Portland State University

PDXScholar

Environmental Science and Management Faculty Publications and Presentations

Environmental Science and Management

6-2019

Climate and Lawn Management Interact to Control C4 Plant Distribution in Residential Lawns Across Seven U.S. Cities

Tara Trammell University of Delaware

Diane E. Pataki University of Utah

Christopher Still Oregon State University

James Ehleringer Oregon State University

Meghan Avolio University of Utah

Follow this and additional works at https://pdxscholar.library.pdx.edu/esm_fac



Let us know how access to this document benefits you.

Citation Details

Trammell, T. L., Pataki, D. E., Still, C. J., Ehleringer, J. R., Avolio, M. L., Bettez, N., ... & Heffernan, J. (2019). Climate and lawn management interact to control C4 plant distribution in residential lawns across seven US cities. Ecological Applications, e01884.

This Article is brought to you for free and open access. It has been accepted for inclusion in Environmental Science and Management Faculty Publications and Presentations by an authorized administrator of PDXScholar. Please contact us if we can make this document more accessible: pdxscholar@pdx.edu.

Authors Tara Trammell, Diane E. Pataki, Christopher Still, James Ehleringer, Meghan Avolio, Jennifer L. Morse, and multiple additional authors					

Climate and lawn management interact to control C₄ plant distribution in residential lawns across seven U.S. cities

Tara L. E. Trammell , 1,20 Diane E. Pataki, 2 Christopher J. Still , 3 James R. Ehleringer, 2 Meghan L. Avolio , 4 Neil Bettez, 5 Jeannine Cavender-Bares, 6 Peter M. Groffman, 7 Morgan Grove, 8 Sharon J. Hall , 9 James Heffernan, 10 Sarah E. Hobbie, 6 Kelli L. Larson, 11 Jennifer L. Morse, 12 Christopher Neill, 13,19 Kristen C. Nelson, 14 Jarlath O'Neil-Dunne, 15 William D. Pearse, 6,16 Rinku Roy Chowdhury, 17 Meredith Steele, 18 and Megan M. Wheeler 9

¹Department of Plant and Soil Sciences, University of Delaware, 531 S. College Ave, 152 Townsend Hall, Newark, Delaware 19716 USA

²Department of Biology, University of Utah, Salt Lake City, Utah 84112 USA

³Department of Forest Ecosystems and Society, Oregon State University, Corvallis, Oregon 97331 USA

⁴Department of Earth and Planetary Sciences, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Maryland 21218 USA

⁵Cary Institute of Ecosystem Studies, Millbrook, New York 12545 USA

⁶Department of Ecology, Evolution and Behavior, University of Minnesota, St. Paul, Minnesota 55108 USA
 ⁷City University of New York, Advanced Science Research Center at the Graduate Center, New York, New York 10031 USA
 ⁸USDA Forest Service, Baltimore Ecosystem Study, University of Maryland, Baltimore County, Baltimore, Maryland 21227 USA
 ⁹School of Life Sciences, Arizona State University, Tempe, Arizona 85287 USA

¹⁰Nicholas School of the Environment, Duke University, Durham, North Carolina 27708 USA

¹¹School of Geographic Science and Urban Planning, School of Sustainability, Arizona State University, Tempe, Arizona 85287 USA
¹²Department of Environmental Science and Management, School of Environment, Portland State University, Portland, Oregon 97207 USA

¹³ Marine Biological Laboratory, Ecosystems Center, Woods Hole, Massachusetts 02543 USA
¹⁴ Department of Forest Resources and Department of Fisheries, Wildlife, and Conservation Biology, University of Minnesota, St. Paul, Minnesota 55108 USA

¹⁵Spatial Analysis Laboratory, Rubenstein School of Environment & Natural Resources, University of Vermont, Burlington, Vermont 05405 USA

Department of Biology & Ecology Center, Utah State University, Logan, Utah 84322 USA
 Department of Geography, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana 47405 USA
 Department of Crop and Soil Environmental Science, Virginia Tech, Blacksburg, Virginia 24061 USA

Citation: Trammell, T. L. E., et al. 2019. Climate and lawn management interact to control C₄ plant distribution in residential lawns across seven U.S. cities. Ecological Applications 29(4): e01884. 10.1002/eap.1884

