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1 **Perceived personal safety in relation to urban woodland vegetation – a review**

2

3 ***Abstract***

4 Urban woodland vegetation provides people with many aesthetic, ecological and psychological benefits,
5 but can also generate problems concerning people’s perception of safety. This paper reviews existing
6 knowledge about perceived personal safety in relation to vegetation, particularly woodland vegetation, in
7 urban green spaces such as parks and residential areas. Individual and social factors, but also vegetation
8 character, maintenance and design, proved to be important for perceived personal safety. Vegetation-
9 related aspects identified as being of particular importance include landscape design, possibilities for
10 overview and control, vegetation density, and vegetation character and maintenance. Vegetation of an
11 open character with low density undergrowth might have positive effects on perceived personal safety
12 without reducing other benefits. Issues for future research include context-based studies to consider
13 several aspects of vegetation and their interactions.

14 **Key words:** Fear; Fear of crime; Landscape design; Landscape planning; Vegetation development

15

16 **Introduction**

17 Woodland vegetation is common in urban green spaces such as parks and residential areas today.
18 One reason is the naturalistic “ecological woodland style” common within landscape design in
19 the 1970s-1980s in the UK, the Netherlands and Sweden (Jorgensen et al., 2007). Such
20 vegetation includes a mixture of trees and shrubs of various species, with one or more layers of
21 understory vegetation. The ideal was nature and old cultural landscapes (Gustavsson, 2004), but
22 insufficient maintenance can lead to dense, untidy vegetation. According to Jorgensen et al.
23 (2007), woodland plantings in the UK are in need of development to increase perceived safety.

24 This paper reviews existing knowledge regarding the influence of natural and naturalistic urban
25 woodland vegetation on people's perceived personal safety.

26

27 Woodland vegetation in urban areas provides many benefits, e.g. for human wellbeing and health
28 (Hartig et al., 2003; Berman et al, 2008). Through adding biodiversity in urban environments,
29 vegetation can improve mental health (Fuller et al., 2007) and add pedagogic and social benefits
30 (Miller & Hobbs, 2002). Areas with trees by multi-family housing may become meeting places,
31 improving social connections between residents (Coley et al., 1997; Kuo et al., 1998; Sullivan et
32 al., 2004). Woodlands close to housing are also important for children's everyday play (Florgård
33 & Forsberg, 2006).

34

35 People tend to find natural-looking woodlands attractive (Schroeder & Anderson, 1984; Burgess
36 et al., 1988; Jorgensen et al., 2007). Europeans generally prefer forest vegetation with diversity in
37 tree species, variation between areas and naturalistic forest edges (Edwards et al., 2011).

38 Moreover, natural green areas need to be easily accessible, within a few minutes' walk (Coles &
39 Bussey, 2000), to increase use and limit stress-related diseases (Grahn & Stigsdotter, 2003;
40 2010). However, there are differences in people's experiences and needs, indicating that although
41 green space with a natural or wild character is important close to residential areas, there is also a
42 need for variation to promote individual choice (Jorgensen et al., 2007), safety and preference for
43 all users (Schroeder & Anderson, 1984; Burgess et al., 1988).

44

45 Perceived personal safety is an experienced feeling, distinct from actual safety, security or risk,
46 and therefore needs to be approached differently. Feeling unsafe outdoors is often connected to
47 the fear of crime, but also other factors. However, “fear of crime” is commonly used as a concept
48 concerning unsafe perceptions in a wider sense. For example Pain (2001, p. 902) defines fear of
49 crime as “the wide range of emotional and practical responses to crime and disorder made by
50 individuals and communities”. Sparks et al. (2001) connect fear of crime to worries about e.g. the
51 behaviour of young people outdoors, while Day et al. (2003) describe it as the result of complex
52 relations between factors such as reactions to violence and crime, myths about crime, and the
53 construction of male and female identities. Perceived personal safety must be considered a
54 complex phenomenon, affected by much more than the environment.

