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Negative relationship between woody species density and size of urban green spaces in seven European cities

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Highlights

- We recorded 418 woody species in 225 urban green spaces (UGSs) in 7 European cities
- Selected cities cover a latitudinal gradient and UGSs vary in size and connectivity
- Alien species were abundant ranging from 40% in Antwerp to 64% in Lisbon and Zurich
- There is a strong negative correlation between UGS size and species density

Title: Negative relationship between woody species density and urban green spaces in seven European cities

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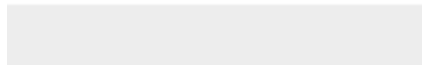
Declaration of interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:



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1 **Abstract**

2 Urban green spaces (UGSs) are important elements of urban landscapes. Woody vegetation is a
3 key component of UGSs, providing many socio-ecological benefits such as habitat provision and
4 human well-being. Knowing plant diversity and vegetation configuration that underpin urban
5 ecosystem processes and functions is critical to maximize nature contributions to city dwellers.
6 Here, we present a well-replicated multi-city study showing a detailed description of taxonomic
7 and structural diversity of woody vegetation in 225 UGSs distributed across seven European cities
8 along a NE-SW gradient. Our aim was to understand how UGSs attributes, including size and
9 fragmentation, influence woody vegetation features. A total of 418 woody species belonging to 76
10 families were identified. UGS size displayed weak positive correlations with woody species
11 richness, but a strong negative correlation with woody species density. Alien woody species were
12 abundant in all cities (from 40% of all species recorded in Antwerp to 64% in Lisbon and Zurich).
13 Among the native tree species we found a predominance of *Pinus* spp. in southern cities and *Acer*
14 spp. in cooler climates. On average, tree canopies extent was 56% of UGSs. This paper provides
15 insights on the plant diversity and woody vegetation composition in UGSs of different size, climate
16 and urban planning history. Our results encourage and contribute to future urban ecology studies
17 involving different taxa and ecosystem services as well as support effective urban planning and
18 management practices.

19

20 **Keywords**

21 Urban vegetation; species richness; above-ground biomass; canopy cover; species-area
22 relationship

23

24 **Introduction**

25 Plants constitute the vast majority of biomass in terrestrial ecosystems including highly
26 anthropogenic ecosystems, and support directly and indirectly biodiversity (Bar-On et al., 2018).
27 Particularly, plants provide food, shelter and create microenvironmental conditions for other taxa
28 in most ecological systems. Humans have been and are still transforming natural ecosystems into
29 human-dominated biomes (Ellis & Ramankutty, 2008). Therefore, plant species richness in urban
30 ecosystems mainly depends on human practices (Kühn et al., 2004) and on the type of built-up
31 area (Godefroid & Koedam, 2007) and not only on natural processes related to dispersal, filtering
32 and interactions (Nielsen et al., 2014).

33

34 Planting non-native species highly contribute to more diverse woody vegetation communities in
35 urban areas – almost half of the non-native woody species in urban ecosystems are deliberately
36 planted (Aronson et al., 2014; Kowarik, 2011). Around 40% of plant species in European cities
37 are non-native (Pyšek, 1998), although lower (30%; Salinitro et al., 2018) and higher (66%;
38 Säumel et al. 2010) proportions have also been reported (Kowarik et al., 2013; Tsiotsiou &
39 Christodoulakis 2010). Plant diversity provides various ecological niches for a wide variety of
40 birds, insects, cryptogams and other biota (e.g. Grote et al., 2016; Grove et al., 2013). Also
41 composition and structure of vegetation and landscape attributes contribute to the overall
42 biodiversity (Threlfall et al., 2016). Higher vegetation biomass can provide greater resources for
43 many different organisms (e.g. Großmann et al., 2020), which consequently allows for larger and
44 thereby more viable and stable populations. A global meta-analysis on biodiversity in cities
45 (Beninde et al., 2015) concluded that in addition to patch size, vegetation structure together with

46 species richness, tree cover and vegetative biomass play significant roles in providing better habitat
47 for other organism groups that inhabit urban green spaces.

48
49 The role of woody vegetation in urban areas is especially crucial in providing habitat for other
50 organisms (Baruch et al., 2020), and ecosystem services (Capotorti et al., 2019). Vegetation of
51 UGSs provides regulating ecosystem services (ESs) such as local climate regulation and air
52 pollution removal (Grote et al., 2016; Locosselli et al. 2019), supporting and provisioning ESs
53 (e.g. primary production and food, respectively) as well as cultural ESs (e.g. recreation activities,
54 Bjerke et al., 2006). Therefore, municipalities have the opportunity and responsibility to
55 implement ecosystem-based management and planning strategies for providing a higher quality
56 environment for both humans and other organisms (Beery et al. 2016).

57
58 European cities share common standards in the planning of green spaces based on transforming
59 densely built-up cities -with a scarce consideration of ecological factors in the urban design
60 process- into more sustainable living environments (Kohout et al., 2020). As part of the new EU
61 Biodiversity Strategy 2030, cities with a minimum population of 20,000 were requested to
62 elaborate Urban Greening Plans by the end of 2021 with a special focus on increasing biodiversity
63 among green infrastructure elements such as UGSs (EC, 2020). Therefore, knowing the current
64 plant diversity and functioning in UGSs is a key tool for stakeholders involved in the urban
65 planning process.

66
67 Many urban ecology studies focus on urbanization effects on biodiversity across urban-rural
68 gradients (e.g. McKinney, 2002). Other studies have typically focused on single cities or locations,

69 mainly assessing specific applied research goals using intra-urban transects, and meta-analysis
70 conducted at broader scale commonly use existing data from different sources (Beninde et al.
71 2015). Systematically sampled comparable data on woody vegetation in UGSs is relatively scarce,
72 especially on large scales and at high resolution level that would comprise data from urban
73 settlements in different countries (Beninde et al. 2015). Thus, there is a knowledge gap on the
74 taxonomic and structural diversity of woody vegetation stemming from common standardized
75 surveys and at fine-grained detail comprising different urban spaces at the continental scale (Yang
76 et al., 2015) which we aim to fulfill. Here we also follow research directions highlighted by Pinho
77 et al. (2021) aimed at enhancing our understanding on urban biodiversity and ecosystem functions
78 and services, particularly by including several key plant traits in our study and providing high
79 resolution urban habitat maps.