Abstract. In natural grasslands, C4 plant dominance increases with growing season temperatures and reflects distinct differences in plant growth rates and water use efficiencies of C₃ vs. C₄ photosynthetic pathways. However, in lawns, management decisions influence interactions between planted turfgrass and weed species, leading to some uncertainty about the degree of human vs. climatic controls on lawn species distributions. We measured herbaceous plant carbon isotope ratios (δ^{13} C, index of C_3/C_4 relative abundance) and C_4 cover in residential lawns across seven U.S. cities to determine how climate, lawn plant management, or interactions between climate and plant management influenced C4 lawn cover. We also calculated theoretical C₄ carbon gain predicted by a plant physiological model as an index of expected C₄ cover due to growing season climatic conditions in each city. Contrary to theoretical predictions, plant $\delta^{13}C$ and C_4 cover in urban lawns were more strongly related to mean annual temperature than to growing season temperature. Wintertime temperatures influenced the distribution of C₄ lawn turf plants, contrary to natural ecosystems where growing season temperatures primarily drive C₄ distributions. C₄ cover in lawns was greatest in the three warmest cities, due to an interaction between climate and homeowner plant management (e.g., planting C₄ turf species) in these cities. The proportion of C₄ lawn species was similar to the proportion of C₄ species in the regional grass flora. However, the majority of C₄ species were nonnative turf grasses, and not of regional origin. While temperature was a strong control on lawn species composition across the United States, cities differed as to whether these patterns were driven by cultivated lawn grasses vs. weedy species. In some cities, biotic interactions with weedy

Manuscript received 9 April 2018; revised 23 January 2019; accepted 20 February 2019. Corresponding Editor: Elisabeth Huber-Sannwald.

²⁰ E-mail: ttram@udel.edu

¹⁹ Present address: Woods Hole Research Center, 149 Woods Hole Road, Falmouth, Massachusetts 02540 USA

plants appeared to dominate, while in other cities, C_4 plants were predominantly imported and cultivated. Elevated CO_2 and temperature in cities can influence C_3/C_4 competitive outcomes; however, this study provides evidence that climate and plant management dynamics influence biogeography and ecology of C_3/C_4 plants in lawns. Their differing water and nutrient use efficiency may have substantial impacts on carbon, water, energy, and nutrient budgets across cities.

Key words: C_4 plant distribution; lawns; macroecology; plant $\delta^{13}C$; residential; urban; yard management.

Introduction

Turf grasses across the continental United States occupy over 160,000 km² with important consequences for air and water quality as well as human health and well-being (Milesi et al. 2005). Residential land covers the majority of urban greenspace (62%), and lawns account for most of this greenspace (52-80%; Richards et al. 1984). While lawns are a significant component of residential landscapes, we still know very little about the ecological structure and function of this widespread American Residential Macrosystem (Groffman et al. 2009, 2014). In intensively managed lawns, the distribution of plant functional types is likely to reflect interactions between human decisions (e.g., planting and maintenance), biophysical factors (e.g., climate), and biological interactions (e.g., plant dispersal and competition). However, at present there are insufficient data on the distribution of urban plant species to understand the roles of biophysical and human factors in structuring plant communities in cities.

Throughout the United States, nurseries and sod companies offer different lawn species and cultivars, and lawn grasses that form an even turf are typically preferred (Christians and Engelke 1994). Weedy species and forbs (non-turf species) are also common in lawns and can vary by region and lawn management practices, such as fertilizer or herbicide application (Stewart et al. 2009, Bertoncini et al. 2012). Turf scientists have long investigated turf performance and made recommendations for which turf grasses to plant based on climate (e.g., Christians and Engelke 1994, Dionne et al. 2010, Bertrand et al. 2013). Historically, recommendations were based on growing season temperatures and wintertime freeze tolerance (Madison 1971, Beard and Beard 2005). However, empirical evidence for the prevalence of warm-season vs. cool-season grass and forb species (i.e., C4 vs. C3 photosynthesis) in in situ residential lawns is lacking at continental scales. Following planting, turf grasses and weedy species undergo ecological dynamics due to abiotic and biotic interactions that are not well studied in situ (Bell 2011). At regional scales, previous research demonstrated the importance of elevated urban temperature and atmospheric CO₂ on the competitive dynamics of C₃ and C₄ plants in lawns (Bijoor et al. 2008, Duffy and Chown 2016, Hobbie et al. 2017). However, understanding the controls on C₃/C₄ plant distribution in cities across continental scales is necessary to contribute

to the growing understanding of how human-dominated and natural ecosystems differ (or do not differ) in ecological dynamics (Pickett and Cadenasso 2017).

Grass species that utilize the C₄ photosynthetic pathway account for only 3% of land plant species, yet they have a wide global distribution and contribute about 25% of global terrestrial primary production (Sage 2004). Various metrics of local air temperature are significantly correlated with continental and global distributions of C₄ grass abundance and dominance (e.g., growing-season minimum temperature; Terri and Stowe 1976, Ehleringer et al. 1997). The theoretical basis for these patterns in grasslands is the difference between photosynthetic light-use efficiencies in C₃ vs. C₄ plants, or the ratio of photosynthetic carbon (C) gain to photons absorbed (Ehleringer and Björkman 1977). At high temperatures, photosynthetic light-use efficiencies of C₃ plants are low because of increased photorespiration (Ehleringer et al. 1997, Collatz et al. 1998), favoring C₄ plants. However, C₄ photosynthesis has energetic costs (Ehleringer 1978, Ehleringer et al. 1991). As a result, C₄ plants are expected to outcompete C₃ species only in regions with warmer growing-season conditions and adequate rainfall to support grass growth (Ehleringer 1978, Ehleringer et al. 1997).