55

56 Fear associated with the presence of woodland vegetation in parks and residential areas has been
57 described by e.g. Jacobs (1961), Burgess et al. (1988), Madge (1997) and Jorgensen et al. (2007).
58 Such low perceived safety has many negative consequences, possibly affecting people more than
59 actual risk and crime. Women in particular may be limited in choosing their desired lifestyle
60 (Keane, 1998) and the elderly may lose the possibilities for a physically active life (Li et al.,
61 2005). Fear of crime has been linked to low levels of physical and mental health and low quality
62 of life (Chandola, 2001; Strafford et al., 2007; Jackson & Stafford, 2009).

63

64 The character of vegetation can be an important factor affecting perceived personal safety.
65 Madge (1997) found that park users, particularly women, avoided areas with poor lighting, dense
66 understory vegetation or a high density of trees. Studies have shown that lawns and trees in

67 residential areas may be associated with high perceived personal safety (Kuo et al., 1998; Kuo &
68 Sullivan, 2001; Kuo, 2003), while a more natural and wild character in certain situations has been
69 described as frightening (Burgess et al., 1988; Bixler & Floyd, 1997; Jorgensen, 2004; Jorgensen
70 et al., 2007). However, aiming for more simple concepts such as lawns and limbed-up trees risks
71 a reduction of the many benefits of woodland vegetation. Furthermore, if vegetation is cut down,
72 increased maintenance problems might emerge. Woodland vegetation, with several layers and
73 free-growing ground vegetation, is often both preferred and feared (Schroeder & Anderson, 1984;
74 Burgess et al., 1988; Jorgensen, 2004; Jorgensen et al., 2007). Despite completely different green
75 space characters being described as the safest (urban parks) and the most attractive (dense
76 forests), it might be possible to combine these two qualities through developing woodland
77 vegetation into more open characters (Schroeder & Anderson, 1984).

78

79 Urban settings have often been the study object in the vast research field of perceived personal
80 safety and fear of crime. However, few studies have examined perceived personal safety in parks
81 and other green areas, particularly in residential green areas. The complex dual role of urban
82 woodland vegetation, as valuable but also threatening, shows the need for knowledge on how it
83 can be planned, designed and managed to improve perceived personal safety without reducing
84 other benefits.

85 In order to identify possibilities for combining safety aspects with other benefits of urban
86 woodland vegetation, existing knowledge on perceived personal safety in urban green spaces first
87 needs to be reviewed. Therefore this paper examined aspects affecting perceived personal safety
88 in relation to vegetation in general, and urban woodlands in particular. The overall focus was on

89 vegetation and woodlands in urban green spaces such as parks and residential areas. Two specific
90 questions studied throughout the analysis were: What overarching factors affect people's
91 perception of personal safety outdoors? and What qualities connected to woodland vegetation
92 have been found to affect the perception of personal safety?

93

94 **Methods**

95 A literature review on perceived personal safety in urban woodland vegetation was conducted in
96 March 2012. The starting point was a literature search using the search engine Scopus
97 (www.scopus.com) and combining the search words 'safety' and 'fear' with 'vegetation',
98 'woodland' and 'parks' (Table 1). This yielded a total of 2098 articles, but after assessment of the
99 relevance of these articles for the two research questions, only 10 remained (Table 2). As a
100 second step, the reference lists of these 10 articles were used to locate additional relevant
101 literature, using the so-called snowballing method. This process yielded 46 sources of direct
102 interest to the present study, of which nine concerned perceived personal safety in residential
103 open spaces and 37 personal safety in public areas such as parks and urban forests. The relevant
104 literature found was analyzed for information on aspects of fear or safety in urban green spaces
105 with particular focus on woodland vegetation qualities for increased perceived personal safety.
106 The literature review was also used to identify factors reported to have an impact on perceived
107 personal safety outdoors.

