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## Exploring preferences for biodiversity and wild parks in Chinese cities

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1 **Exploring preferences for biodiversity and wild parks in Chinese cities:**

2 **A conjoint analysis study in Hangzhou**

3 **Abstract**

4 There has been a transformation of value orientation from an anthropocentric to eco-centric view in  
5 Chinese urban park design. Biodiversity enhancement has been increasingly seen as a prioritised park  
6 design aim by landscape designers. This promotes the rise of a novel park style with wild, less manicured  
7 appearance in cities, which shows strong contrasts to the traditional park style with ornamental,  
8 manicured characteristics. However, in this urban park transformation process, people's opinion has been  
9 almost ignored. This research investigated the importance of biodiversity compared with other relevant  
10 urban park attributes (i.e., Facilities, Woodlands, Maintenance, and Seasonal views) identified from  
11 preliminary focus groups. The research further predicted preferences between wild and traditional urban  
12 parks. Conjoint analysis was used to address these questions. Five urban park attributes (i.e., Biodiversity,  
13 Facilities, Woodlands, Maintenance, and Seasonal views) were included in the conjoint questionnaire  
14 survey. The survey (N=187) was conducted with the public and ecology/landscape professionals in  
15 Hangzhou, China. Results showed that for professionals, biodiversity was the most important attribute  
16 relative to others; for the public, both facilities and biodiversity were the most important attributes.  
17 Preferences for the two park styles varied between the two groups: professionals preferred wild parks,  
18 whereas the public preferred traditional parks. Yet, public preferences for wild parks were enhanced by  
19 improving maintenance levels and providing recreation facilities. The study concluded the appreciation  
20 of biodiversity among both the public and professionals. Differences in professional preferences for wild  
21 parks compared to the public should be considered when professionals design wild parks in the future.

23 **Keywords:** Conjoint analysis; Park style; Preferences; Professional versus the public comparison; Urban  
24 biodiversity

## 25 **1. Introduction**

### 26 *1.1 From the traditional to wild style: biodiversity-led urban park transformation*

27 Historically, traditional Western urban parks fulfil human needs such as aesthetic enjoyment, social  
28 mingling, and recreation/physical exercise (Ward Thompson, 1998; Cranz and Boland, 2004; Mclean,  
29 2020). Apart from their anthropocentric functions, some historic traditional parks, e.g., English-style  
30 historic parks, can contribute to urban biodiversity conservation today (Cornelis and Hermy, 2004). Such  
31 traditional parks have ornamental, manicured characteristics with flowerbeds, lawns, and orderly  
32 planting layouts. Owing to the increasing urban biodiversity loss and multiple benefits of biodiversity  
33 such as providing ecosystem services, connecting people with nature, and enhancing human well-being  
34 (Dearborn and Kark, 2010; Keniger et al., 2013), conserving and promoting biodiversity have become a  
35 pressing issue in contemporary cities (Miller, 2005; Grimm et al., 2008). Creating and managing urban  
36 green spaces (UGSs), notably parks, have been recognised as a critical component for enhancing urban  
37 biodiversity in the past 20 years (Müller and Werner, 2010; Aronson et al., 2017). A variety of  
38 biodiversity-based design theories have emerged, including *co-habitat* (Orff, 2016), *animal-aided design*  
39 (Weisser and Hauck, 2017), *intended wildness* (Hwang and Yue, 2019), and *biodiversity-friendly design*  
40 (Palliwoda et al., 2017; Ignatieva, 2018; Fischer et al., 2020; Kowarik et al., 2020).

41 Prioritising biodiversity enhancement may potentially conflict with other attributes involved in park  
42 design such as maintenance/neatness, scenic aesthetic, and recreation. Though biodiversity can exist in  
43 highly managed UGSs, studies suggest that reduced maintenance intensity supports higher biodiversity  
44 levels (Rudolph et al., 2017; Müller et al., 2018). In this sense, biodiverse environments tend to be (albeit

45 not always) linked with lower maintenance intensity, appearing wild, despite that they can also look  
46 ordered and can be maintained with higher degrees of care and ecological knowledge. Research has  
47 shown that biodiversity is preferred by residents (Fischer et al., 2018), but orderly frames are important  
48 (Nassauer, 1995; Fischer et al., 2020). Though a convergence can happen, biodiversity enhancement  
49 often conflicts with scenic aesthetic which is usually associated with a neat, ornamental character of  
50 landscape beauty (Nassauer, 1995; Gobster et al., 2007; Ignatieva, 2018). Potential conflicts between  
51 biodiversity improvement and recreation amenity provision can arise in urban park design (Kowarik and  
52 Langer, 2005; Qiu et al., 2013), and prioritising biodiversity may compromise the perceived  
53 appropriateness for recreation (Bjerke et al., 2006; Fischer et al., 2020).

54       Prioritising biodiversity enhancement in urban park design tends to create a novel park style with  
55 wilder, less manicured appearance compared to the traditional park style. In this paper, the term “wild  
56 parks” refers to this park style/type which is designed for enhancing urban biodiversity, and has wild,  
57 less manicured qualities, vegetation with complex structures and compositions (e.g., multi-layered dense  
58 vegetation), and few artificial recreation/play facilities or attractions. This concept of wild parks also  
59 includes the existence of maintenance interventions and recreational activities. “Traditional parks” are  
60 defined as parks designed for anthropocentric purposes, and marked by intensive maintenance, ample  
61 facilities or attractions, and vegetation with relatively simple structures and compositions (e.g., open  
62 lawns scattered with single-tiered trees). While the concept of “biodiversity” embraces the habitat, the  
63 species, and the gene levels, this study defines biodiversity as the diversity between species at the species  
64 level, i.e., species richness. Species richness has been frequently used by studies as a biodiversity  
65 indicator (Qiu et al., 2013; Fischer et al., 2018).

66       The design of wild parks involves several specific strategies, including conserving existing remnant

67 pristine and/or novel ecosystems, restoring degraded ecosystems, and creating new ecosystems (Kowarik,  
68 2011; Kowarik, 2018). There is an increasing focus on rewilding that advocates replacing human  
69 intervention with natural succession (Navarro and Pereira, 2012; Corlett, 2016). Though the research of  
70 rewilding is usually concentrated in the rural ecosystem, it has become an important measure for urban  
71 parks to improve biodiversity, especially through the use of natural vegetation (Kühn, 2006; Del Tredici,  
72 2010; Hwang and Yue, 2019). Another approach is the combination of intervening in parts of the site and  
73 allowing natural processes to dominate in other parts, e.g., Natur Park Südgelände (Kowarik, 2018).

#### 74 *1.2 Wild parks in Chinese cities*

75 Since the economic reforms of 1978, a large number of traditional parks have been built within  
76 Chinese cities, which feature manicured lawns, flower beds and artificial facilities/structures (Fig. 1).  
77 Meanwhile, massive natural habitats have been degraded due to rapid urbanisation, posing a serious  
78 threat to biodiversity (Wu et al., 2014; Yang et al., 2016). Urban greening policies have started to  
79 highlight biodiversity enhancement. For example, *Outline of Urban Green Space System Planning (Trial)*  
80 incorporates biodiversity enhancement and endangered species protection as a core part of UGS planning  
81 and design (Ministry of Housing and Urban-Rural Development of the People's Republic of China, 2002).  
82 The attention to urban biodiversity also involves the consideration of the importance of biodiversity on  
83 human wellbeing (Yang et al., 2016; Yang, 2020). As Chinese cities become more and more artificial and  
84 denser, residents risk being increasingly disconnected from biodiverse nature in daily lives, threatening  
85 people's physical and mental health (Yuan, 2021).