While temperature is a dominant control on the distribution of C₄ plants globally, human-mediated changes in land cover and use, such as agricultural crop production and altered fire regimes, also influence natural C₄ grassland and pasture distributions (Still et al. 2003). Furthermore, in cities across the United States, residential landowners may plant turf-forming grass species irrespective of local climatic conditions since local resource limitations can be overcome by water and fertilizer subsidies and competitive outcomes can be influenced by use of selective herbicides (Ward 1969). While planting recommendations for warm season vs. cool season grasses tend to be based on climate (Christians and Engelke 1994, Bertrand et al. 2013), we do not know the impacts of planting choices on the continental distribution of turf grasses when multiple species and cultivars are available from local commercial sources. In addition, the ecological dynamics that subsequently take place, such as the invasion of lawns by weed species, are not well documented. As a result, the extent to which the distribution of C₃ vs. C₄ species in lawns follows similar biogeographical patterns as natural ecosystems is still a significant gap in our basic understanding of the biogeography and ecology of major plant functional types.

The carbon stable isotope ratio (δ^{13} C) of plant tissues can be a valuable tool to measure the relative abundance of C_3 and C_4 grasses (O'Leary 1981). For all plants, the natural abundance δ^{13} C in plants is depleted in 13 C relative to atmospheric CO_2 because of discrimination against 13 C during photosynthesis (Farquhar et al. 1989). The greater discrimination against 13 C by Rubisco compared with PEP (phosphoenolpyruvate) carboxylase during photosynthesis causes isotopically distinct plant δ^{13} C values in C_3 (average $\delta^{13}C = -27\%$) and C_4 (average $\delta^{13}C = -13\%$) plants (O'Leary 1988, Boutton 1996). Biogenic and anthropogenic factors control plant δ^{13} C values in urban lawns through the relative proportion of C_3 vs. C_4 plant composition.

We sought to understand how C₄ plants are distributed in lawns throughout the United States by (1) sampling the composition of lawns in seven cities of varying climate (BOS, Boston, Massachusetts; BAL, Baltimore, Maryland; LA, Los Angeles, California; MIA, Miami, Florida; MSP, Minneapolis-St. Paul, Minnesota; PHX, Phoenix, Arizona; SLC, Salt Lake City, Utah), and (2) comparing observed C₄ lawn distribution with theoretical carbon gain for C₄ plants (i.e., simulated C₄ carbon assimilation as a function of temperature for each city; Ehleringer 1978, Sage et al. 1999, Still et al. 2003). We evaluated how direct climate and an interaction between climate and lawn management controls the distribution of C₄ plants in lawns. Climatic constraints on large-scale C3 and C4 plant distributions have been commonly evaluated using a mean monthly temperature threshold of 22°C and a minimum precipitation constraint for C₄ competitive advantage (Collatz et al. 1998, Sage and Kubien 2003, Still et al. 2003). Based solely on this temperature threshold, we predicted that BAL, BOS, LA, MSP, and SLC residential lawns would be C₃ dominated, whereas MIA and PHX would be C4 dominated (Table 1). If there is a direct influence of climate on C₃ vs. C₄ plant growth, then we expected C₄ lawn cover to be quantitatively related to growing-season temperature (GST) and to the theoretical carbon gain that

C₄ plants would have in each city. Alternatively, if lawn management practices (e.g., planting, weeding, irrigation, and fertilization) override climatic constraints on grass performance and interspecific competition, then C₄ lawn cover will be unrelated to climate parameters (such as MAT) and to the theoretical C₄ carbon gain in lawns.

The distribution of spontaneous (i.e., weedy non-turf) vs. cultivated (i.e., turf) plant species in urban lawns across these cities should provide insight as to which species are most successful under varying climatic conditions. If human management of residential lawns interacts with climate to determine the availability and/ or selection of seed or sod, then we expected to see a relationship between temperature (MAT) and turf C₄ lawn cover, whereas non-turf (weed species) C₄ lawn cover will be related to precipitation (mean annual precipitation, MAP), suggesting homeowners can select C₄ lawn turf for optimal year-round temperatures and override any soil moisture constraints (i.e., irrigation). Furthermore, a relationship between winter minimum temperatures and C₃/C₄ turf lawn cover, and no relationship with C₃ and C₄ non-turf species supports an interaction between climate and human management influence on C₃/C₄ turf distribution since spontaneous and cultivated plants are not similarly controlled by low temperatures. Finally, a high proportion of nonnative C₄ turf species would support the idea that homeowner planting of C₄ turf species is a dominant control in these residential lawns. This analysis adds a new dimension to our understanding of the processes governing biodiversity, composition, and ecological dynamics of urban plant communities.