80
81 Several studies in urban areas have found positive correlation between species richness and patch
82 area (Cornelis & Hermy, 2004; Shwartz et al., 2013). Nonetheless, different patterns of diversity
83 in urban parks and other green spaces have been found (Talal et al., 2019), suggesting that the
84 increase in the number of woody species is not always proportional to the increase of UGS size,
85 but other factors play a role in shaping urban biodiversity (e.g. urbanization degree, McKinney
86 (2008)). UGSs tend to have lower diversity than expected from their size. Woody species density
87 (i.e., number of species per unit area) is thus expected to be negatively correlated with UGS size.
88 However, such analyses for urban vegetation are so far missing from the literature.

89
90 We studied 225 UGSs in 7 European cities along a SW-NE latitudinal gradient, from Portugal to
91 Estonia. We systematically sampled and mapped woody vegetation in UGSs with different degrees

92 of size and fragmentation, as both landscape metrics have an effect on ecological processes (e.g.
93 Shanahan et al., 2011). Our main aim was to understand the influence of UGSs size on woody
94 vegetation features. We tested this looking at i) species richness (expecting a relatively weak
95 positive relationship), ii) species density (expecting an overall negative relationship), and iii) tree
96 cover and biomass (expecting a non-significant effect).

97

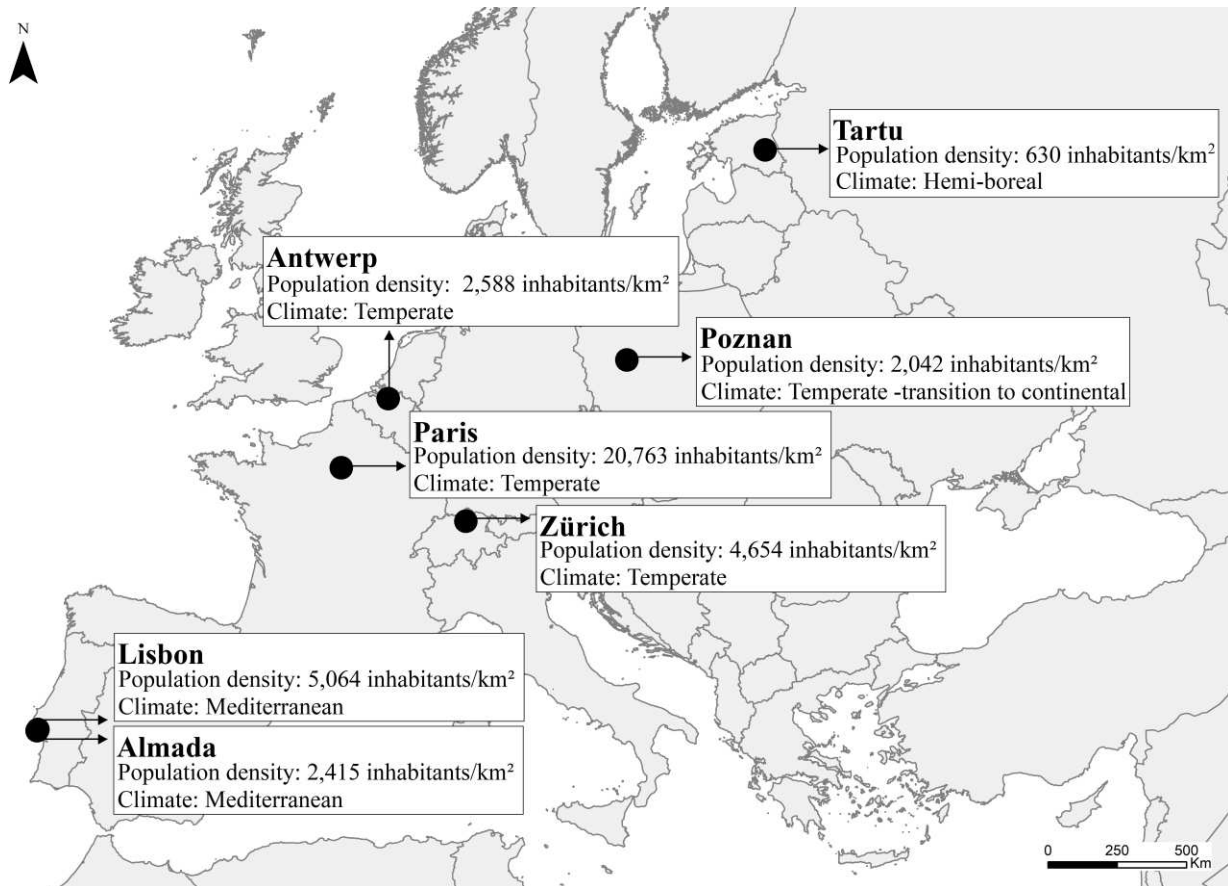
98 **Methods**

99 *Sampling sites selection*

100 We selected 225 UGSs belonging to 7 European cities from Lisbon (38° N) to Tartu (58° N),
101 covering most of the climatic variability in mainland Europe (Fig. 1). Selection was based on
102 patches classified as ‘Green urban areas’ category (code 1.4.1. of the Urban Atlas) in the Pan-
103 European Urban Atlas (2012), providing high-resolution land use and land cover maps for urban
104 areas across Europe. To avoid major management differences between sites, we also manually
105 excluded patches that were predominantly occupied by cemeteries and zoos, which are included
106 in the ‘Green urban areas’ class. Other vegetated areas such as ‘Forest’ class (code 3.1. of the Urban
107 Atlas, included in natural and semi-natural areas category) and private UGSs with no public access
108 were left out in order to minimize heterogeneity due to type and intensity of management practices.
109 Site selection was conducted based on two independent gradients: i) size of UGSs, and ii) their
110 structural connectivity with other green elements embedded in the urban matrix (i.e., discontinuous
111 low density urban fabric (10-30%), discontinuous very low density urban fabric (<10% and
112 forests), as landscape configuration plays a role in shaping several urban taxa diversity and
113 distribution (e.g. insects and birds). Thus considering both size and connectivity degree in our sites

114 selection allows cities and taxa comparison. The degree of connectivity was calculated using the
115 Proximity Index in Fragstats software within a 5 km radius from every patch.

