

1 **Improving biodiversity in Central and Eastern European domestic gardens needs**
2 **regionally scaled strategies**

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Abbreviations

CEE: Central and Eastern Europe

CZ, EE, HR, HU, LV, PL, RO, SI, SK: Czechia, Estonia, Croatia, Hungary, Latvia, Poland, Romania, Slovenia, Slovakia

NUTS: The Nomenclature of Territorial Units for Statistics

PPS: purchasing power standards per inhabitant

GAR, RES, PES index: garden-, respondent-, pesticide index

NMMc: No Mow May campaign

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33

34 Abstract

35 Amid ongoing urbanisation and increasing anthropogenic activities, domestic gardens, while
36 cannot replace natural habitats, play a crucial role in enhancing urban biodiversity by supporting
37 green areas and as parts of ecological corridors. Moreover, these biodiversity-friendly gardens
38 also improve human well-being and foster a connection between nature and people. We
39 circulated an online questionnaire between 2022 and 2023 to investigate how the garden
40 parameters, the gardening motivation of garden owners, and their pesticide use habits depend
41 on each other in nine Central- and Eastern European (CEE) countries. Moreover, we aimed to
42 explore the differences and similarities between gardens and gardening practices with a
43 potential for maintaining high biodiversity. To achieve this, we assessed the ecological value of
44 the gardens, the motivation of garden owners, and their pesticide use habits using an answer-
45 based scoring system. Our findings reveal significant variability both among participating
46 countries and within them on a smaller and larger scale, across all three indices, highlighting
47 the need for region-specific circumstances rather than unified regulations across European
48 countries to maximize the conservation value examined. Our study underscores the potential of
49 domestic gardens in designing eco-networks and informs strategies to optimize their
50 environmental benefits. However, due to the ubiquitous domestic use of pesticides in CEE,
51 informing garden owners about the environmental and human health effects of pesticides would
52 be equally necessary in every area, both urban and rural. Additionally, our findings suggest that
53 effective environmental educational programs and tailored strategies should be developed to
54 meet local needs rather than overarching but too general international targets. At the same time,
55 these programs should provide comprehensive biodiversity-related information, reaching all

56 strata of society. This is especially important in CEE, where such initiatives are currently under-
57 emphasized.

58

59 **Keywords:** rural-urban gradient; urban ecosystems; environmental consciousness; sustainable
60 gardening; environmental sensitivity; urbanisation

61

62 **1. Introduction**

63 Built-up urban areas will cover 7% of the European Union (EU) by 2030 (Perpiña Castillo et
64 al., 2019) and this ongoing urbanisation and increasing anthropogenic activities, in turn,
65 contribute to biodiversity loss (Hagen et al., 2012) and the rapid decline of natural ecosystems
66 (Bengtsson et al., 2000). Most parts of Europe are already impoverished, and characterised by
67 small natural areas, broken up by human intervention into a mosaic of agricultural lands and
68 settlements (European Environment Agency, 2012; Eurostat, 2022b; Jongman, 2002; Perpiña
69 Castillo et al., 2019). Thus, it is particularly important to halt, or at least reduce losses in human-
70 managed areas and, as much as possible, maximise biodiversity. However, whilst conservation
71 efforts for maintaining and preserving biodiversity have already been a part of many agricultural
72 systems (Concepción et al., 2020; van Elsen, 2000), urban biodiversity rarely gains enough
73 attention (Fischer et al., 2020; Ramalho & Hobbs, 2012). Although, the European Commission
74 proposed a law to stop the loss of green urban spaces by 2030, and gain 5% by 2050 with a
75 minimum tree canopy cover (European Commission, 2022) the area of urban green spaces has
76 only increased in some Southern and Western European cities (e.g. Pamplona/Iruña (Spain) and
77 Hague (Netherlands)). From Eastern Europe, Czechia, Poland, and Romania are just about to
78 catch up (European Environment Agency, 2023; Kabisch & Haase, 2013). Yet, in none of the
79 EU countries, could the amount of re-naturalised areas compensate for what has been lost for
80 urbanization (European Commission, 2022).

81 Urban green infrastructure covers an average of 42% of the city area according to the European
82 Environment Agency (EEA) (European Environment Agency, 2022), implying that urban
83 biodiversity can be substantially improved by developing green infrastructure (Baldock, 2020;
84 Baldock et al., 2019; Heidt & Neef, 2008; Liang et al., 2023), such as diversifying city/urban
85 parks and community gardens, rooftop gardens, establishing bee-friendly meadows, creating a
86 network of corridors, and installing green roofs (Aguilera et al., 2019; Beninde et al., 2015; Lin

87 et al., 2015; Seitz et al., 2022). Besides public places, however, private domestic gardens occupy
88 an average of 16-36% of urban green areas in Europe, and therefore the role of domestic gardens
89 in preserving and supporting native biodiversity and their contribution to urban sustainability
90 are becoming increasingly important (Cameron et al., 2012; Fontaine et al., 2016; Goddard et
91 al., 2010; Hanson et al., 2021). Indeed, enhancing environmental quality in domestic gardens
92 offers a great opportunity to improve human well-being (Camps-Calvet et al., 2016; Krols et
93 al., 2022; Marques et al., 2021) and alleviate biodiversity loss simultaneously (Li et al., 2023).
94 The biodiversity of domestic gardens varies along a wide spectrum (Home et al., 2019;
95 Lindemann-Matthies & Marty, 2013), and their ecological value is determined by multiple
96 environmental factors, such as climate, adjacent landscape mosaic/characteristics (Braschler et
97 al., 2020), natural vegetation (Borysiak et al., 2017; Prendergast et al., 2022), and soil
98 composition (Tresch et al., 2018, 2019). Although these intrinsic attributes are beyond owners'
99 control, the impact of domestic gardens on biodiversity primarily depends on the decisions of
100 garden owners, which dictates design, use, and management (Quistberg et al., 2016). With
101 appropriate management, even small or highly anthropized domestic gardens can support high
102 biodiversity (Donkersley et al., 2023; Griffiths-Lee et al., 2022; Muratet & Fontaine, 2015). On
103 the other hand, numerous anthropogenic stressors (Varga-Szilay et al., 2024) and a series of
104 'tyranny of small decisions' (Dewaelheyns et al., 2016), such as the intensity of cultivation (van
105 der Veen, 2005), mowing frequency (Lerman et al., 2018) or pesticide use (Tassin de Montaigu
106 & Goulson, 2023), often compromise the ecological value of gardens (Varga-Szilay & Pozsgai,
107 2022). There is an agreement that the potential ecological value of gardens in conservation
108 correlates positively with the structural diversity of gardens (Majewska & Altizer, 2020),
109 reduced pesticide usage (Tassin de Montaigu & Goulson, 2023), and reduced mowing
110 frequency (Chollet et al., 2018; Lerman et al., 2018; Proske et al., 2022). Ultimately, however,
111 garden management is a series of decisions with mixed motivations (Hruška et al., 2021) and

112 external factors such as demographics, household income, neighbours' expectations,
113 accessibility of information, and education, can influence owners' behaviour (Goddard et al.,
114 2013; Varga-Szilay et al., 2024). Hence, considering all factors, evaluating the biodiversity
115 values of gardens necessitates considering the garden owners' management and attitude toward
116 a diverse garden. The major drivers in management may depend on several societal factors.
117 In Western Europe, leisure opportunities and recreational activities have long been the primary
118 drivers of gardening, promoting well-being (Beumer, 2018) whereas in Central and Eastern
119 Europe (CEE) gardening for food self-provisioning (FSP) still may dominate (Jehlička et al.,
120 2020, 2021; Smith & Jehlička, 2013). CEE countries share a historical background in FSP,
121 which is thought to be a coping strategy for economic pressures (Alber & Kohler, 2008; Jehlička
122 et al., 2021). However, the previous differences in gardening motivation are gradually
123 beginning to blur with the emergence of new gardening trends (e.g. wildlife-friendly gardening)
124 in both Western and Central- and Eastern Europe (Keshavarz et al., 2016; Ponižy et al., 2021)
125 as the demand for ensuring food security and quality in Western countries grows (Church et al.,
126 2015; Glavan et al., 2018; Pourias et al., 2016). At the same time, gardening in CEE countries
127 shifts toward recreational activities (Petzke et al., 2021; Tóth et al., 2018; Trendov, 2018). Yet,
128 the increasing emphasis on nature conservation across all of Europe, (Galluzzi et al., 2010;
129 Muller et al., 2010; Vávra et al., 2014), seems to be embraced by CEE countries slower than in
130 their Western counterparts (Hruška et al., 2021; Vávra et al., 2018).

131 Thus, the divide in the applied gardening practices between East and West remains significant.
132 Indeed, due to the limited access to biodiversity-related information (Coisnon et al., 2019;
133 European Commission, Directorate-General for Communication, 2015), lower willingness to
134 change to environmentally friendly practices, and the extensive use of pesticides (European
135 Commission, Directorate-General for Communication, 2015), CEE appears to be lagging

136 behind in the adoption of biodiversity-friendly practices (for example leave space for wildlife)
137 (European Commission, Directorate-General for Communication, 2015).

138 As differences between East and West remain, assessing the ecological value of domestic
139 gardens, therefore, requires consideration of location-specific anthropogenic and environmental
140 variables (Varga-Szilay et al., 2024). Whilst there have been numerous studies investigating the
141 role of gardens in maintaining urban biodiversity in Western Europe since the 1990s (Delahay
142 et al., 2023), in CEE these are scarce (but see Varga-Szilay et al., (2024) and Varga-Szilay &
143 Pozsgai (2022).

144 To address this knowledge gap, here, we seek to investigate how the garden parameters, the
145 gardening motivation of garden owners, and their pesticide use habits depend on each other in
146 nine Central- and Eastern European countries and explore the differences and similarities
147 between gardens and gardening practices with a potential for maintaining high biodiversity.
148 Since these can fundamentally drive local educational strategies, we particularly aim to pinpoint
149 how geographical differences and sociodemographic parameters best predict domestic gardens'
150 ecological values, the respondents' attitudes towards supporting insect pollinators in their
151 gardens, and their pesticide use habits.

152 Since the efficiency of biodiversity-friendly activities depends on the historical biodiversity of
153 a given area (Dobrovodská et al., 2023) and these activities can achieve faster and greater
154 ecological benefits in simplified and heavily human-modified landscapes (Haenke et al., 2009),
155 a map of the potential impact of improving the ecological value of domestic gardens can be
156 drawn. Hence, insight into the costs and benefits of initiatives for increasing garden diversities
157 is essential for effective planning and management, our imperative is to highlight those areas
158 in CEE where these programs can yield the greatest rewards (e.g. densely populated regions
159 originally hosting high biodiversity).

160

161 2. Material and methods

162 2.1 Questionnaire design and data collection

163 The online questionnaire was distributed in nine CEE countries (Croatia, Czech, Estonia,
164 Hungary, Latvia, Poland, Romania, Slovakia, and Slovenia), all of which were formerly part of
165 the Eastern Block and are currently members of the European Union.

166 The questionnaire was translated from Hungarian to English and then from English to Croatian,
167 Czech, Estonian, Latvian, Polish, Romanian, Slovak, and Slovenian. The participants could
168 choose the language in which they wanted to complete the questionnaire. It was mandatory to
169 respond to 55 of the total 59 questions, organised into nine sections, which took a maximum of
170 15 minutes to complete. The questionnaire gathered information about the location and the main
171 characteristics of the garden, the socio-demographic parameters, the garden owners'
172 motivations, cultivation habits, pesticide usage, environmental awareness, and pollinator-
173 friendly practices. Although participants had to indicate their gender (male, female, other), their
174 highest level of completed education (elementary, middle, postsecondary, postgraduate), and
175 their residency according to the Nomenclature of Territorial Units for Statistics (henceforth
176 NUTS, (Eurostat, 2021)), all responses were otherwise anonymously recorded. Because of the
177 large number of NUTS-3 regions in Poland, to simplify the questionnaire, here, residencies
178 were recorded at NUTS-2 levels, while for the other eight participating countries were recorded
179 at NUTS-3 levels.

180 The questionnaire was designed using Google Forms and was actively distributed between 26th
181 October 2022 and 18th May 2023, for 90 days in each of the nine participating countries (**SM**
182 **Table 1**). The questionnaire was disseminated through channels such as gardening-oriented
183 websites, and various online social media platforms (for instance Facebook and Instagram)
184 where QR codes and hashtags were used to increase the sharing efficiency. Moreover, through
185 targeted email distributions, outreach efforts extended to professional associations, non-

186 governmental organizations, foundations, and societies dedicated to domestic gardening and
187 environmental conservation.

188

189 2.2 Definitions

190 Not all respondents are, actually, the owners of the gardens they reported on in the questionnaire
191 but, for simplicity, we refer to everyone as a ‘garden owner’. For terminological clarity, we
192 used the definitions of ‘pesticides’ and ‘gardening’ as given by (Varga-Szilay et al., 2024).
193 Pesticides were defined as ‘all synthetic and non-synthetic products that are used to control
194 pests’, including ‘all commercially available and homemade plant protection products, either
195 those allowed in organic gardening or used in conventional practices’. Gardening was defined
196 as ‘all garden work and all garden care practices, such as the cultivation of flowers, fruits,
197 vegetables, and ornamental plants, mowing, and soil management’ (Varga-Szilay et al., 2024,
198 p. 2).

199

200 2.3 Data processing

201 For the analysis, we used 43 questions relevant to our aims of the original 59 ones. The original
202 categorical replies of our questionnaire were re-categorised for analytical purposes on a few
203 occasions (see **Supplementary Methods**). NUTS polygons, number of inhabitants, the regional
204 gross domestic product (GDP) in purchasing power standards per inhabitant for each NUTS
205 (PPS, henceforth), and the urban-rural typology for each NUTS-3 region were obtained from
206 ArcGIS Data and Maps (2022a, 2022b) and Eurostat (2022a, 2024), respectively. PPS was only
207 available for NUTS-2 categories. When country capitals with separate NUTS categories were
208 situated within a larger unit, capitals were merged with the largest NUTS surrounding them
209 (CZ, HR, HU, LV, PL, RO). In these cases, for PPS and number of inhabitants, the mean and
210 sum of the merged areas were calculated, respectively. In the case of urban-rural typology data,

211 the originally obtained NUTS-3 categories were merged into NUTS-2 in Poland, and the NUTS
212 polygons of the above mentioned capitals were merged with the surrounding polygons. For this,
213 a weighted mean of the numerized typology index was calculated using the areas of the merged
214 NUTS polygons as weights. The means were rounded to the nearest integer and converted back
215 to categories. Spatial and polygon calculations were conducted using the ‘sf’ (Pebesma, 2018)
216 R package.