METHODS

Study area

Plant samples were collected in residential lawns in seven major metropolitan areas across the United States: Baltimore, Maryland; Boston, Massachusetts; Los Angeles, California; Miami, Florida; Minneapolis-

TABLE 1. The expected dominance of C₃ or C₄ plants based on each city's climate.

City	Temperature (°C)	Precipitation (cm)	Climate prediction	Turfgrass climate zone	Dominant lawn community
BAL	12.8	106.4	C ₃	humid transitional	warm/cool grass mix
BOS	10.8	111.2	C_3	semi-cool humid	cool season grasses
LA	17.0	32.6	C_3	cool semiarid Pacific	warm/cool grass mix
MIA	25.1	157.2	C_4	warm tropical	warm season grasses
MSP	7.9	77.7	C_3	semi-cool humid	cool season grasses
PHX	23.9	20.4	C_4	warm arid	warm season grasses
SLC	11.6	40.9	C_3	cool semiarid	cool season grasses

Notes: Cities are Baltimore, Maryland (BAL); Boston, Massachusetts (BOS); Los Angeles, California (LA); Miami, Florida (MIA); Minneapolis-St. Paul, Minnesota (MSP); Phoenix, Arizona (PHX); and Salt Lake City, Utah (SLC). Temperature and precipitation data are shown for mean annual 30-yr norms (National Climatic Data Center 2016), and the climate prediction is based on whether temperatures are > 22°C. Turfgrass climate zones and potential lawn management practices are incorporated into recommendations for dominant lawn communities across the United States (Cook and Ervin 2010).

St. Paul, Minnesota; Phoenix, Arizona; and Salt Lake City, Utah. These cities represented multiple ecological biomes and climatic regions across the United States. In all cities, the experimental design included residential parcels (n = 17-30 per city) stratified by urban density classes (i.e., urban, suburban, and exurban [settlements outside the city, usually a prosperous area beyond the suburbs]) and socioeconomic status (i.e., high, medium, or low), which were identified using the PRIZM (Potential Rating Index for Zipcode Markets) market classification system (Claritas 2008). The PRIZM classification utilizes demographics (based on census data) and consumer behavior to define social groups and life stage groups. Social groups are defined by urban density (i.e., population and housing density) and socioeconomic status (i.e., income, education, occupation, and home value), whereas life stage groups are defined by resident age, socioeconomic rank, and presence of children at home. The experimental design varied slightly in each city to account for local variation in factors controlling yard structure and function in different regions across the United States, (i.e., previous land use in BAL, BOS, and PHX; soil conditions in MIA and MSP; temperature in LA; and yard landscaping in PHX [i.e., xeriscaping]). For further details about experimental designs, see Trammell et al. (2016). All yards were randomly selected from a list of willing participants originally identified from a telephone survey (9,480 respondents across the cities). For the purposes of this study, we analyzed data from yards with lawns, thus only excluding yards with xeriscaping in PHX.

Plant $\delta^{13}C$

In each residential yard, bulk plant leaf samples were collected in two random locations in the lawn during peak growing season for each city (i.e., summer 2012 for BAL, BOS, MSP, and MIA, spring 2013 for LA and PHX, summer 2013 for SLC). In LA and SLC, replicate bulk plant samples were collected within 30 cm of each other at each sampling location. Replicate samples were not collected in BAL, BOS, MIA, and PHX, so each bulk plant sample was divided prior to sample processing to create within-sample replicates. In MSP, species-specific plant leaf samples were collected instead of bulk plant samples. Thus, the weighted average for each species was calculated from lawn quadrat abundance data (see C_4 proportion of lawn cover) and applied to δ^{13} C data. Thus, MSP data are not included in the analysis of relationships between plant δ¹³C and C₄ lawn cover across the seven cities (i.e., Appendix S1: Fig. S1). After collection, plant leaves were dried at 60°C for at least 48 hours.

All leaves were selected from the bulk plant samples in order to exclude other plant material (i.e., flowers, roots) prior to C analysis. Plant leaf samples were ground to a fine powder using a Retsch Ball Mixer Mill (MM200, Haan, Germany). Natural abundance isotopic C composition, δ^{13} C, was measured with a DELTA Plus Isotope

Ratio Mass Spectrometer (Finnigan-MAT, Bremen, Germany) interfaced with an elemental analyzer (Model 1110, Carlo Erba, Milan, Italy) at the Stable Isotope Ratio Facility for Environmental Research (SIRFER) at the University of Utah, Salt Lake City. Two primary (PLRM) reference materials, calibrated against National Institute of Standards and Technology and International Atomic Energy Agency certified reference materials, and one secondary (SLRM, spinach leaf) reference material were used as internal standards with δ^{13} C precision of \pm 0.1%. The plant δ^{13} C values were expressed relative to the international standard (Vienna-PeeDee Belemnite) in the conventional δ notation:

$$\begin{split} \delta^{13}C = [(^{13}C_{sample}/^{12}C_{sample})/\\ (^{13}C_{standard}/^{12}C_{standard}) - 1] \times 1000\% \end{split}$$