86 In China, though urban remnant novel ecosystems tend to be eradicated and redeveloped for  
87 utilitarian uses (Hu and Lima, 2019), some wild park projects have made efforts to conserve such  
88 ecosystems, for example, Jiangyangfan Eco-Park in Hangzhou (Fig. 2a) and Qunli Wetland Park in

89 Harbin (Fig. 2b). Strong attention has been paid to restoring and/or creating ecosystems to form different  
90 wild park types such as wetland park and forest park. By early 2018, 58 national urban wetland parks  
91 have been designated (Feng et al., 2019). Rewilding has been introduced in recent wild park projects,  
92 with a distinct emphasis on the use of native species (Yuan et al., 2021).



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**Fig. 1.** Traditional parks in Chinese cities (photos were taken by the authors).



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**Fig. 2.** Wild parks in Chinese cities. (a) Jiangyangfan Eco-Park; (b) Qunli Wetland Park (photos were taken by the authors).

### 97 *1.3 Preferences for biodiversity and the wild style of designed urban green spaces*

98 Within the urban park transformation from the traditional to wild style/type in China, a few scholars  
99 investigated how Chinese people prefer biodiversity and the wild park style (e.g., Li et al., 2019), but  
100 this question has not been sufficiently clarified in China (Zhong et al., 2021). A better understanding of  
101 people's attitudes towards biodiversity and wild parks is essential for designing policies and strategies  
102 supporting biodiversity.

103 While a few Western studies have shown the public appreciates urban biodiversity (Fischer et al.,

104 2018; Fischer et al., 2020), the question of how people prefer and value the importance of biodiversity  
105 compared with other park attributes (e.g., facilities, maintenance/neatness, scenic value, etc) remains  
106 open. Research has shown facilities, beauty, and accessibility are more important than biodiversity (Voigt  
107 et al., 2014; Bertram and Rehdanz, 2015). Madureira et al., (2018) found maintenance is more important  
108 than biodiversity, whereas van Vliet et al., (2021) found the diversity of flowers in flowerbeds (which  
109 they termed as “biodiversity”) and the number of trees are the most important park attributes. The relative  
110 importance of biodiversity compared to other park attributes is still an open question, and that this  
111 relationship has not yet been sufficiently clarified in Chinese cities. Studies have shown that  
112 ecology/landscape professionals are more likely to prefer biodiversity (Lindemann-Matthies et al., 2014)  
113 or certain aspects of biodiversity, e.g., woodland edges, deadwoods (Qiu et al., 2013), spontaneous plant  
114 biodiversity (Muratet et al., 2015), or wilder UGSs (Hwang et al., 2019), compared to the public. This  
115 might because professionals possess more ecological knowledge than the public, and this knowledge  
116 may play a significant role in shaping preferences for biodiversity.

117 A number of Western studies have examined preferences between wild and traditional styles of  
118 designed UGSs (e.g., Özgüner and Kendle, 2006, Qiu et al., 2013 for parks; Lindemann-Matthies and  
119 Marty, 2013 for gardens; Zheng et al., 2011 for residential landscapes; Kaplan, 2007 for business  
120 landscapes). Taken as a whole the research shows inconsistent results with a mixed picture. However,  
121 the majority supports a general conclusion that the traditional style is preferred over the wild. Research  
122 also suggests the importance of care and accessibility (Nassauer, 1995; Jorgensen et al., 2007; Hofmann  
123 et al., 2012; Ward Thompson et al., 2013; Hwang et al., 2019) in enhancing preferences for the wild style.

124 There might be conflicts between the public and professionals regarding preferences between wild  
125 and traditional styles of UGSs. There is evidence that professionals prefer the wild (Zheng et al., 2011;

126 Hofmann et al., 2012; Hwang et al., 2019), probably because they concern more about ecological aspects  
127 of UGSs. The public, however, tends to prefer the traditional due to its neatness and the higher degree of  
128 space usability for everyday activities (Zheng et al., 2011; Hofmann et al., 2012). In wild UGSs, elements  
129 such as traces of neglect and litter might mask biodiversity impacts (Nassauer, 1995; Fischer et al., 2018).  
130 By excluding such elements, Fischer et al., (2018) have clearly identified biodiversity was indeed  
131 preferred. Studies have reported that the public can correctly recognise biodiversity (Fuller et al., 2007;  
132 Qiu et al., 2013), but the ecological knowledge can be a significant factor influencing perceptions of and  
133 preferences for biodiversity (Qiu et al., 2013).

134 Some Chinese studies have reported the lower importance attached to biodiversity in UGSs by the  
135 public (Jim and Chen, 2006a; Jim and Chen, 2006b; Zhang et al., 2020), whereas others have found the  
136 appreciation of biodiversity (Gao et al., 2019), and biodiversity is even more important than recreation  
137 facilities (Chen et al., 2018) and cultural services (Yang, 2021). A few studies have shown that while  
138 lawns and flowerbeds are preferred over spontaneous vegetation by the public, professionals hold more  
139 positive attitudes towards spontaneous vegetation (Jiang and Yuan, 2017; Li et al., 2019). Jim and Chen  
140 (2006b) have reported a preference for the naturalistic–ecological over traditional park style in  
141 Guangzhou. People’s preference for biodiversity and wild parks is still unclear in China, since previous  
142 studies are not sufficient and have reported ambiguous results (e.g., Jim and Chen, 2006b; Zhang et al.,  
143 2020 vs. Chen et al., 2018; Yang, 2021) which requires further research.

144 Based on the previous studies, we concluded that (1) a nuanced understanding of the importance of  
145 biodiversity relative to other park attributes and preferences between wild and traditional park styles in  
146 the Chinese context is needed; (2) there is a lack of research on the comparison between public and  
147 professional preferences for biodiversity and wild parks in China. The comparison helps to understand



148 if the two groups have conflicting preferences, which is important for providing implications for future  
149 park design that addresses public needs.

#### 150 *1.4 Research questions*

151 This research aims to investigate the importance of biodiversity in urban parks, compared to other  
152 park attributes. In detail, we asked:

153 (1) What is the importance of biodiversity in urban parks compared to other park attributes from the  
154 perspectives of the public versus professionals?

155 (2) What are the preferences between wild parks and traditional parks from the perspectives of the public  
156 versus professionals?

157 (3) What environmental interventions or changes would make wild parks more attractive?

