (37.2%)	1.70	0.60	689 (73.8%)	245 (26.2%)	934	4543	<0.001
Health/therapeutic value	Value	228 (56.2%)	138 (34.0%)	1.32	0.51	534 (72.2%)	206 (27.8%)	740	5034	<0.001
Social activities	Activity	262 (64.5%)	178 (43.8%)	1.44	0.78	585 (64.9%)	317 (35.1%)	902	12928	<0.001
Native plants and animals	Value	281 (69.2%)	202 (49.8%)	1.78	0.99	721 (64.3%)	400 (35.7%)	1121	11930	<0.001
Aesthetic value	Value	337 (83.0%)	243 (59.9%)	2.52	1.48	1022 (62.9%)	602 (37.1%)	1624	16030	<0.001
Nature appreciation	Activity	240 (59.1%)	171 (42.1%)	1.26	0.82	511 (60.7%)	331 (39.3%)	842	10026	<0.001
Nature value	Value	248 (61.1%)	201 (49.5)	1.36	1.04	554 (56.8%)	422 (43.2%)	976	14819	0.005
Cultural significance value	Value	155 (38.2%)	133 (32.8%)	0.67	0.54	273 (55.4%)	220 (44.6%)	493	7072	0.04
Total markers		397 (95.0%)	325 (77.8%)	22.22	9.64	9290 (69.8%)	4027 (30.2%)	13317		

637

638 Table 2. Socio-demographic variables that were found to have a statistically significant influence on
 639 the difference between value marker abundances between suburb and LGA scale maps.

Socio-demographic variable	Mapped response variable	Statistical test	Test statistic	P value	Interpretation
Age	Health/Therapeutic value	Spearman rank correlation	Rho = 0.140	0.006	Older people place more health/therapeutic markers at suburb scale
Gender	Health/Therapeutic value	Mann-Whitney U test	U = 20605	0.038	Females place more health/therapeutic markers at suburb scale.
Gender	Scary/Unsafe	Mann-Whitney U test	U = 20818	0.005	Females place more casual recreation markers at suburb scale
Education	Aesthetic value	Spearman rank correlation	Rho = -0.121	0.012	People with higher levels of education place more aesthetic markers at LGA scale
Education	Casual recreation activities	Spearman rank correlation	Rho = -0.113	0.028	People with higher levels of education place more casual recreation markers at LGA scale
Education	Social activities	Spearman rank correlation	Rho = -0.155	0.002	People with higher levels of education place more social activity markers at LGA scale
Income	Aesthetic value	Spearman rank correlation	Rho = -0.135	0.011	People with higher income place more aesthetic markers at LGA scale
Years in LGA	Social activities	Spearman rank correlation	Rho = -0.110	0.033	People who have resided in the area for longer place more social activity markers at LGA scale
Years in LGA	Exercise for fitness activities	Spearman rank correlation	Rho = -0.106	0.038	People who have resided in the area for longer place more exercise for fitness markers at LGA scale

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643 **Figure Captions**

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645 Figure 1. Map of the study area.

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647 Figure 2: Sample map as presented to residents of the suburb Charlestown

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649 Figure 3. Barplot of the abundance of value markers at the suburb and LGA scales.

650

651 Figure 4. Barplot of the proportional difference between marker dots assigned at the suburb and
652 LGA scales.

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