108

109 **Factors affecting people's perception of personal safety outdoors**

110 Among the theories and models describing the factors behind perceived safety and fear, three
111 types of factors are commonly described: individual, social and environmental. Studies of how
112 the physical environment affects personal safety must therefore be conducted with awareness of
113 all these factors. However, it may be difficult or even impossible to separate the effects of the
114 different types of factors from each other. Models for individual (psychological) and social
115 (social-demographic) factors in fear of crime have been developed by Van der Wurff et al. (1989)
116 and refined by Farrall et al. (2000). The psychological model contains four components:
117 attractiveness (seeing oneself or one's possessions as a possible victim or target), evil intent (view
118 of other people's intentions), power (between oneself and others) and criminalizable space
119 (situation in time and space). The social factors identified by Van der Wurff et al. (1989) were:
120 age, gender, level of income and education, household size, professional or study activity, and
121 number of acquaintances within the local area. Farrall et al. (2000) proposed combining
122 individual and social variables, adding e.g. time lived in the neighbourhood, owning one's own
123 dwelling and health during the past year, to account for more of the individual variance.

124

125 The cultural and environmental context is a social aspect of importance for perceived personal
126 safety, although most studies within the research field have examined large-scale urban areas
127 with socio-economic problems in the USA or the UK. However, culture, level of urbanization
128 and type of urban area may affect perceived personal safety. For example, Maas et al. (2009)
129 found that green areas were associated with low social safety mainly in highly urbanized areas.
130 What is perceived as acceptable concerning other people's behaviour and vegetation maintenance
131 level can be more limited in semi-public residential green areas than in public parks (Westover,

132 1985; Lindgren & Nilsen, 2012) and the distance to the home may also have a influence
133 (Jorgensen et al., 2007). The Nordic countries are commonly described as safe. For example,
134 Sweden, Denmark and Finland have a smaller proportion of people feeling unsafe outdoors than
135 for example the USA, the UK, Germany and Australia (van Kesteren et al., 2007). Koskela
136 (1997) found that the cultural understanding of Finland as safe led to women not avoiding unsafe
137 places and having a “spatial confidence” (Koskela, 1997, p. 121) not found in the US and the UK
138 (Pain, 1997). However, the same types of places were considered unsafe by women in the US and
139 the UK as in Finland (Koskela, 1999).

140
141 Much research has focused on women’s fear of crime in public spaces, while men are commonly
142 described as less afraid than women (Valentine, 1992; Farrall et al., 2000; Jorgensen et al., 2002).
143 Women’s fear has been considered an expression of how gender roles affect the perception of,
144 and access to, public space (Valentine, 1992). Women see themselves more as potential victims,
145 are often particularly afraid of walking outdoors alone after dark (Farrall et al., 2000) and
146 describe themselves as less safe than men when passing woodland vegetation (Jorgensen et al.,
147 2002). However, men’s fear has also gained attention recently. Bronlow (2005) found that young
148 men, just like young women, are afraid in public spaces. However, showing their fear would be
149 against the social construction of being male. This points at a possible hidden problem of fears
150 about personal safety among men.

151
152 There may also be differences concerning the environments that women and men perceive as
153 unsafe. Women may pay more attention to elements in the physical environment, while men’s

154 fear is more constant and less environment-related (Bronlow, 2005, p. 589), but still makes them
155 avoid places where they do not feel in control (Day et al., 2003). Koskela (1999) describes
156 women as more afraid of empty or isolated places and men as more afraid of socially active
157 places, which indicates that women expect help from others more than men.

158
159 Differences between social and ethnic groups may also be important for the perception of
160 personal safety (Madge, 1997; Pain, 2001). Madge (1997) found that ethnic minorities in a UK
161 study felt more unsafe than others, and that their concerns included fear of dogs and racially
162 motivated attacks. Pain (1997) noted that although social class appeared not to affect the level of
163 fear among women, it did affect the places associated with fear. So called working class women
164 did not avoid public spaces as much as other women, probably due to limited economic
165 possibilities for private transport.

166
167 Age has often been connected to perceived personal safety and avoidance of places outdoors, but
168 the relationship is complex. Older women in particular have been described as afraid, but also
169 older men (Beaulieu et al., 2007). A British study showed that fear limits park use by the elderly
170 more than for young people (Madge, 1997). However, Jorgensen and Anthopoulou (2007) found
171 that older people felt no more unsafe than younger among park users in Sheffield, although the
172 elderly described themselves as more vulnerable were they to be attacked. Pain (1997) showed
173 that young women limited their own mobility outdoors more than older women, due to fear of
174 violent and sexual crimes.