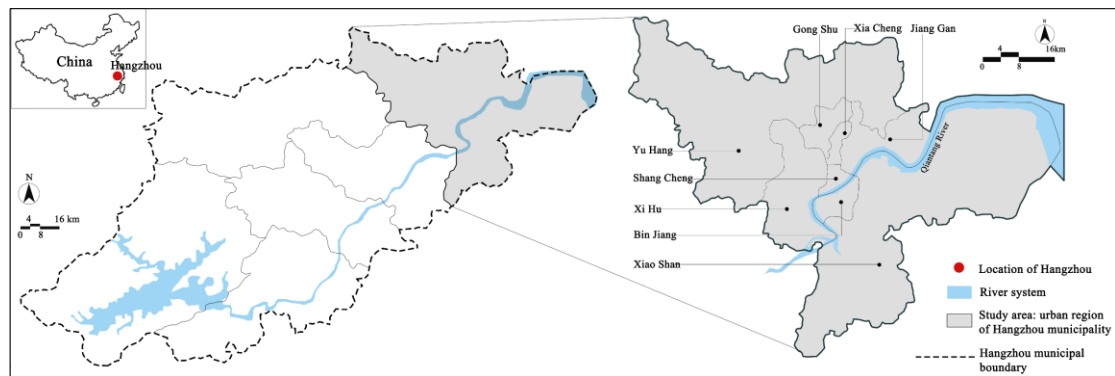
## 158 **2. Methods**

### 159 *2.1 Study area*

160 The study was conducted in Hangzhou, an eastern Chinese city. By the end of 2020, the population  
161 of permanent residents was 12.0 million (Hangzhou Municipal Statistical Bureau, 2021). Rapid  
162 urbanisation in Hangzhou has destroyed or damaged many urban natural ecosystems. As a consequence,  
163 Hangzhou natural grassland change rate was as high as 70% from 2000 to 2010 (Zhang et al., 2020). In  
164 response to the deterioration of urban ecosystems, Hangzhou has made an effort towards incorporating  
165 ecological and biodiversity concepts in UGS planning and design. Policies such as *Key Points of Natural*  
166 *Ecological Protection in Hangzhou (2020)* (Hangzhou Municipal Ecology and Environment Bureau,  
167 2020) and *Action Plan for High-level Promotion of Land Greening and Beautification in Hangzhou*  
168 *(2019-2022)* (Hangzhou Municipal Government, 2019) indicate biodiversity enhancement is the focus  
169 in UGS planning and design. Different wild park types such as forest park, wetland park, and heritage

170 tree park are high on Hangzhou's urban agenda. These active efforts have earned Hangzhou a national  
171 reputation as a leader in ecological UGS planning and design compared to other Chinese cities (Wolch  
172 et al., 2014; Byrne et al., 2015).

173 The study focused on Hangzhou's urban region. According to Master Plan of Hangzhou (2001-2020)  
174 (Hangzhou Municipal Government, 2001), Hangzhou's urban region has 8 administrative districts,  
175 including Shang Cheng, Xia Cheng, Jiang Gan, Gong Shu, Xi Hu, Bin Jiang, Xiao Shan, and Yu Hang  
176 (Fig. 3). The study was conducted in these districts.



177  
178 **Fig. 3.** Study area in Hangzhou (source: the authors).

## 179 2.2 Conjoint analysis

180 Conjoint analysis, a quantitative method for studying how people trade off importances of multiple  
181 attributes of an object and how people respond to different object scenarios composed of varying levels  
182 of several attributes, was used (Aspinall et al., 2010; Orme, 2010; Lima, 2016; Ward Thompson, 2016;  
183 Lima et al., 2020). Conjoint analysis is conducted through the conjoint questionnaire, which involves a  
184 number of choice tasks by presenting participants with various object scenarios and asking participants  
185 to choose their preferred one. Each scenario consists of attributes of interest at some level. The levels are  
186 descriptions of the varying possibilities in the attribute.

187 Compared with conventional questionnaires/interviews that ask each attribute in a separate and

188 direct way, conjoint analysis works in a de-compositional way by examining joint effects of attributes  
189 (Aspinall et al., 2010; Lima, 2016; Ward Thompson, 2016; Lima et al., 2020). This de-compositional  
190 approach reflects the way people make trade-offs in real life, which is more reliable in judging  
191 comparative importances than conventional questionnaires/interviews.

192       Attributes used should cover all the important aspects of the object under study, including aspects  
193 involved in research questions, and/or the aspects that participants consider important. In this study, urban  
194 park was the “object.” Biodiversity was first set as one park attribute, since it is involved in research  
195 questions. Consistent with previous conjoint analysis research (Aspinall et al., 2010; Lima et al., 2020),  
196 this study used preliminary focus groups to identify other relevant park attributes. Focus groups were  
197 carried out in Hangzhou in April and June 2020 to explore park aspects that group members considered  
198 important and influenced their park preferences. We included top five frequently mentioned aspects as  
199 attributes in this study: Biodiversity (this was first set as the attribute used), Facilities, Woodlands,  
200 Maintenance, and Seasonal views. Other aspects were excluded, since they were not that frequently  
201 mentioned, and the inclusion of all aspects would generate cognitive burden for respondents in  
202 responding to conjoint questionnaires. Different levels of all the attributes except for Seasonal views  
203 included the main characteristics of wild parks and traditional parks, and these attributes and levels can  
204 be practically used for designing wild and traditional parks. The description of attributes and levels is in  
205 table 1. Levels of the attribute Seasonal views were inspired by quotes from group members.

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**Table 1.** Attributes and levels in this study.

Attributes	Levels
Biodiversity	1. Species rich flora and fauna
	2. Species moderate flora and fauna
	3. Species poor flora and fauna
Facilities	1. Supporting facilities (e.g., resting facilities) & recreation/play facilities
	2. Supporting facilities (e.g., resting facilities), no recreation/play facilities
	3. Few facilities
Woodlands	1. Wooded areas with dense trees
	2. Open areas with some trees
	3. Sparse trees
Maintenance	1. Well-maintained, neat-looking
	2. Moderate-maintained, less neat-looking
	3. Low maintenance, wild-looking
Seasonal views	1. Spring flowers
	2. Summer green canopy trees
	3. Autumn colourful (such as golden or red) foliage
	4. Winter branch-trunk viewing plants/conifer trees

211 *2.3 Conjoint questionnaire design and pilot study*

212 The research used Adaptive Choice-Based Conjoint (ACBC), the latest conjoint analysis version  
 213 (Orme, 2010; Lima, 2016; Lima et al., 2020). ACBC permits the use of five or more attributes. The  
 214 software for designing web-based ACBC questionnaires was provided by Sawtooth Software on an  
 215 academic grant. Words rather than images were used in ACBC questionnaires to describe attributes  
 216 because of the following reasons. First, using texts enables respondents to focus on all park attributes  
 217 equally and not be distracted by other elements featured in images that are more prone to be visually  
 218 seductive (e.g., lighting, composition, colour, etc.) (Aspinall, 2010; Lima, 2016; Ward Thompson, 2016).  
 219 Using texts enables respondents to envisage attributes and levels cognitively based on real-life park  
 220 experiences. Second, within conjoint analysis, the use of images is more suitable when attributes are  
 221 related to aspects which are sensitive to the image processing brain system, e.g., size of objects (Paivio,

222 1991; Lima, 2016; Lima et al., 2020). Attributes in our study are not related to size, and can be described  
223 in texts. The text approach has been used by conjoint analysis studies in fields of landscape planning and  
224 design (Aspinall et al., 2010; Lima, 2016; Veitch et al., 2017; Lima et al., 2020; Veitch et al., 2022).  
225 However, we understand the text approach relies on the respondent's ability to imagine parks, which  
226 might not be straightforward. This is one of the limitations of this study. On how consistently people  
227 imagine different levels, especially for different levels of the attribute biodiversity, our preliminary focus  
228 groups revealed people were able to distinguish different levels of biodiversity at a coarse scale, and their  
229 distinction for each level involved a few consistent words (e.g., higher levels of biodiversity: "rich in  
230 plant and animal species" vs. lower levels of biodiversity: "lack of diverse plants and animals").

