

A taxonomically detailed and large-scale view of the factors affecting on the distribution and abundance of tree species planted in private gardens of Christchurch city, New Zealand

Wei Quan¹, Jon J Sullivan^{Corresp., 1}, Colin D Meurk², Glenn H Stewart³

¹ Department of Pest-management and Conservation, Lincoln University, Lincoln, Canterbury, New Zealand

² Manaaki-Whenua, Landcare Research, Lincoln, Canterbury, New Zealand

³ Department of Environmental Management, Faculty of Environment, Society and Design, Lincoln University, Lincoln, Canterbury, New Zealand

Corresponding Author: Jon J Sullivan

Email address: Jon.Sullivan@lincoln.ac.nz

A city's planted trees, the great majority of which are in private gardens, play a fundamental role in shaping a city's wild ecology, ecosystem functioning, and ecosystem services. However, studying tree diversity across a city's many thousands of separate private gardens is logistically challenging. After the disastrous 2010--2011 earthquakes in Christchurch, New Zealand, over 7,000 homes were abandoned and a botanical survey of these gardens was contracted by the Government's Canterbury Earthquake Recovery Authority (CERA) prior to buildings being demolished. This unprecedented access to private gardens across the 443.9 hectares "Residential Red Zone" area of eastern Christchurch is a unique opportunity to explore the composition of trees in private gardens across a large area of a New Zealand city. We analysed these survey data to describe the effects of housing age, socio-economics, human population density, and general soil quality, on tree abundance, species richness, and the proportion of indigenous and exotic species. We found that while most of the tree species were exotic, about half of the individual trees were local native species. There is an increasing realisation of the native tree species values among Christchurch citizens and gardens in more recent areas of housing had a higher proportion of smaller/younger native trees. However, the same sites had proportionately more exotic trees, by species and individuals, amongst their larger planted trees than older areas of housing. The majority of the species, and individuals, of the larger (≥ 10 cm DBH) trees planted in gardens still tend to be exotic species. In newer suburbs, gardens in wealthy areas had more native trees than gardens from poorer areas, while in older suburbs, poorer areas had more native big trees than wealthy areas. In combination, these describe, in detail unparalleled for at least in New Zealand, how the tree infrastructure of the city varies in space and time. This lays the groundwork for better understanding of how wildlife distribution and abundance, wild plant regeneration, and

ecosystem services, are affected by the city's trees.

1 **A taxonomically detailed and large-scale**
2 **view of the factors affecting on the**
3 **distribution and abundance of tree species**
4 **planted in private gardens of Christchurch**
5 **city, New Zealand**

6 **Wei Quan¹, Jon J. Sullivan², Colin D. Meurk³, and Glenn H. Stewart⁴**

7 ¹**Department of Pest-management and Conservation, Lincoln University, PO Box 85084,**
8 **Lincoln, New Zealand**

9 ²**Department of Pest-management and Conservation, Lincoln University, PO Box 85084,**
10 **Lincoln, New Zealand**

11 ³**Manaaki-Whenua, Landcare Research, Lincoln, New Zealand**

12 ⁴**Department of Environmental Management, Faculty of Environment, Society and**
13 **Design, Lincoln University, Lincoln, New Zealand**

14 Corresponding author:

15 Second Author²

16 Email address: Jon.Sullivan@lincoln.ac.nz

17 **ABSTRACT**

18 A city's planted trees, the great majority of which are in private gardens, play a fundamental role in
19 shaping a city's wild ecology, ecosystem functioning, and ecosystem services. However, studying tree
20 diversity across a city's many thousands of separate private gardens is logistically challenging. After the
21 disastrous 2010–2011 earthquakes in Christchurch, New Zealand, over 7,000 homes were abandoned
22 and a botanical survey of these gardens was contracted by the Government's Canterbury Earthquake
23 Recovery Authority (CERA) prior to buildings being demolished. This unprecedented access to private
24 gardens across the 443.9 hectare "Residential Red Zone" area of eastern Christchurch is a unique
25 opportunity to explore the composition of trees in private gardens across a large area of a New Zealand
26 city. We analysed these survey data to describe the effects of housing age, socio-economics, human
27 population density, and general soil quality, on tree abundance, species richness, and the proportion of
28 indigenous and exotic species. We found that while most of the tree species were exotic, about half of
29 the individual trees were local native species. There is an increasing realisation of the native tree species
30 values among Christchurch citizens and gardens in more recent areas of housing had a higher proportion
31 of smaller/younger native trees. However, the same sites had proportionately more exotic trees, by
32 species and individuals, amongst their larger planted trees than older areas of housing. The majority of
33 the species, and individuals, of the larger (≥ 10 cm DBH) trees planted in gardens still tend to be exotic
34 species. In newer suburbs, gardens in wealthy areas had more native trees than gardens from poorer
35 areas, while in older suburbs, poorer areas had more native big trees than wealthy areas. In combination,
36 these describe, in detail unparalleled for at least in New Zealand, how the tree infrastructure of the city
37 varies in space and time. This lays the groundwork for better understanding how wildlife distribution and
38 abundance, wild plant regeneration, and ecosystem services, are affected by the city's trees.

39 **INTRODUCTION**

40 Planted trees form a natural foundation for urban ecosystems (Royal Commission on Environmental
41 Pollution, 2007). The density, age, health, species traits, and spatial arrangement of a city's trees all
42 play important roles in determining a city's wild biology, ecosystem functioning, and ecosystem services
43 (Rowntree and Nowak, 1991; McPherson and Rowntree, 1993; Royal Commission on Environmental

44 Pollution, 2007). For example, the composition of a city's wild animal and fungal communities will be
45 affected by the shelter and food provided by a city's trees (e.g., Beatley, 2011). Wild plant regeneration in
46 a city's wild places is also strongly influenced by the trees planted around these wild places, and which
47 of these produce viable pollen and seeds (Whelan et al., 2006; Sullivan et al., 2009; Doody et al., 2010;
48 Overdyck and Clarkson, 2012). Increasing research focus is also being placed on the importance of urban
49 trees for human health and wellbeing (Attwell, 2000; Ulrich, 1984; Ulrich et al., 1991; Fraser et al., 2000).

50 As urban areas increase globally, private gardens play an increasingly important role as they can
51 potentially make contributions to urban biodiversity (Sawyer, 2005; Smith et al., 2005; Stewart et al.,
52 2009), ecosystem functioning (Sperling and Lortie, 2010) and providing habitats for native wildlife
53 (Cameron, 2012). Private gardens are common in urban areas and comprise a substantial proportion of
54 the urban area (Gaston et al., 2005; van Heezik et al., 2013). The estimated proportions of private garden
55 area in cities ranges from 16% in Stockholm, Sweden (Colding et al., 2006), through to around 25%
56 in UK (Loram et al., 2007) and 36% in Dunedin, New Zealand (Mathieu et al., 2007). Private gardens
57 are therefore a large proportion of all urban green space of urban area, such as 35% in Edinburgh and
58 47% in Leicester (Loram et al., 2007). Considering that private gardens are probably the biggest single
59 contributor to urban green space (Gaston et al., 2005), they may also be the largest source of planted trees
60 (Smith et al., 2006).

61 Understanding the ecology of a city's nature, and ecosystem services, requires a detailed knowledge
62 of the city's planted trees, and that means documenting the trees in private gardens. The logistics of
63 negotiating access onto thousands of different private properties makes it difficult to study the tree and
64 shrub composition of private urban gardens in high spatial and taxonomic detail across large areas of
65 cities. Knowledge of city tree scapes is therefore often limited to smaller spatial scales (van Heezik et al.,
66 2013), or to what can be learned from studying street side trees (Mulvaney, 2001), or registered notable
67 trees (Wyse et al., 2015). Larger spatial scale analyses can be achieved from aerial and satellite imagery
68 but with that comes reduced taxonomic resolution (Clarkson et al., 2007; Mathieu et al., 2007).

69 Through unfortunate events, Christchurch city in New Zealand was able to provide a large-scale,
70 multi-suburb, taxonomically detailed look at the trees planted in the city's private gardens. On 4 September
71 2010, the city was shaken by a 7.1 magnitude earthquake centred 50 km west of the city, and, over the
72 next year, thousands of subsequent quakes, including a shallow and deadly magnitude 6.3 quake directly
73 under city on 22 February 2011 (Bradley and Cubrinovski, 2011; Morgenroth and Armstrong, 2012;
74 Harding and Jellyman, 2015). The considerable damage to properties and infrastructure led to large areas
75 of the city, including more than 7,000 homes, being purchased by the central New Zealand government,
76 the largest contiguous area being 443.9 hectares of the city's eastern suburbs.

77 The Canterbury Earthquake Recovery Authority (CERA) was established to manage the demolition
78 and rebuild of the damaged parts of the city (Vallance and Tait, 2013). CERA contracted a botanical
79 survey of all the established garden trees in what became known as Christchurch's "Residential Red
80 Zone". This survey informed CERA's subsequent management of the area and care was taken during
81 building demolition to leave as many established garden trees as possible.

82 A number of factors influence planting choices in private gardens (Shaw et al., 2017; van Heezik et al.,
83 2013). These factors include social patterns (Caldicott, 1997), marketing influences (Shaw et al., 2017),
84 environmental knowledge (Head and Muir, 2005), and economic conditions (Daniels and Kirkpatrick,
85 2006). The vegetation composition and structure are related to the householder socio-economic status,
86 as well as their motivations and attitudes (van Heezik et al., 2013). Several studies have explored
87 environmental attitudes on gardens and planting (Head and Muir, 2004, 2005; Zagorski et al., 2004; Lohr
88 and Pearson-Mims, 2005). One study showed a strong relationship between gardeners' values and the
89 species composition of their gardens, with the gardeners who have pro-environmental views more likely
90 to have more native plants in their gardens (Zagorski et al., 2004).

91 The large damaged areas of Christchurch city offered an unusual large-scale and detailed opportunity
92 to examine the tree and shrub composition of a city's private gardens. What areas of the city have
93 the highest density and diversity of trees and shrubs? To what extent is this affected by housing age,
94 socio-economics, human population density, and general soil quality? How do these factors affect the
95 proportion of indigenous and exotic tree species planted in private gardens?

96 Specifically, we address the following questions.

97 1. What is the composition of residential garden trees in eastern Christchurch?

- 98 2. Do younger suburbs have higher native tree abundance and species richness than older suburbs?
- 99 3. Do social factors (human population density and economic deprivation) affect tree abundance and
100 richness, and the proportion of native to exotic trees?
- 101 4. Does soil versatility (a measure of soil suitability for crop cultivation) have a positive effect on
102 native tree abundance and richness?