175

176 While some variation in people's perceived personal safety can be connected to social factors
177 such as culture, gender and age, there are also large individual differences, and social and
178 individual factors can be highly interconnected. For example, children given access to play in
179 woodlands have a more positive attitude to such vegetation, including less fear, as adults
180 (Milligan & Bingley, 2007). Furthermore, perception of personal safety changes with life
181 experiences, such as becoming a parent (Koskela, 1997; Valentine, 1992) or being the victim of
182 crime (Koskela, 1997; Beaulieu et al., 2007). An individual can thereby change the way in which
183 he or she perceives environments in terms of safety.

184

185 Individual factors can be critical for how safety problems are approached in the physical
186 environment. Johansson et al. (2011) studied the perception of lighting along a path through
187 green areas and found that women were more afraid than men, but also that individual
188 "environmental trust" (comparable with "spatial confidence" (Koskela, 1997)) had great
189 influence. Schroeder and Anderson (1984) noted in their study of people's perception of personal
190 safety and aesthetics in urban park environments that there always appeared to be some
191 informants with totally different perceptions than the majority.

192

193 The effect of the physical environment on perceived personal safety is not fully understood, but it
194 can be expected to be one of several aspects involved. Physical aspects affecting perceived
195 personal safety are often described as small-scale features of which people who experience fear
196 are aware, called "micro-design features" (Valentine, 1989), "cues" (Pain, 1997) or "proximate
197 cues to fear" (Nasar et al., 1993). Physical changes can increase perceived personal safety,

198 although the reason why people are afraid might not have environmental origins. It is also
199 possible that people do not view the physical environment as the problem. Burgess et al. (1988)
200 found that park users in London rarely proposed physical solutions to unsafe parks, but focused
201 on improved social relations and park personnel. Social constructions such as the image and
202 reputation of an area can also be of major importance, related to the physical environment
203 (Koskela & Pain, 2000; Kullberg, 2010).

204

205 **Perception of personal safety in relation to woodland vegetation**

206 Several studies add to the picture of certain green spaces being perceived as unsafe, particularly
207 after dark (Burgess et al., 1988; Valentine, 1989; Madge, 1997; Koskela & Pain, 2000). In the
208 literature, four main aspects of how woodland vegetation affects perception of personal safety are
209 identified: 1) landscape design, 2) possibilities for overview and control, 3) vegetation density,
210 and 4) vegetation character and maintenance. These four aspects interplay and together describe
211 perception of personal safety in woodland vegetation and how it can be improved.

212

213 **The landscape design**

214 The overall landscape design appears to be important concerning vegetation in a spatial context.
215 It is possible that when vegetation is seen as part of a readable, unified design, it is perceived as
216 safer than vegetation elements which appear more disparate. Shaffer and Anderson (1985)
217 studied personal safety and attractiveness in parking lots adjacent to commercial and multi-family
218 residential structures and found that increased vegetation was positive for attractiveness, but for

219 the scene to be perceived as safe the vegetation needed to be well-maintained and appear to be
220 part of a readable landscape design.

221

222 Closed areas in parks and other open spaces are often perceived as unsafe (Madge, 1997;
223 Jorgensen et al., 2002). Closures can form hidden areas, something that women commonly
224 associate with fear of sexual violence (Madge, 1997). Jorgensen et al. (2002) explored the
225 parameters of closure further, testing three types of spatial structures: completely closed
226 (vegetation on both sides of a path), partially closed (vegetation on one side and a single tree on
227 the other) and no closure (vegetation on one side only). The results showed that the more open
228 the structure, the safer the perception, but that overall landscape design is complex, and also
229 interplays with other aspects. Landscape design features such as the vegetation scale and its
230 relation to other elements in the surrounding landscape will need more attention in future
231 research about perceived personal safety.

232

233 **Possibilities for overview and control**

234 A probable explanation why closed areas are considered unsafe is the association with lack of
235 control, with fewer possibilities for overview and escape. Overview allows the individual to see
236 other people close by and to evaluate whether they pose a potential threat. Increased visibility and
237 recognition from a distance may explain why, for example, improved lighting has a positive
238 effect on personal safety outdoors (Painter, 1996).