217

218 2.4 Answer-based scoring system

219 We rated the potential ecological value of the gardens, the garden owners' motivation for
220 gardening, and pesticide use habits with an answer-based scoring system. For this, we used a
221 total of 32 questions from the original 59. The garden (GAR) index shows what potential a
222 domestic garden has to maintain high biodiversity. This index reflects on the structural diversity
223 of the gardens, including garden size, the area of undisturbed patches and plants covering the
224 garden, and the habitat types of adjacent areas, as well as, the disturbance level and the presence
225 of artificial habitats. The calculation of this index was based on 12 questions and consisted of
226 10 components, which contributed with different weights. The weights were determined by the
227 importance of the components in maintaining high biodiversity. The respondent (RES) index
228 assesses the garden owners' knowledge on garden wildlife and their attitudes to
229 maintaining/creating a biodiversity-friendly garden. The RES index was based on 10 questions
230 and consisted of 10 components, including both theoretical (e.g. ‘Do you think...?’/‘Can you
231 imagine...?’) and practical (e.g. ‘How do you...?’) questions/question groups, which
232 contributed to the index with different weights. The pesticide (PES) index shows the degree of
233 pesticide load in gardens by assessing the amount and diversity of pesticides used and the
234 related knowledge of the garden owners. It was based on 10 questions and consisted of 11
235 components, which were contributed to the index with different weights. All indices were scaled

236 between 0 (as the lowest) and 100 (as the highest) points. For the full details of the index
237 calculation process, the reader should consult with the **Supplementary Methods**.

238

239 2.5 Bird index

240 As a proxy for local biodiversity, we collected a full list of bird species recorded between 2010
241 and 2023 in each NUTS-3 area (except in Poland, see above) from the Global Biodiversity
242 Information Facility (GBIF.org, 2024). To minimise the observer bias and the effect of rare
243 species, in each NUTS, we only considered species that had more than five recorded
244 occurrences per year from the particular area. We standardised the collated number of species
245 with the area of the NUTS (i.e. divided the species number with the area of NUTS in km
246 squares). Using the same methodology we also gathered a species list for the whole area of
247 interest (i.e. the nine participating countries) and standardised for bird species per km². We then
248 divided the standardised local bird richness with the standardised whole-area bird richness. For
249 collecting bird data we used the ‘rgbif’ (Chamberlain et al., 2024) and for spatial calculations
250 the ‘sf’ (Pebesma, 2018) R packages.

251

252 2.6 Urban-rural typology

253 The European urban-rural typology data is a qualitative index which classifies grid cells into
254 rural and non-rural grids and establishes three categories (predominantly rural, intermediate,
255 and predominantly urban) of urbanization based on the percentage of the population living in
256 rural grid cells (Eurostat, 2024). We employed this index to approximate urbanisation. Since
257 the qualitative nature of this index, we also converted our indices to categorical variables by
258 dividing them at their 0.33 and 0.66 quantiles. When calculating the quantiles, only measured
259 values were included and the theoretical minimum and maximum were not considered. NUTS
260 areas with less than five respondents were excluded.

261

262 2.6 Statistical analysis

263 We examined the correlation between the three indices (GAR, RES, PES) with the Spearman
264 correlation test. For calculating the correlation matrix the ‘psych’ (Revelle, 2021) R package
265 was used.

266 We used the Kruskal-Wallis method to test if GAR, RES, and PES indices differ among
267 countries. Pairwise differences were investigated using the pairwise Wilcoxon test with Holm-
268 corrected p-values.

269 The three indices were used as response variables in three separate Gradient Boosting Machine
270 (GBM) learning processes. Seven socio-demographic variables (gender, age, education level,
271 having children, gardening experience, gardening perception and the average time spent
272 gardening), the PPS, latitude and longitude were also included in the model as numerical
273 explanatory variables. We randomly divided the datasets into training (70%) and test (30%)
274 sets. After an optimisation and tuning process of the model parameters, we built the GBM model
275 using a Gaussian distribution with 5 levels of interaction depth, with 0.3 shrinkage, 0.80 bag
276 fraction, and a 10 fold cross validation on 28 (for GAR index), 26 (for RES index), and 10 (for
277 PES index) trees. The model fit was evaluated by calculating the R-squared and Root Mean
278 Standard Error (RMSE) values. We used the SHapley Additive exPlanations (SHAP) method
279 to interpret our final GBM models with the ‘shapviz’ (Mayer & Stando, 2023) and ‘kernelshap’
280 (Mayer et al., 2023) R packages. The SHAP assesses individual variable contributions, accounts
281 for variable interactions, assigns importance values, and facilitates the comparison between all
282 possible variable orders (Lundberg & Lee, 2017). Since GBM predicted the country identity as
283 the most influential variable on all three indices, we examined the relationship between GAR
284 and PES indices (the two non-correlating ones) separately for each country and explored how
285 the other important variables grouped within this data cloud.

286 For modelling and the visualization of model results, we used the ‘gbm’ (Greenwell et al., 2022)
287 and ‘caret’ (Kuhn et al., 2023) packages in an R environment (R Core Team, 2021).
288 Preliminary data clean-up was done in a Python (Python Software Foundation, 2019)
289 environment, with the help of ‘NumPy’ (Harris et al., 2020) and ‘Pandas’ (The pandas
290 development team, 2022) libraries.

291

292 **3. Results**

293 **3.1 Garden owners’ socio-demographic characteristics**

294 Altogether 5,255 garden owners completed the questionnaire from the 9 participating countries
295 (**SM Figure 1, SM Table 1**), of which 1146 were males (21.80%), 4094 were females (77.91%),
296 and 15 were non-binary gender (0.29%). The majority of respondents were between 36 and 55
297 years old (n=2841, 54.06%). The greatest proportion of garden owners had a postsecondary
298 education level (n=3225, 61.37%), followed by the middle education level (n=1466, 27.90%)
299 and postgraduates (n=512, 9.74%), while only 52 respondents had elementary school as the
300 highest level of their education (0.99%) (**SM Table 2**).

301 In all participating countries, most of the respondents considered gardening as their favourite
302 hobby (between 21.05% and 58.31%) or a pleasant pastime (between 26.46% and 62.54%) (**SM**
303 **Figure 2**). In most participating countries, mowing several times a month was under 40% (**SM**
304 **Figure 3**) but in Estonia and Latvia, the majority of garden owners (65.07% and 63.61%,
305 respectively) mowed the lawn several times a month, and the proportion of those who did so
306 once a month was also high (27.04% and 21.88%). The average pesticide use among the nine
307 countries was 52.60%, ranging from 38.88% in Slovakia to 69.59% in Romania (**SM Figure**
308 **4**).

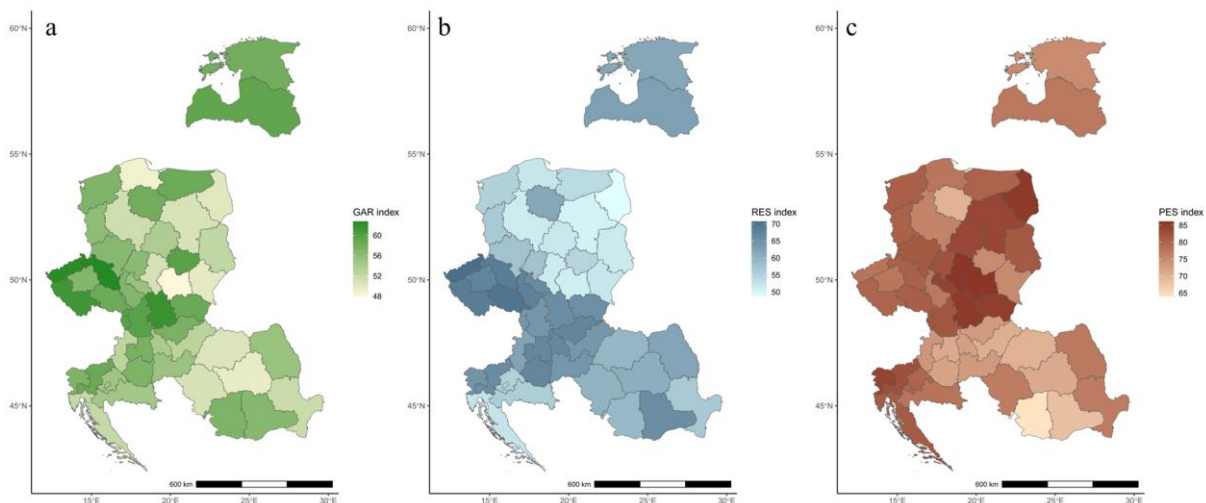
309

310 3.2 Indices

311 The mean of the calculated indices was 56.49 (range: 14.97, 91.32), 63.25 (range: 9.25, 96.75),
312 76.33 (range: 24.87, 100), for GAR, RES, and PES, respectively (**SM Table 3**). The GAR index
313 with the RES index showed a strong, positive correlation (Spearman's rho = 0.55, $p < 0.001$).
314 The PES index showed an almost negligible, negative correlation with the RES index
315 (Spearman's rho = -0.09, $p < 0.001$). There was no significant correlation between GAR and
316 PES indices ($p = 0.487$).

317 There were significant differences between the participating countries in all three indices (GAR,
318 RES, PES) (Kruskal-Wallis chi-squared = 290.85, 671.51, and 235.13, respectively, $p < 0.001$)
319 (**SM Table 4, 5**), and the index values varied broadly among NUTS areas (**Figure 1**). A total of
320 197 respondents had all three scores below the first quartile of the indices, with those from
321 Romania and Hungary faring the worst, whilst there were a total of 90 respondents in the third
322 quartile of all indices, mostly from Czechia and Slovenia (**SM Table 3**).

323



324

325 **Figure 1:** The garden (a), respondents (b) and pesticide (c) indices in the nine participating
326 countries. The colour depth of the maps indicates the mean of the indices calculated for each
327 NUTS-2 area.

328

329 3.3 GBM outputs

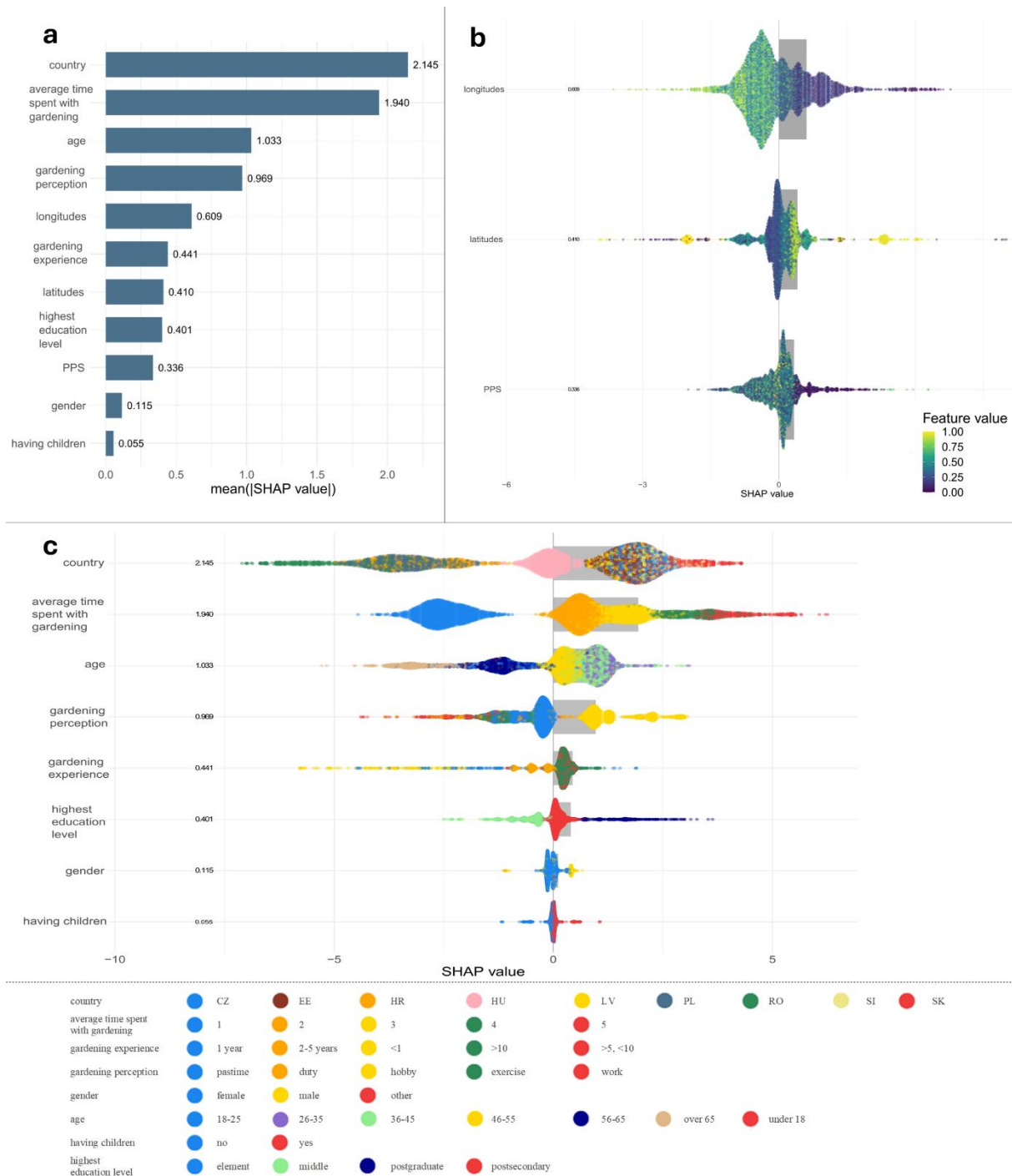
330 GAR index

331 The GBM model for the GAR index explained 12.45% of the variance for new observations
332 (RMSE =11.29), with SHAP values indicating the country variable being the best and the
333 average time that garden owners spent with gardening being the second-best predictors (SHAP
334 value = 2.15, 1.94, respectively) (**Figure 2a**).