116



117

118 Figure 1. Location of the selected cities, with information on demography and climate provided.

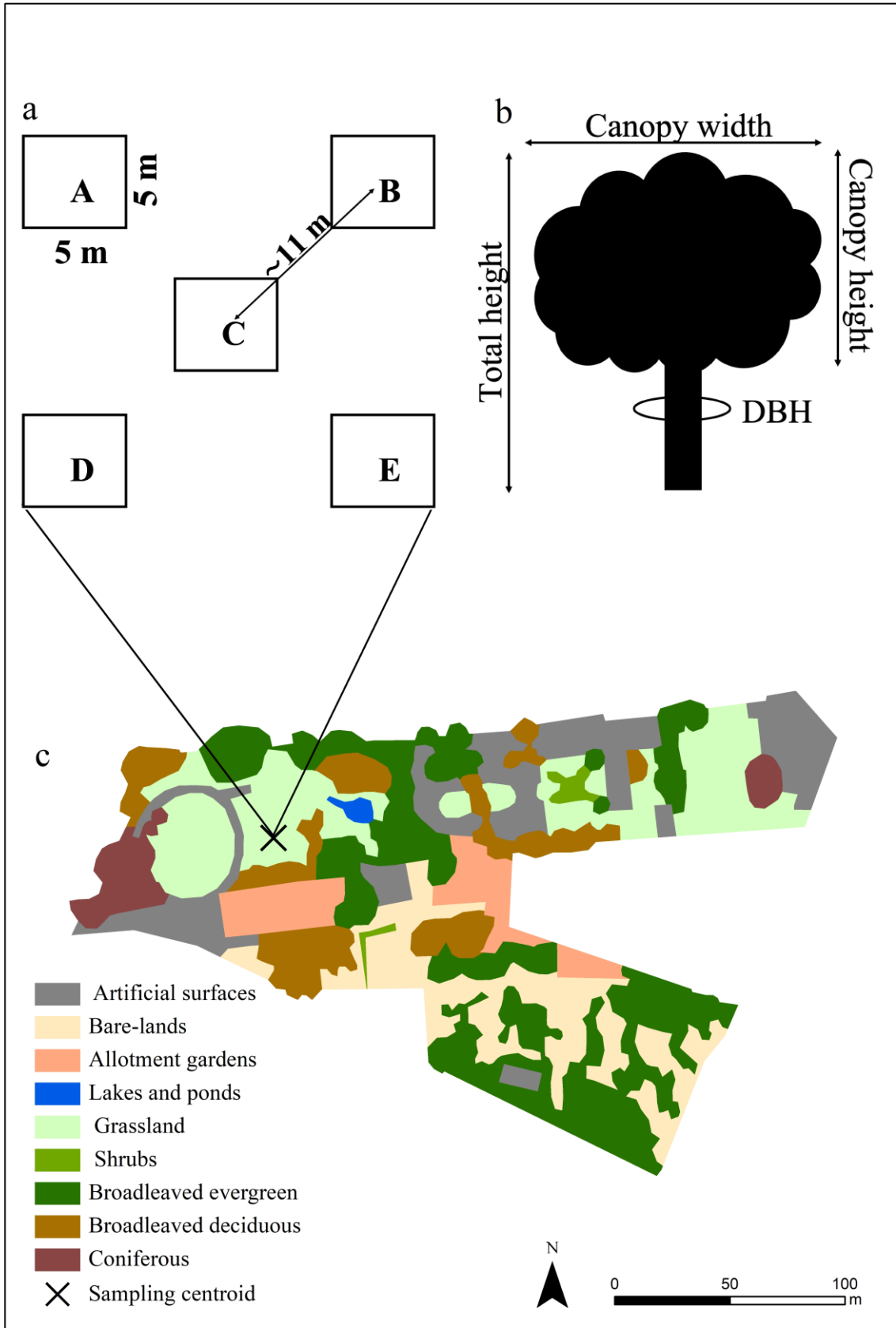
119

120 *Vegetation survey*

121 Vegetation survey was conducted between June 2018 and June 2020. The survey consisted of a
122 field assessment in each selected UGS, and subsequent analysis based on land cover maps of
123 UGSs. All woody species throughout the UGSs were identified (i.e., woody species richness, Table
124 1) and separated by provenance into native and non-native species (see Supplementary Table S1
125 for source information). Species-specific mean height was recorded for each woody species (i.e.,

126 mean height of woody layer, Table 1). Then, a more detailed vegetation survey was carried out in
127 the centroid of each selected UGS (Fig. 2a). If the geometric centroid was not available for
128 sampling (e.g. inaccessible area, water bodies, area without trees), then the closest available area
129 was chosen. The new sampling centroid had to accomplish two criteria: i) include woody
130 vegetation that was representative of the UGS, and ii) occur as close as possible to the original
131 centroid. Sampling in centroids was used in order to minimize the effects of surrounding urban
132 non-green areas. From the five 5m x 5m plots in the sampling centroid all woody species were
133 identified, the height, diameter at breast height (i.e., diameter of the trunk at 1.3 m from the ground,
134 only for trees, DBH, Table 1) and crown or hedge size were measured on each woody individual
135 in each plot (Fig. 2b). Woody species richness, both at the centroid and at the site scale were
136 compared to UGS size to determine if the same relationship among total richness and patch size
137 was also found at the plot level (i.e., if the patch size had an effect on species richness at every
138 level, as expected in natural systems, or it rather depends on UGS design and management). When
139 we refer to the percentages of native and non-native species, we mean the whole woody species
140 pool in each city (i.e., all the species recorded across the UGSs of a given city) not to its
141 predominance among UGSs.