231 The initial ACBC questionnaire was piloted twice in October, 2020 with conjoint analysis experts,  
232 landscape professionals, and the public. The pilot aimed at verifying whether the questionnaire was  
233 unambiguously worded, whether the use of words to represent attributes was feasible, whether the  
234 questionnaire was too long, and whether respondents could correctly understand the questionnaire. After  
235 the pilot, several refinements were added to make the questionnaire user-friendlier. Pilot results were not  
236 used in data analysis.

237 The final ACBC questionnaire included six parts. The first part was *Introduction*. It contained a  
238 brief introduction of the research, information about the anonymity, and a description of attributes and  
239 levels. The second part was *Build-Your-Own (BYO)* where respondents were asked to select their  
240 preferred level for each attribute and to "build" their idealised park scenarios. The third part was  
241 *Screening*. The Sawtooth software program behind the questionnaire selected an array of text-based park  
242 scenarios for respondents' evaluation from a pre-developed matrix of scenarios. This matrix was  
243 developed when we designed the ACBC questionnaire, and it equalled the number of all possible

244 combinations between different levels of the five attributes. Determined by the algorithm within the  
245 software, the scenario selection was based on the answers to the *BYO* section and also covered the full  
246 range of levels. Since the *BYO*-specified ideal scenario differed across respondents, the questionnaire  
247 was customised and it was generated on-the-fly for each respondent. During *Screening*, the software  
248 scanned respondents' answers to see levels that were constantly avoided (*Unacceptables*) or were  
249 absolute requirements (*Must-Haves*) for parks. This process ensured remaining scenarios tailored to each  
250 individual's needs. The fourth part was *Choice Task*. A series of 13 choice tasks were presented. Each  
251 task included two park scenarios and respondents were asked to choose the preferred one. The final part  
252 asked respondents' socio-demographic information, including gender, age, residential district in  
253 Hangzhou, education, marital status, and professional background.

#### 254 *2.4 Main survey process*

255 The main survey was conducted in November 2020, and in January and April 2021. ACBC  
256 questionnaires, in Chinese, were distributed among dwellers living within the eight survey districts. The  
257 survey covered all districts to avoid over-sampling within one district. Due to the impact of Covid-19,  
258 field surveys were combined with online surveys. For field surveys, participants above 18 years old were  
259 randomly recruited in various public spaces in each survey district. Since the ACBC questionnaire is  
260 web-based, all field survey questionnaires were undertaken on researchers' computer. Online surveys  
261 were carried out with neighbourhood residents and ecology/landscape professionals. ACBC  
262 questionnaires were uploaded to Sawtooth Software Hosting Server and a questionnaire link was  
263 generated. With the assistance of several community committees, more residents entered the web survey  
264 with the questionnaire link. To recruit professionals, staff from Zhejiang University, Zhejiang Wilderness  
265 Nature Education, Zhejiang Museum of Natural History, Hangzhou Municipal Bureau of Garden and

266 Cultural Relics were contacted through emails and Wechat. As the response rate was relatively low, other  
267 professionals were recruited through personal contacts.

268 A total of 245 respondents entered the survey. The total number of valid questionnaires for the final  
269 analysis was 187 (112 face-to-face and 75 online): public participants (N=147) and professional  
270 participants (N=40). The sample size of professional participants met the rule of thumb that sample size  
271 should be larger than 30 for statistical analysis (Roscoe, 1975; Sekaran, 1992). Moreover, ACBC study  
272 can achieve reliable results with a smaller sample size (Orme, 2010; Lima, 2016; Lima et al., 2020;  
273 Veitch et al., 2022), about one-third of the sample size needed for a Choice-Based Conjoint (CBC) study  
274 (with the same questionnaire settings as ACBC study), another conjoint analysis version (Jervis et al.,  
275 2012). The one-third threshold by referring to CBC sample sizes has been used for estimating appropriate  
276 sample sizes for ACBC study (Lima, 2016; Lima et al., 2020). The sample size required for a CBC study  
277 is usually estimated using the formula:  $nta/c > 500$ , where  $n$ =number of respondents,  $t$ =number of choice  
278 tasks ( $t=13$  in this study),  $a$ =scenarios per choice task ( $a=2$  in this study),  $c$ =largest number of levels of  
279 an attribute ( $c=4$  in this study). It was deduced that  $n$  should be larger than 77 and the threshold of one-  
280 third of  $n$  was 26. Both public and professional group sample size surpassed the threshold of 26  
281 participants.

## 282 *2.5 Data analysis*

283 Descriptive analysis for the sample was conducted using SPSS Statistics version 25. ACBC data  
284 was analysed with Hierarchical Bayes (HB) model and choice simulation within Sawtooth Software  
285 Lighthouse Studio version 9.8.1. HB model generated two sets of data: utility value and average attribute  
286 importance. Based on the two sets of data, choice simulation was used to predict preferences between  
287 wild and traditional parks. Using different attribute levels that characterise the two park styles, various

288 wild and traditional park scenarios were created. Then these scenarios were grouped into a wild park  
289 group and a traditional park group. By using choice simulation, preferences between the two park groups  
290 were compared and which park group respondents would choose/prefer was predicted. The result “share  
291 of preference” (%) for a group indicates how many respondents (%) “vote” (i.e., prefer) for that group.  
292 The sum of shares of preferences for the two groups equals 100 percent.

293 The main characteristics for describing wild and traditional park scenarios were summarised from  
294 previous research (Zhang & Zhang, 2002; Özgüner et al., 2007; Ignatieva, 2018) and interviews with  
295 experts. The main characteristics of wild parks include species diversity, fewer recreation and artificial  
296 amenities, vegetation with complex structures and compositions (e.g., multi-layered dense vegetation), a  
297 lower maintenance intensity, whilst the main characteristics of traditional parks include limited species  
298 diversity, more artificial amenities, vegetation with simple structures and compositions (e.g., open areas  
299 with single-tiered trees scattered), and a high maintenance intensity. Correspondingly, for data analysis,  
300 wild park scenarios were created using levels “species rich flora and fauna,” “supporting facilities, no  
301 recreation/play facilities” and “few facilities,” “wooded areas with dense trees” and “open areas with  
302 some trees,” “moderate-maintained, less neat-looking” and “low-maintenance, wild-looking” and the  
303 four levels of the attribute Seasonal views. This specification generated 32 wild park scenarios and all of  
304 them were grouped into a wild park group. Traditional park scenarios were created using “species  
305 moderate flora and fauna” and “species poor flora and fauna,” “supporting facilities & recreation/play  
306 facilities” and “supporting facilities, no recreation/play facilities,” “open areas with some trees” and  
307 “sparse trees,” “well-maintained, neat-looking” and the four levels of the attribute Seasonal views. This  
308 generated 32 traditional park scenarios and all of them were grouped into a traditional park group.

309 Levels of each attribute (except for Seasonal views) that describe wild parks (baseline levels) were



310 then changed (while holding other attributes' levels specified in wild park scenarios constant) to levels  
311 of the respective attribute of traditional parks to observe changes in share of preference from wild park  
312 scenarios to the changed wild park scenarios. For example, "moderate-maintained, neat-looking" and  
313 "low-maintenance, wild-looking" were changed as "well-maintained, neat-looking" (holding other  
314 attributes' levels specified in wild park scenarios constant). When changing "facilities" levels in wild  
315 parks, "supporting facilities, no recreation/play facilities" and "few facilities" were changed as  
316 "supporting facilities & recreation/play facilities" (holding other attributes' levels specified in wild park  
317 scenarios constant). This analysis explores effective changes of attribute levels in wild parks (i.e.,  
318 environmental interventions for wild parks) that would increase wild park preferences, offering practical  
319 solutions to park designers and managers about how to intervene to maximise wild park appreciation.