239

240 The role of overview and control in relation to perception of personal safety can be connected to
241 the prospect-refuge theory proposed by Appleton (1975), commonly cited in studies of the
242 physical environment's effect on perceived personal safety (e.g. Fisher & Nasar, 1992; Nasar et
243 al., 1993; Luymes & Tamminga, 1995; Herzog & Kutzli, 2002). The prospect-refuge theory is
244 based on Darwin's habitat theory, according to which people prefer environments where they
245 perceive greater chances for survival. Features in a landscape signal either good prerequisites for
246 survival or not, determining whether the landscape is spontaneously preferred or not, and in
247 places associated with survival it is possible to overview the surroundings (prospect) and to hide
248 (refuge). People should therefore feel safest in environments where they can see without being
249 seen (Appleton, 1975; Luymes & Tamminga, 1995). This can be considered in woodland
250 vegetation design and maintenance.

251

252 Fisher and Nasar (1992) developed Appleton's theory by pointing out that like the potential
253 victim, the potential offender prefers environments which offer prospect and refuge, so spaces
254 which offer prospect and refuge but are closed off from the surroundings may allow an offender
255 to trap a victim. Therefore, Fisher and Nasar (1992) proposed that perception of safety in an
256 environment is not only connected to the level of prospect and refuge, but also to the possibility
257 for *escape*. Escape may require physical exit routes from potential threats, or proximity to other
258 people who can help in the event of an attack. Fisher and Nasar (1992) tested their theory in a
259 study on a college campus and found that the fear of crime is higher in environments providing
260 potential offenders with a good refuge but potential victims with poor possibilities for prospect
261 and escape. The latter can increase worries about how to avoid a threatening situation and thus
262 lead to fear (Blöbaum & Hunecke, 2005).

263

264 Prospect-refuge theory has led to concrete proposals on developing vegetation for increased
265 personal safety. Based on this and other theories, Luymes and Tamminga (1995) developed
266 principles for the planning and design of urban greenways according to which it is important to
267 be able to see and be seen by other people, make one's own choices and be in control of the
268 surrounding environment, read it and be alone without being isolated. Luymes and Tamminga
269 (1995) also point out that some paths should be designed for night-time use, with uniform
270 lighting used in an efficient way, and others not. Several routes should be provided. Vegetation
271 along paths should provide free sight between knee and eye height, and vegetation causing
272 shadows and potential hiding places should be cut or moved. Creating increased activity, for
273 example by organizing user groups to establish a presence, can deter crime and improve
274 perceived personal safety. Luymes and Tamminga (1995) also emphasize the importance of
275 involving users in planning, design, maintenance and surveillance.

276

277 Herzog and Kutzli (2002) used Appleton's theory to test two types of overview connected to:
278 visual access (being able to see the entire environment) and penetration (being able to see deep
279 into an environment, ease of movement). Both types of overview were associated with high
280 perceived safety in natural environment and both could be improved through vegetation
281 management. Herzog and Kutzli (2002) used photographs of environments with different
282 combinations of vegetation and allowed a group of students to assess the settings. The results
283 revealed that the perception of fear was connected to possibilities to overview parts of an
284 environment and ease of movement within it. Being hidden by vegetation gave a feeling of being

285 trapped, leading to fear. According to Herzog and Kutzli (2002), visual access and overview can
286 be improved by having well-maintained and smooth ground surfaces, limbed-up trees and
287 carefully placed vegetation in order not to impede visibility or movement.

288

289 Possibilities to escape and overview might limit unsafe perceptions in green environments.
290 However, the importance of overview is still not fully understood. For example Jorgensen (2004)
291 criticized Appleton's theory for basing preference on evolution only, such as the reflex to escape
292 in the event of danger, while individual preferences are more complex. A few studies have also
293 reported only minor importance of overview for improved personal safety. Jorgensen et al. (2002)
294 showed the importance of the interplay between the overall landscape design and the vegetation
295 structure and character. It is possible that having openness on one side gives such apparent
296 possibility to escape that dense vegetation on the other side becomes a barrier to potential threats.
297 In a closed space with vegetation on both sides, however, it can be important to see through the
298 vegetation to find possibilities for escape and identify potential threats. Such complexity was
299 observed in a Swedish study of young women's perceptions of a park in Stockholm (Cele, 2009).
300 The women did not think that increased overview, either by improved lighting or low cut shrubs,
301 would make them use the park at night. Instead, they thought low cut shrubs would make them
302 more exposed to unwanted eyes and would make the park less beautiful (Cele, 2009).