142



144 Figure 2. Sampling design (a), quadrat C is located in the sampling centroid of the urban green
145 space (UGS). Plant traits measured for tree plants (b). Example of one of the studied UGSs in
146 Lisbon (size=31868.26 m²), land cover map and location of the sampling centroid (38°46'13.7"N,
147 9°10'33.9"W) (c).

148

149 *Land cover maps*

150 A land cover map of each sampled UGS was made by photo-interpretation of the high resolution
151 (i.e., 0.5 m) World Imagery basemap from 2015 using ESRI ArcMap 10.4. Photo-interpretation
152 was done at a scale of 1:600 which allowed to distinguish between the different land cover types
153 within the UGS (Fig. 2c). Tree species types (i.e., coniferous, broadleaf deciduous and broadleaf
154 evergreen trees) were separated by checking images provided by Google Earth Pro v.7.3.2.5776
155 and street view in Google Maps from different phenological stages. The resulting vegetation maps
156 were validated during the vegetation survey. Satellite imagery does not allow to precisely classify
157 the extent of all land cover types due to overlapping vertical layers. Therefore, our land cover maps
158 provided accurate information about the upper layer (i.e., tree canopy cover and canopy
159 percentage, Table 1). Tree canopy cover was used to extend the aboveground biomass results of
160 measured trees to the entire tree cover of each UGS.

161

162 *Aboveground biomass calculation*

163 Above-ground biomass (AGB, Table 1) of trees was calculated by using species-, genus- or plant
164 functional type-specific allometric equations (see Supplementary Table S1 for source
165 information). Species-specific allometric equations were used, but if not available, then genus-
166 specific models were used, or generalized equations for either broad-leaved and coniferous trees

167 were applied. The allometric models used were based on combinations of the measured plant traits,
168 specifically DBH and plant height and calibrated across specific ranges of these plant traits.
169 Therefore, we considered the trees whose traits fitted such ranges. This avoided possible under-
170 and over-estimations of AGB, but restrained the AGB results to 154 UGSs from which 139 were
171 used for analysis (i.e., 15 UGSs were outliers, see *Statistical analysis* section). When more than
172 one equation was available, the mean was used.

173

174 *Statistical analysis*

175 All analyses were conducted in R v. 3.6.1 (R Core Team, 2019) (see Supplementary Table S1 for
176 packages source information). In order to avoid distortions in descriptive metrics and statistical
177 tests, AGB outliers highlighted in boxplots were removed from the dataset prior to analysis. The
178 overall variables are described in Table 1, namely: UGS size, AGB, canopy cover (both in absolute
179 and relative terms), mean height of the woody layer, woody species richness and species density.

180

181 Linear regression models for all cities together and separately were made for exploring the
182 response of woody species richness, woody species density (number of woody species per unit
183 area of UGS), canopy cover and AGB (i.e., response variables) to UGS size (i.e., explanatory
184 variable). Logarithmic transformations were applied to both response and explanatory variables to
185 better fit linearity. Coefficients of determination are shown as R^2 . Then, we performed linear mixed
186 effects models (LMM) of those above mentioned relationships including cities as a random factor
187 in order to account for variation of woody vegetation features in the studied cities. P-values for
188 model comparison were obtained by likelihood ratio tests of the full model with the city effect
189 against the model without the city effect.

190
 191 Table 1. Description of the variables included in the analysis, their units, type of variable, scale of
 192 measure and data source.

Variable	Description	Units	Scale	Source
UGS size	Urban Green area extent	m ²	UGS	Urban Atlas 2012
AGB	Tree above-ground biomass derived from allometric models	kg	Tree	(see Supplementary Table S1 for source information)
Canopy cover	Absolute coverage of tree canopies	m ²	UGS	Photo-interpretation
Canopy percentage	Relative coverage of tree canopies	%	UGS	Photo-interpretation
Mean height woody layer	Species-specific mean height of the woody layer	m	UGS	Vegetation survey
DBH	Diameter at breast height (~1.3m)	cm	Tree	Vegetation survey
Woody species richness	Woody species richness	-	UGS centroid	Vegetation survey
Species density	Amount of woody species per unit of UGA	nr. of spp./m ²	UGS	Vegetation survey

193
 194 **Results**
 195 *An overview of European UGSs vegetation*
 196 A total of 418 woody plant species from 76 families were identified across 225 European UGSs
 197 (Table 2 and Supplementary Table S2). Each UGS had a mean of 13 ± 0.8 species of woody plants
 198 with big differences among cities (i.e., from 6.1 in Poznan to 27.2 in Paris) and 9.3 species per
 199 hectare ($9.3 \cdot 10^{-4}$ spp./m²). The most commonly found plants were deciduous broadleaved trees.
 200 Among them, the most widely represented species were *Acer platanoides* L. (occurring in 79
 201 UGSs, 35% of the total, in five cities) and *Quercus robur* L. (60 UGSs, six cities). The most
 202 common conifer was *Taxus baccata* L. (60 UGSs, six cities) (Supplementary Table S2). *Populus*
 203 *alba* L. and *Populus tremula* L., also native in Europe, were very commonly found across the

204 studied cities but presented a low abundance within city boundaries (i.e., they occurred in six cities
205 in a total of 21 and 16 UGSs, respectively). In addition, the North American species *Robinia*
206 *pseudoacacia* L., that is currently a widely-spread invasive species in Europe, was found in 55
207 UGSs from all the sampled cities.