335 Countries like Romania, Poland, and Croatia shifted the GAR index toward the lower, while
336 Czechia, Estonia, Latvia, Slovenia, and Slovakia to higher values. (**Figure 2c**) DIV index
337 increased with increasing time spent with gardening.

338 Age over 56 shifted the GAR index toward lower values (particularly the age group of over 65),
339 in contrast with the age under 55 resulting in higher values. Perceiving gardening as a work or
340 a pleasant pastime both lowered the GAR index values while perceiving it as a favourite hobby
341 increased them. Postsecondary and postgraduate education shifted the index to higher values,
342 while middle-level education to lower ones. Albeit it had a low influence in the model, garden
343 owners who had children separated well from those who did not, with those having children
344 shifting the index to higher values. The GAR index values were increased from the west to the
345 east (**Figure 2b**).

346



347

348 **Figure 2:** Global SHAP (SHapley Additive exPlanations) summary plots for the GBM model

349 of the GAR index. Variables ordered by their (a) importance based on average absolute SHAP

350 values. Beeswarm plots of SHAP values of (b) numerical and (c) categorical variables. Each

351 point represents one respondent. For numerical variables, colours indicate variable values,

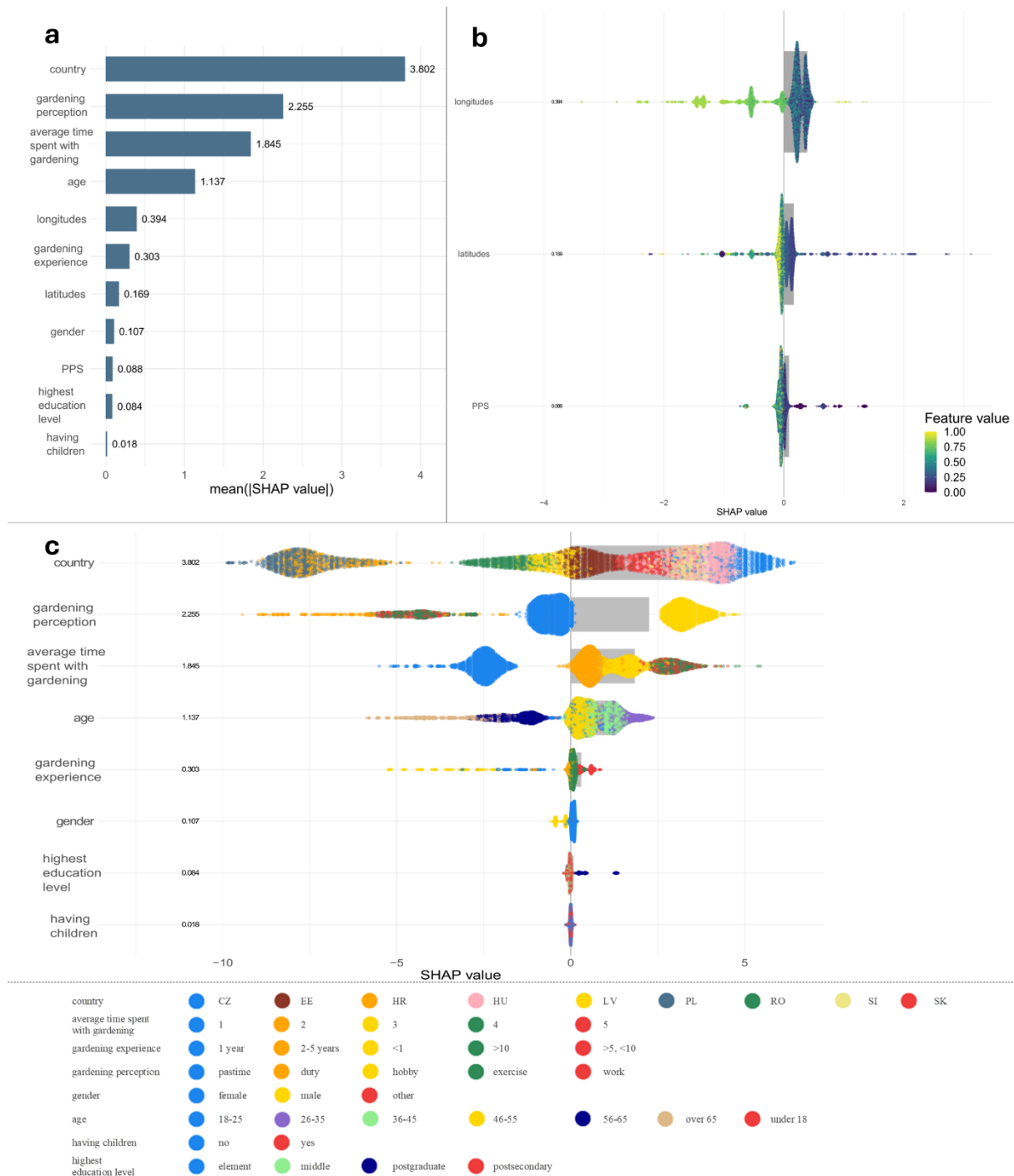
352 while for categorical variables, they represent distinct category levels.

353

354 RES index

355 The GBM model for the RES index explained 24.73% of the variance for new observations
356 (RMSE =13.13), with SHAP values indicating the country variable being the best and how
357 garden owners perceived gardening being the second-best predictors (SHAP value = 3.80, 2.26,
358 respectively) (**Figure 3a**). Whilst Hungary and Czechia had the highest SHAP values, and thus
359 the RES index, Poland and Croatia had the lowest ones, with Romania and Latvia also
360 indicating lower values. Only perceiving gardening as a favourite hobby shifted the SHAP
361 values to higher values, all other cases lowered them, especially when gardening was perceived
362 as a duty (**Figure 3c**). SHAP values increased with the time spent with gardening. Older age
363 groups predicted lower RES index values, while the 26-35 age group had higher ones. Gender,
364 education, and having a child were less important variables. However, SHAP values separated
365 well with gender, with women presenting at higher values. SHAP values increased from west
366 to east, except for a few very eastern locations presenting the highest values on the right side of
367 the axis (**Figure 3b**).

368



369

370 **Figure 3:** Global SHAP (SHapley Additive exPlanations) summary plots for the GBM model

371 of the RES index. Variables ordered by their (a) importance based on average absolute SHAP

372 values. Beeswarm plots of SHAP values of numerical (b) and categorical (c) variables. Each

373 point represents one respondent. For numerical variables, colours indicate variable values,

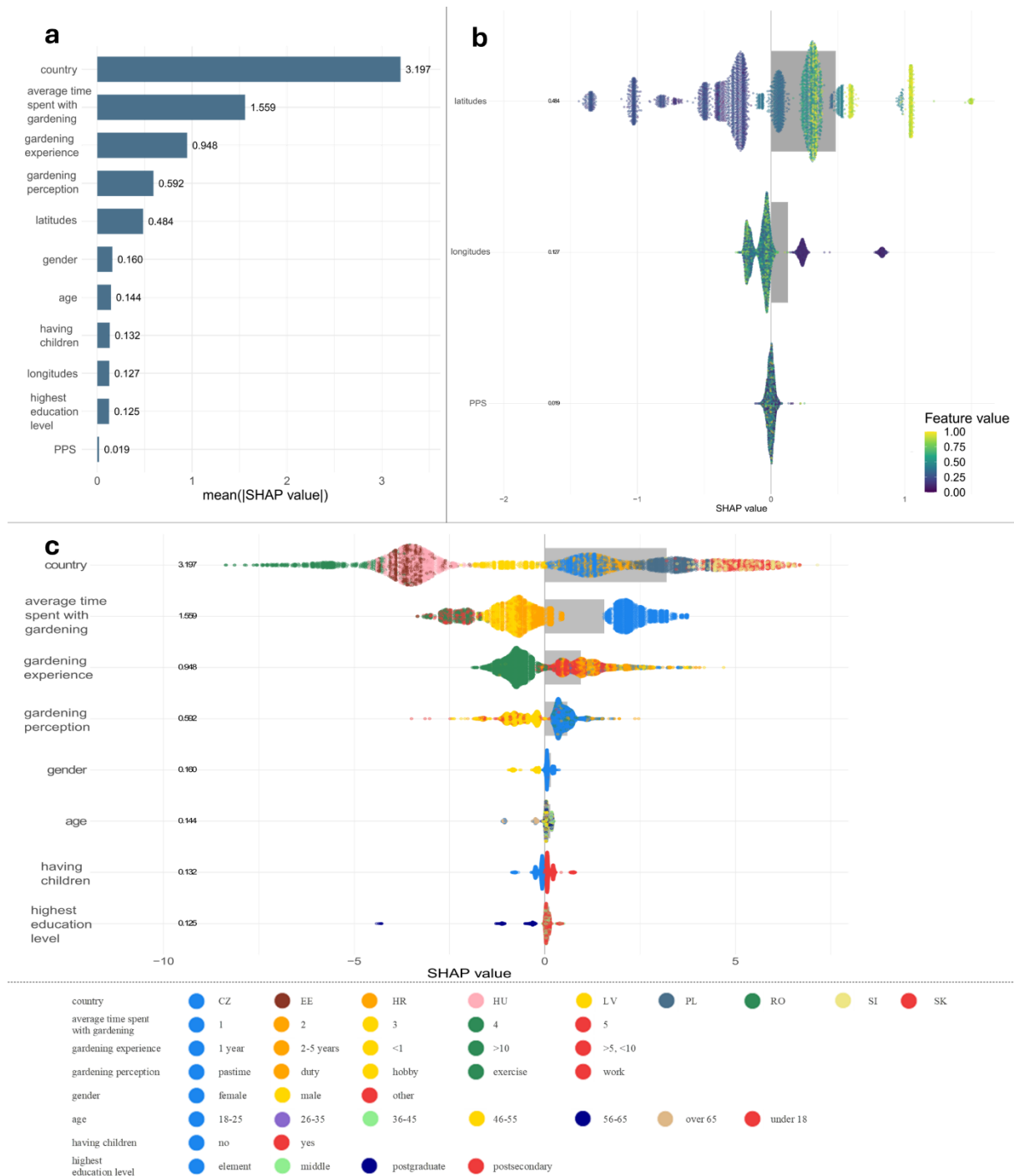
374 while for categorical variables, they represent distinct category levels.

375

376 PES index

377 The GBM model for the PES index explained 0.08% of the variance for new observations
378 (RMSE =18.19), with SHAP values indicating the country variable being the best and the
379 average time that garden owners spent with gardening being the second best predictors (SHAP
380 value = 3.20, 1.56, respectively) (**Figure 4a**). Romania, Estonia, and Hungary had the lowest
381 SHAP values, whilst Poland, Slovakia, and Slovenia showed the highest ones (**Figure 4c**). An
382 average of 1–2 hours of gardening per day predicted a higher PES index, whilst all other times
383 spent with gardening lowered it, with the lowest values associated with those who spent up to
384 12 hours a day with gardening. More than 10 years of gardening experience shifted the index
385 to lower values. Perceiving gardening as a pleasant pastime shifted SHAP to higher values,
386 whereas in most other cases, the values decreased equally when gardening was perceived as a
387 duty and a favourite hobby. Women shifted SHAP to higher values, however, gender, age,
388 having children, and education level were not deemed to be important variables. Having
389 children separated positive and negative SHAP values, with those respondents who had children
390 associated with higher values. SHAP values increased both from south to north and east to west
391 (**Figure 4b**).

392



393

394 **Figure 4:** Global SHAP (SHapley Additive exPlanations) summary plots for the GBM model

395 of the PES index. Variables ordered by their (a) importance based on average absolute SHAP

396 values. Beeswarm plots of SHAP values of numerical (b) and categorical (c) variables. Each

397 point represents one respondent. For numerical variables, colours indicate variable values,

398 while for categorical variables, they represent distinct category levels.

399

400 The GAR index as a function of the PES index

401 In our investigation into the influence of country, GAR index, and PES index on the grouping
402 of gardening experience lengths, we found that respondents who had been gardening for more
403 than 2 years were characterized by a greater potential for maintaining high biodiversity and
404 more intensive pesticide use. In Estonia, Latvia and Slovakia, those who had been gardening
405 for less than a year grouped around low pesticide input (high PES index values). On the other
406 hand, in Slovenia, among those who had been gardening for a year or less, there was no one
407 who did not use pesticides at all. In the case of Hungary and Estonia, gardeners who have been
408 gardening for less than one year scored lower in the GAR index but were also characterised by
409 lower PES index values. (**SM Figure 5**).

410 In Hungary, Poland, Romania, and Slovenia for those garden owners who considered gardening
411 as their favourite hobby the GAR index was greater than in other countries and they also scored
412 lower in the PES index (**SM Figure 6**).

413 In all participating countries, except Slovakia, the GAR index was the lowest and the pesticide
414 index the highest among garden owners who spent less than 1-2 hours with gardening (**SM**
415 **Figure 7**).

416 In all countries but Croatia older age negatively influenced the GAR index. Indeed in Romania,
417 garden owners over the age of 65 fared poorly with the GAR index and all of them used
418 pesticides. In contrast in Croatia, this age group had the highest GAR index values (**SM Figure**
419 **8**).

420

421 3.4 Areas with a potential for improvement

422 When areas within urbanization levels were cross-referenced with the categorised three indices,
423 different effects of urbanization levels of the three indices were revealed (**Figure 5**). Half of the
424 predominantly urban NUTS areas (n = 3) were categorised as low GAR values, and half of the

425 NUTS areas typologised (n = 26) as intermediate reached a medium level on the GAR index.
 426 The RES categories were relatively evenly spread both among intermediate and predominantly
 427 rural areas but most predominantly urban regions (n = 4) were categorised as medium RES
 428 (Table 1). The distribution of PES categories was uniform among predominantly urban and
 429 predominantly rural areas, whilst in intermediately urbanised regions intermediate PES
 430 category was the most common (n = 22), followed by the high and low categories (n = 17 and
 431 13, respectively) (Table 1, Figure 5).