103 METHODS

104 Study sites

105 Christchurch is the third largest city in New Zealand, with a resident population of over 400,000 people.
106 Internationally, Christchurch is a young city, founded in 1850 (Wilson, 1989). It is a coastal city located on
107 the relatively dry eastern side of the South Island, mostly built on a mosaic of shingle lobes deposited by
108 the Waimakariri River to the north, interspersed and overlaid with swamplands, waterways, and sandhills
109 (Wilson et al., 2005). There are a range of natural habitats within the built city, including wetlands,
110 coastal habitats, grasslands, drylands, hills and one small remnant of old growth forest (Christchurch City
111 Council, 2000). The climate is cool temperate and oceanic (McGann, 1983). Christchurch has a relatively
112 low mean annual rainfall of around 660 mm although rain falls all year round, often interspersed in the
113 summer months with hot and desiccating foehn winds (McGann, 1983) (Fig. 1).

114 The Residential Red Zone was a public exclusion zone created on 23rd June 2011 in eastern
115 Christchurch after the 2010–2011 earthquakes. All houses in the most damaged areas were directed to
116 be removed by CERA and, as much as possible, the garden trees were saved. The remaining vegetation
117 includes most of the larger ornamental trees planted in the private gardens, and in adjacent parks. Our
118 research focuses on the 14 suburbs along the Avon River in eastern Christchurch that make up the largest
119 contiguous area of the residential red zone, at 443.90 hectares (Fig. 2).

Figure 1. Map showing the location of Christchurch (left top) in New Zealand and the location of the Residential Red Zone in Christchurch.

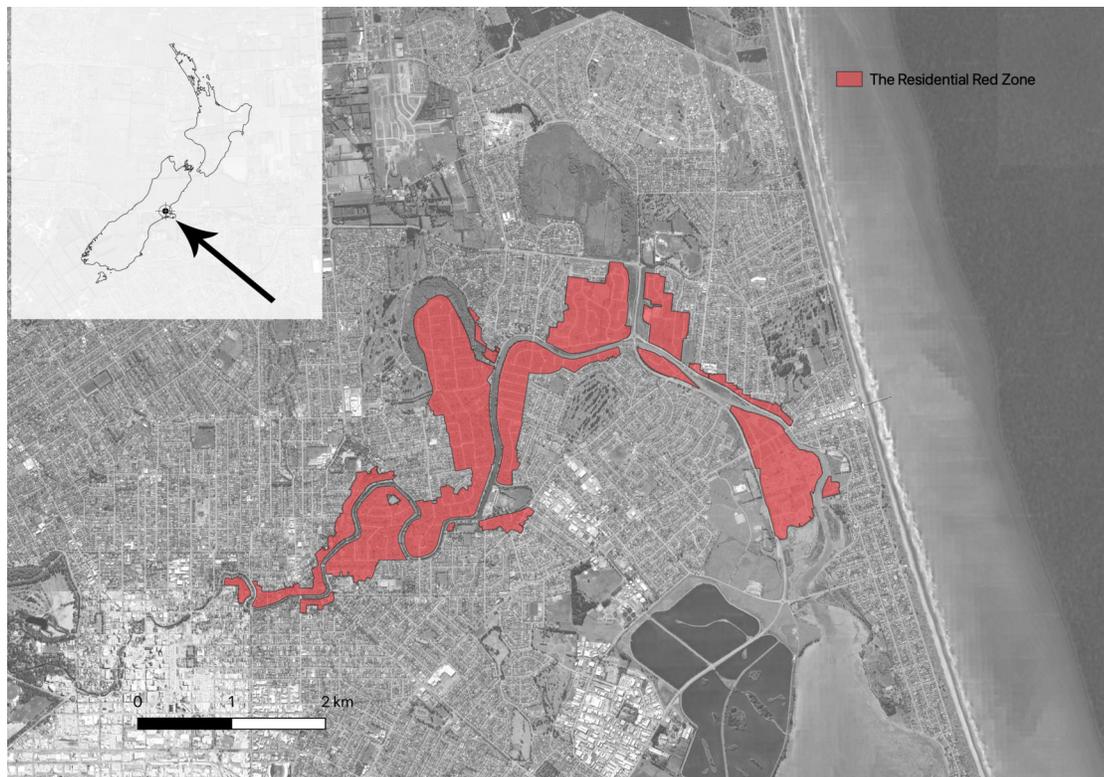
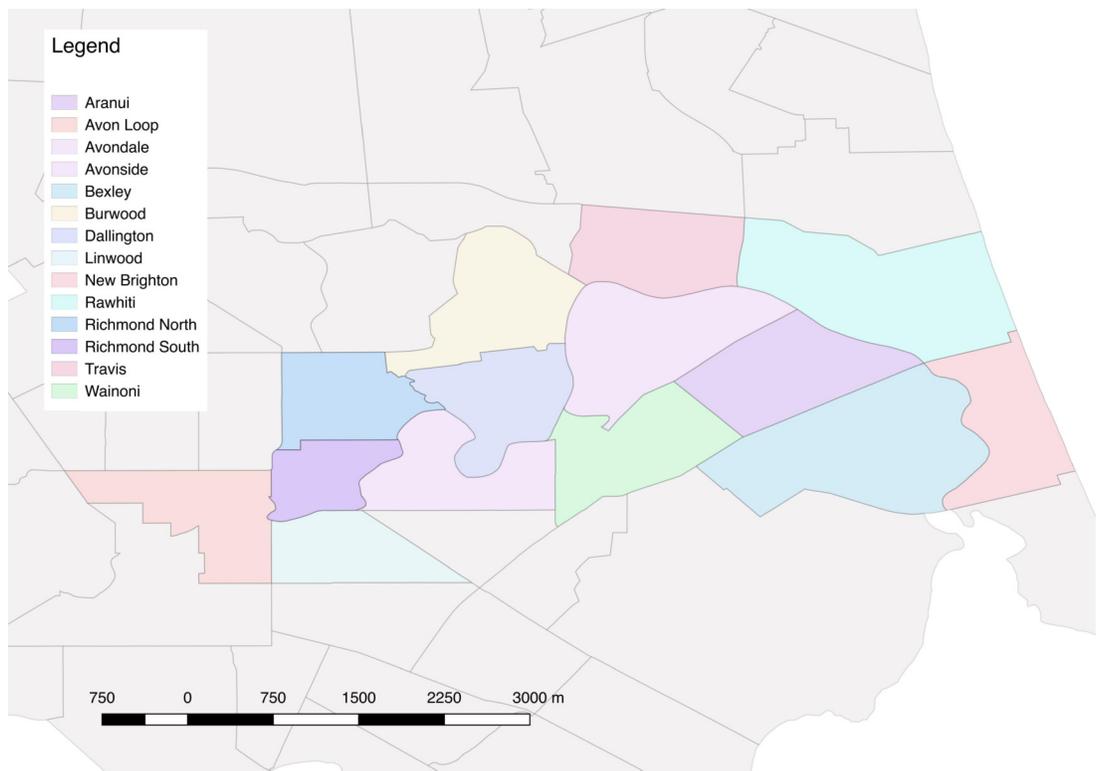


Figure 2. Map showing the 14 suburbs in Residential Red Zone area of eastern Christchurch.



120 **Data sources**

121 ***Tree map***

122 Tree inventory data from the Residential Red Zone were provided by CERA as GIS files. The garden
 123 tree inventory was managed for CERA by Treotech Specialist Treecare Ltd. This map contains 27,698
 124 mapped trees and large shrubs, identified to species (or, in some cases genus) from the > 7,000 private
 125 properties acquired by CERA. Some DBH (Diameter at Breast Height) values were unrealistically big,
 126 or small, indicating some data entry errors. Unrealistic data values were filtered and the data with DBH
 127 values between 5 cm and 2 m, inclusive, were used in the analysis. Most of the DBH data (18925, 97%)
 128 were used in this research.

129 We split the tree inventory dataset into a 100 m × 100 m square grid across the study site, so that we
 130 could standardise the scale of this and other variables for our analysis.

131 ***Population data***

132 The human population data came from the 2013 Census from Statistics NZ (<https://stats.govt.nz>) (Statistics New Zealand, 2013). Resident population density per census meshblock was applied to
 133 each 100 m × 100 m square grid across the study site. When more than one census meshblock overlapped
 134 a grid cell, an average value was calculated proportional to the area that each meshblock occupied in the
 135 grid square. Figure 3A shows the distribution of population densities across the study area.
 136

137 ***Economic Deprivation data***

138 Economic deprivation data came from the New Zealand Index of Socio-economic Deprivation for
 139 Individuals (NZiDep) which was made in 2013 (Atkinson et al., 2014). This index is applied to the same
 140 meshblocks as the population census data. NZDep2013 deprivation scale is from 1 to 10 in which 1 is
 141 least deprived and 10 is most deprived. As with the human population values, economic deprivation values
 142 were applied to a 100 m × 100 m square grid across the study site. Figure 3B shows the distribution of
 143 deprivation values in the study area.

144 **Soil data**

145 Soil data was obtained from the soil map of Christchurch City from the NZ Soil Survey Report 16 held by
146 Manaaki Whenua-Landcare Research (Webb T.H., 2006). We used the soil versatility rating as a measure
147 of the overall quality of the soil conditions. The definition of versatility here is the ability of land to
148 support the production and management of a range of crop plants on a sustained yield basis and is mainly
149 assessed in terms of physical soil characteristics (Webb T.H., 2006). It assumes that nutrient and soil
150 moisture limitations are overcome by fertiliser application and irrigation (Webb T.H., 2006), as will likely
151 be the case in private gardens. This data set uses five ranked soil versatility classes, from Class 1 (very
152 high versatility) through to Class 5 (very low versatility). Figure 3C maps the range of soil versatility
153 values across the study area.

154 **Housing maximum age**

155 To assess the range of garden ages in the study area, all the grids were assigned the year in which houses
156 were first built. This was extracted manually for every 100 m × 100 m grid square from the historical aerial
157 photography layers available on the Canterbury Maps website (<https://canterburymaps.govt.nz>).
158 The time ranges available in the aerial photography were from 1940–2010 excluding 1950–1954.
159 The earliest year in which more than three houses were established was used as the maximum garden
160 age for each grid. This avoided the bias created by single old farm houses that were present in rural parts
161 of the city prior to suburban house subdivisions being built. Figure 3E maps the range of housing ages
162 across the study area.