C_4 proportion of lawn cover

The plant species cover in each lawn was assessed using three randomly placed 1-m² quadrats in the front and back lawns of each residential yard (6-m² total). For each species identified in the quadrats, percent cover was estimated and species were assigned a cover category (<1%, 1-2%, 3-5%, 6-15%, 16-25%, 26-50%, 51-75%,76–100%). The median of each cover category was used in data analysis (e.g., <1%, median = 0.5%; 76-100%, median = 88%). Plant species were identified as having the C₃ or C₄ photosynthetic pathway according to Waller and Lewis (1979), Sage and Monson (1999), Smith and Knapp (1999), Sage (2001), Bruhl and Wilson (2007), and Sage et al. (2011). The proportion of total plant cover contributed by plants with C₄ photosynthesis was calculated for each quadrat (C4 proportion of total plant cover). We separated the cultivated lawn grass ("turf") species (Table 2) from all other species such as weeds ("non-turf") according to Wheeler et al. (2017; Appendix S1: Table S1).

Modeling theoretical C_4 carbon gain

Modeling photosynthesis and photosynthetic carbon isotope fractionation.—Net photosynthetic and transpiration rates for grasses in each pathway (C₃ and C₄) were calculated at hourly intervals for a representative day in each month of the growing season. The growing season for each city was defined as the warm months with ample precipitation for grass growth (>25 mm/yr; Collatz et al. 1998), which may not coincide with irrigation inputs alleviating this moisture constraint (e.g., LA growing season November–April, whereas irrigation increases growing season through September). This approach simplifies the calculation of fluxes at subhourly intervals for each day of the month, which requires comprehensive and gap-free data not easily

TABLE 2. Residential lawn turf species found in the seven cities.

Latin name	Common name	Photosynthetic pathway	Cities present
Agrostis capillaris L.	colonial bentgrass	C ₃	BAL, BOS, MSP
Agrostis stolonifera L.	creeping bentgrass	C_3	BAL, BOS, MSP
Cynodon dactylon (L.) Pers.	Bermuda grass	C_4	BAL, BOS, LA, MIA, PHX, SLC
Festuca filiformis Pourr.	fineleaf sheep fescue	C_3	BAL, BOS
Festuca ovina L.	sheep fescue	C_3	BOS
Festuca rubra L.	red fescue	C_3	BOS, LA, MSP, SLC
Lolium perenne ssp. multiflorum Lam.	Italian ryegrass	C_3	PHX
Lolium perenne L.	perennial ryegrass	C_3	BAL, BOS, LA, MSP, PHX, SLC
Paspalum notatum Fluegge	Bahia grass	C_4	MIA
Pennisetum clandestinum Hochst. ex Chlov.	Kikuyu grass	C_4	LA
Poa pratensis L.	Kentucky bluegrass	C_3	BAL, BOS, LA, MSP, SLC
Poa trivialis L.	rough bluegrass	C_3	MSP
Schedonorus arundinaceus (Schreb.) Dumort.	tall fescue	C_3	BAL, LA, MSP, SLC
Stenotaphrum secundatum (Walter) Kuntze	St. Augustine grass	C_4	LA, MIA, PHX
Zoysia tenuifolia Willd. ex Thiele	Mascarene grass	C_4	MIA

Notes: City codes are identified in Table 1. Cities present represents the cities where turf species were identified in the lawn.

attainable across all sites. Simulating sub-hourly fluxes using real weather and radiation data would also require a comprehensive biosphere model with soil moisture calculations, canopy leaf area and radiation attenuation, and a host of other processes. Rather, our simplified approach was meant to capture the dominant photosynthetic physiology differences between C_3 and C_4 grasses, and compare the modeled predictions against site data on C_3 and C_4 distributions.

Representative fluxes were predicted using the coupled C₃ and C₄ leaf photosynthesis and stomatal conductance models of Collatz et al. (1991, 1992). Parameter values, such as maximum carboxylation rates (V_{max}) and temperature response functions, were taken from Sellers et al. (1996). $V_{\rm max}$ for C_3 grasses was assumed to be 90 μ mol·m⁻²·s⁻¹ at 298 K, and 30 μ mol·m⁻²·s⁻¹ for C₄ grasses at 298 K. These models, described in Collatz et al. (1991, 1992) in detail, estimate net leaf photosynthetic rates as a function of temperature, relative humidity, insolation, and the partial pressure of atmospheric carbon dioxide and dioxygen. The latter quantities were calculated from fixed concentrations (400 and 20,900 ppm, respectively) and elevation-dependent atmospheric pressures. The other (diurnally varying) driving radiation and weather variables were calculated as described in Diurnal variations in air temperature, relative humidity, and surface insolation.