303

304 **Vegetation density**

305 The two types of overview according to Herzog and Kutzli (2002), visual access and particularly
306 penetration, can both be expected to increase with low vegetation density. Density in this case

307 mainly concerns how dense or covering the vegetation is at eye level or between knee and eye
308 level, and has been cited in several studies as important for perception of personal safety
309 (Schroeder & Anderson, 1984; Coles & Bussey, 2000; Jorgensen et al., 2002; Bjerke et al., 2006;
310 Herzog & Bryce, 2007). For example Jorgensen et al. (2002) found that naturalistic, dense
311 vegetation was perceived as unsafe. While penetration or density as an aspect of safety
312 perceptions has not been thoroughly studied, in terms of perceived visual accessibility an
313 understory height of only 54 cm has been found to cause substantial perceived obstruction
314 (Roovers et al., 2006). It is unclear whether perceived personal safety is also affected at the same
315 height, but since penetration and ease of movement (Herzog & Kutzli, 2002; Herzog & Bryce,
316 2007) are expected to have a great effect on perceived personal safety, there is reason to expect a
317 strong connection.

318

319 Opinion differs within the literature regarding whether having low density vegetation reduces
320 aesthetic values and people's preferences. Research has shown that high visual access and
321 penetration (Herzog & Kutzli, 2002) and a sense of mystery whereby the environment promises
322 more if one moves further into it (Kaplan & Kaplan, 1989) have a positive effect on people's
323 preferences for green environments. Kaplan and Kaplan (1989) and Herzog and Bryce (2007)
324 emphasize that mystery in natural environments should not be misinterpreted as obstructed view
325 and surprise. Instead, people tend to prefer environments where the visual accessibility is good,
326 but where there are also elements of mystery (Herzog & Bryce, 2007). Good visual access in
327 woodland vegetation can add to mystery deeper inside the environment and may therefore
328 increase both safety and preference (Herzog & Bryce, 2007). This means that increased visual

329 access through decreased density of woodland vegetation might favour both. Gustavsson (2004)
330 emphasizes for example the aesthetic value of revealing interior vegetation qualities.

331
332 The possibility of combining attractiveness with safety in woodland vegetation through low
333 vegetation density is also mentioned by Schroeder and Anderson (1984), who conducted studies
334 where students assessed photographs of park environments. Dense vegetation was most often
335 seen as the most attractive, while parks with an urban character were seen as the safest. However,
336 it was expected that these two parameters could be combined, with increased penetration and
337 decreased density, by reducing shrubs and raising tree canopies in woodland vegetation while
338 preserving the natural character (Schroeder & Andersson, 1984).

339
340 Vegetation that is only moderately dense or varies in density can meet the demands for mystery
341 and penetration, providing more attractive areas that are also safer. Coles and Bussey (2000)
342 claim that it is important for urban woodlands to be kept well maintained and with an open
343 structure if they are to be appreciated and perceived as safe. This is supported by findings by
344 Bjerke et al. (2006) showing that landscapes with moderately dense vegetation are preferred to
345 landscapes with either more open or more dense vegetation. To meet the needs of many and be
346 attractive for recreation, green areas should provide a variety of vegetation types and degrees of
347 density (Bjerke et al., 2006).