163 **Plant nomenclature**

164 In general, plant names were made consistent with Ngā Tipu o Aotearoa, the New Zealand Plant Names
165 Database (<https://nzflora.landcareresearch.co.nz>). A group of plants (766 individuals,
166 2.77%) could not be identified by the surveyors and were named "other sp" in the database. Because
167 native plants in gardens could be reliably identified by local botanical contractors, it is assumed that the
168 biostatus of unidentified plants was 'exotic' for the analysis. To analyse the data, all unknown species
169 recorded as 'Other sp' were conservatively treated as one species.

170 **Plant biostatus**

171 New Zealand-wide plant biostatus data came from the New Zealand Organisms Register (<http://www.nzor.org.nz>)
172 and has three biostatus categories, 'Endemic', 'Native', and 'Naturalised'. All
173 the trees categorised as 'Native' or 'Exotic' were then further split into local native categories: "Native
174 to Christchurch" or "Non-native to Christchurch" (J. Sullivan and Colin D. Meurk, pers. obs.), and
175 "Naturalised" or non-naturalised cultivated "Exotic" (Mahon, 2007; Gatehouse, 2008). For trees only
176 identified to genus (1656, 8.48%) where the genus contained no native species, biostatus was "Exotic".
177 Similarly, if the genus only contained native species, the biostatus was conservatively assigned to "Non-
178 native to Christchurch". Where the genus contains species that are found in other countries as well as
179 New Zealand, but in which 75% of the species, wild or cultivated, known to be in NZ are native (based on
180 the New Zealand Plants Biosecurity Index Version: 2.0.0, 2014 Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry),
181 they were recorded as "Non-native to Christchurch". Otherwise they were recorded as "Exotic".

182 **Analysis**

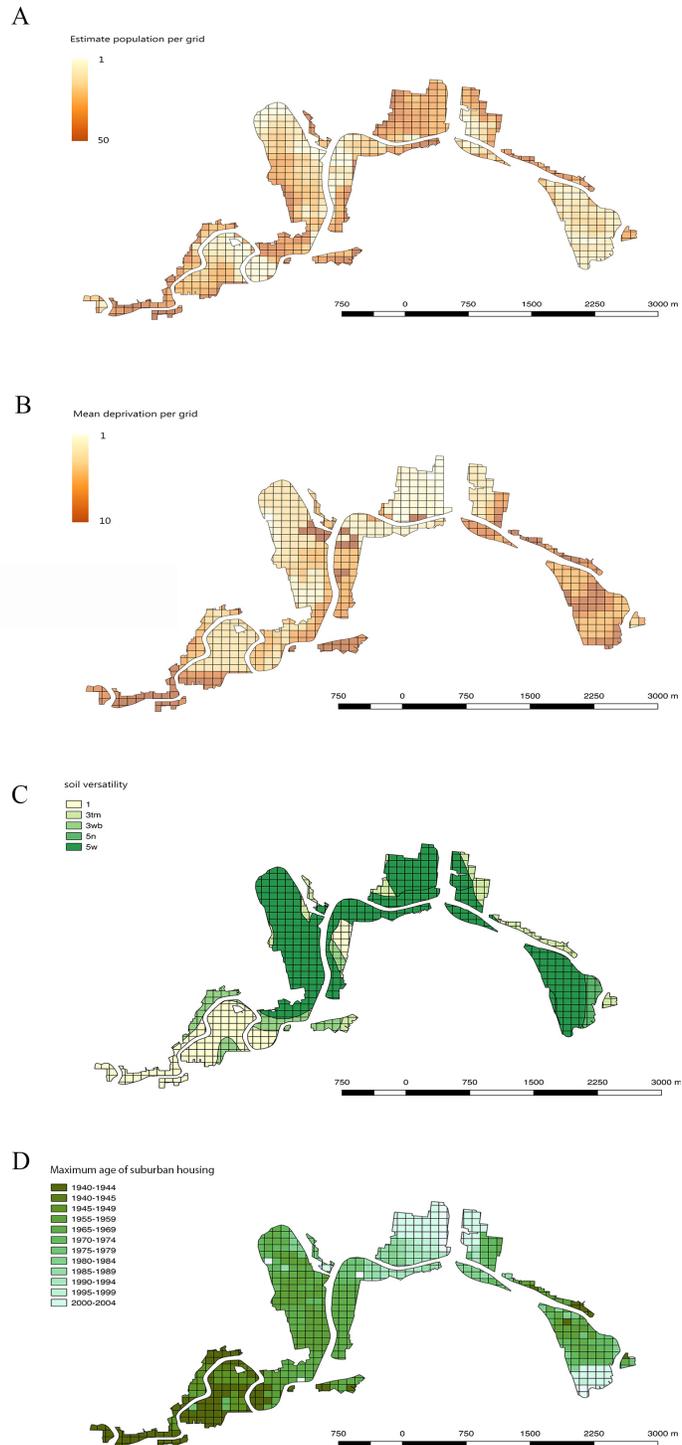
183 Package 'AICcmodavg' (Mazerolle, 2017) was used in R (R Core Team, 2017) to compare plausible
184 generalised linear models (GLMs) involving the factors human population, economic deprivation, soil
185 versatility, age of suburban housing, and total tree number (all measured per 100 m × 100 m grid square).
186 This package includes functions to implement model selection and multi-model inferences based on
187 Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC) and the second-order AIC (AICc). When the difference between
188 AICc values is ≥ 2 , the model with smaller AICc value was considered the best model.

189 Several models were compared in the analyses of both native and exotic big (DBH ≥ 10 cm) and
190 small (DBH < 10 cm) trees, such as an all three interactions model, all two-order interactions model, two-
191 order interactions without human population, two-order interactions without versatility model, two-order
192 interactions without established year model, and a no interactions models.

193 Another package 'MuMIn' was applied in R (R Core Team, 2017) to average the best models. This
194 package averages models based on model weights derived from AICc.

195 For plotting model predictions, near minimum and maximum values of each factor were selected. For
196 human population, this was a minimum population was 0 and a maximum was 36 per grid cell. For tree

Figure 3. Maps showing human population, economic deprivation, soil versatility and maximum age of suburban housing in all 100 m × 100 m grid squares across the Residential Red Zone study area in eastern Christchurch. A: Estimated resident human population per grid cell, B: Mean economic deprivation per grid cell, C: Mean soil versatility per grid cell, D: Maximum age of suburban housing per grid cell.



197 number, it was 7–21 trees per grid cell, for soil versatility 3–5, and for economic deprivation, 3–7. The
 198 age of oldest suburban housing was plotted for 1940 and 2000.

199 RESULTS

200 Species composition

201 There were 413 identified taxa (species or genus) recorded in the 14 suburbs of the Christchurch Residential
 202 Red Zone area. Exotic plants (naturalised species and exotics only cultivated) made up 80.6% (333) of
 203 taxa, while only about 11% were native to Christchurch (Fig.4). However, for the individual trees, over
 204 half of them were native, mostly trees native to Christchurch (Fig.4).

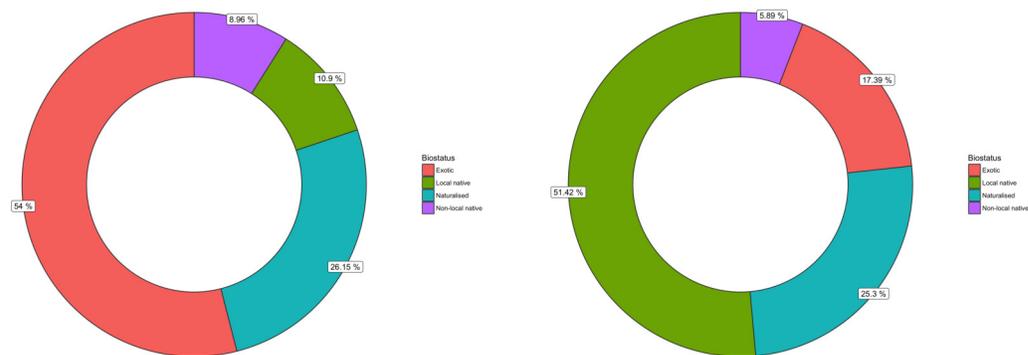


Figure 4. Percentage of tree species (left) and individual trees (right) with different biostatus in the Christchurch Residential Red Zone area.

205 Of the different suburbs, Avonloop had the most trees mapper per hectare (21.8 trees per hectare,
 206 including 7.9 native trees and 13.9 exotic trees), New Brighton followed with 19.5 trees per hectare
 207 and third was Linwood with 17.8 trees per hectare. Dallington, Avondale, Bexley, Burwood and Travis
 208 suburbs, all of which contain areas of relatively recent housing subdivisions, had a low TPH which were
 209 all under 4 trees mapped per hectare (Fig. 5, Table 1).

210 Planting changes in Red Zone

211 *DBH (Diameter at breast height) of exotic and native trees*

212 Comparing the DBH distributions of all exotic and all native trees showed that trees with large DBH
 213 were more likely to be exotic (Figure6). The DBH of most native trees was under 50 cm. There were
 214 13% more native trees than exotic trees for trees whose DBH was under 30 cm. In contrast, for trees
 215 with DBH over 30 cm, there were 7.8% more exotic than native ones. This suggests that native trees in
 216 these gardens smaller stature as adults than the exotics, and/or that a higher proportion them are of more
 217 recently planted (they are younger than the exotics).

218 *Changes of native species and native individual trees*

219 Overall, the proportion of plant species that were native changed little regardless of housing age (Figure
 220 7). In the oldest areas of the city, natives made up 55% of the garden tree species. In the most recently
 221 established suburbs, this was 60%, an insignificant difference.

222 The same result was seen for individual trees. Overall, there were no big changes from 1940s to 2000s.
 223 The percentage of individual native trees in 2000 was still was under 60%(Figure 7).

224 *Different sizes of native trees*

225 Greater differences were seen when I divided the trees into large trees (DBH \geq 10cm) and small trees
 226 (DBH<10cm). The percentage of big tree species that were native dropped from ca. 50% to ca. 40%

Figure 5. Maps showing big exotic trees, big native trees, small exotic trees and small native trees in the Christchurch residential red zone area, using a 100 m × 100 m grid. A: Density of big exotic trees per grid cell (DBH ≥ 10 cm), B: Big native trees per grid cell, C: Small exotic trees per grid cell (DBH < 10 cm), D: Small native trees per grid cell.