Diurnal variations in air temperature, relative humidity, and surface insolation.—Representative hourly air temperature values ($T_{\rm air}$) were calculated from mean monthly minimum ($T_{\rm min}$) and maximum ($T_{\rm max}$) air temperatures (Campbell and Norman 2012), and monthly $T_{\rm min}$ and $T_{\rm max}$ data for each city's airport were obtained from NOAA (2015). Mean daily time courses of air temperature and relative humidity (%) were calculated based on the following empirical functions (Campbell and Norman 2012):

$$T_{\rm air} = T_{\rm max} \times \gamma + T_{\rm min} \times (1 - \gamma)$$

$$\begin{split} \gamma &= 0.44 - 0.46 \times sin\Big(\Big(\frac{\pi}{12}\Big) \times time + 0.9\Big) \\ &+ 0.11 \times sin\Big(\Big(\frac{\pi}{12}\Big) \times time + 0.9\Big) \end{split}$$

where $T_{\rm max}$ and $T_{\rm min}$ represent the mean daily maximum and minimum temperatures for a given month, and time represents hourly values from 1 to 24. $T_{\rm min}$ was used as a proxy for dew point temperature ($T_{\rm dew}$). Daily mean ambient vapor pressure ($e_{\rm a}$, in mbar; 1 bar = 1 \times 10⁵ Pa) and hourly saturation vapor pressure ($e_{\rm sat}$, in mbar) were estimated using $T_{\rm dew}$ and hourly modeled $T_{\rm ain}$ respectively, using the following formula (Campbell and Norman 2012):

$$e_{\text{sat}} = 6.112 \times \exp\left(\frac{17.67 \times \text{temp}}{(\text{temp} + 243.5)}\right)$$

where e_{sat} is the saturation vapor pressure (mbar) and temp is air temperature (°C).

Downwelling solar irradiance or shortwave insolation at hourly time steps was modeled using the method described in Bonan (2008). In short, surface solar irradiance at a given location depends on latitude, altitude, and time of year. For each month, the mid-month day of year (DOY) was used (i.e., 15 May is DOY 135 in a non-leap year), and the latitude and altitude of each city's airport were used. These calculations require an estimate of cloud-free atmospheric transmittance, and for these simulations, a value of 0.7 was used in all locations. Total shortwave insolation (direct and diffuse in W/m²) was converted to the flux of photosynthetically active radiation (PAR, in µmol·m⁻¹·s⁻¹) by assuming that one-half of shortwave insolation was in the PAR wavelengths

Article e01884; page 6

(Campbell and Norman 2012). All process model calculations were performed in R version 3.2.0 (R Core Team 2013).

Data and statistical analyses

Regression analysis was used to determine if there was a relationship between (1) mean plant δ^{13} C and C₄ proportion of lawn cover at the national scale (i.e., across cities), (2) C₄ proportion of lawn cover or the theoretical C₄ carbon gain and mean growing season temperature (GST, °C), (3) C₄ proportion of lawn cover and mean annual temperature (MAT, °C) or the theoretical C₄ carbon gain, (4) turf or non-turf C4 proportion of lawn cover and MAT or MAP, and (5) proportion of C₃/C₄ or turf/non-turf and mean annual winter minimum temperature (°C). Pearson correlation analysis was used to assess whether the C₄ proportion of regional grass flora (Sage et al. 1999) was correlated with C₄ proportion of lawn species in residential yards across these seven cities. The GST was calculated for months with average temperature above 18.3°C. All statistical analyses were performed in R version 3.2.1 (R Core Team 2013). All tests for significance are reported at the $\alpha = 0.05$ critical value.

RESULTS

Mean plant δ^{13} C in residential lawns across the cities was positively related to the C₄ proportion of lawn cover $(r^2 = 0.82, P < 0.01; Appendix S1: Fig. S1)$. The theoretical C4 carbon gain was related to mean growing season temperature (GST; $r^2 = 0.89$, P < 0.001), but the relationship between C4 proportion of lawn cover and mean GST was weak ($r^2 = 0.55$, P > 0.05; Fig. 1). In fact, the C₄ proportion of lawn cover was more strongly related to MAT ($r^2 = 0.95$, P < 0.001), and C₄ proportion was not related to the theoretical C4 carbon gain in lawns $(r^2 = 0.39, P > 0.05; Fig. 2)$. Turf C₄ proportion of lawn cover was positively related to MAT $(r^2 = 0.94,$ P < 0.001), whereas the non-turf C₄ proportion of lawn cover was related to MAP ($r^2 = 0.85$, P < 0.05); however, the degree of change (slope) in C₄ lawn cover with MAT is much greater than for non-turf C₄ lawn cover with MAP (Fig. 3). Furthermore, turf C₃ and C₄ proportion of lawn cover was related to mean annual winter minimum temperatures ($r^2 = 0.71$, P = 0.02 and $r^2 = 0.78$, P = 0.01, respectively), whereas the non-turf C₃ and C₄ proportion of lawn cover were not related to winter temperatures (Fig. 4).