348

349 It has also been suggested that perception of personal safety is affected by the interplay between
350 landscape design and vegetation structure or density (Jorgensen et al., 2002). Despite dense
351 understory generally being perceived as unsafe when considering vegetation structure only, in
352 that study it was reported to be the safest when there was woodland vegetation on one side only.
353 When woodland vegetation was on one side and a tree on the other, the vegetation structure had
354 little effect. Landscape design and vegetation density can therefore be expected to interact and
355 affect personal safety in combination. This shows that there might be possibilities for varying
356 woodland planting density in the understory without negative effects on perceived personal safety
357 if the landscape design is considered. The safest understory in the study by Jorgensen et al.
358 (2002) was perceived to be one without shrubs, which points to the importance of visual
359 penetration, but with a flowering field layer.

360

361 **Vegetation character and maintenance**

362 To understand why green spaces such as parks and woodlands are sometimes associated with
363 fear, it can be important to examine the character and maintenance of the vegetation. It has been
364 proposed that fear about personal safety is linked to people's fear of 'wild' forest and nature in
365 general (Burgess et al., 1988; Bixler & Floyd, 1997; Jorgensen, 2004; Jorgensen et al., 2007). If
366 fear of the wild is a reason, the character of vegetation and not just its effect on the view could be
367 important. Jorgensen (2004) and Jorgensen et al. (2007) conclude for example that areas with
368 ecological plantings are perceived as unsafe because they differ greatly in character from
369 parklands in the style of the English Landscape movement, which is predominant and preferred in
370 Western green spaces. Jorgensen et al. (2007) found that residents in housing areas with such

371 vegetation were more likely to identify unsafe places in their local area than residents in other
372 areas. They therefore proposed the use of well-tended landscapes, such as decorative public
373 plantings, close to people's homes, although emphasizing the equally urgent need among many
374 urban dwellers for nearby "accessible wilderness-like areas" (Jorgensen et al., 2007, p. 285).
375 However, Özgüner and Kendle (2006) found that park users in Sheffield considered themselves
376 to be equally safe in parks with a natural character and in those where the vegetation is more
377 formal. Hence, it is not clear what effect the character of park vegetation has on perceived
378 personal safety.

379

380 Negative effects on perceived personal safety may be based on assumptions about what can
381 happen in woodland shrubbery with an untidy appearance. According to Jorgensen et al. (2007, p.
382 280), clusters of shrubby vegetation in residential areas may be considered to provide "a haven
383 for anti-social activities". Activities such as vandalism and littering and physical signs of these or
384 users associated with them, such as youths, commonly cause fear (Day et al., 2003), not least in
385 park environments (Burgess et al., 1988). This may contribute to people feeling unsafe and to
386 threatening behaviour becoming increasingly accepted (Valentine, 1989). The importance of
387 removing such signs of disorder has been emphasized in the influential "broken windows
388 theory", according to which signs of disorder are part of a downward spiral that can lead to a
389 lowering of standards and an increase in crime and fear of crime (Wilson & Kelling, 1982).
390 Despite criticism of the theory, the connection between perceived disorder and low perceived
391 safety is commonly cited. The importance of a well-kept impression for safety and comfort has
392 been shown in some studies of woodland vegetation (Shaffer & Anderson, 1985; O'Brien, 2005;
393 Jorgensen et al., 2007). Jorgensen et al. (2007) suggested that maintenance for variation and signs

394 of cultivation would improve safety and preference in residential areas with woodland vegetation.
395 O'Brien (2005) found that low perceived personal safety in woodlands in the UK was connected
396 with an absence of signs of care and management, or even impressions of neglect and abuse.

397

398 **Discussion and recommendations for further research**

399 This review shows that perceived personal safety in urban woodland vegetation is influenced by a
400 number of individual and social factors, but also by factors in the environment, including
401 vegetation. It is possible to develop urban woodland vegetation to counteract perceptions of lack
402 of safety. The literature concerning perceived personal safety in relation to woodland vegetation
403 indicates four aspects as being of special interest for further studies: landscape design,
404 possibilities for overview and control, vegetation density, and vegetation character and
405 maintenance. These aspects interact in affecting perceived personal safety and cannot be totally
406 separated from each other. For example, landscape design improvements such as well-planned
407 and well-designed vegetation might also lead to improved possibilities for overview and control,
408 and density and landscape design can be expected to interact (Jorgensen et al., 2002). Safety-
409 improving changes to woodland vegetation can include a more open character with less density in
410 the undergrowth, which can lead to improved visual control and visual penetration and a more
411 well-maintained impression (Schroeder & Anderson, 1984; Coles & Bussey, 2000; Bjerke et al.,
412 2006). Low density in the vegetation undergrowth can therefore be seen as a key component for
413 increased perceived personal safety, while still retaining woodland vegetation character and
414 benefits. Overall, the literature indicates the importance of careful design and management for
415 urban woodland vegetation to be perceived as both safe and attractive, while retaining or
416 improving the many benefits of such vegetation for people.