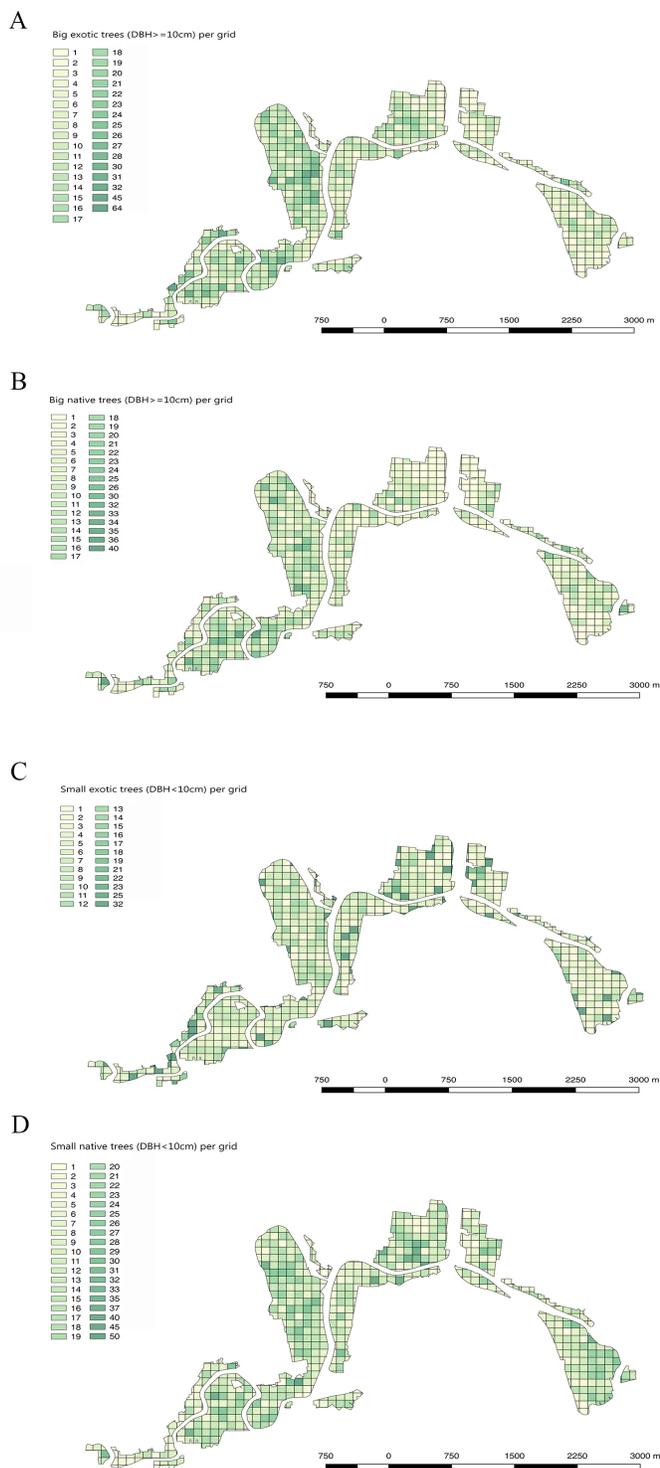


Table 1. The tree densities of the residential red zone areas in different Christchurch suburbs. TPH is trees per hectare.

Suburb	Area(ha)	Native/TPH	Exotic/TPH	Total/TPH
Linwood	2.8	14/4.9	36/12.8	50/17.8
Richmond North	8.3	30/3.6	78/9.4	108/13
Aranui	14.4	40/2.8	68/4.7	108/7.5
Wainoni	7.8	30/3.8	65/8.3	95/12.1
Richmond South	18.7	38/2	92/4.9	130/7
Avonloop	3.7	29/7.9	51/13.9	80/21.8
Avonside	50	54/1	153/3	207/4.1
Dallington	62.2	62/1	158/2.5	220 3.5
New Brighton	2.7	20/7.3	33/12.1	53/19.5
Avondale	57.3	50/0.9	149/2.6	199/3.4
Rawhiti	35.3	45/1.3	115/3.3	160/4.5
Bexley	52.6	49/0.9	116/2.2	165/3.1
Burwood	71.3	67/0.9	195/2.7	262/3.7
Travis	56.1	56/1	127/2.3	183/3.3

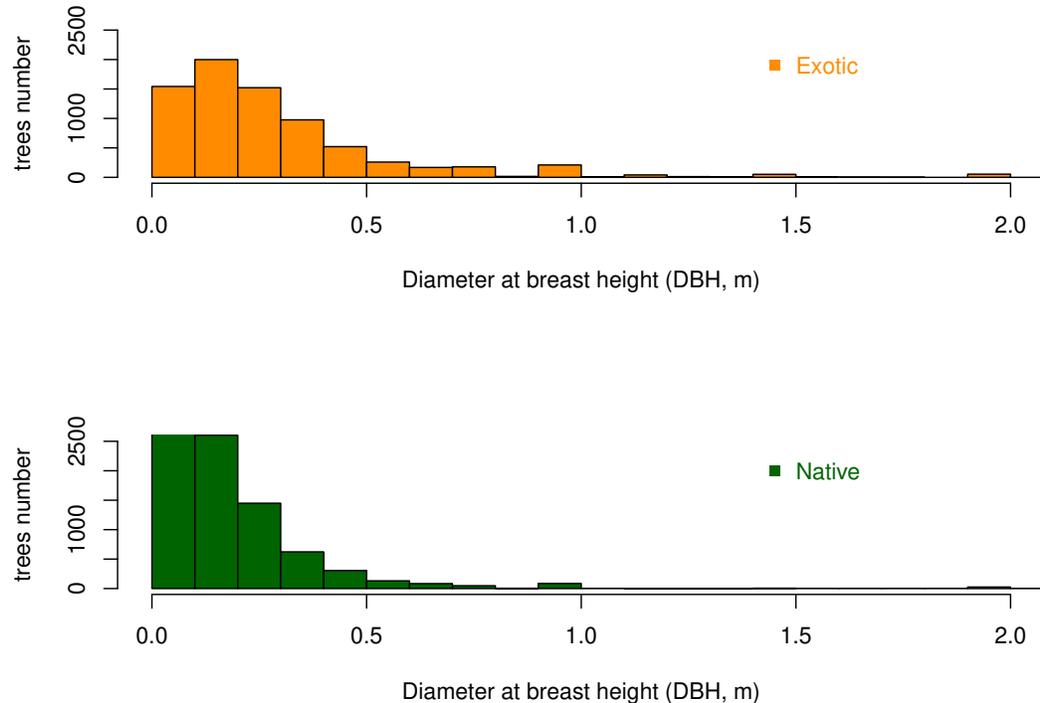


Figure 6. The DBH (Diameter at breast height) distribution of both exotic and native trees. Only DBH values between 5 cm and 2 m are included.

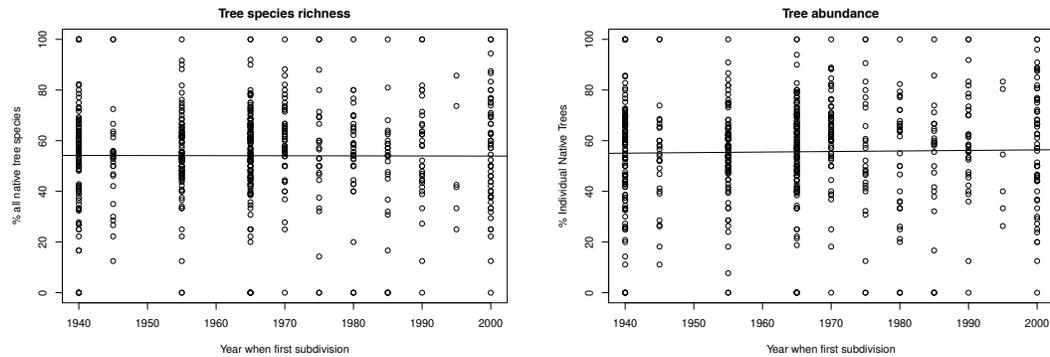


Figure 7. Percentage of tree species and individuals that were native, plotted against the decade in which each 100 m by 100 m grid square was first developed for suburban housing. The left graph shows the percentage of native species, and the right graph shows the percentage of all individual trees. Neither relationship is statistically significant (in part because there were different responses by big and small trees, see Fig. 8).

227 from older to younger subdivisions (Figure 8). The percentage of big individual trees that were native
 228 showed a similar trend (Figure 8).

229 In comparison, for small trees, the percentage of both native species richness and individual trees
 230 increased about 10% in the past 60 years.

231 **Environmental factors affecting garden tree composition**

232 Tables 2 and 3 show the results of my generalised linear models assessed the combined effects of human
 233 population density, soil versatility, economic deprivation, housing age, and total tree density on the
 234 number of native and exotic trees per 100 m × 100 m grid square. Large trees (DBH ≥ 10cm) and small
 235 trees (DBH < 10cm) were analysed separately. All factors were included in some or all of the best models
 236 (within 2 AICc values of the best fitting model). The next sections explore the trends in more detail.

237 ***Proportion of small native trees***

238 The proportion of small native trees increased from old to new suburbs in both low and high deprivation
 239 areas (Figure 9). For small native trees, human population density is an important factor which increased
 240 their percentage especially in younger subdivisions. For economic deprivation, at least in the last 40 years,
 241 high deprivation areas had a higher proportion of small native trees than low deprivation areas.

242 When the value for resident human population density is 0, the sites can be treated as public parks
 243 or reserves. These areas had the highest percentage of small native trees compared with areas with
 244 higher population density (meaning more private gardens). The percentage of small native trees in these
 245 areas of public parks/reserves was lower in recently established low deprivation areas than recent higher
 246 deprivation areas.

247 ***Proportion of big native trees***

248 In the oldest areas of housing, higher human population had a higher proportion of big native trees than
 249 low population areas (Figure 10). As population density increased, the proportion of big native trees in
 250 high deprivation areas started to decrease. As soil versatility increased, the proportion of big native trees
 251 also increased in low deprivation area.

252 Overall there was a decline in the proportion of big trees that were native in new subdivisions. This
 253 decline was most pronounced in low deprivation areas.