320 In order to check whether there were statistically significant differences between public and  
321 professional groups, parametric Independent Samples T test was used when both variables showed a  
322 normal distribution, and non-parametric Mann Whitney U test was used when one or two of the variables  
323 did not show normal distributions. To test if there were statistically significant differences between  
324 variables within each group, parametric Paired Samples T test was carried out if the difference between  
325 the variables to be tested was normal, and non-parametric Wilcoxon test was used when the difference  
326 between the variables to be tested was non-normal. Statistical significance was set at 0.05.

### 327 **3. Results**

#### 328 *3.1 Descriptive analysis of participant characteristics*

329 In the public group, participants were almost equally distributed by gender (Table 2). 36.1%, 40.8%  
330 and 23.1% of public participants respectively fall within younger adult (aged 18-34), middle-aged adult  
331 (aged 35-59), and older (aged 60+) groups. Undergraduate degree was the most represented education

332 group (43.5%) in the public sample. 68.0% of public participants were married. In the professional group,  
 333 male participants (55.0%) slightly outnumbered females (45.0%). The younger adult group was the  
 334 largest (60.0%). Postgraduate degree or higher was the most represented education group (65.0%). 45.0%  
 335 were married.

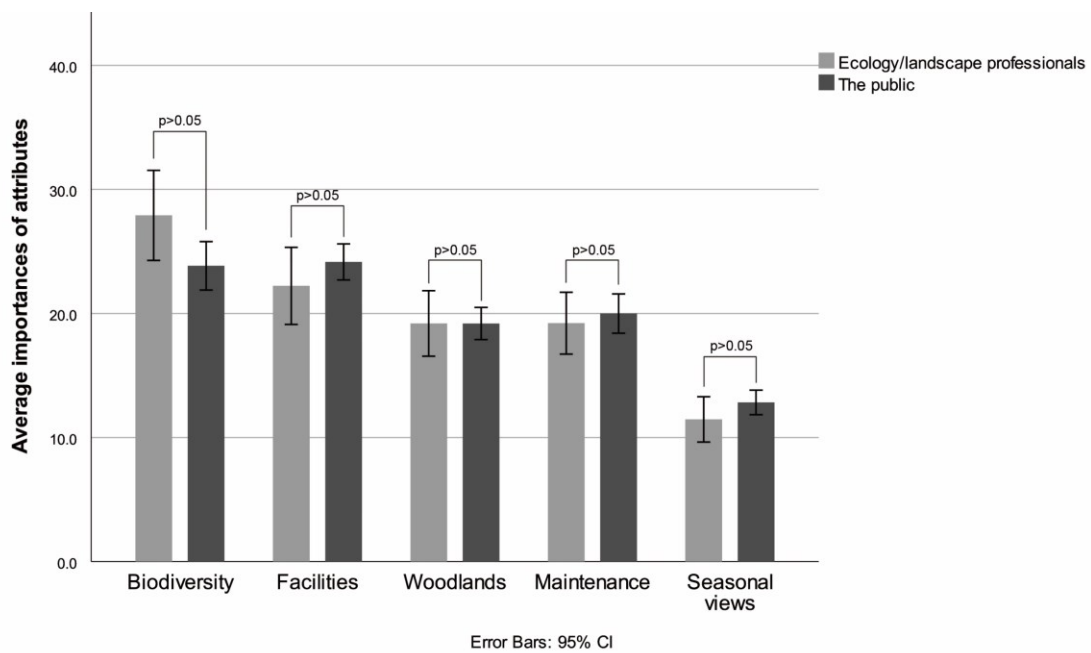
336 **Table 2.** Hangzhou participant characteristics.

	General public (N=147)		Ecology/landscape professional (N=40)	
	N	%	N	%
<b><i>Gender</i></b>				
Male	70	47.6	22	55.0
Female	77	52.4	18	45.0
<b><i>Age</i></b>				
Younger adults (Aged 18-34)	53	36.1	24	60.0
Middle-aged adults (Aged 35-59)	60	40.8	11	27.5
Older (Aged 60+)	34	23.1	5	12.5
<b><i>Education</i></b>				
High school or below	31	21.1	2	5.0
Junior college	32	21.8	3	7.5
Undergraduate degree	64	43.5	9	22.5
Postgraduate degree or higher	20	13.6	26	65.0
<b><i>Marital status</i></b>				
Married	100	68.0	18	45.0
Single/other (including cohabitated and divorced)	47	32.0	22	55.0

337 **3.2 Average importances of park attributes**

338 For the public group, “facilities” (24.2; 95% CI=22.7, 25.6) and “biodiversity” (23.8; 95% CI=21.9,  
 339 25.8) were the most important attributes (Fig. 4). These two attributes were followed, by “maintenance”  
 340 (20.0; 95% CI=18.4, 21.6) and “woodlands” (19.2; 95% CI=17.9, 20.5), which did not differ significantly  
 341 in importance from each other ( $p>0.05$ ; for details, see Table S1). “Seasonal views” was the least  
 342 important attribute relative to other attributes (12.8; 95% CI=11.8, 13.8). For professionals, “biodiversity”  
 343 (27.9; 95% CI=24.3, 31.5) was the most important attribute (Fig. 4). This was followed, by “facilities”

344 (22.2, 95% CI=19.1, 25.3), “maintenance” (19.2, 95% CI=16.7, 21.7), and “woodlands” (19.2, 95%  
 345 CI=16.6, 21.8), which did not differ significantly from each other in importance ( $p>0.05$ ; for details, see  
 346 Table S1). “Seasonal views” was the least important attribute compared to others (11.5, 95% CI=9.6,  
 347 13.3). There were no significant differences in the importance of any attribute between public and  
 348 professional groups (all  $ps>0.05$ . Fig. 4; for details, see Table S2).

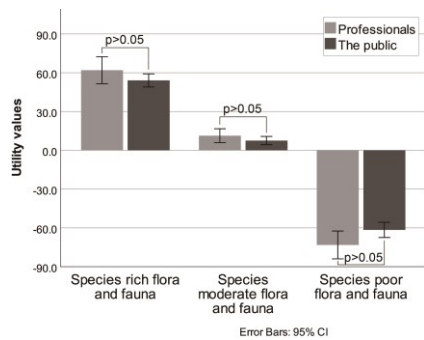


349  
 350 Fig. 4. Average importances of park attributes. The p values refer to the differences between the public versus professionals  
 351 regarding each attribute importance. For details of p values, see Table S1 and S2.