The contributions of C_3 vs. C_4 and turf vs. non-turf species to the total lawn cover broadly reflected differences in climate among the seven cities. In BAL, BOS, LA, MSP, and SLC, the majority of lawn cover consisted of C_3 species (66–97% of total plant cover), whereas in MIA and PHX, the majority of lawn cover was composed of C_4 species (77% and 70%, respectively; Fig. 5). The proportion of C_3 and C_4 turf (Table 2) and non-turf

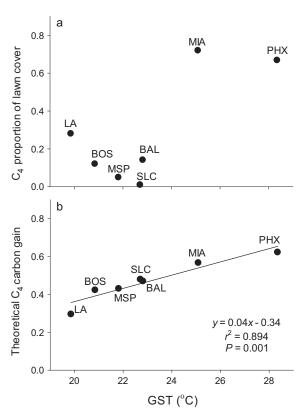


FIG. 1. Observed C₄ proportion of lawn cover (a) and theoretical C₄ carbon gain (b) vs. mean growing season temperature (GST) across seven U.S. cities; Baltimore, Maryland (BAL); Boston, Massachusetts (BOS); Los Angeles, California (LA); Miami, Florida (MIA); Minneapolis-St. Paul, Minnesota (MSP); Phoenix, Arizona (PHX); and Salt Lake City, Utah (SLC).

(Appendix S1: Table S1) species differed among the seven cities. MIA and PHX had the greatest C_4 turf cover, whereas C_3 turf was at least one-half of the total lawn cover in the other five cities (Fig. 5). The C_3 nonturf cover comprised 17–37% of the lawn cover in all cities except in SLC, which had 6% C_3 non-turf cover. Alternatively, the C_4 non-turf cover was below 14% across all the cities, and was especially low in the arid cities (<1.0%; Fig. 5). While the C_4 proportion of lawn species was significantly correlated with the C_4 proportion of regional grass flora (R = 0.90, P < 0.01; Fig. 6), the majority (73%) of all C_4 turf species present in the lawns were nonnative in origin.

DISCUSSION

Complex relationships between climate and homeowner plant management drive the distribution of C_4 plants in residential lawns. Across seven U.S. cities, plant $\delta^{13}C$ and C_4 proportion of lawn cover were lower in the cities with lower MAT, whereas C_4 proportion and plant $\delta^{13}C$ increased in the warmer cities (Appendix S1: Fig. S1). This temperature control was driven more strongly by MAT than GST across these cities (Figs. 1,

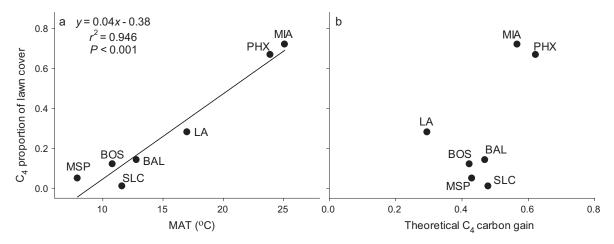


Fig. 2. C_4 proportion of lawn cover in residential lawns vs. mean annual temperature (a) (MAT; °C) and the theoretical C_4 carbon gain in lawns (b). For city abbreviations, see Fig. 1.

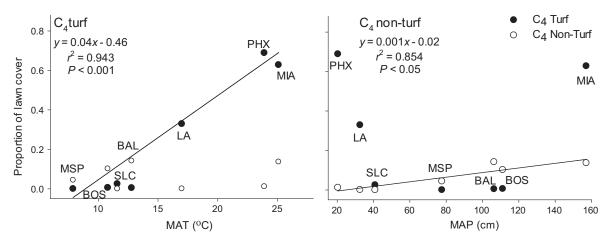


Fig. 3. C_4 proportion of turf (black circles) and non-turf (white circles) lawn cover vs. mean annual temperature (MAT, °C) and mean annual precipitation (MAP, cm) across seven cities. Regression line shown for turf C_4 proportion of lawn cover and MAT, and for non-turf C_4 proportion of lawn cover and MAP. For city abbreviations, see Fig. 1.

2), and wintertime temperatures influenced the distribution of C₄ lawn turf plants (Fig. 4). This pattern differs from the relationship between C₄ distributions and temperature in natural ecosystems (Terri and Stowe 1976) and therefore suggests a human-mediated mechanism for selection of wintertime temperature tolerance in C₄ species. Our results suggest that persistence of turf performance (i.e., green) beyond the growing season is an important attribute for homeowners since persistent warm temperatures (i.e., MAT) are a stronger predictor than the growing season temperatures in determining C₄ lawn cover. In fact, MAT and winter minimum temperature were more significant predictors of the distribution of C₄ turf species than non-turf species (Figs. 3, 4), indicating that C₄ turf species in warmer climates are (1) sold by nurseries, seed suppliers, sod companies, and other turf suppliers, (2) preferentially selected and planted by homeowners, and/or (3) more successful after establishment. Alternatively, C₄ weed species, whose dynamics are the result of natural plant community assembly processes (e.g., dispersal, biotic interactions) and homeowner management (e.g., weeding), are not successful or are removed from lawns by homeowners in these warm cities and are more successful in mesic cities (Fig. 3).