254 **DISCUSSION**

255 The Christchurch residential red zone tree survey reveals substantial spatial, and temporal, variation in the
 256 structure of the city's tree scape in private gardens (Fig. 5, 9, 10). Some of this structure has the potential
 257 to influence the city's wild biology, ecosystem functioning, and ecosystem services. For example, some

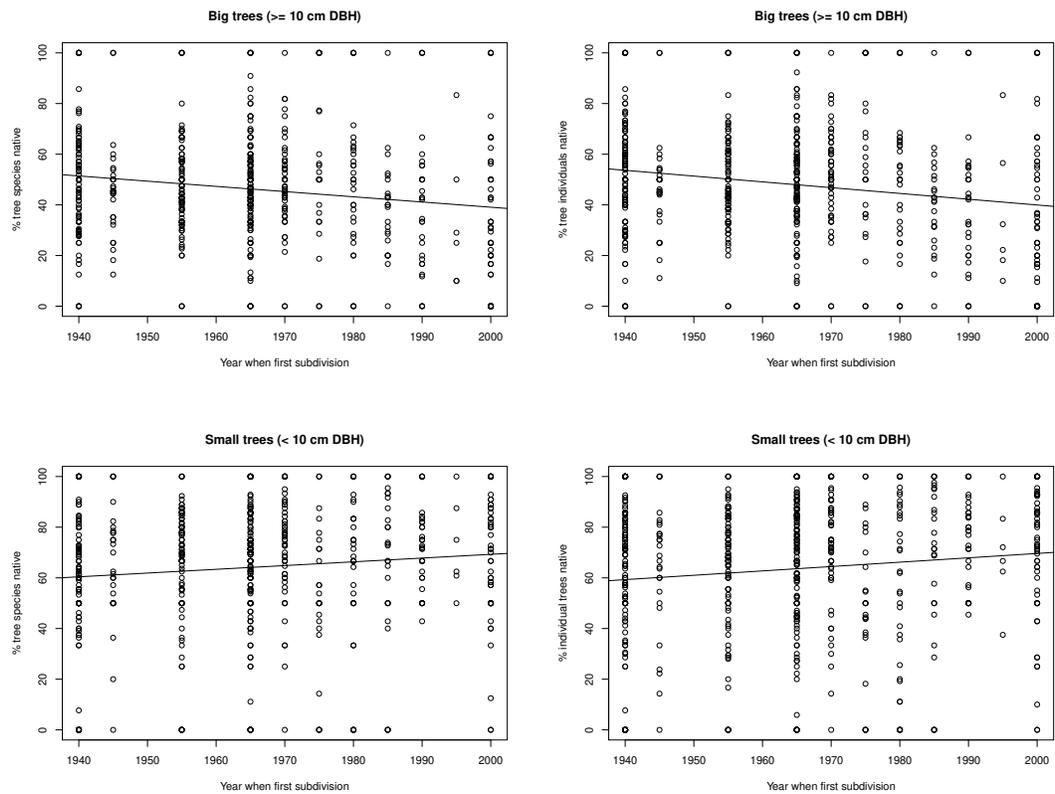


Figure 8. Percentage of different sized native trees and native individual trees

Table 2. Model Selection for big trees (DBH \geq 10cm). In this table, Pop=Estimated human population in grid in 2013, Estab=Subdivision establishment year (first year with housing development per grid), Dep=Mean economic deprivation from the New Zealand Index of Socioeconomic Deprivation for Individuals in 2013, Vers=Mean soil Versatility, Total=Total number of trees in grid. The table shows the model parameters for the 17 models compared. The binomial response variable was the number of native and exotic trees.

No.	(Intercept)	Pop	Estab	Dep	Vers	Totaltrees	Pop:Estab	Pop:Dep	Pop:Vers	Pop:Total
1	63.3146279	0.02808691	-0.0330635	-7.7873588	0.30054103	-0.968914	-	-	-	-0.0013111
2	59.6948347	0.02548032	-0.031291	-7.2648	0.30478016	-0.9004362	-	-	-	-0.0011968
3	59.4627635	0.44493699	-0.0310599	-7.631372	0.28356915	-0.9366715	-0.000212	-	-	-0.0013735
4	56.8464619	0.02744566	-0.029757	-7.5553328	1.60723539	-0.9565062	-	-	-	-0.0013102
5	62.9109287	0.03348604	-0.0328476	-7.6798677	0.29838176	-0.9724266	-	-0.0014477	-	-0.0013471
6	63.6905248	0.03071133	-0.0332708	-7.828571	0.30413823	-0.9713035	-	-0.0004894	-	-0.0013032
7	56.8782613	0.3646779	-0.0298163	-7.1832044	0.29062445	-0.8802423	-0.0001724	-	-	-0.0012575
8	51.8774045	0.02461164	-0.027298	-6.9681225	1.85267825	-0.8826984	-	-	-	-0.0011909
9	57.670053	0.85906952	-0.0301877	-7.6915227	0.2855962	-0.9176291	-0.0004157	-0.0024982	-	-0.001393
10	59.4926156	0.02987725	-0.0311775	-7.1964537	0.30292342	-0.9054667	-	-	-0.0011551	-0.0012294
11	60.1188125	0.02889267	-0.0315293	-7.3088892	0.30959755	-0.9022065	-	-0.0006457	-	-0.0011841
12	51.2497022	0.48248401	-0.0268582	-7.3355547	1.86947287	-0.9185266	-0.0002315	-	-	-0.0013781
13	63.919885	0.05090548	-0.0334126	-7.7109065	0.31018642	-0.9865493	-	-0.0019697	-0.0032887	-0.0013608
14	59.5042158	0.43887688	-0.0310812	-7.6293316	0.28373586	-0.9372978	-0.0002088	-	-5.90E-05	-0.0013741
15	56.5268971	0.03278121	-0.0295843	-7.4521762	1.58924694	-0.9601076	-	-	-0.0014294	-0.0013457
16	57.3180217	0.02983878	-0.0300118	-7.5973633	1.58414067	-0.958934	-	-0.0004438	-	-0.0013031
17	55.2163206	0.7677857	-0.0290072	-7.2541496	0.29235047	-0.8634141	-0.0003707	-0.0024166	-	-0.0012799

Table 2 continued

Estab:Dep	Estab:Vers	Estab:Total	Dep:Vers	Dep:Total	Vers:Total	df	logLik	AICc	delta	weight
0.00405167	-	0.00050819	-0.0348023	-	-0.0058152	11	-1145.8603	2314.20942	0	0.18312268
0.00379817	-	0.00047652	-0.0340247	-0.0012121	-0.0061268	12	-1145.2897	2315.15818	0.94875194	0.11395235
0.00396457	-	0.00049184	-0.0319959	-	-0.0057741	12	-1145.5601	2315.69913	1.48970102	0.08694762
0.00393477	-0.0006665	0.00050195	-0.0355281	-	-0.0058983	12	-1145.7444	2316.0677	1.85827088	0.07231423
0.00399152	-	0.00051025	-0.0326501	-	-0.0059097	12	-1145.7464	2316.07167	1.86225019	0.07217049
0.0040761	-	0.00050936	-0.0356593	-	-0.0058008	12	-1145.8332	2316.24526	2.03583243	0.06617086
0.00374928	-	0.00046601	-0.0318126	-0.0011062	-0.0060663	13	-1145.0956	2316.86782	2.6583968	0.04847062
0.00364911	-0.0007894	0.00046771	-0.0348536	-0.0012634	-0.006238	13	-1145.1282	2316.93305	2.72362531	0.04691529
0.0040054	-	0.00048197	-0.0336692	-	-0.0056604	13	-1145.1332	2316.94306	2.73363346	0.04668111
0.00375863	-	0.00047919	-0.0323349	-0.0011719	-0.0061917	13	-1145.2178	2317.11223	2.90280164	0.04289501
0.00382541	-	0.00047742	-0.0351392	-0.0012359	-0.0061135	13	-1145.2428	2317.16213	2.95271015	0.04183784
0.00381475	-0.0008097	0.0004827	-0.0326195	-	-0.0058711	13	-1145.3917	2317.46004	3.25061448	0.03604792
0.00401432	-	0.00051759	-0.0333735	-	-0.0059721	13	-1145.4926	2317.66169	3.45226177	0.03259065
0.00396343	-	0.00049217	-0.0319503	-	-0.0057785	13	-1145.56	2317.79661	3.58718925	0.03046449
0.00387688	-0.0006584	0.00050405	-0.033395	-	-0.0059905	13	-1145.6334	2317.94336	3.73393967	0.02830919
0.00395927	-0.0006653	0.00050314	-0.0362909	-	-0.0058835	13	-1145.7222	2318.12101	3.91158247	0.02590316
0.00379489	-	0.00045719	-0.0334352	-0.0010733	-0.0059469	14	-1144.6967	2318.17553	3.96610906	0.0252065

Table 3. Model Selection for small trees (DBH < 10cm). In this table, Pop=Estimated human population in grid in 2013, Estab=Subdivision establishment year (first year with housing development per grid), Dep=Mean economic deprivation from the New Zealand Index of Socioeconomic Deprivation for Individuals in 2013, Vers=Mean soil Versatility, Total=Total number of trees in grid. The table shows the model parameters for the 22 models compared. The binomial response variable was the number of native and exotic trees.