208

209 At city level, more than 50% of the species recorded were non-native, except in Antwerp (Table
210 2). More than 60% of woody species in UGSs from Lisbon, Zurich, Paris and Tartu were non-
211 native. The woody layer (i.e., trees and shrubs) had a mean height of 8.7 ± 0.2 m (ranging from
212 6.5m in Almada to 11.3m in Antwerp) and trees covered around 56% of the UGSs, ranging from
213 40% of UGSs in Almada and 74% in Tartu. Mean woody species density (number of species per
214 unit area) in UGSs per city was distributed as follows: Antwerp 4 spp./ha, Lisbon 4.7, Poznan 4.7,
215 Almada 6.5, Zurich: 9.5, Tartu 10.6, Paris 23.2. Distribution patterns of woody species richness
216 and density, coefficient of variation of woody plants height, mean height of the woody layer,
217 relative canopy cover and AGB across all the studied cities are displayed in Fig. S2. The response
218 variables (i.e., woody species richness and density, coefficient of variation of woody plants height
219 (CV), canopy cover and AGB) accounted for 68.4% of the overall dataset variation (Fig. S3). A
220 main trend was formed by tree cover and AGB, while CV, woody species richness and density
221 displayed a different trend.

222

223 *Woody species richness and UGS size*

224 We found clear latitudinal differences in the predominance of species with different species being
225 the most common in different cities (Table 2). Highest woody species richness in a single UGS
226 was found in Paris and Tartu (i.e., 101 and 48 woody species, respectively) (Table 2). Mean woody

227 species richness per UGS in Paris was 27.2 ± 3.3 and, in the rest of the cities, it ranged from 6.1 ± 0.3
 228 in Poznan to 15.3 ± 1.4 in Tartu.

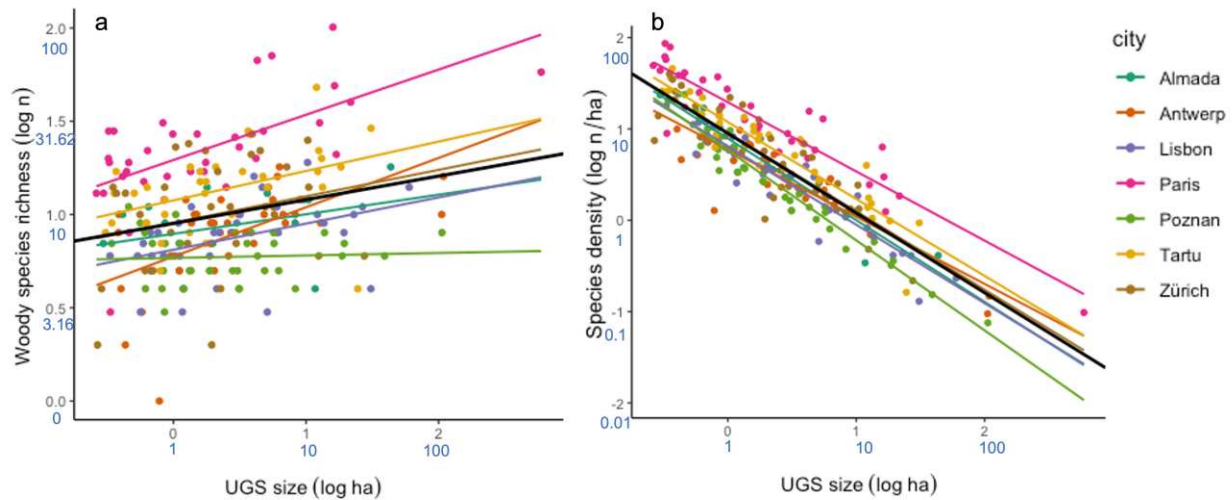
229
 230 Table 2. Woody species richness per city: total woody species (n species), mean and range
 231 (minimum and maximum) of species richness; percentage of non-native species; most predominant
 232 woody plant taxa per city; and number of UGSs investigated.

City	Woody species richness					UGSs (n)
	n	Mean	Range	Non-native species (%)	Most common genus and species (n UGSs)	
Almada	65	9.5 ± 1	4-18	54	<i>Pinus</i> spp. (13), <i>Olea europaea</i> (12)	15
Antwerp	74	8.9 ± 0.6	1-18	40	<i>Acer</i> spp. (25), <i>Quercus robur</i> (17),	35
Lisbon	102	8.2 ± 0.6	3-19	65	<i>Pinus</i> spp. (18), <i>Olea europaea</i> (17)	34
Paris	231	27.2 ± 3.3	3-101	65	<i>Acer</i> spp. (27), <i>Taxus baccata</i> (24)	36
Poznan	56	6.1 ± 0.3	3-11	54	<i>Acer</i> spp. (27), <i>Acer platanoides</i> (21)	36
Tartu	116	15.3 ± 1.4	4-48	61	<i>Acer</i> spp. (28), <i>Betula pendula</i> and <i>Quercus robur</i> (23)	34
Zurich	137	12 ± 1.2	2-27	64	<i>Acer</i> spp. (26), <i>Carpinus betulus</i> (19)	35

233
 234 Overall, large green spaces hosted slightly more woody species (Fig. 3a). At the city level, this
 235 correlation was significant in Antwerp, Lisbon, Paris and Tartu (Fig. 3a and Supplementary Table
 236 S3). In the other cities (i.e., Poznan, Zurich and Almada), UGS size did not show significant effect

237 on woody species richness (Fig. 3a). Centroid woody species richness was not related to the size
238 of the UGS ($p > 0.05$) (Supplementary Fig. S1).

239



240

241 Figure 3. The relationship of UGS size with woody species richness (a) and woody species density
242 (b) per city. Both plots are on log-scale (black numbers) and absolute scale (blue numbers). Each
243 dot is one UGS. The species richness data comprises all the woody species found in each urban
244 green space. The overall relationships are described by the black regression lines. Estimates of the
245 linear mixed effect model a: $\beta = 0.16$, $SE=0.02$, $t= 6.7$, $p < 0.0001$; b: $\beta = -0.84$, $SE=0.02$, $t= -34.8$,
246 $p < 0.0001$. Regression coefficients and significances of simple linear models are displayed in
247 Supplementary Table S3 for each city.