432

433 **Table 1:** Contingency tables of urban-rural typology categories and categorised index values of
 434 bird, GAR, RES, and PES indices, as expressed by the number of NUTS areas. Values are
 435 shown as percentages of the columns.

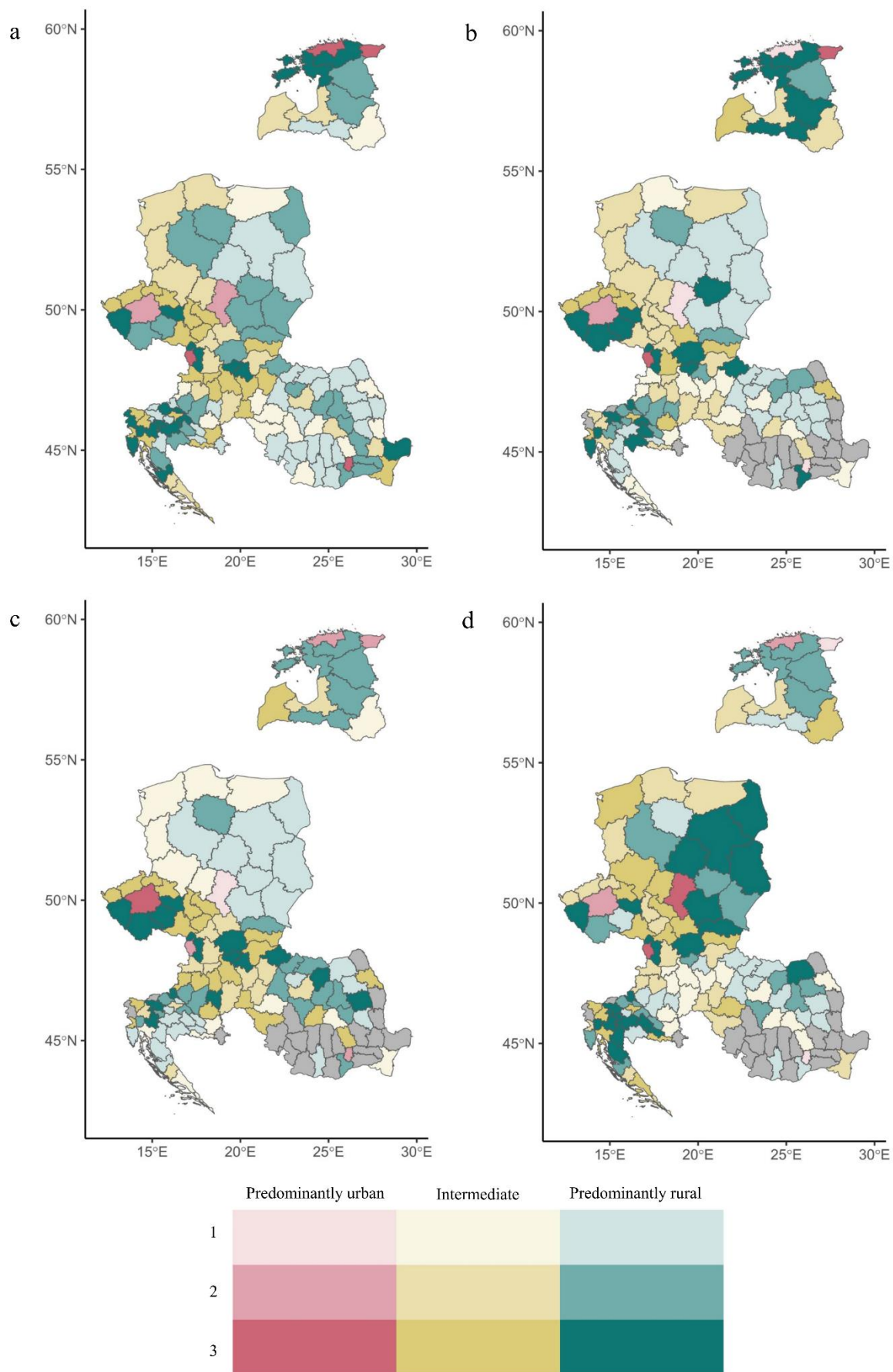
Urban-rural typology			
Bird	Predominantly urban (n = 6)	Intermediate (n = 56)	Predominantly rural (n = 77)
Low (n = 46)	0	23.21	42.86
Moderate (n = 44)	33.33	32.14	33.77
High (n = 47)	66.67	44.64	23.38
GAR*	Predominantly urban (n = 6)	Intermediate (n = 52)	Predominantly rural (n = 61)
Low (n = 41)	50.00	26.92	39.34
Moderate (n = 42)	16.67	50.00	24.59
High (n = 36)	33.33	23.08	36.07
RES*	Predominantly urban (n = 6)	Intermediate (n = 52)	Predominantly rural (n = 61)
Low (n = 41)	16.67	28.85	39.34
Moderate (n = 42)	66.67	26.92	34.43
High (n = 36)	16.67	44.23	26.23
PES*	Predominantly urban (n = 6)	Intermediate (n = 52)	Predominantly rural (n = 61)
Low (n = 41)	33.33	25.00	32.79
Moderate (n = 42)	33.33	42.31	31.15
High (n = 36)	33.33	32.69	36.07

*Represents a total of 119 areas from which we had at least 5 respondents.

436

437 Of the NUTS areas typologised as predominantly urban, Czechia, Hungary, Slovakia and
438 Slovenia had those with the highest scores of all calculated indices (bird, GAR, RES, and PES)
439 (e.g. the Plzeň region in Czechia reached the best categories in all variables but the bird index),
440 while Romania had that with the lowest (the Vrancea county in Romania fall into the worst
441 categories in all variables). All predominantly urbanised areas were categorised relatively high
442 in all indices with Slovakia being the best (Bratislava region) and Poland and Romania being
443 the worst (Silesian Voivodeship, Bucureşti-Ilfov region).

444



446 **Figure 5:** The relationship of the bird (a), garden (b), respondent (c), and pesticide (d) indices
447 with the urban-rural typology index based on NUTS-3 areas (except for Poland, in which
448 NUTS-2 were used). The colours represent the levels of urban-rural typology, as follows: red
449 – predominantly urban, yellow – intermediate, green – predominantly rural. The transparency
450 of the colour indicates the categorised index value (bird/GAR/RES/PES) on a three-level
451 scale (divided into categorised at the 0.33 and 0.66 quantiles). The grey colour indicates
452 NUTS areas from which we had less than five respondents ($n = 20$).

453

454 **4. Discussion**

455 Domestic gardens offer significant opportunities for advancing global biodiversity and
456 sustainability targets. Our work investigates the intertwined relationship between socio-
457 demographic parameters, sustainable garden management, and biodiversity conservation from
458 a highly understudied region of the EU and highlights that there are significant differences
459 among countries, and even within countries on a smaller and larger scale in the examined
460 parameters.

461 Indeed, the participating countries differed in all three examined indices, with having the least
462 differences in GAR and the most in PES, and these differences were supported by both the
463 pairwise comparisons between countries and the GMB model. There were countries
464 experiencing equally low or high values on all indices, such as Romania faring poorly in all
465 indices, whereas Slovakia showed overly high values. Sometimes indices implied counteracting
466 effects, such as a high GAR index, suggesting a great prospect for maintaining high biodiversity
467 in domestic gardens, occurred together with high pesticide use in Hungary. This is mostly in
468 line with Coisnon et al. (2019) who found similar trade-offs in variables influencing sustainable
469 gardening practices such as Hungary scoring the worst in leaving spaces for wildlife and
470 avoiding the use of pesticides, yet having been categorised as the best in selecting plants that

471 provide food for birds and pollinators and avoiding the introduction of potentially invasive
472 plants. Other countries such as Romania generally ranked poorly in both our study and known
473 from the literature (Coisnon et al., 2019) All three indices varied widely, however, indicating
474 the multidimensional nature of factors driving sustainable gardening.

475 The extensive application of pesticides beyond the agricultural sector, including domestic
476 gardens, and the inter-country disparities in pesticide usage within Europe are critical issues for
477 biodiversity-friendly gardens (Poniży et al., 2021; Varga-Szilay et al., 2024; Varga-Szilay &
478 Pozsgai, 2022). Our study found substantial differences between countries, with 20–30% of
479 respondents in Hungary and Romania thinking that the use of pesticides is either important or
480 crucially important for their gardening, a claim with which only 2% of those from Slovakia
481 agreed (**SM Figure 9**).

482 There is a disparity though between pesticide use and the other two indices we measured.
483 Although nearly 70% of respondents from Romania considered the widespread use of pesticides
484 as one of the most threatening factors to pollinators, their average pesticide use was still the
485 least favourable in our study. Indeed, what gardeners perceive as a biodiversity-friendly garden
486 may not necessarily align with its real biodiversity potential, suggesting that self-reporting
487 surveys may be misleading in this term, unless gardens are examined from multiple aspects,
488 including socio-demographic or cultural factors.

489 Indeed, in line with Larson et al. (2022), those who perceived gardening as a hobby were more
490 inclined to change their gardens to be attractive and beneficial to biodiversity, and we also
491 discovered that garden owners who dedicate more time spent with gardening tend to maintain
492 gardens with higher biodiversity potential. Our results corroborate with the findings of both
493 Philpott et al. (2020) and Lin et al. (2017) who indicated that time spent in domestic gardens
494 positively correlates with plant species richness, higher dissimilarity in crop composition, and
495 high levels of nature-relatedness. In our study, however, both when gardening was associated

496 with a hobby and more time was allocated for gardening were characterized by increased
497 pesticide use. Therefore, there is a higher possibility for these gardeners to create an ecological
498 trap in these gardens for visiting organisms (especially insects) (Varga-Szilay & Pozsgai, 2022).
499 There is, however, a noticeable contrast in behaviour based on gender and parental status
500 (**Figure 4c**) where women and respondents with children improve the outcome of the PES
501 index, whilst this separation was unclear with the other two indices.

502 Although the country identity proved to be the most important variable in predicting the
503 potential for maintaining high garden biodiversity, the respondents' attitudes towards supporting
504 biodiversity (especially pollinators) in their gardens, pesticide use, owners' perception, the
505 long-term gardening experience and daily management also proved to be important factors.
506 Furthermore, nature conservation was the prime aspect that influenced gardening habits in four
507 participating countries, albeit in three of these this did not mean a lower pesticide use, and only
508 Croatia and Poland were the ones where more than 80% of the respondents felt that nature
509 conservation does not affect their gardening habits at all (**SM Figure 10**).

510 Increasing age (especially that over 65) negatively influenced both the potential of gardens for
511 maintaining high biodiversity and the owners' attitudes toward maintaining biodiversity-
512 friendly gardens, which suggests the elderly are more inclined to follow and uphold
513 longstanding conventional practices, regardless of whether or not they are beneficial for
514 ecological sustainability. Whether these decisions are driven either by the difficulties the elderly
515 may have with manoeuvring among the continuous flow of complex ecological issues which
516 were not highlighted during most of their lives, the scarcity of the available information from
517 the more traditional information channels they use, or some alternative explanations is yet to
518 be clarified. Yet, the age-independent pesticide use we observed in the GBM model suggests
519 that even when information is broadly available behavioural change is not granted.

520 However, gardening practices and their associated socio-demographic variables exhibited
521 significant diversity among garden owners and the final outcome for biodiversity-friendliness
522 appeared to be a series of multifactor decisions depending on numerous background drivers.
523 For instance, despite several studies highlighting a substantially positive effect of GDP per
524 capita and household income on sustainable gardening practices and pollinator abundance in
525 domestic gardens (e.g. Baldock et al., 2019; Coisnon et al., 2019), in our GBM model PPS did
526 not prove to be a significant explanatory variable for any of our indices.

527 Despite the existing differences among the NUTS regions and countries in all three indices, we
528 did not find strong geographical correlations; neither latitude nor longitude had a high
529 explanatory power in our GBM model.

530 Our results show that merely examining the structural diversity of private gardens, socio-
531 demographic parameters, garden owners' gardening motivation, or biodiversity-negative
532 activities (e.g. pesticide use) individually may be insufficient for obtaining a reliable proxy of
533 whether domestic gardens could potentially maintain high diversity in human-altered areas.
534 Moreover, the lack of a clear geographical pattern and within-country diversity in all indices
535 suggests that regionally tailored rather than countrywide strategies are needed to identify
536 pathways toward sustainable green infrastructure and to improve the natural value of domestic
537 gardens. Since these strategies must be underpinned by interdisciplinary study efforts, our study
538 can offer fundamental insight into how they can be optimised and where the greatest rewards
539 can be gained. Indeed, despite the dominance of moderate values of our indices on the map,
540 local strategies can still be developed based on the preliminary classification.

541 Areas with generally **low urbanisation** and also **low biodiversity** are likely to be agricultural-
542 and farmlands in which gardens with high biodiversity can act as habitat islands, ecological
543 corridors, or stepping stones which facilitate the movement of wildlife through unsuitable
544 agricultural areas. In these areas, improving the structural complexity of the gardens and

545 reducing pesticide use could be the most beneficial for biodiversity. Disseminating knowledge
546 about ecological-friendly practices and sustainable gardening habits would also be key. Indeed,
547 the predominantly rural areas in northern Poland, where both bird index and urbanisation are
548 low, also suffer from low RES. However, information exchange here may need to rely more on
549 interpersonal relationships or traditional media than online channels (Troumbis, 2021) and
550 overall biodiversity is likely to be more impacted by agricultural rather than garden practices.
551 Attempting to improve biodiversity value in areas with generally **low urbanisation** levels and
552 **high biodiversity** probably has the least merit, yet reducing pesticide use can prohibit
553 degradation and may form garden-level biodiversity islands that increase landscape complexity.
554 Moreover, maintaining and even improving garden diversity in these areas, such as
555 predominantly rural areas in the northern part of Croatia and Slovenia, can be particularly
556 important as good examples for environmental education and maintaining source populations
557 for adjacent but less favourable areas.