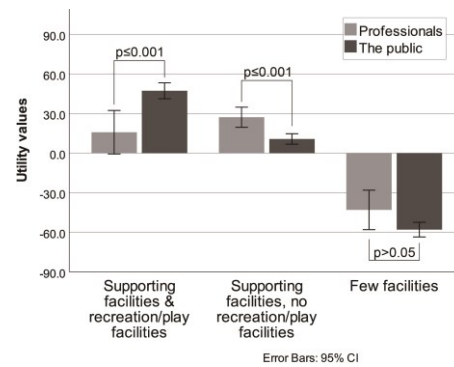
### 352 3.3 Preferences between wild and traditional parks

353 Utility value for each level of five attributes (Fig. 5) and tests of significant differences between  
 354 utility values show that “species rich flora and fauna,” “supporting facilities & recreation/play facilities,”  
 355 “open areas with some trees,” “well-maintained, neat-looking,” “autumn colourful foliage” and “spring  
 356 flowers” were the most preferred level(s) for their respective attributes in the public group (for details  
 357 see Table S3). For professionals, “species rich flora and fauna,” “supporting facilities, no recreation/play  
 358 facilities” and “supporting facilities & recreation/play facilities,” “open areas with some trees”  
 359 “moderate-maintained, less neat-looking,” and “autumn colourful foliage” were the most preferred

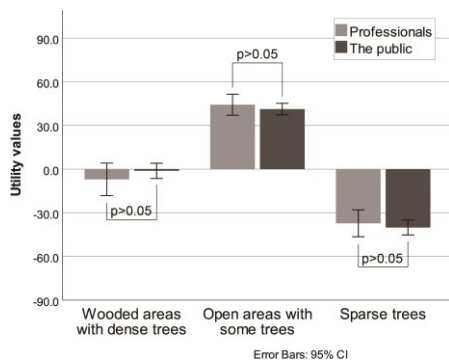
360 level(s) for their respective attributes (for details see Table S3). The public highly significantly preferred  
 361 “supporting facilities & recreation/play facilities” than professionals ( $p \leq 0.001$ ), and “supporting facilities,  
 362 no recreation/play facilities” was highly significantly favoured by professionals ( $p \leq 0.001$ , Fig. 5b).  
 363 “Moderate-maintained, less neat-looking” was significantly preferred by professionals ( $p \leq 0.05$ ), and  
 364 “low maintenance, wild-looking” was highly significantly preferred by this group ( $p \leq 0.001$ ), whereas  
 365 “well-maintained, neat-looking” was highly significantly preferred by the public ( $p \leq 0.001$ , Fig. 5d). The  
 366 public also significantly preferred “spring flowers” than professionals ( $p \leq 0.05$ , Fig. 5e; for details see  
 367 Table S4).



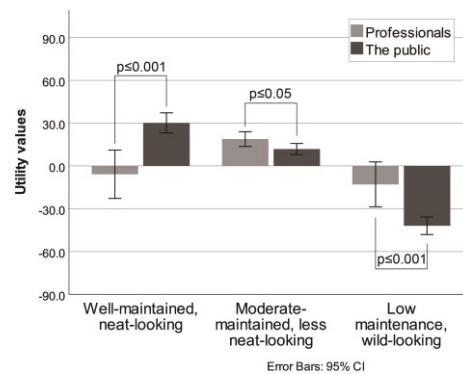
(a) Biodiversity



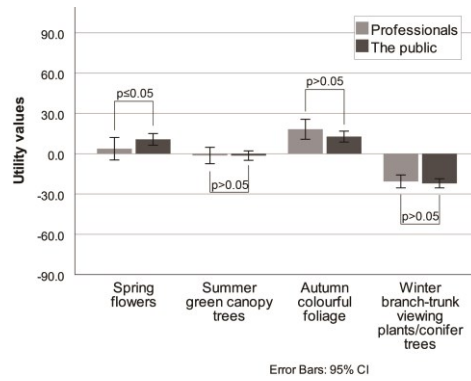
(b) Facilities



(c) Woodlands



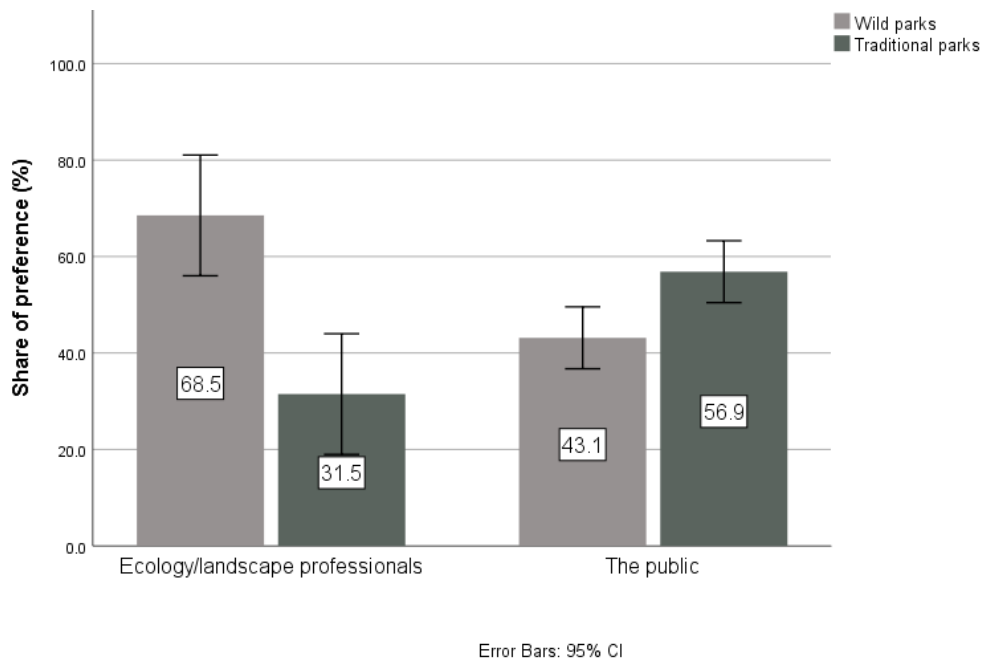
(d) Maintenance



(e) Seasonal views

368 **Fig. 5.** Utility value for each level of (a) biodiversity, (b) facilities, (c) woodlands, (d) maintenance, (e) seasonal views. The p  
 369 values indicate the differences between public and professionals regarding each attribute level. For details of p values, see Table  
 370 S3 and S4.

371 In the public group, traditional parks captured a share of preference at 56.9% (95% CI=50.4%,  
 372 63.3%), and wild parks received a preference share at 43.1% (95% CI=36.7%, 49.6%) (Fig. 6).  
 373 Traditional parks were significantly preferred than wild parks among the public (Wilcoxon test:  $p \leq 0.05$ ).  
 374 For professionals, wild parks received 68.5% of preference (95% CI=56.0%, 81.1%), which was about  
 375 twice higher than the preference share at 31.5% of traditional parks (95% CI=19.0%, 44.0%). Wild parks  
 376 were significantly preferred over traditional parks among professionals (Wilcoxon test:  $p \leq 0.01$ ).  
 377 Moreover, professionals highly significantly preferred wild parks more than the public (Mann Whitney  
 378 U test:  $p \leq 0.001$ ), and the public highly significantly preferred traditional parks in comparison to  
 379 professionals (Mann Whitney U test:  $p \leq 0.001$ ).



380

381

**Fig. 6.** Shares of preferences: comparing wild and traditional parks

382

### 3.4 Environmental interventions that would increase preferences for wild parks

383

Changing “biodiversity” levels in wild parks (baseline: “species rich flora and fauna,” see section

384

2.5) to “species moderate flora and fauna” and “species poor flora and fauna” would highly significantly

385

decrease preferences from 43.1% to 27.6% (Fig. 7) among the public (Wilcoxon test:  $p \leq 0.001$ ).