248

249 Woody species richness of the whole UGS was positively related to UGS size and city had a
250 significant effect ($\beta = 0.16$, $SE=0.02$, $t= 6.7$, $p < 0.0001$). Woody species density was negatively
251 correlated with the size of UGSs across all cities ($R^2=0.77$) (Fig. 3b) with city having a significant

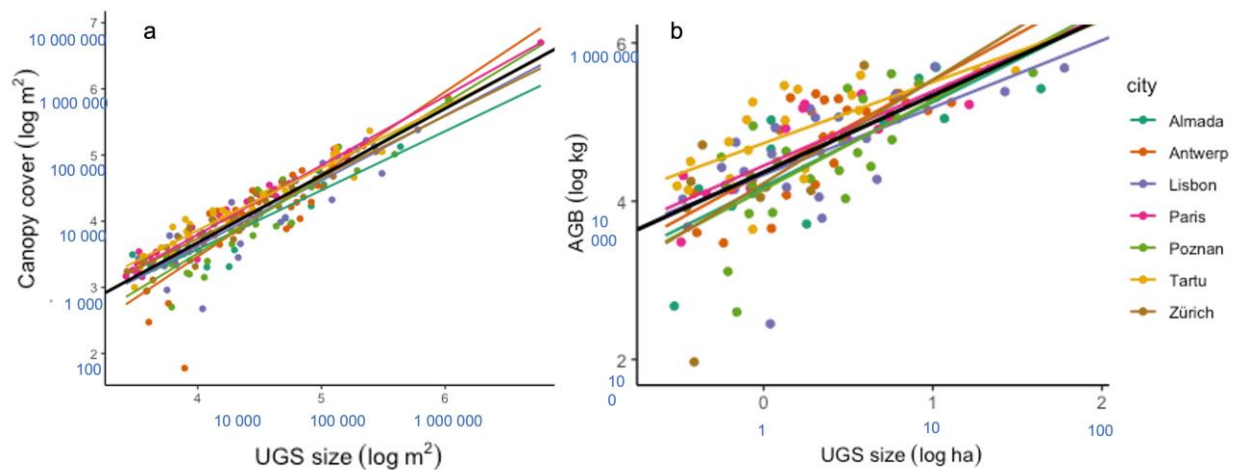
252 effect ($\beta = 0.98$, $SE=0.08$, $t= 11.9$, $p = 0.08$). Within individual cities, the correlation coefficient
253 varied from 0.72 in Zurich to 0.95 in Poznan (Fig. S3).

254

255 *Tree cover and aboveground biomass*

256 Bigger UGSs had generally more AGB and wider tree canopy cover (Fig. 4). Both correlations
257 were significant in all the studied cities (Supplementary Table S3). The relationship between UGS
258 size and canopy cover varied among cities ($\beta = 1.03$, $SE=0.03$, $t= 34$, $p < 0.0001$) (Fig. 4a), while
259 UGS size and AGB relationship (Fig. 4b) was independent of the city ($\beta = 0.98$, $SE=0.08$, $t= 11.9$,
260 $p > 0.05$). Not surprisingly, these two variables were highly correlated among them (Fig. S3),
261 implying that wider canopies -normally belonging to bigger trees- inherently harbors more
262 vegetative biomass. The strongest associations were observed between size and tree canopy cover,
263 especially in Paris and Tartu (i.e., $R^2>0.90$), indicating that tree cover in these cities was generally
264 more correlated with the size of UGS than in other cities (e.g. Antwerp, $R^2=0.76$). Size had also a
265 strong effect on the amount of AGB contained in tree structure, especially in Paris ($R^2=0.76$) and
266 Almada ($R^2=0.66$) compared to Lisbon ($R^2=0.43$).

267



268

269 Figure 4. The relationship of UGS size with canopy cover (a) and AGB (b) per city. Both plots are
 270 on log-scale (black numbers) and absolute scale (blue numbers). Each dot represents an UGS. The
 271 overall relationships are described by the black regression lines. Estimates of the linear mixed
 272 effect model a: $\beta = 1.03$, $SE=0.03$, $t= 34$, $p < 0.0001$; b: $\beta = 0.98$, $SE=0.08$, $t= 11.9$, $p = 0.08$.
 273 Regression coefficients and significances of simple linear models are displayed in Supplementary
 274 Table S3 for each city.

275

276 Table 3 displays the distribution of tree cover and AGB in the seven cities. Despite Almada
 277 displayed the lowest tree cover percentages, it had the highest mean tree biomass per UGS after
 278 Tartu. Heights of trees (i.e., woody plants higher than 3m) ranged from 8.2 ± 0.4 m in Almada to
 279 11.3 ± 0.4 m in Antwerp, on average (Table 3). Tree DBH varied considerably between cities, with
 280 a mean ranging from 20 ± 2.3 cm in Zurich to 35 ± 3.3 and 36 ± 2.1 cm in Almada and Tartu,
 281 respectively.

282

283 Table 3. Percentage of tree canopy cover, mean above-ground biomass, mean height of the woody
 284 layer and diameter at breast height (DBH) of tree plants in the seven cities.