558 Thus, at low urbanisation levels improving aspects of the RES would be the priority, along with
559 a substantial decrease of pesticide use. With increasing biodiversity, gardens will benefit from
560 improved conservation biological control (Lacey et al., 2015; Landis et al., 2000; Quesada-
561 Moraga et al., 2022), which may further decrease pesticide use.

562 Biodiversity-friendly activities can achieve fast and great ecological benefits in areas where
563 **urbanisation is high** and **biodiversity is low**. Although their biodiversity potential will remain
564 limited, prioritising increasing gardens' structural and plant diversity will enable them to serve
565 as ecological corridors or stepping stones for most wildlife to navigate around highly urbanised
566 areas. Although biodiversity will unlikely increase substantially, the high visibility of
567 biodiversity in densely populated areas has an outstanding educational value. Even though few
568 CEE regions fulfil these criteria (e.g. the central part of Czechia), most Western European areas
569 predominantly classified as urban fall into this category.

570 Although **high urbanisation** and **high biodiversity** rarely co-occur, some areas in CEE, such
571 as Northern Estonia, exhibit such a phenomenon. This offers an opportunity for the
572 dissemination of activities tied to increasing the RES index (e.g. through campaigns, and
573 species identification training), as they can quickly reach many individuals and engage them in
574 enhancing garden biodiversity. Additionally, these efforts provide a substantial amount of data
575 for biodiversity monitoring, resulting in additional benefits.

576 Thus, at high urbanisation levels, increasing gardens' structural diversity and other aspects
577 beneficial for maintaining high biodiversity is key but improving garden owners' attitudes
578 towards biodiversity-friendly gardening and reconnecting them to nature are also important.
579 Since the level of urbanization across Europe is projected to reach 83.7% by 2025 (United
580 Nations, 2018), this improvement in attitude is necessary to exploit the potential of domestic
581 gardens to mitigate large-scale biodiversity loss. However, due to the ubiquitous use of
582 pesticides in CEE, improving the PES index would be equally necessary in every area, both
583 urban and rural.

584 Adequate planning, at least, at the regional scale, with the active involvement of garden owners,
585 is crucial for increasing the biodiversity value of domestic gardens at a larger scale. For this,
586 future nature conservation planning strategies and studies should acknowledge the variability
587 of domestic garden owners' attitudes and gardening practices, as well as the domestic gardens'
588 potential for biodiversity conservation (Cameron et al., 2012).

589

590 4.1 Study limits

591 Although in our work we collected over 5,255 responses, this only represents a small fraction
592 of the inhabitants and gardeners of the focal area of our study. Moreover, the dissemination
593 channels we used do not allow random respondent selection and our selection process is most
594 likely to be biased towards those who had regular access to the Internet, whilst those living in

595 infrastructurally less developed parts of the countries had a lower chance to learn about our call.
596 Indeed, parts of Poland and the Southern part of Romania are highly underrepresented. Yet,
597 several countries like Estonia and Hungary, have a high coverage which likely portrays
598 faithfully the common gardening behaviours in the regions and trends in garden management
599 among domestic garden owners in the participating CEE countries.

600 In an effort to engage a broad audience in several languages, we often compromised
601 completeness for simplicity and brevity. Whilst we believe this did not affect the interpretability
602 of our questionnaire, it definitely sets limits on the use of scientific terminology and how
603 detailed information we could gain with some questions.

604 Although our questionnaire aimed for the response of only one person (the garden owner) for
605 each domestic garden, these gardens are probably cared for by more than one person (e.g. family
606 members), and thus, they are not only influenced by one person's motivation but by several's'.

607

608 4.2 Future perspectives

609 Whilst involving more participants from the surveyed CEE countries, standardising the
610 questions and expanding the area of interest to all European countries, as well as repeating the
611 same survey within a reasonable time frame would all be highly advantageous. Especially
612 investigating the distinction between the gardening habits in Western and Central-Eastern
613 European regions, as well as those from the Balkan, such as Serbia and Bulgaria, holds
614 particular potential. While addressing privacy concerns may present challenges, extending our
615 study with measures of biodiversity and landscape configuration from each garden could
616 introduce extra layers of complexity to our exploration.

617 Furthermore, a direct link between domestic garden diversity, and the potential of thereof, and
618 biodiversity conservation should be established and implemented into urban green space
619 management.

620

621 **5. Conclusion**

622 While gardens may not replace natural habitats, it is imperative to reconsider maintaining high
623 levels of urban and rural biodiversity as valuable complements for increasing the area of semi-
624 natural habitat patches and creating a network of ecological corridors (Beninde et al., 2015). In
625 our study, we, however, show that the potential of domestic gardens for maintaining high
626 biodiversity varies widely among CEE regions, and along with it does their conservation value.
627 Therefore, to maximise this value improving several aspects of CEE gardening practices in
628 concert is necessary. The variability both between and within participating countries,
629 underscores the need for approaches tailored to regional circumstances rather than unified
630 regulations across European countries.

631 On the other hand, to ensure that gardens truly contribute positively to sustainable urban
632 environments, the multifaceted issue of pesticide usage that permeates various aspects of
633 gardening, from food production in allotments to the care of ornamental plants and flea
634 treatments for pets, must be uniformly addressed across all EU countries. Similarly, information
635 for providing a comprehensive understanding among the public regarding the potential
636 environmental and human health impacts of pesticides should also be broadly available.

637 Biodiversity-friendly gardens also improve human well-being (Samus et al., 2022) and provide
638 urban residents with the opportunity to reconnect to the natural world (Cameron et al., 2012).
639 Thus, while increasing the diversity of domestic gardens alone may not solve the biodiversity
640 crisis by creating ecological corridors it can contribute to conservation, foster a shift in human
641 attitudes towards preserving natural areas, and enhance the ecological quality of urban
642 environments. To maximally exploit all benefits of domestic gardens, population-wide, regular,
643 and high-quality educational programs which, shape people's attitudes, willingness to take
644 action, and interest, are needed (Shwartz et al., 2012). Similar educational programs have been

645 running for decades in Western European countries but they are still scarce in CEE (European
646 Commission, Directorate-General for Communication, 2015; Jehlička & Jacobsson, 2021). Yet,
647 the need for improving the ecological quality of domestic gardens is not unique to Western
648 Europe, where it gets the most emphasis, but is also present in CEE. Hence, local strategies for
649 environmental education emphasising the importance of biodiversity-friendly gardening should
650 be developed for CEE countries as well. These, however, should be tailored to local needs and
651 provide access to biodiversity-related information through a broad variety of channels to reach
652 all strata of society.

653 Besides serving as a proxy to indicate gardens' environmental quality, our study also can help
654 in accessing these gardens' potential in designing eco-networks of biodiversity-friendly
655 gardens. It also can act as a tool for facilitating the decision for optimal strategies to maximise
656 the environmental benefits of domestic gardens.