386

Traditional parks were still preferred over changed wild parks by the public (share of preference for

387

traditional parks: 72.4%. Fig. 8a). Professional preferences for wild parks decreased highly significantly

388

from 68.5% to 54.3% (Fig. 7) (Wilcoxon test:  $p \leq 0.001$ ). Traditional parks received a preference share at

389

45.7% (Fig. 8a).

390

Changing “facilities” levels in wild parks (baseline: “supporting facilities, no recreation/play

391

facilities” and “few facilities”) to “supporting facilities & recreation/play facilities” highly significantly

392

increased public wild park preferences from 43.1% to 59.5% (Fig. 7) (Wilcoxon test:  $p \leq 0.001$ ), and

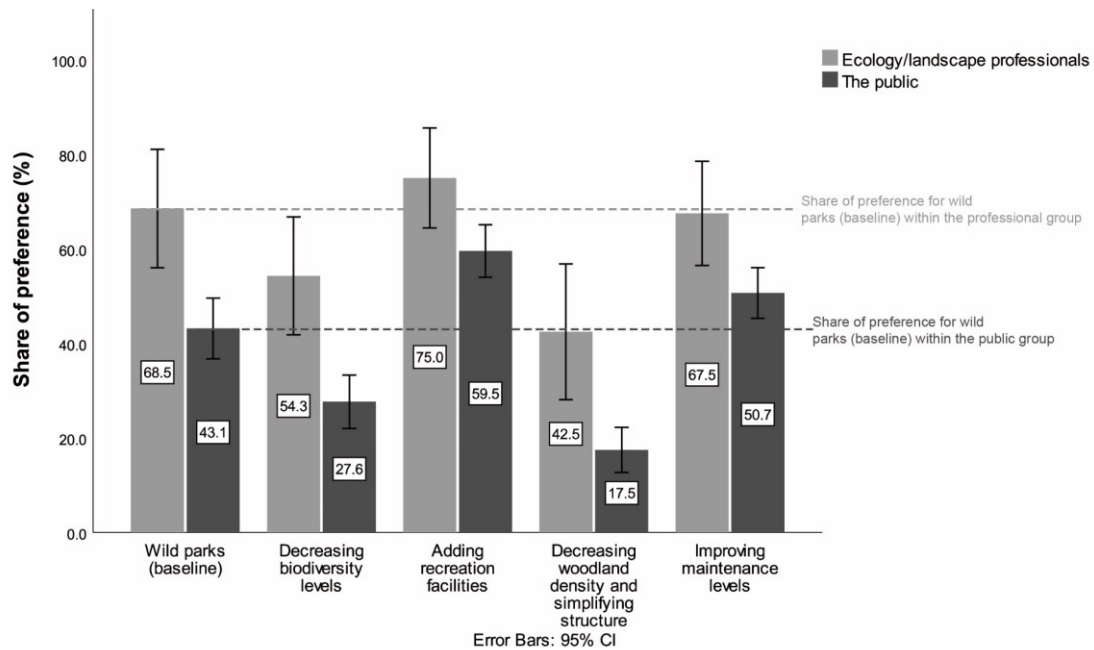
393

changed wild parks were preferred over traditional parks (share of preference for traditional parks: 40.5%.

394

Fig. 8b). No significant preference increase was found within professionals (Wilcoxon test:  $p > 0.05$ ).

395 Preferences for changed wild parks were about 3 times high than traditional parks (share of preference  
 396 for traditional parks: 25.0%, for changed wild parks: 75.0%. Fig. 8b).



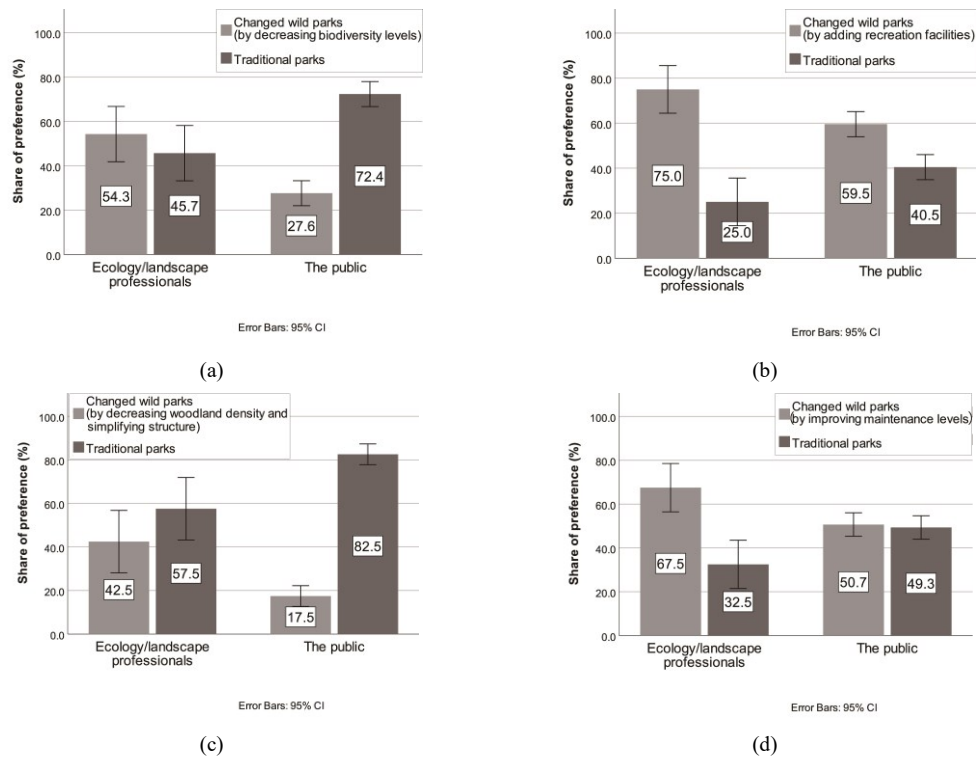
397

398 **Fig. 7.** Shares of preferences of wild parks (baseline), and shares of preferences of changed wild parks

399 The change from “wooded areas with dense trees” and “open areas with some trees” (baseline) to  
 400 “sparse trees” highly significantly decreased public wild park preferences from 43.1% to 17.5% (Fig. 7)  
 401 (Wilcoxon test:  $p \leq 0.001$ ), and preferences for traditional parks were about 5 times that of altered wild  
 402 parks (share of preference for traditional parks: 82.5%. Fig. 8c). For professionals, this change also highly  
 403 significantly decreased wild park preferences from 68.5% to 42.5% (Fig. 7) (Wilcoxon test:  $p \leq 0.001$ ),  
 404 and traditional parks obtained a preference share at 57.5% (Fig. 8c).

405 Changing from “moderate-maintained, less neat-looking” and “low-maintenance, wild-looking”  
 406 (baseline) in wild parks to “well-maintained, neat-looking” highly significantly increased public  
 407 preferences from 43.1% to 50.7% (Fig. 7) (Wilcoxon test:  $p \leq 0.001$ ), and traditional parks received a  
 408 preference share at 49.3% (Fig. 8d). For professionals, this change would not significantly improve  
 409 preferences for wild parks (Wilcoxon test:  $p > 0.05$ ), and traditional parks were less preferred than altered

410 wild parks (share of preference for traditional parks: 32.5%, for altered wild parks: 67.5%, Fig. 8d).