City	Canopy cover (%)	Mean AGB (tons)	Mean height (m)	DBH (cm)
Almada	40	133	8.2 ± 0.4	35 ± 3.3
Antwerp	50	120	11.3 ± 0.4	23 ± 2.5
Lisbon	50	105	9.3 ± 0.2	31 ± 1.5
Paris	67	111	9.8 ± 0.2	24 ± 2.6
Poznan	45	92	10.7 ± 0.5	26 ± 1.5
Tartu	74	148	9.8 ± 0.2	36 ± 2.1
Zurich	56	78	10.5 ± 0.3	20 ± 2.3

285

286 Discussion

287 We aimed to understand how different woody vegetation is in differently sized urban green spaces
 288 of seven European cities by testing species richness and density on UGSs size gradient. Analyses
 289 confirmed our expectations - while the relationship between UGS size and woody species richness
 290 was overall positive, the relationship was weak and appeared only in certain cities (Fig 3a), while
 291 the species density had a strong negative relationship with UGS size in every studied city (Fig 3b).
 292 Bigger UGSs had more biomass and canopy cover only in absolute terms (Fig 4). Thus, woody
 293 vegetation that dominates in urban green spaces is currently managed in a way that the potential
 294 of these valuable urban areas is not by far fully realized, neither for humans nor other organisms
 295 living and visiting urban areas.

296

297 *An overview of European UGSs woody vegetation*

298 While cities tend to be more diverse in terms of plant species than the surrounding natural
 299 ecosystems (e.g. Kühn et al., 2006), a big proportion of that diversity in case of woody species is
 300 due to planting non-native species – on average 59 % in our sampled UGSs (Supplementary Table

301 S2). The proportion of native and non-native species and predominance of the abundance of native
302 species in our sample are in line with previous research from other urban areas (Crosby et al.,
303 2021; Pauleit et al., 2002).

304

305 Planting woody individuals is a common practice in urban areas, but the species selection always
306 comprises a trade-off between environmental, social and economic features. For instance, *A.*
307 *platanoides*, the most commonly found species in our European UGSs, has been shown to be
308 effective in removing particulate matter (PM) and O₃ and storing CO₂ as part of its biomass
309 (Baraldi et al., 2019). Nevertheless, it can also cause damage in urban structures, mainly on kerbs
310 and other impervious surfaces (Scholz et al., 2016). Another example, *R. pseudoacacia*, is also a
311 widespread species among the studied UGSs. It has been planted in cities in the last decades in
312 part due to its resistance to harsh environmental conditions and diseases, even if it is considered
313 an invasive species, especially in Central and Southern Europe (Puchalka et al. 2020). However,
314 it has been shown to be less efficient than native species (*Tilia cordata*) in lowering temperature
315 in cities (Rahman et al., 2019), and it is suffering the negative consequences of climate change and
316 urban air pollution (Wilkaniec et al., 2021). In contrast to the high abundance of *R. pseudoacacia*,
317 *Ailanthus altissima* was only found in four UGSs in Paris. This is surprising given that *A. altissima*
318 is a fast-growing N₂-fixing tree adapted to urban conditions (i.e., it tolerates well high
319 temperatures, drought and poor soil conditions). This species is a widespread invasive species in
320 Europe and an important component of many urban areas across Europe (e.g. Casella et al., 2013).
321 Our results show that its within-city distribution may be restricted to other land cover types rather
322 than to UGSs; for example, Paż-Dyderska et al., (2020) recorded the species in Poznan recently,

323 but only in paved and ruderal areas, claiming that management practices limit their ecological
324 success.

325

326 Woody community composition will determine the resilience and effectiveness of UGSs in
327 maintaining urban biodiversity and providing ESs. Our results contribute to knowing the actual
328 species composition in UGSs. This is especially important in the context of global change that will
329 raise temperatures affecting urban ecosystems (e.g. increased climate stress, pathogen threats) and,
330 consequently, their functions and processes that influence the health and well-being of urban
331 residents.

332

333 *Woody species richness and UGS size*

334 The positive relationship among area and species richness in natural areas has been demonstrated
335 for vascular plants and other taxa also within city boundaries (e.g. Cornelis & Hermy, 2004).
336 According to our results, this correlation is weak and city-dependent suggesting that other local
337 factors may play an important role on shaping urban biodiversity. Since both mean and median
338 woody species richness in the centroid were four and the minimum species recorded in UGSs
339 varied between three and four (with few exceptions), we can say that this is the minimum species
340 richness threshold that the municipalities apply when designing and maintaining UGSs. By testing
341 the relationship between size of UGS and species richness at two different scales (i.e., whole UGS
342 and centroid) we confirmed that the positive relationship between species richness and UGS size
343 did not happen at the centroid level (Supplementary Fig. S1) as expected in natural ecosystems.

344

345 Our results suggest rather similar management practices at European scale, especially in the mean
346 height of planted trees (between 8 and 11m height) and a preference for large trees (DBH>20cm).
347 This is especially true for southern and northern cities (i.e., Lisbon, Almada and Tartu) where
348 larger and older trees (i.e. mean DBH= 31-36cm) are maintained. Conserving old trees is important
349 for ESs provision, natural heritage and cultural identity as well as for biodiversity (e.g. urban tree
350 microhabitats, Großmann et al., 2020). Trees in Tartu displayed the biggest diameters (i.e., mean
351 DBH = 36cm). This could be due to the increase in temperatures during the last decades (especially
352 in urban areas, better known as urban heat island effect) that, combined with management practices
353 that counteract some growth limiting factors, has overstimulated tree growth (Chmielewski et a.,
354 2001). Also, urban trees in high latitudes are known to grow faster than their counterparts in rural
355 areas or in warmer cities (Smith et al., 2019). Higher rain frequency in high latitudes, together with
356 the urban environment (e.g. high CO₂ concentrations), might further foster tree growth rates in
357 northern cities compared to meridional ones (Pretzsch et al., 2017). In warmer latitudes, climate
358 may be a greater stressor for urban vegetation and act as a filter for plant species distribution and
359 growth that is lessened by management.

360

361 *Woody species density and UGS size*

362 As expected, species density steeply decreased along the size gradient in all the sampled cities
363 (Fig. 3b, Table S3), meaning that the current management policies do not use the full potential of
364 urban parks in increasing biodiversity. Since the minimum amount of woody species used when
365 designing and managing urban green spaces is ~4 woody species, park managers plant more
366 species when more space is available, but only up to a certain limit that depends on the city (e.g.