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757

758 Declarations

759 Conflict of interest

760 The authors declare no competing interests.

761

762 Code availability

763 The underlying computer code is available in the GitHub repository

764 https://github.com/zsvargaszilay/domestic_gardens_in_CEE

765

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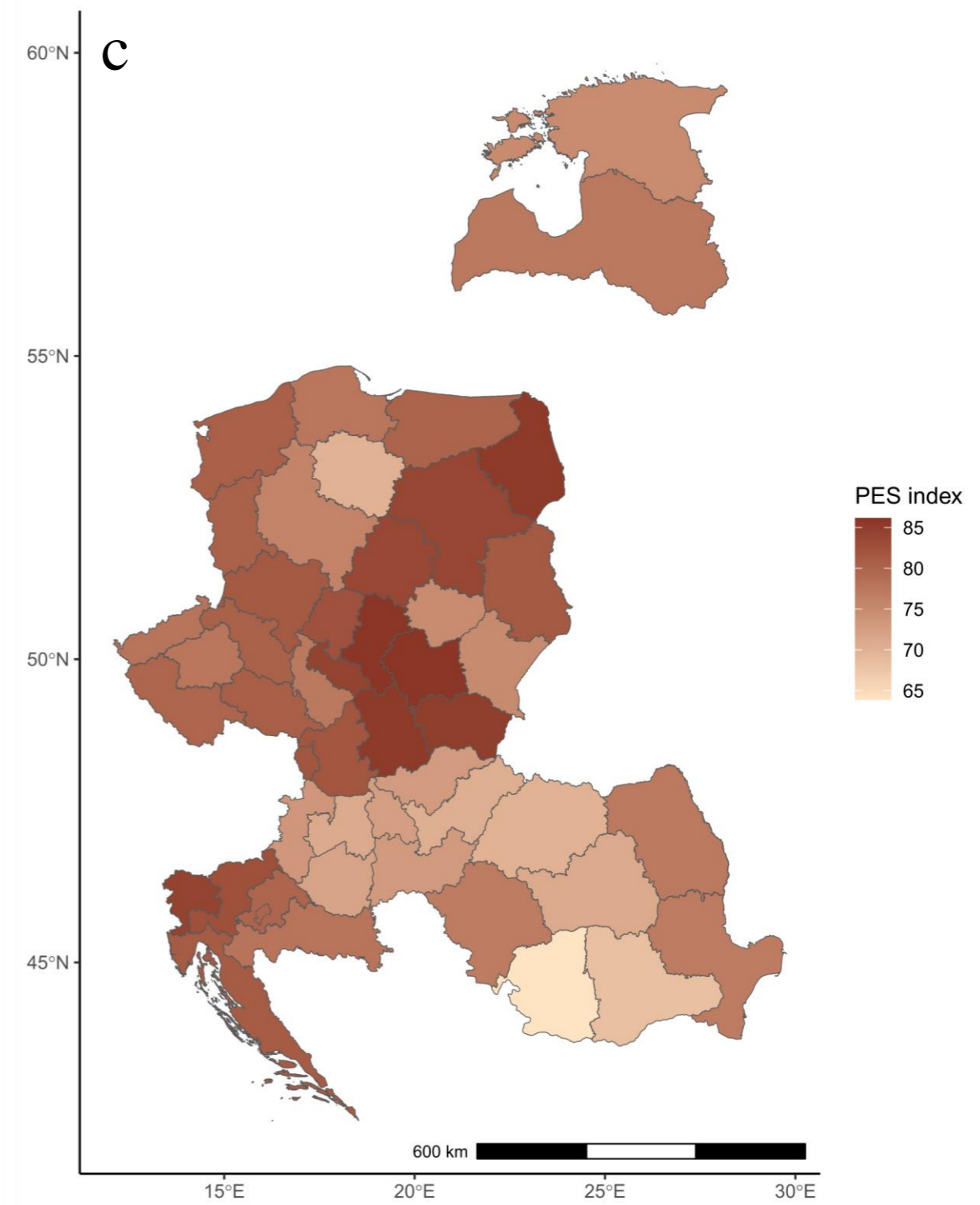