No.	(Intercept)	Pop	Estab	Dep	Vers	Totaltrees	Pop:Estab	Pop:Dep	Pop:Vers	Pop:Total
1	-3.2376608	-1.346392944	0.001872311	-	-	0.01960859	0.00068351	-	-	-
2	-3.4878808	-1.542969062	0.001951612	0.018514269	-	0.0201027	0.00078323	-	-	-
3	-3.1494251	-1.3175469	0.001848282	-	-	0.01717368	0.00066581	-	-	0.00039363
4	5.12075594	-1.454621433	-0.002423261	-1.958297259	-	0.02020707	0.00073961	-	-	-
5	-1.8896779	-1.382708055	0.001164929	-	0.01084209	0.01950888	0.00070221	-	-	-
6	-5.5521165	-1.326817545	0.003048823	-	-	0.13469083	0.00067365	-	-	-
7	-3.396077	-1.514950675	0.001925747	0.018621467	-	0.01763974	0.0007659	-	-	0.00039885
8	6.35253016	-1.40776984	-0.003022383	-2.212669156	-	0.01704185	0.00071198	-	-	0.00051575
9	-1.8350241	-1.598019809	0.001081605	0.019460301	0.013394377	0.02000364	0.00081115	-	-	-
10	-5.4442482	-1.523510437	0.002946841	0.01822069	-	0.11769886	0.00077342	-	-	-
11	-3.7705315	-1.43284511	0.0020831	0.023400897	-	0.02004648	0.00072958	-0.0008435	-	-
12	-3.4910325	-1.548381283	0.001937339	0.025237361	-	0.02171796	0.00078587	-	-	-
13	-1.9042599	-1.35174435	0.001194314	-	0.010032079	0.01714133	0.00068348	-	-	0.0003841
14	-5.5815456	-1.295402027	0.003084863	-	-	0.13773179	0.00065461	-	-	0.00039802
15	5.60665727	-1.490075227	-0.002687	-1.856179737	0.007506551	0.02014609	0.0005773	-	-	-
16	3.34464984	-1.438236105	-0.00151974	-1.945893849	-	0.10614133	0.00073135	-	-	-
17	5.0874383	-1.459663223	-0.002420001	-1.944926315	-	0.02159814	0.00074208	-	-	-
18	4.90915497	-1.412763712	-0.002320413	-1.933527552	-	0.02018438	0.00071921	-0.000326	-	-
19	-4.2482841	-1.363314439	0.002363377	-	0.011085533	0.13826579	0.00069245	-	-	-
20	0.07589424	-1.400522402	0.000155906	-0.42640131	0.01949183	0.01949183	0.00071136	-	-	-
21	-1.7282096	-1.410248393	0.001079999	-	0.012290886	0.01952362	0.00071673	-	-0.0002916	-
22	-1.8935623	-1.382009772	0.001165488	-	0.011553222	0.0196436	0.00070186	-	-	-

Table 3 continued

Estab:Dep	Estab:Vers	Estab:Total	Dep:Vers	Dep:Total	Vers:Total	df	logLik	AICc	delta	weight
-	-	-	-	-	-	5	-1102.8224	2215.74652	0	0.15588725
-	-	-	-	-	-	6	-1102.3029	2216.7485	1.00198142	0.09445677
-	-	-	-	-	-	6	-1102.541	2217.22467	1.47815179	0.07444474
0.00100431	-	-	-	-	-	7	-1101.5655	2217.32157	1.57505205	0.07092386
-	-	-	-	-	-	6	-1102.727	2217.59655	1.85002484	0.06181342
-	-	-5.85E-05	-	-	-	6	-1102.7596	2217.66177	1.91525134	0.05983001
-	-	-	-	-	-	7	-1102.0155	2218.22143	2.47490957	0.04522627
0.0011336	-	-	-	-	-	8	-1101.1009	2218.4471	2.70057824	0.04040057
-	-	-	-	-	-	7	-1102.1585	2218.50748	2.76096051	0.03919906
-	-	-4.96E-05	-	-	-	7	-1102.2579	2218.70623	2.95971226	0.03549092
-	-	-	-	-	-	7	-1102.2669	2218.72432	2.9777969	0.03517145
-	-	-	-	-0.000347383	-	7	-1102.2801	2218.75068	3.00415966	0.03471088
-	-	-	-	-	-	7	-1102.4594	2219.10923	3.36270637	0.02901404
-	-	-6.13E-05	-	-	-	7	-1102.4722	2219.13485	3.38832464	0.02864476
0.00095269	-	-	-	-	-	8	-1101.5222	2219.28979	3.54326602	0.02650942
0.00099787	-	-4.37E-05	-	-	-	8	-1101.5304	2219.30621	3.55968552	0.02629267
0.00100046	-	-	-	-0.000299654	-	8	-1101.5485	2219.34224	3.5957202	0.02582319
0.00099268	-	-	-	-	-	8	-1101.5603	2219.36593	3.61940972	0.02551912
-	-	-6.04E-05	-	-	-	7	-1102.6599	2219.51032	3.76380208	0.02374168
-	0.00022419	-	-	-	-	7	-1102.7162	2219.62293	3.87640911	0.02244187
-	-	-	-	-	-	7	-1102.7247	2219.63987	3.8933511	0.02225257
-	-	-	-	-3.51E-05	-	7	-1102.7268	2219.64411	3.89758769	0.02220548

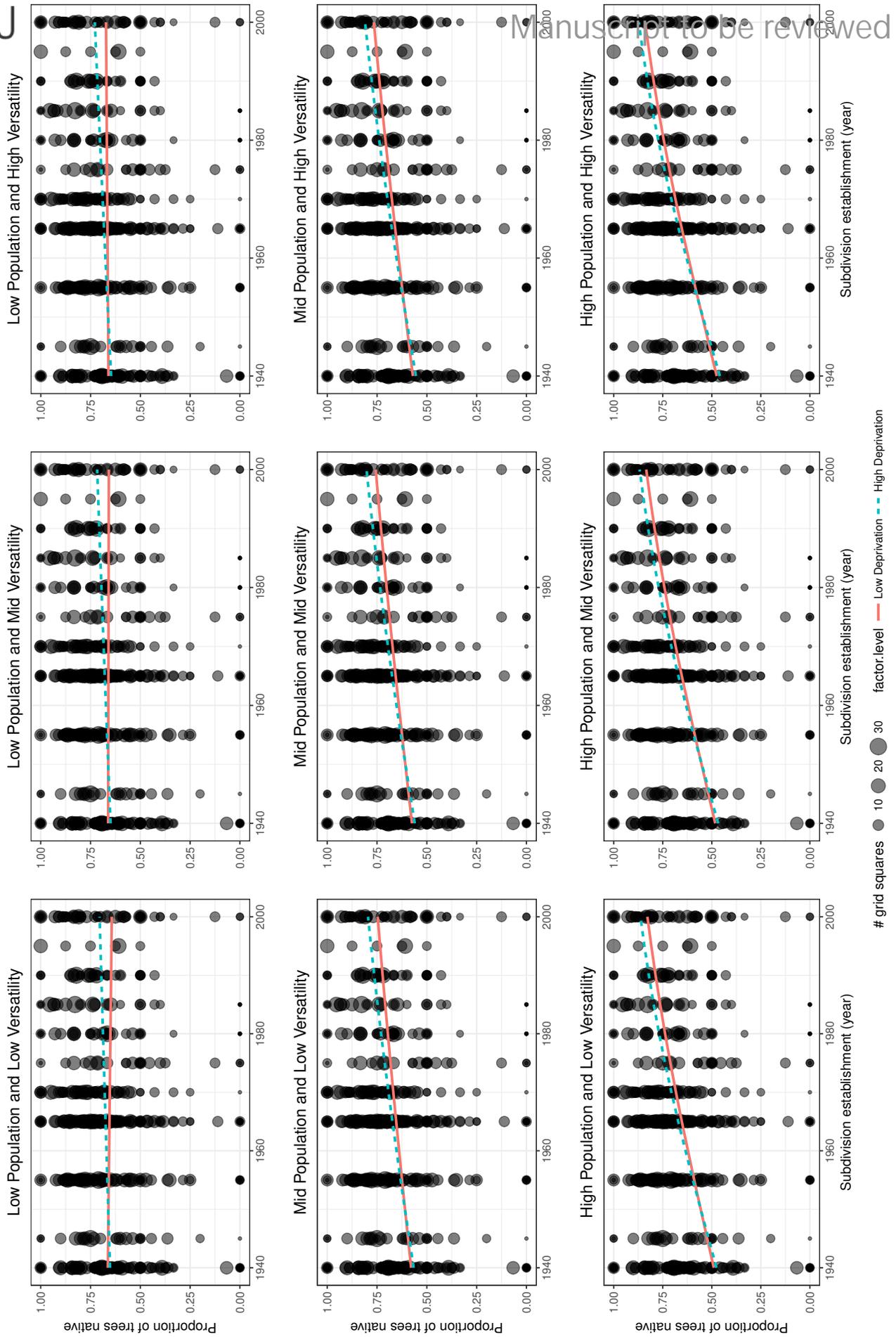


Figure 9. The generalised linear models' predicted effects of different levels of factors on the proportion of small native trees (DBH<10cm) in 100 m × 100 m grid squares. Total trees was of less interest than other four factors so it was set as an average value which is 14 throughout.

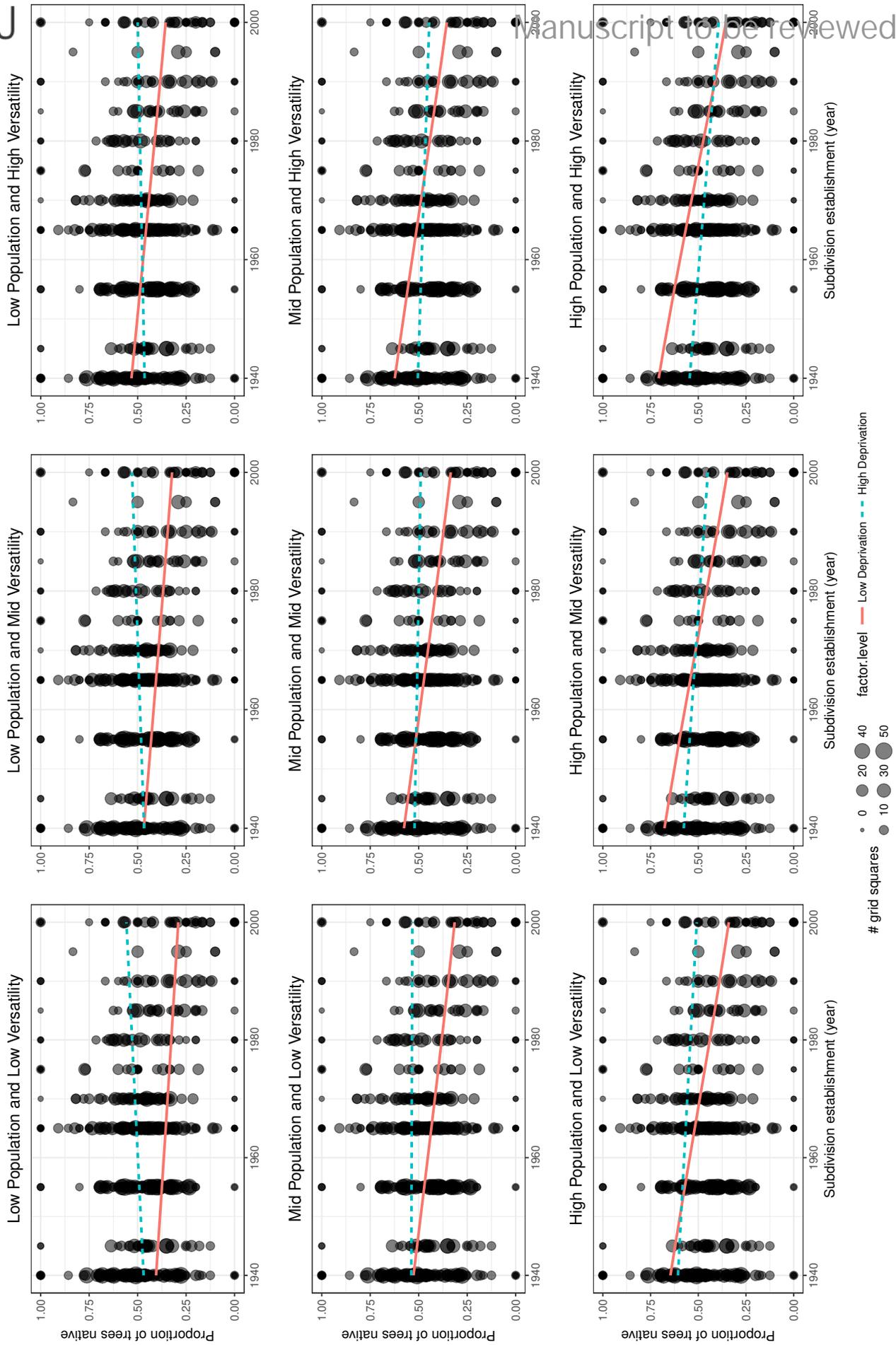


Figure 10. The generalised linear models' predicted effects of different levels of factors on the proportion of big native trees (DBH \geq 10cm) in 100 m \times 100 m grid squares. Total trees was of less interest than other four factors so it was set as an average value which is 14 throughout.