417
418 Besides the role of vegetation, it is also important to be aware that many different factors add to
419 an individual's perception of personal safety in urban green areas. Better knowledge is needed
420 not only concerning the role of vegetation, but also of social factors such as gender, age and
421 socio-economic background. Individual factors pose a challenge for future research and
422 development, and more information is needed about different people's lack of perceived personal
423 safety and the origins of their fear in order to understand individual variance. For example, it may
424 be important to provide variation in green environments through design and maintenance for
425 increased individual options (Bjerke et al., 2006; Jorgensen et al., 2007; Edwards et al., 2011) and
426 to develop urban woodland vegetation towards increased multi-functionality for different user
427 groups (Florgård & Forsberg, 2006).

428
429 There is a need for further research on perceived personal safety in urban woodland vegetation,
430 how the different aspects interact and how such knowledge can lead to improvement. The
431 particularly limited amount of research concerning residential green areas highlights the need to
432 study such areas and their particular conditions explicitly. Studies conducted on personal safety
433 aspects in public spaces such as parks cannot be expected to be fully applicable in a residential
434 context (Lindgren & Nilsen, 2012).

435
436 The four aspects affecting perceived personal safety in urban woodland vegetation (landscape
437 design, possibilities for overview and control, vegetation density, vegetation character and
438 maintenance) do not act singly but have important interactions, which are generally not

439 considered in previous studies. Thus future research should be directed at testing these
 440 interactions in developing vegetation concepts. More careful descriptions of various aspects,
 441 including different vegetation types, are needed to fully reveal the complexity of perceived
 442 personal safety in relation to urban woodland vegetation. The set of variables presented in this
 443 paper includes complexity not only in environmental factors but also in individual and social
 444 factors, directing future research towards qualitative, context-based studies.

445

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449

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Table 1. Summary of the initial literature search

Search word	Search word	Number of articles found	Number of relevant articles found	Articles found. Numbers correspond to titles in Table 2.
safety	AND parks	1168	3	2, 4, 10
fear	AND parks	153	4	1, 2, 7, 10
safety	AND vegetation	622	4	3, 4, 5, 6
fear	AND vegetation	62	4	3, 5, 6, 9
safety	AND woodland	74	4	2, 3, 4, 8
fear	AND woodland	19	2	2, 3
		2098	21	

Table 2. The articles found in the initial literature search

1	Bixler, R., & Floyd, M. (1997). Nature is scary, disgusting, and uncomfortable. <i>Environment and Behavior</i> , 29(4), 443-467.
2	Jorgensen, A., & Anthopoulou, A. (2007). Enjoyment and fear in urban woodlands – Does age make a difference? <i>Urban Forestry & Urban Greening</i> , 6(4), 267-278.
3	Jorgensen A., Hitchmough, J., & Dunnett, N. (2007). Woodland as a setting for housing-appreciation and fear and the contribution to residential satisfaction and place identity in Warrington New Town, UK. <i>Landscape and Urban Planning</i> , 79(3-4), 273-287.
4	Jorgensen, A., Hitchmough, J., & Calvert, T. (2002). Woodland spaces and edges: Their impact on perception of safety and preference. <i>Landscape and Urban Planning</i> , 60(3), 135-150.
5	Kuo, F. E., Bacaicoa, M., & Sullivan, W. (1998). Transforming inner-city landscapes: Trees, sense of safety, and preference. <i>Environment and Behavior</i> , 30(1), 28-59.
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7	Madge, C. (1997). Public parks and the geography of fear. <i>Tijdschrift voor Economische en Sociale Geografie</i> , 88(3), 237-250.
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