367 the maximum species richness in a UGS was 11 in Poznan and 101 in Paris - even though the
368 UGSs in this study were selected based on comparable size classes).

369

370 Using species density in urban ecosystems is so far an unexplored practice that can be used as an
371 efficient indicator of how policy instruments have been incorporating biodiversity in UGSs. In our
372 study we included all woody species, i.e., also shrubs when accounting for species richness and
373 density, since they can contribute significantly to the overall diversity and also provide ESs (e.g.
374 noise reduction) (Moudrý et al., 2021).

375

376 *Tree cover and aboveground biomass*

377 Several studies have focused on how tree canopy properties in urban areas benefit city dwellers
378 (Gillner et al., 2015; Pataki et al., 2011) and increase species richness of other organisms inhabiting
379 urban ecosystems (Moudrý et al., 2021). Mouratidis (2019) found that urban tree cover increased
380 people's feeling of safety. One of the most studied ESs derived from urban trees is their capacity
381 to cool the urban environment by means of evapotranspiration, canopy shadow and reflection of
382 the solar radiation (Venter et al., 2020; Zardo et al., 2017). This cooling effect increases with tree
383 species richness (Wang et al., 2021).

384

385 The positive correlation among UGS size and tree canopy cover in absolute terms (i.e., total extent
386 of tree crowns) was not found when relative canopy cover (i.e., percentage of UGS covered by
387 trees) was considered. We argue that analyzing the relative amount of canopy cover in UGSs
388 (usually expressed in %) is misleading in case of smaller UGSs - only a few tree individuals are
389 necessary to provide nearly 100% canopy cover in small UGSs. However it is not sufficient amount

390 of canopy to provide habitat for diverse biota, as the other species are often specialized to certain
391 evolutionary lineages, or woody species types (conifers vs. broadleaf trees) and more specific traits
392 (e.g. ridged bark). In addition, animals often tend to be highly territorial, which means that the
393 high canopy cover percentage in an UGS does not ensure diverse biota inhabiting these UGSs.
394 Which is why we used absolute, and not relative amount of canopy cover in our analysis (Fig. 4).
395 However, relative canopy cover (Table 3) indicated that park designers promote non-tree land
396 cover types (e.g. open lawns, paved surfaces) when planning and designing UGSs. All the studied
397 cities had at least some UGSs that were fully covered by tree canopy (>90% of UGS extent), with
398 50 of them covering more than 75% of the entire UGS. Percentage of tree canopy cover and
399 vegetation structure have been proven to strongly and directly influence temperature in cities
400 (Chen et al., 2020). Therefore, local planning strategies should consider both horizontal and
401 vertical components of the woody layer when designing management instruments in order to create
402 a better urban environment.

403
404 Although large areas are slightly more biodiverse than smaller ones (Fig. 3a), increasing the size
405 of a UGS is most probably not feasible in an already densely urbanized landscape, like in European
406 cities. However, the strong negative relationship between species density and UGS size implicates
407 that the existing UGSs could harbor much more species per unit area than they currently do.
408 Planting more woody plant species that are suitable for the urban environmental condition is a
409 cost-effective way to fulfill the demand for ESs in urban environments. Future policy regarding
410 urban green planning should shift the focus more on community and ecosystem level functioning
411 of UGSs, and woody vegetation is the fundamental foundation for enhancing the functionality and
412 persistence of urban ecosystems (Hirons et al., 2019).

413

414 The differences found among the general trends and correlations at city level indicate that other
415 parameters not considered in the study could be influential. For instance, woody species richness
416 displayed a positive relationship with canopy cover when considering all the UGSs together.
417 However, at the city scale, this correlation was only significant in Antwerp. This and other city-
418 specific effects can be overcome if key local factors are known (e.g. socio-economic preferences).
419 Another possible hidden trend is that an underlying mechanism to explain the role of size in
420 multiple vegetation parameters could rely on the influence of UGS management option, i.e.,
421 management options of the largest UGSs tend to be similar when compared to smaller sites.
422 Moreover, the selection of the Urban Atlas as an homogeneous basis of LULC information for
423 studied sites selection influences the type of green spaces considered in the study, as they consider
424 different types of urban vegetated surfaces into 'Green urban areas' class. However, since this
425 happens in all the selected cities in comparable proportions, it probably does not imply any bias in
426 our results. Still, we highlight that creating a continental scale comparable cartography with higher
427 thematic classification is necessary to provide more details that allow future studies to separate the
428 'Green urban areas' class into sub-classes differing on the management practices or type of use.

429

430 **Conclusion**

431 Urban green spaces are multifunctional elements of the urban matrix, providing several social,
432 environmental and economic benefits. Woody vegetation constitutes the main component of
433 UGSs, providing valuable ecosystem services for humans, but also food and shelter for other
434 organisms. However, there is very little comparable ecological data about vegetation in UGSs.

435 This topic is of great interest not only for ecological research but also for urban planners and urban
436 landscape designers.

437

438 Our extensive field survey in 225 UGSs with different sizes in seven European cities showed at all
439 levels of analysis that: 1) species richness of UGS was only weakly related with UGS size; while
440 2) the species density had a strong negative relationship with UGS size. Moreover, we provide a
441 complete list of the most common species among the seven European cities. There seems to be a
442 certain threshold of how much effort is put into management of urban green spaces in the context
443 of woody diversity. Thus, there seems to be a so far unseized opportunity to increase species
444 density in the largest parks by management change only. This could create more heterogeneity and
445 thus improve conditions for both other organisms living in UGSs, but also enhance ecosystem
446 services beneficial for humans.

447

448 The outcomes of this research will assist urban planners and policy makers through the current
449 biodiversity in urban green spaces and their unused potential. This is especially useful in the frame
450 of the EU Biodiversity Strategy to 2030 which calls on cities to develop Urban Greening Plans by
451 the end of 2021, putting special attention on urban biodiversity. In addition, our findings can also
452 be used in urban ecology research involving a variety of taxa and ecosystem services.

453

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