258 areas of the city have more native trees planted in private gardens than others, influenced particularly
259 by an area's age, human population density, and affluence. Native trees differ from most exotic trees in
260 Christchurch city by producing bird-dispersed fleshy fruits Burrows (1994), and being hosts to a diversity
261 of native herbivorous insects Spiller and Wise (1982). As such, we anticipate that these areas of the city
262 with higher densities of native trees in private gardens will be more suitable for native birds Day (1995);
263 van Heezik et al. (2008).

264 About 80% of the tree species in Christchurch's private gardens were exotics and only 20% native
265 to New Zealand (Fig.4). For comparison, Loram et al. (2008) describe the proportion of all species (not
266 just trees) in gardens in the United Kingdom, and report similar to higher proportions of native species in
267 private gardens, with 32% of native species in gardens in Belfast, 29% in Cardiff, 30% in Edinburgh, 29%
268 in Leicester and 29% in Oxford. In Auckland city, the percentage of garden trees that are native is around
269 25% (McDonnell et al., 2009).

270 While Christchurch's tree flora is heavily dominated by exotic species, native trees were on average
271 planted much more frequently, so much so that around 55% of all planted trees were native to New
272 Zealand, and the great majority of those were native to the wider Christchurch area (Fig.4). This suggests
273 a big difference between the trees of private gardens and the City Council planted trees of Christchurch's
274 urban public green spaces. Big native tree species are not common in Christchurch's public green spaces
275 (Stewart et al., 2004, 2009), and $\approx 80\%$ of planted street and park trees are exotic (Stewart et al., 2004).
276 The great majority of native trees in Christchurch will therefore be in the city's private gardens.

277 In Christchurch, the proportion of big trees that were native was less in recent housing subdivisions
278 than older areas of housing, in contrast to the smaller trees. This could be because there are many more
279 choices of exotic garden plants and nurseries are in the business of trying to find new plant fashions that
280 attract buyers. Most native tree species sold in plant nurseries are small/young plants, and, compared
281 with native trees species, exotic trees tend to be bigger and more expensive, so younger areas of housing
282 and wealthier areas would be expected to have more big exotic trees initially planted. Native trees like
283 *Pittosporum tenuifolium*, *Griselinia litoralis*, and *Olearia paniculata* tend to instead be purchased for use
284 in hedging in new subdivisions.

285 Like in many parts of the world, the recent history of Christchurch has included a growing appreciation
286 of the values of native species (Stewart et al., 2004). This can be reflected in planting choices both in
287 public parks and private gardens. It is notable that there were proportionately more small native trees in
288 the gardens in areas of a high population density. While the tree survey data did not explicitly separate
289 trees from parks from trees from private gardens (and the great majority of the area was private gardens),
290 we can use the resident human population density effect to estimate how tree planting differs in public
291 park areas from private gardens. Our model predictions with resident human population is set to zero
292 (Fig. 9, 10) can be interpreted as public parks or reserves. When this is done, it is interesting that the
293 proportion of small trees in public parks was unaffected by suburb age, while for private gardens, the
294 oldest suburbs had fewer small native trees than public parks, while the newer suburbs had many more
295 small native trees than public parks (Fig. 9). This suggests to us that changing public perception of the
296 values of native trees is being reflected by a more rapid change in planting choices in private gardens than
297 public spaces.

298 Generally speaking, the proportion of small trees that are native increases in younger suburbs. That
299 suggest that more people, both gardeners and landscape architects, are realising the importance of the
300 native trees in our urban ecosystem (or that they require generally less effort to maintain). Doody et al.
301 (2010) found 54% of surveyed Christchurch residents in the suburb of Riccarton would like to plant native
302 species from a local urban forest in their gardens and (van Heezik et al., 2013) found in Dunedin about
303 40% of garden holders in their research have a preference for planting native species in their gardens.
304 However, in Australia, almost 90% of the respondents indicated they would like to plant native plants in
305 their garden in the future, and the most preferred garden type was a lawn with native plants from the six
306 choices (Shaw et al., 2017). That brought another question: why they don't plant more native plants in
307 their garden currently (Shaw et al., 2017)? It was found that the relationship between having an intention
308 to plant native plants and planting native plants is not straight-forward (Kollmuss and Agyeman, 2002).

309 Economic deprivation was an important social factor correlated with native garden trees but in complex
310 ways. I expected exotic trees to be more abundant in the wealthier areas. One reason is that tree species
311 sold in plant nurseries are expensive, and a diversity of garden plants is not affordable for poorer people
312 (Bigirimana et al., 2012). However, the reality turns out to be different. It can be found in the prediction

313 of big and small native tree proportions. In recently established areas, wealthier areas typically have more
 314 native tree species than poor areas, whereas in older areas of the city, wealthier areas have similar or
 315 often fewer native trees than poorer areas. This may signal a changing attitude towards native trees in
 316 private gardens, with wealthier people now being more likely than in the past to invest in native trees
 317 when establishing their gardens. Several studies have shown a positive association between wealth of
 318 suburbs and vegetation biodiversity, in USA (Hope et al., 2003; Kinzig et al., 2005) and in Australia (Luck
 319 et al., 2009) as well as New Zealand (Wyse et al., 2015). Our results suggest that this is not always a
 320 simple relationship.

321 **Conclusion**

322 Private gardens are an important kind of urban green space, holding much of a city's tree diversity. In the
 323 case of Christchurch city, the great majority of native trees in the city are planted in private gardens. The
 324 private choices being made by Christchurch residents are therefore likely to make a big difference to the
 325 city's ecology. Further work is now required to assess the extent to which the patterns in trees planted in
 326 Christchurch private gardens are affecting the city's wildlife and ecosystem services.

327 For more recently established housing developments, gardens in more affluent areas had more native
 328 trees than less affluent areas. However, this differed in older suburbs, where gardens in less affluent
 329 areas had more native big trees than gardens in more affluent areas. This is an encouraging sign that
 330 Christchurch residents are placing more value on having native trees in their neighbourhoods.

331 Our results are consistent with an increasing realisation among Christchurch citizens of the values
 332 of native tree species, as they are planting more native trees in their gardens. However, even if there are
 333 more native species in urban gardens than before, the percentage of all tree species that are native remains
 334 low (<20%). The number and diversity of exotic trees being planted has increased alongside increases in
 335 native trees planting. About a quarter of trees planted in Christchurch gardens are now exotic species that
 336 have naturalised in New Zealand and are capable of regenerating wild in the city as woody weeds. The
 337 tree planting choices being made in the city's private gardens can have positive, and negative, effects on
 338 the wider environment.

339 **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

340 Special thanks go to the Canterbury Earthquake Recovery Authority and Tretech Specialist Treecare Ltd.
 341 for collected such a valuable urban tree dataset during such a stressful time for Christchurch city.

342 **REFERENCES**

- 343 Atkinson, J., Salmond, C., and Crampton, P. (2014). NZDep2013 Index of Deprivation. *Wellington:*
 344 *Department of Public Health, University of Otago.*
- 345 Attwell, K. (2000). Urban land resources and urban planting—case studies from Denmark. *Landscape and*
 346 *Urban Planning*, 52(2-3):145–163.
- 347 Beatley, T. (2011). *Biophilic cities: integrating nature into urban design and planning*. Island Press.
- 348 Bigirimana, J., Bogaert, J., De Cannière, C., Bigendako, M.-J., and Parmentier, I. (2012). Domestic
 349 garden plant diversity in Bujumbura, Burundi: Role of the socio-economical status of the neighborhood
 350 and alien species invasion risk. *Landscape and Urban Planning*, 107(2):118–126.
- 351 Bradley, B. A. and Cubrinovski, M. (2011). Near-source strong ground motions observed in the 22
 352 February 2011 Christchurch earthquake. *Seismological Research Letters*, 82(6):853–865.
- 353 Burrows, C. J. (1994). The seed always knows best. *New Zealand Journal of Botany*, 32:349–363.
- 354 Caldicott, E. (1997). Gardening Australian style: the Adelaide example. *South Australian Geographical*
 355 *Journal*, 96(1997):42.
- 356 Cameron, D. (2012). *Verbal hygiene*. Routledge.
- 357 Christchurch City Council (2000). Christchurch naturally: discovering the city's wild side. *Christchurch*
 358 *City Council, Christchurch, New Zealand.*
- 359 Clarkson, B. D., Wehi, P. M., and Brabyn, L. K. (2007). A spatial analysis of indigenous cover patterns and
 360 implications for ecological restoration in urban centres, New Zealand. *Urban Ecosystems*, 10(4):441–
 361 457.
- 362 Colding, J., Lundberg, J., and Folke, C. (2006). Incorporating green-area user groups in urban ecosystem
 363 management. *AMBIO: A Journal of the Human Environment*, 35(5):237–244.