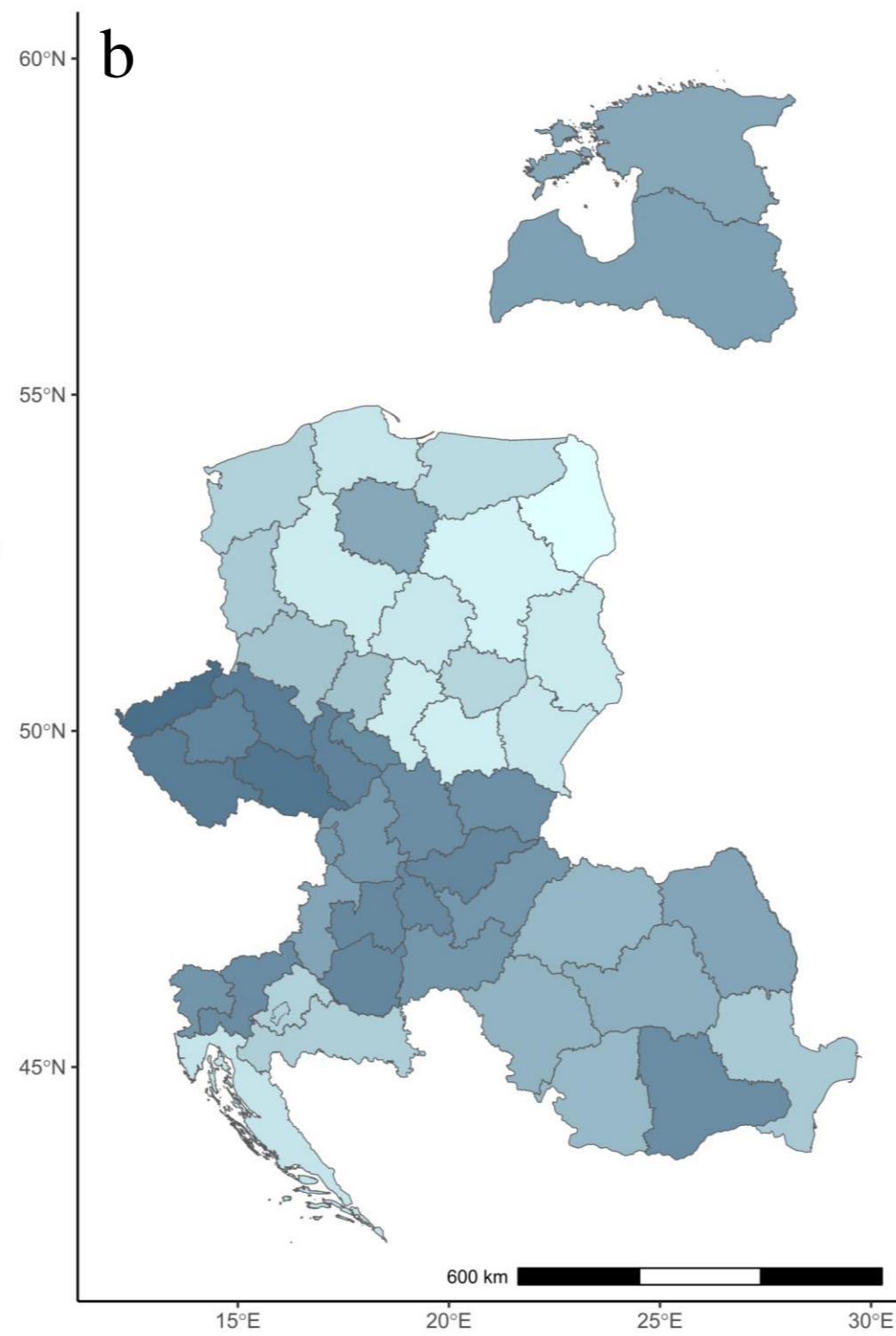
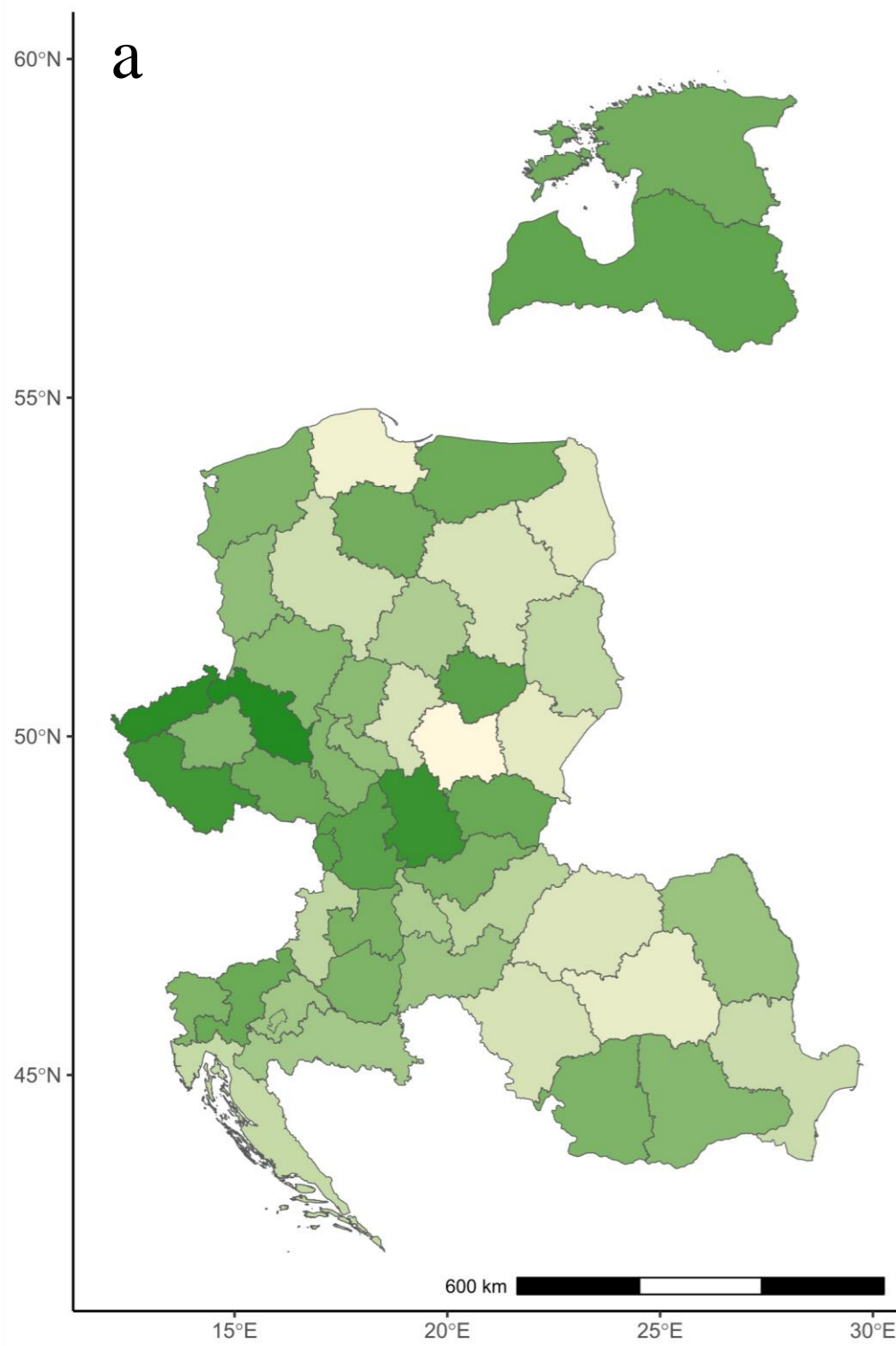
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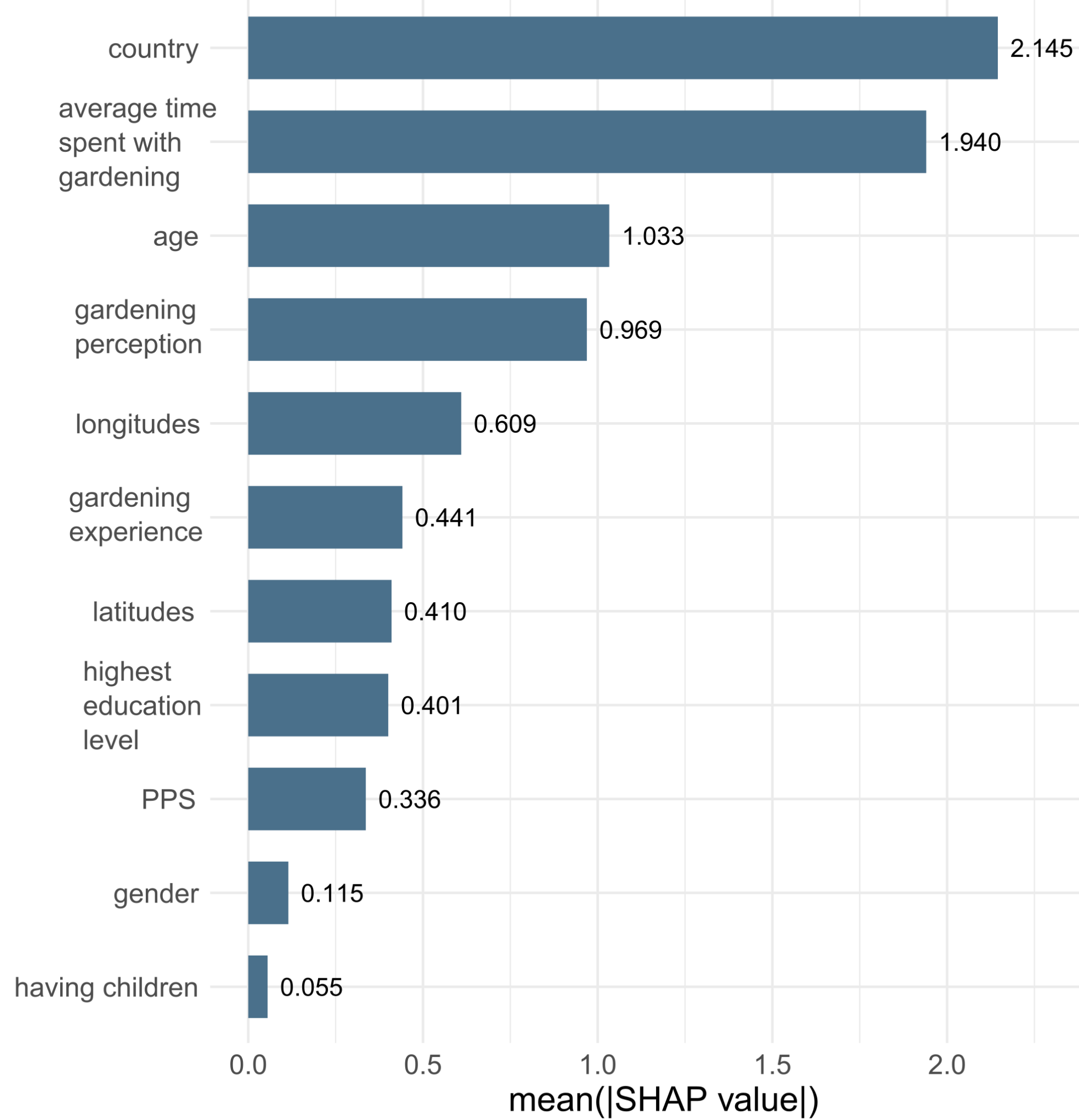
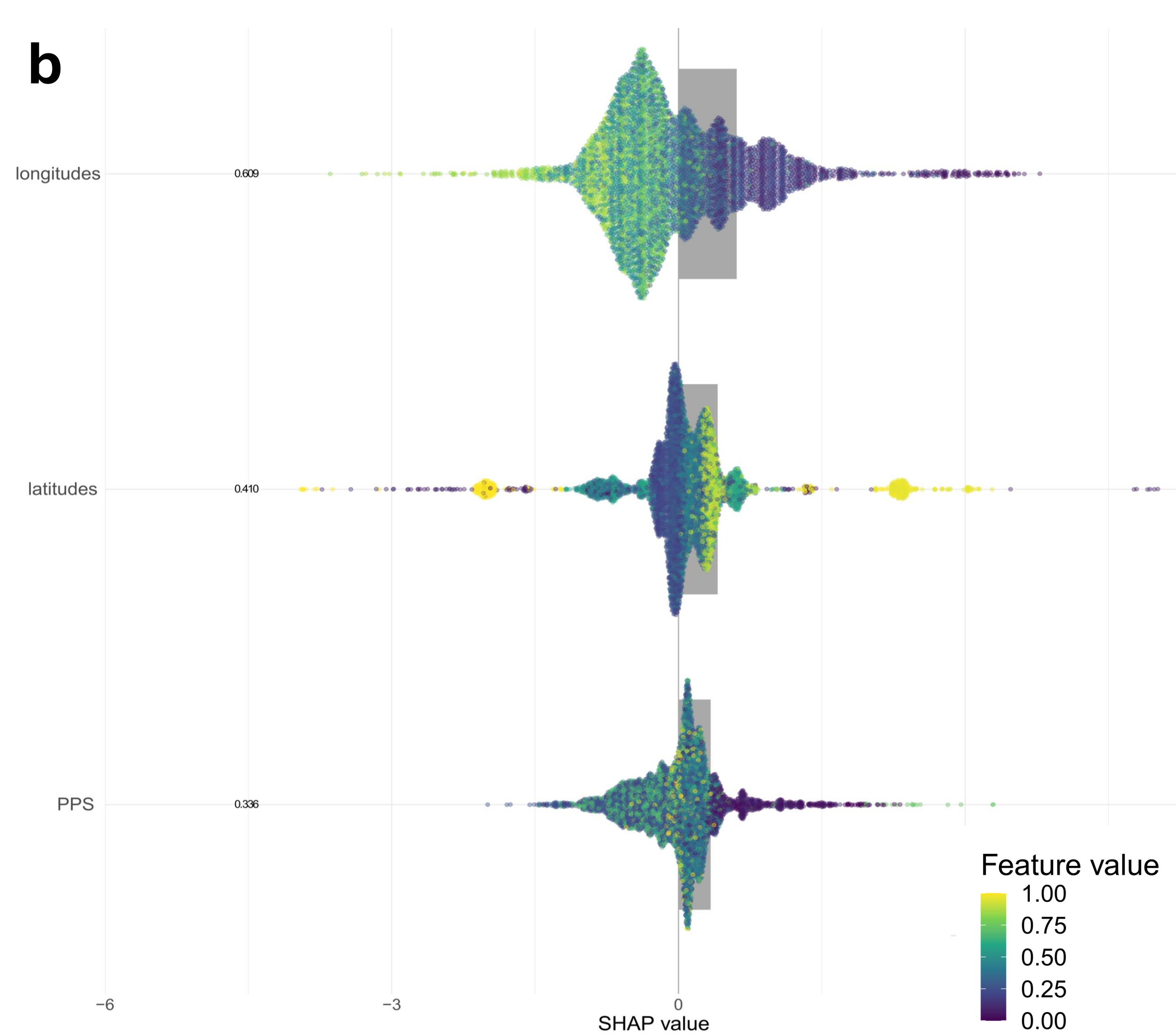
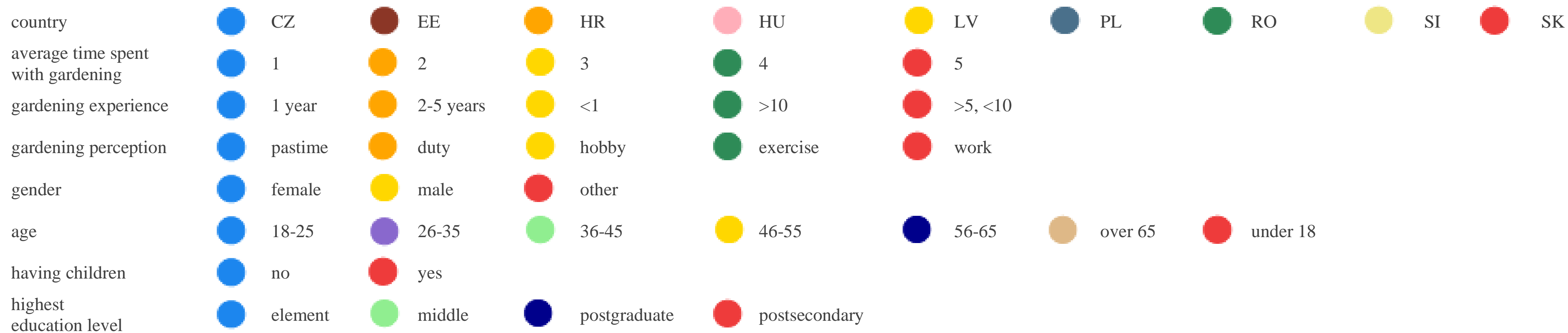
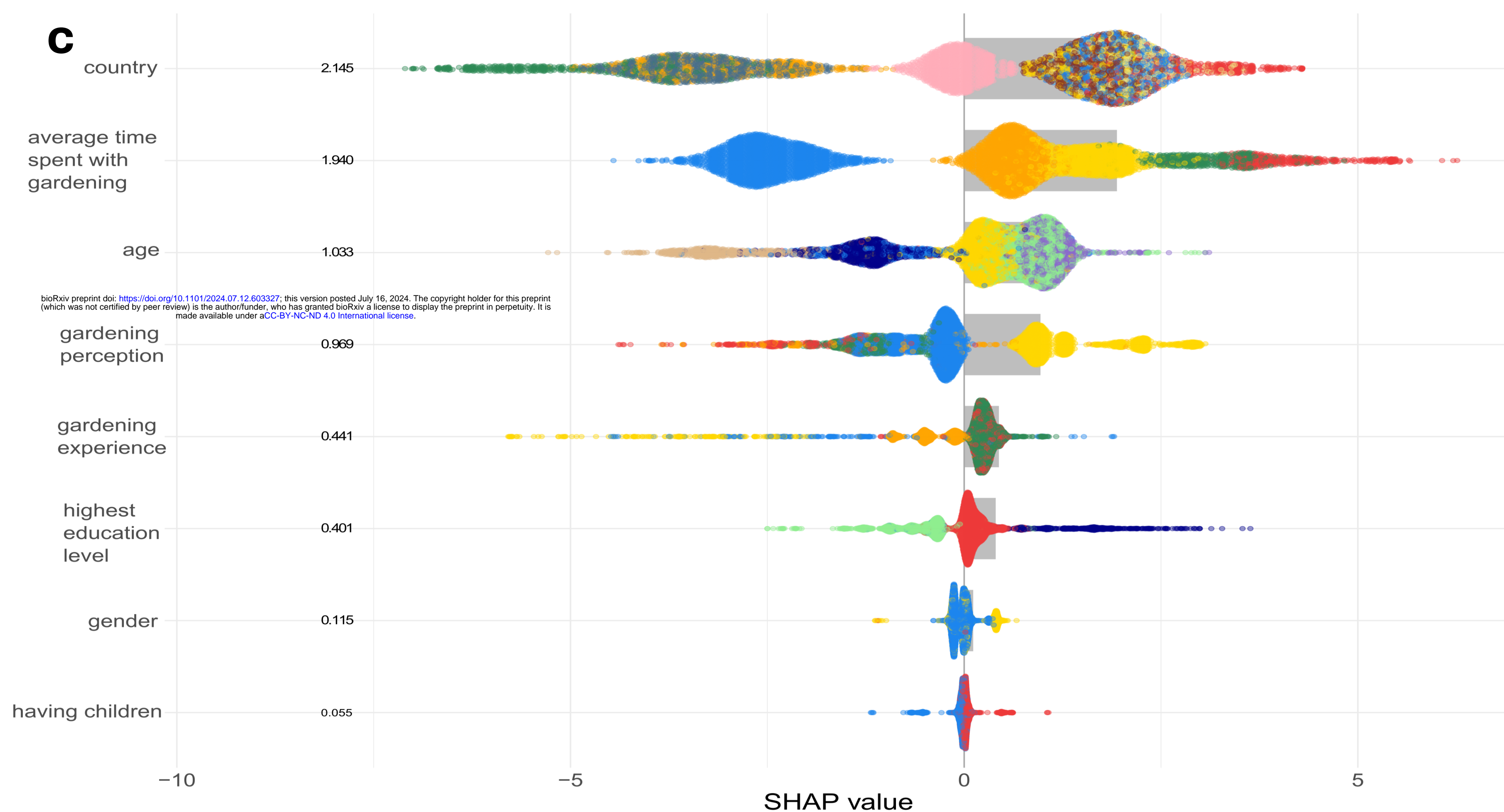
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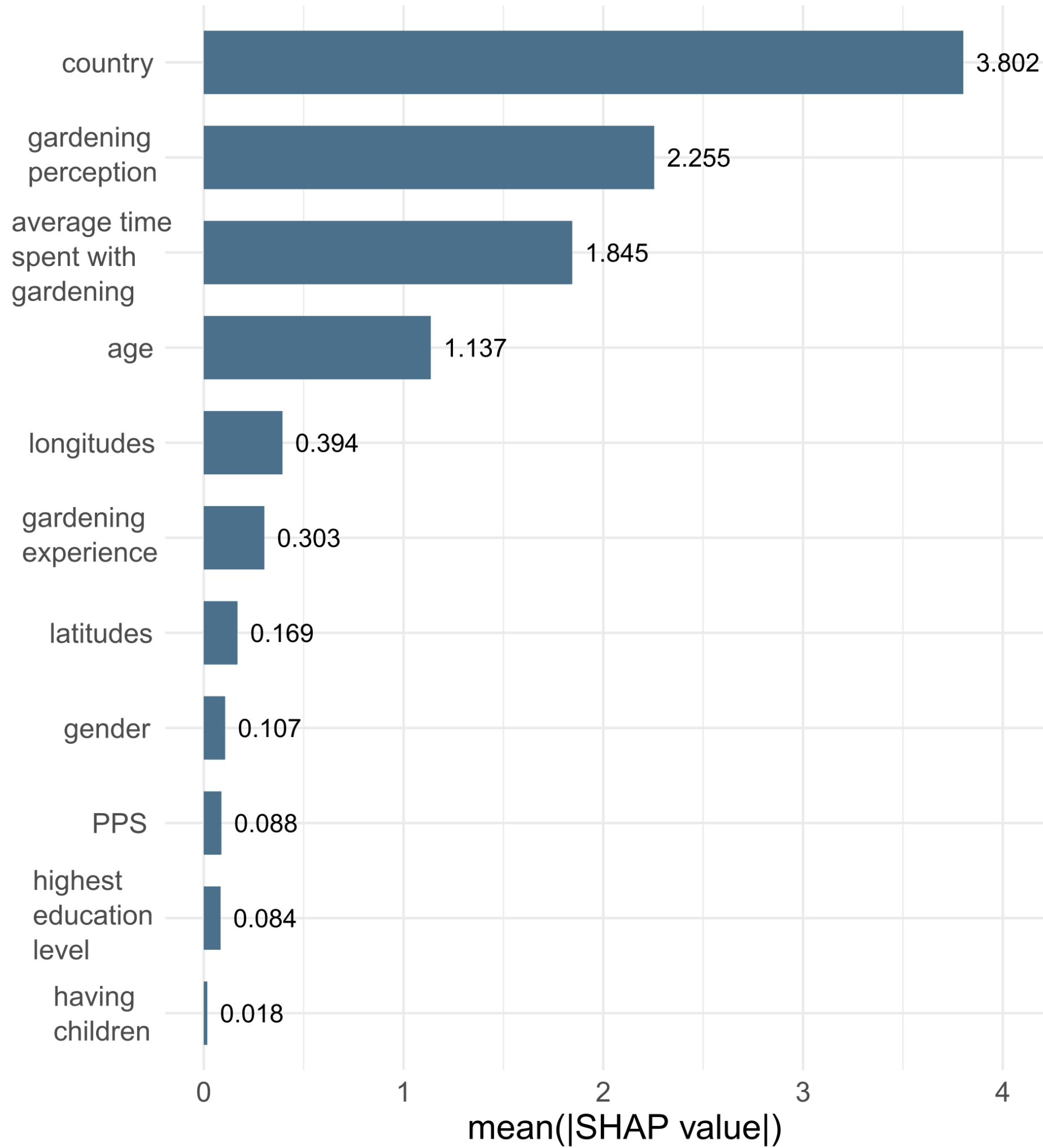