411 Fig. 8. Shares of preferences: comparing changed wild parks and traditional parks

412 **4. Discussion**

413 *4.1 Importance of biodiversity compared to other park attributes*

414 For the public in Hangzhou, both “facilities” and “biodiversity” were the most important park  
 415 attributes compared to other attributes. Public respondents highly valued good facilities, aligning with  
 416 the research from Jim and Chen (2006a) showing the importance of amenities in Chinese UGSs.  
 417 Meanwhile, public strong appreciation of biodiversity in parks revealed by our study echoes other  
 418 Chinese research (Gao et al., 2019; Yang, 2021). Gao et al., (2019) and Yang (2021) explored public  
 419 preferences for biodiversity in People’s Park in Baoji and Xi’xi Wetland Park in Hangzhou, respectively.  
 420 Their studies focused on a particular park and their findings of public appreciation of biodiversity are  
 421 site-based which limits general statements. Our study provides more general evidence of public  
 422 preferences for biodiversity in the urban park context in Hangzhou. Moreover, to our knowledge, this is



423 the first study to use the ACBC research method to investigate preferences for biodiversity in urban parks  
424 in China. The public's preference for biodiversity in Hangzhou may be attributed to environmental  
425 education directed towards the public. There are many popular environmental education institutions in  
426 Hangzhou such as "Zhejiang Wilderness" and "Wild Earth." At the same time, preferences for  
427 biodiversity might be associated with urban residents' desires for biodiverse natural environments. Rapid  
428 urbanisation in Hangzhou has damaged many local ecosystems, leading to a separation between human  
429 and biodiverse natural environments. For professionals, biodiversity was the most important attribute.  
430 This is unsurprising, since professionals who possess ecology/landscape knowledge tend to care about  
431 ecological aspects of parks. Ecology/landscape knowledge is known to have a positive influence on  
432 preferences for biodiversity (Qiu et al., 2013; Hwang et al., 2019).

433 From the practical perspective, public high preferences for facilities and biodiversity call attention  
434 to prioritising the two aspects in park design. Public high preferences for biodiversity partially support  
435 the emphasis on biodiversity in current park transformation in China. However, at the same time, park  
436 design should also aim to provide good facilities. Landscape designers should explore ways to promote  
437 the coexistence of biodiversity and facilities in spite of the possible conflicting relationship between the  
438 two. The design strategy of "cues to care," including adding placed fences, walking tracks, ecological-  
439 based recreation facilities (e.g., nature education signage, wildlife feeders and houses), etc., is a good  
440 choice (Nassauer, 1995; Kowarik and Langer, 2005; Hwang et al., 2019). Additionally, dividing parks  
441 into several zones with corresponding objectives and functions can enhance biodiversity and amenity in  
442 both.

#### 443 *4.2 Preferences between wild and traditional parks*

444 Our study reveals a preference for traditional over wild parks in Hangzhou public participants. This

445 echoes studies from Zheng et al., (2011), Hofmann et al., (2012), and Qiu et al., (2013), yet seems to  
446 show a difference with studies that have identified residents appreciate wilder UGSs (Jim and Chen,  
447 2006b; Hwang et al., 2019). The difference might be attributed to different methods used and different  
448 socio-economic and cultural contexts of study areas. Moreover, though biodiversity, as described as  
449 species richness in the questionnaire, was highly preferred by the public, wild parks were less attractive  
450 compared with traditional parks. This might indicate preferences for biodiversity at the species level do  
451 not mean preferences for wild parks at a larger spatial level, i.e., the ecosystem level. In our study, other  
452 features in wild parks such as low maintenance and few recreation amenities were not that attractive and  
453 counteracted the positive evaluation of biodiversity. For wild UGSs, traces of neglect and litter may mask  
454 positive biodiversity impacts (Nassauer, 1995; Fischer et al., 2018).

455       Among professionals, wild parks were more attractive than traditional parks, showing a difference  
456 with the public. This difference is also revealed by other studies (Zheng et al., 2011; Hofmann et al.,  
457 2012; Hwang et al., 2019). Related ecology/landscape knowledge might play a positive role as a  
458 mediating variable in shaping this difference, and professionals were probably better-informed about  
459 biodiversity benefits associated with some characteristics of wild parks, for example, the less manicured  
460 manner. This points to the importance of informative interpretive signs in wild parks to provide  
461 knowledge of biodiversity benefits associated with characteristics of wild parks. Communicating  
462 knowledge is a significant way to increase public acceptance of biodiversity and wild UGSs (Fischer et  
463 al., 2020). It is also crucial to continue environmental education, in particular, education about  
464 biodiversity benefits of wild parks, via different forms (e.g., social media, pamphlets, environmental  
465 centres, etc.) to achieve general public ecological literacy.

466 *4.3 Environmental interventions that would increase preferences for wild parks*

467 Our study shows public preferences for wild parks were enhanced by adding recreation facilities  
468 and improving maintenance levels, aligning with previous research about the importance of care in wild  
469 UGSs (Nassauer, 1995; Jorgensen et al., 2007; Hofmann et al., 2012; Ward Thompson et al., 2013).  
470 Future wild park designs should incorporate higher maintenance and recreation facilities based on  
471 ecological principles. This is not a means of changing wild parks into traditional parks, but rather a means  
472 of responding to human expectations in a way that benefits biodiversity. Following examples of “cues to  
473 care” for promoting the coexistence of biodiversity and facilities (see section 4.1), other examples of  
474 “cues to care” to indicate maintenance include mowing a strip along pathways, clear visible edgings, etc.  
475 (Nassauer, 1995). Natur Park Südgelände in Berlin is a good example in combining biodiversity and  
476 maintenance by defining three types of spaces: two types “clearings” and “groves” are to be maintained,  
477 and the “wild woods” type ensures unfettered natural succession (Kowarik and Langer, 2005).

#### 478 *4.4 Limitations and future recommendations*

479 The conjoint questionnaire was text-based and it relied on participants’ capability to imagine park  
480 scenarios, which might not be straightforward. Texts only may not be able to convert people’s perception  
481 of wild and traditional parks into perceptions of attributes and levels. Future work could consider adding  
482 images when introducing some attributes and levels. Participants might have had different interpretations  
483 of attributes and levels if images were used, and that different findings could have resulted. The limited  
484 and unbalanced sample size is acknowledged. Future research should incorporate more participants and  
485 achieve relatively more balanced samples.

## 486 **5. Conclusion**

487 The findings of this study report public and ecology/landscape professional appreciation of  
488 biodiversity in parks in China, providing supportive evidence for promoting biodiversity in urban parks.

489 Meanwhile, the study reveals the less attractiveness of wild parks compared to traditional parks in the  
490 public, although improving maintenance levels and adding recreation facilities in wild parks help to  
491 enhance their attractiveness. In contrast, professionals preferred the wild style more. Hence, professionals  
492 should consider this difference in their preferences compared to the public when designing wild parks in  
493 the future. To enhance public appreciation of wild parks, this study suggests public environmental  
494 education should be continued. From the practical perspective, incorporating “cues to care” (e.g.,  
495 ecological-based recreation facilities, mowing a strip along pathways to indicate maintenance, etc.)  
496 (Nassauer, 1995) in wild parks might be effective in enhancing Chinese public appreciation. This study  
497 could benefit future Chinese urban park design in searching for win-wins of biodiversity improvement  
498 and social expectations.

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