- 364 Daniels, G. D. and Kirkpatrick, J. B. (2006). Comparing the characteristics of front and back domestic
365 gardens in Hobart, Tasmania, Australia. *Landscape and Urban Planning*, 78(4):344–352.
- 366 Day, T. D. (1995). Bird species composition and abundance in relation to native plants in urban gardens,
367 Hamilton, New Zealand. *Notornis*, 42(3):175–186.
- 368 Doody, B. J., Sullivan, J. J., Meurk, C. D., Stewart, G. H., and Perkins, H. C. (2010). Urban realities:
369 the contribution of residential gardens to the conservation of urban forest remnants. *Biodiversity and*
370 *Conservation*, 19(5):1385–1400.
- 371 Fraser, E., Kenney, and Andrew, W. (2000). Cultural background and landscape history as factors affecting
372 perceptions of the urban forest. *Journal of Arboriculture*, 26(2):106–113.
- 373 Gaston, K. J., Warren, P. H., Thompson, K., and Smith, R. M. (2005). Urban domestic gardens (IV): the
374 extent of the resource and its associated features. *Biodiversity & Conservation*, 14(14):3327–3349.
- 375 Gatehouse, H. A. (2008). *Ecology of the naturalisation and geographic distribution of the non-indigenous*
376 *seed plant species of New Zealand*. PhD thesis, Lincoln University, New Zealand.
- 377 Harding, J. and Jellyman, P. (2015). Earthquakes, catastrophic sediment additions and the response of
378 urban stream communities. *New Zealand Journal of Marine and Freshwater Research*, 49(3):346–346.
- 379 Head, L. and Muir, P. (2004). Nativeness, invasiveness, and nation in Australian plants. *Geographical*
380 *review*, 94(2):199–217.
- 381 Head, L. M. and Muir, P. (2005). *Living with trees—Perspectives from the suburbs*. 6th National Conference
382 of the Australian Forest History Society.
- 383 Hope, D., Gries, C., Zhu, W., Fagan, W. F., Redman, C. L., Grimm, N. B., Nelson, A. L., Martin, C., and
384 Kinzig, A. (2003). Socioeconomics drive urban plant diversity. *Proceedings of the national academy*
385 *of sciences*, 100(15):8788–8792.
- 386 Kinzig, A. P., Warren, P., Martin, C., Hope, D., and Katti, M. (2005). The effects of human socioeconomic
387 status and cultural characteristics on urban patterns of biodiversity. *Ecology and Society*, 10(1).
- 388 Kollmuss, A. and Agyeman, J. (2002). Mind the gap: why do people act environmentally and what are
389 the barriers to pro-environmental behavior? *Environmental education research*, 8(3):239–260.
- 390 Lohr, V. I. and Pearson-Mims, C. H. (2005). Children's active and passive interactions with plants influence
391 their attitudes and actions toward trees and gardening as adults. *HortTechnology*, 15(3):472–476.
- 392 Loram, A., Thompson, K., Warren, P. H., and Gaston, K. J. (2008). Urban domestic gardens (XII): the
393 richness and composition of the flora in five UK cities. *Journal of Vegetation Science*, 19(3):321–330.
- 394 Loram, A., Tratalos, J., Warren, P. H., and Gaston, K. J. (2007). Urban domestic gardens (X): the extent
395 & structure of the resource in five major cities. *Landscape Ecology*, 22(4):601–615.
- 396 Luck, G. W., Smallbone, L. T., and O'Brien, R. (2009). Socio-economics and vegetation change in urban
397 ecosystems: patterns in space and time. *Ecosystems*, 12(4):604.
- 398 Mahon, D. J. (2007). *Canterbury naturalised vascular plant checklist*. Canterbury Conservancy, Depart-
399 ment of Conservation, Christchurch, New Zealand.
- 400 Mathieu, R., Freeman, C., and Aryal, J. (2007). Mapping private gardens in urban areas using object-
401 oriented techniques and very high-resolution satellite imagery. *Landscape and Urban Planning*,
402 81(3):179–192.
- 403 Mazerolle, M. J. (2017). *AICcmodavg: Model selection and multimodel inference based on (Q)AIC(c)*. R
404 package version 2.2-1.
- 405 McDonnell, M. J., Hahs, A. K., and Breuste, J. H. (2009). *Ecology of cities and towns: a comparative*
406 *approach*. Cambridge University Press.
- 407 McGann, R. (1983). *The climate of Christchurch*. Ministry of Transport, New Zealand Meteorological
408 Service, Wellington, New Zealand.
- 409 McPherson, E. G. and Rowntree, R. A. (1993). Energy conservation potential of urban tree planting.
410 *Journal of Arboriculture*, 19:321–321.
- 411 Morgenroth, J. and Armstrong, T. (2012). The impact of significant earthquakes on Christchurch, New
412 Zealand's urban forest. *Urban Forestry & Urban Greening*, 11(4):383–389.
- 413 Mulvaney, M. (2001). The effect of introduction pressure on the naturalization of ornamental woody
414 plants in south-eastern Australia. In Groves, R. H., Panetta, F. D., and J. G., V., editors, *Weed risk*
415 *assessment*, pages 186–193. CSIRO Publishing, Collingwood, Australia.
- 416 Overdyck, E. and Clarkson, B. D. (2012). Seed rain and soil seed banks limit native regeneration within
417 urban forest restoration plantings in Hamilton City, New Zealand. *New Zealand Journal of Ecology*,
418 36(2):177–190.

- 419 R Core Team (2017). *R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing (version 3.3.3)*. R
420 Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria.
- 421 Rowntree, R. A. and Nowak, D. J. (1991). Quantifying the role of urban forests in removing atmospheric
422 carbon dioxide. *Journal of arboriculture*, 17(10):269–275.
- 423 Royal Commission on Environmental Pollution (2007). *The Urban Environment*. Twenty sixth report of
424 the Royal Commission on Environmental Pollution, UK.
- 425 Sawyer, J. (2005). Saving threatened native plant species in cities—from traffic islands to real islands.
426 In Dawson, M. I., editor, *Greening the City: bringing biodiversity back into the urban environment*,
427 pages 111–117. Proceedings of a conference held by the Royal New Zealand Institute of Horticulture
428 in Christchurch, 21–24 October 2003, Royal New Zealand Institute of Horticulture (Inc.).
- 429 Shaw, A., Miller, K., and Wescott, G. (2017). Australian native gardens: Is there scope for a community
430 shift? *Landscape and Urban Planning*, 157:322–330.
- 431 Smith, R. M., Gaston, K. J., Warren, P. H., and Thompson, K. (2005). Urban domestic gardens (V):
432 relationships between landcover composition, housing and landscape. *Landscape ecology*, 20(2):235–
433 253.
- 434 Smith, T., Hodgson, W., and Gaston (2006). Urban domestic gardens (IX): Composition and richness of
435 the vascular plant flora, and implications for native biodiversity. *Biological Conservation*, 129(3):312 –
436 322.
- 437 Sperling, C. D. and Lortie, C. J. (2010). The importance of urban backgardens on plant and invertebrate
438 recruitment: a field microcosm experiment. *Urban Ecosystems*, 13(2):223–235.
- 439 Spiller, D. M. and Wise, K. A. J. (1982). *A catalogue (1860–1960) of New Zealand insects and their host*
440 *plants*. Department of Scientific and Industrial Research Bulletin 231, DSIR, Wellington.
- 441 Statistics New Zealand (2013). *2013 Census data user guide*. Statistics New Zealand, Wellington.
442 Available from www.stats.govt.nz.
- 443 Stewart, G. H., Ignatieva, M. E., Meurk, C. D., and Earl, R. D. (2004). The re-emergence of indigenous
444 forest in an urban environment, Christchurch, New Zealand. *Urban Forestry & Urban Greening*,
445 2(3):149–158.
- 446 Stewart, G. H., Meurk, C. D., Ignatieva, M., Buckley, H. L., Magueur, A., Case, B. S., Hudson, M., and
447 Parker, M. (2009). Urban biotopes of Aotearoa New Zealand (URBANZ) II: floristics, biodiversity and
448 conservation values of urban residential and public woodlands, Christchurch. *Urban Forestry & Urban*
449 *Greening*, 8(3):149–162.
- 450 Sullivan, J. J., Meurk, C., Whaley, K. J., and Simcock, R. (2009). Restoring native ecosystems in urban
451 Auckland: urban soils, isolation, and weeds as impediments to forest establishment. *New Zealand*
452 *Journal of Ecology*, pages 60–71.
- 453 Ulrich, R. S. (1984). View through a window may influence recovery from surgery. *Science*,
454 224(4647):420–421.
- 455 Ulrich, R. S., Simons, R. F., Losito, B. D., Fiorito, E., Miles, M. A., and Zelson, M. (1991). Stress
456 recovery during exposure to natural and urban environments. *Journal of environmental psychology*,
457 11(3):201–230.
- 458 Vallance, S. A. and Tait, P. R. (2013). *A community-led, science-informed conversation around the future*
459 *use of the Avon River Residential Red Zone*. Lincoln University, Christchurch.
- 460 van Heezik, Y., Freeman, C., Porter, S., and Dickinson, K. J. (2013). Garden size, householder knowl-
461 edge, and socio-economic status influence plant and bird diversity at the scale of individual gardens.
462 *Ecosystems*, 16(8):1442–1454.
- 463 van Heezik, Y., Smyth, A., and Mathieu, R. (2008). Diversity of native and exotic birds across an urban
464 gradient in a New Zealand city. *Landscape and Urban Planning*, 87(3):223–232.
- 465 Webb T.H., Smith S.M., T. B. (2006). *Land Resources Evaluation of Christchurch City*. Department of
466 Scientific and Industrial Research.
- 467 Whelan, R. J., Roberts, D. G., England, P. R., and Ayre, D. J. (2006). The potential for genetic
468 contamination vs. augmentation by native plants in urban gardens. *Biological Conservation*, 128(4):493–
469 500.
- 470 Wilson, J. (1989). *Christchurch: swamp to city: a short history of the Christchurch Drainage Board,*
471 *1875-1989*. Te Waihora Press for the Christchurch Drainage Board.
- 472 Wilson, J., Dawson, S., Adam, J., Mathews, J., Petry, B., and O’Keefe, M. (2005). Contextual historical
473 overview for Christchurch city. *Christchurch: Christchurch City Council*.

- 474 Wyse, S. V., Beggs, J. R., Burns, B. R., and Stanley, M. C. (2015). Protecting trees at an individual level
475 provides insufficient safeguard for urban forests. *Landscape and Urban Planning*, 141:112–122.
- 476 Zagorski, T., Kirkpatrick, J., and Stratford, E. (2004). Gardens and the bush: gardeners' attitudes, garden
477 types and invasives. *Geographical Research*, 42(2):207–220.