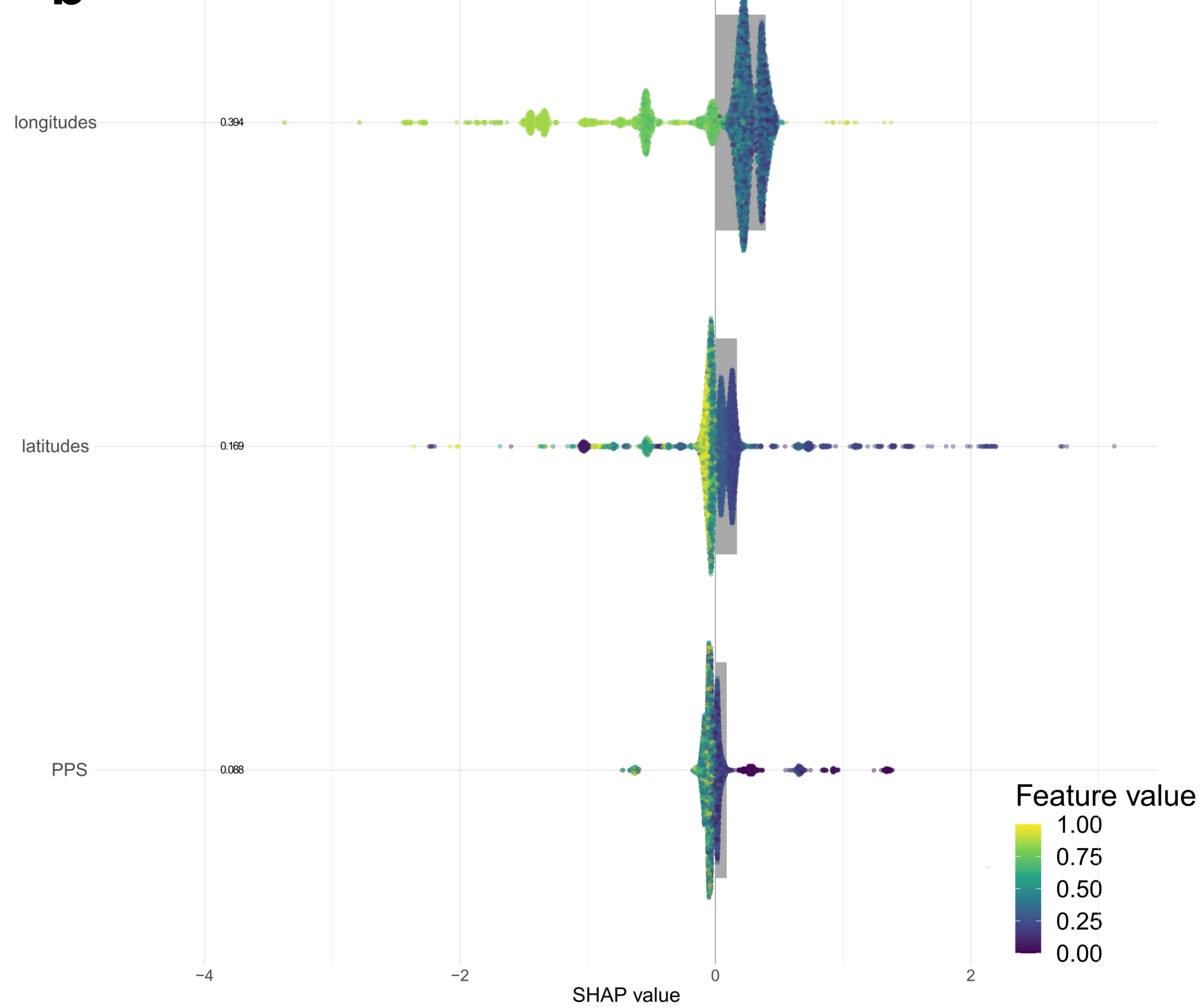
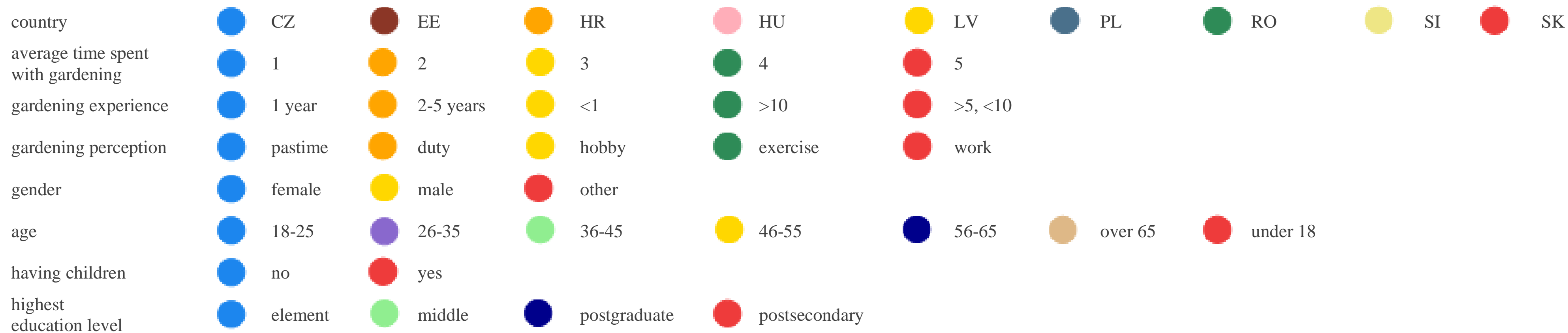
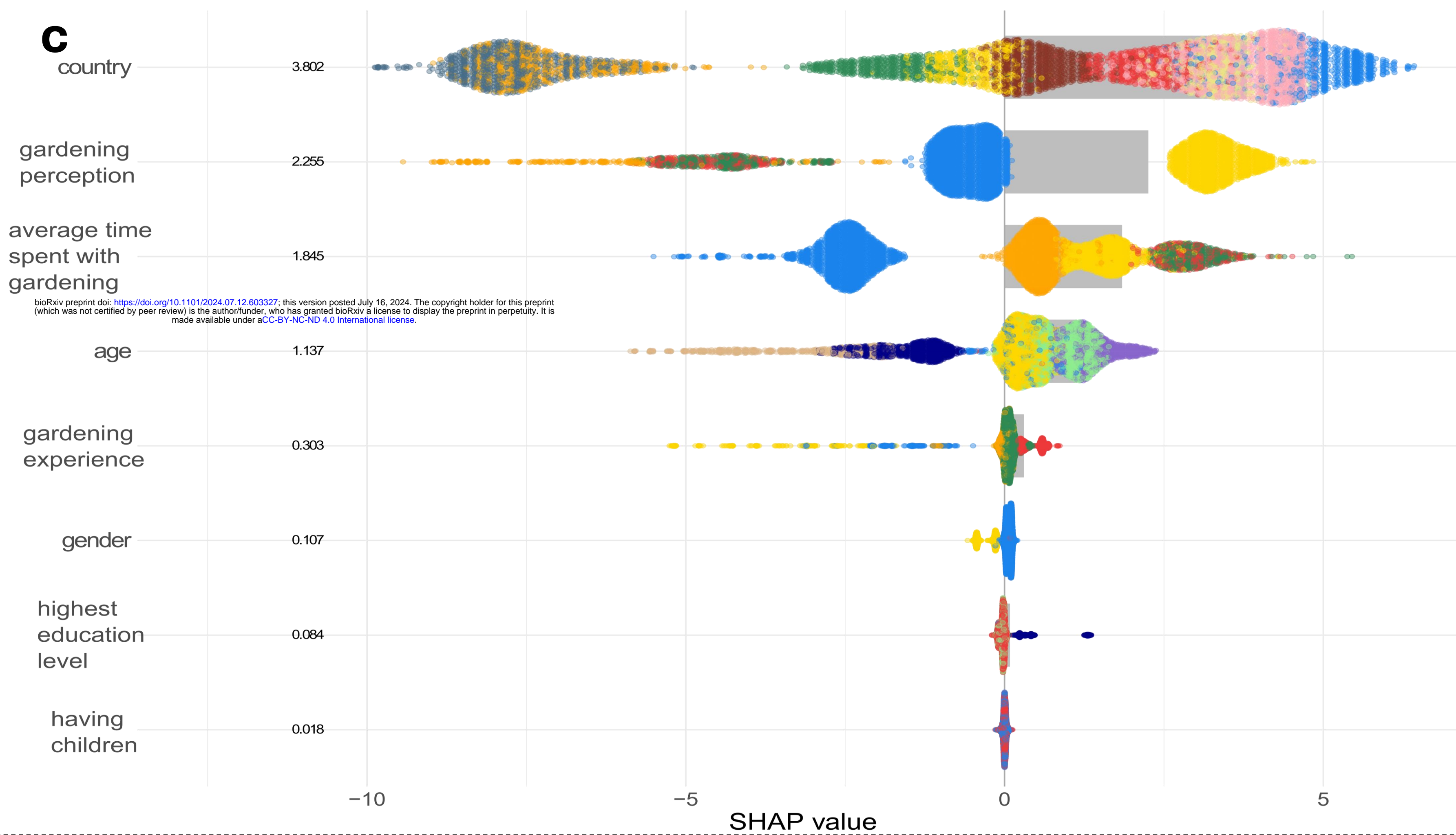
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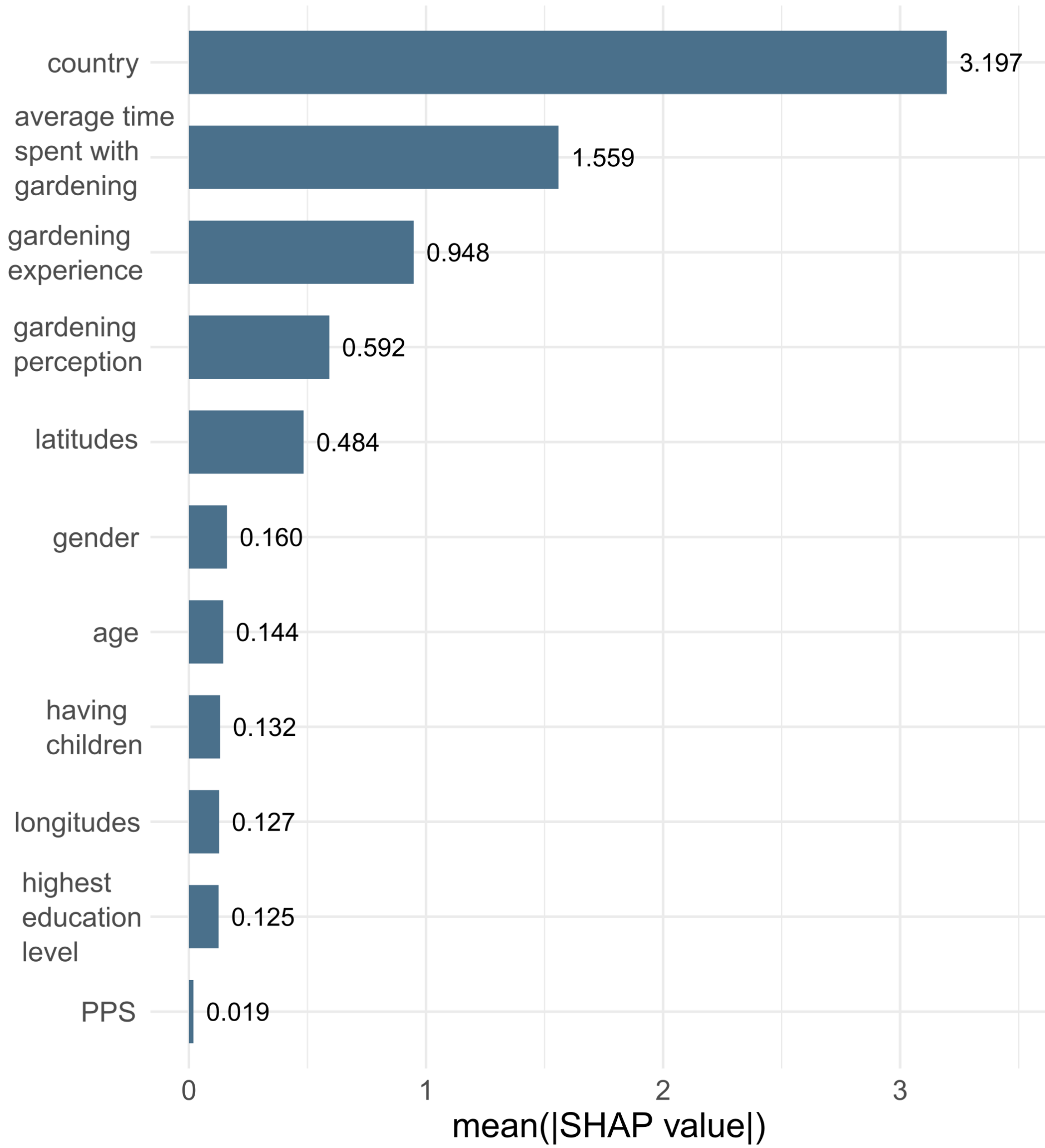
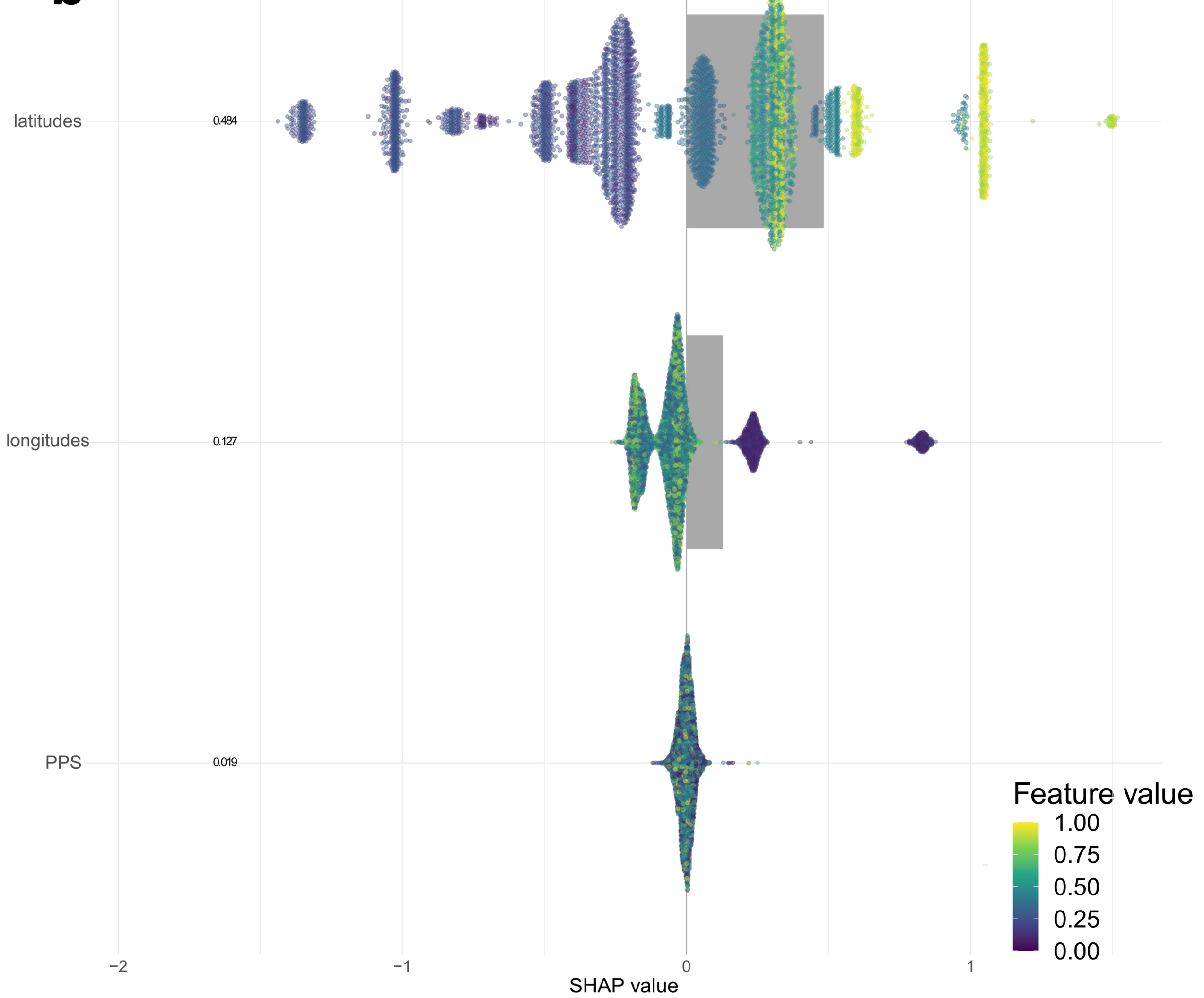
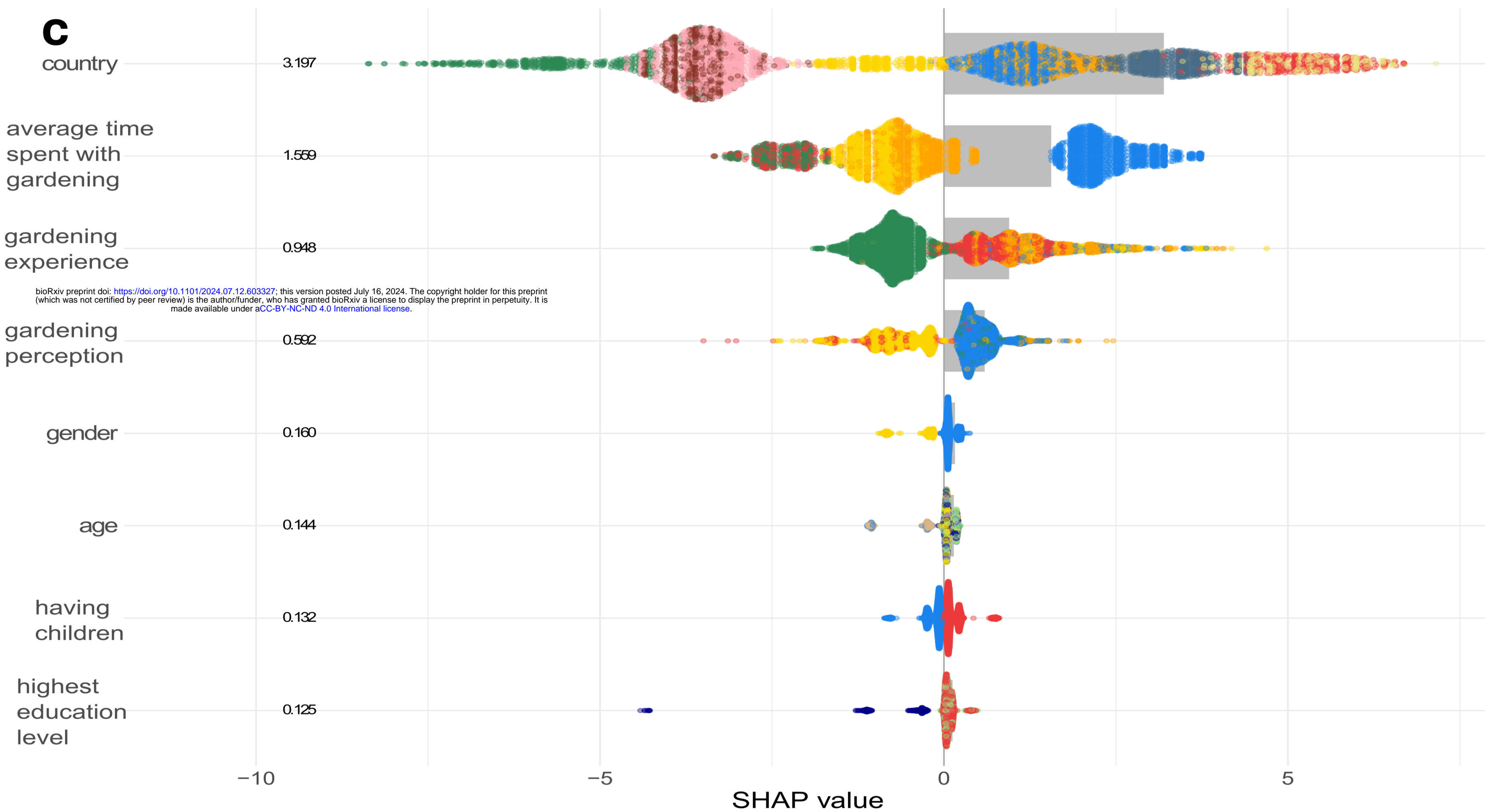
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