The majority of C_4 turf species were of nonnative origin and imported from warmer climates, compared to the dominant C_4 non-turf species, which originate from cooler climates and demonstrated a positive relationship with MAP. While previous research provided evidence for direct temperature control of C_4 productivity and abundance in lawns (Duffy and Chown 2016, Hobbie et al. 2017) and for direct homeowner management control of lawn composition (Stewart et al. 2009, Bertoncini et al. 2012), our study documents how climate and homeowner plant management interact to control C_4

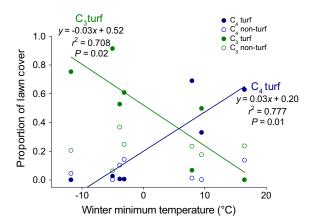


Fig. 4. Proportion of C_3 turf (dark green), C_3 non-turf (light green), C_4 turf (dark blue), and C_4 non-turf (light blue) lawn cover vs. mean annual winter minimum temperature (°C). Regression line shown for turf C_3 (dark green) and turf C_4 proportion of lawn cover and winter minimum temperature.

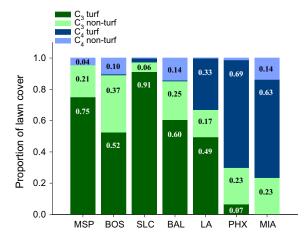


Fig. 5. The C_3 turf (dark green), C_3 non-turf (light green), C_4 turf (dark blue), and C_4 non-turf (light blue) proportion of lawn cover across the seven cities. Proportion for the C_3 and C_4 turf (white) and non-turf (black) components of the lawn are shown, except when the proportion is below 0.03. Cities are shown in order of increasing mean annual temperature, from coolest (MSP) to warmest (MIA) city. For city abbreviations, see Fig. 1.

lawn cover at continental scales. C_4 turf lawn cover is positively related to MAT, and most turf species are nonnative species (i.e., not of regional origin).

The relationship between C_4 distributions and climatic variables provides a means of evaluating the role of horticultural and management practices vs. biotic factors in structuring these plant communities in differing climates. In MSP and SLC, which have a continental climate, both turf and non-turf (i.e., weedy species) were predominately C_3 (Fig. 5). This suggests that C_4 species are not competitive irrespective of homeowner lawn management, and/or the regional C_4 grass flora species pool for these cities is low, most likely due to land use change and

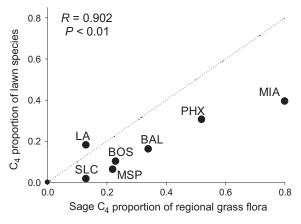


Fig. 6. C_4 proportion of lawn species (i.e., number of lawn species that are C_4) vs. Sage et al. (1999) C_4 proportion of regional grass flora (i.e., number of grass species that are C_4). The dotted line represents a 1:1 line. For city abbreviations, see Fig. 1.

fewer native prairie grasses (Fig. 6). The two East Coast cities, BOS and BAL, had larger proportions of C4 weedy species, suggesting that during the hot, mesic summers in these regions, C4 species were somewhat competitive, which is expected when cool season grasses weaken and C₄ species are seldom planted (Cook and Ervin 2010). In contrast, the arid cities (LA and PHX) had minimal C₄ non-turf cover (0.4-5% of non-turf cover), and C₄ plants in these cities were predominantly planted turf grasses. This suggests that competitive dynamics among C₃ and C₄ grasses played less of a role in the C₄ dominance compared to planting choices, or that C₄ species were more competitive once planted with ample irrigation in these arid cities (Bijoor et al. 2008). In MIA, the majority of turf grasses were C₄ species, whereas both C₃ and C₄ non-turf species were present. Many C4 weedy sedges (e.g., Cyperus croceus, Kyllinga brevifolia) and grasses (e.g., Digitaria ciliaris, Eleusine indica) can thrive in this warm, moist climate. The strong climatic influence on plant composition appears to be driven by a combination of both direct effects of temperature on plant performance, and more indirect effects that influence the homeowner management of turf grass species in a given region.

While MAT was a strong predictor of C_4 lawn cover across these cities (Fig. 2), C_4 lawn cover was not related to mean annual precipitation across these cities (P > 0.10) indicating that irrigation inputs in the warm arid cities provide ample water for plant growth (Collatz et al. 1998, Romero and Dukes 2013, Wang et al. 2014, Volo et al. 2015). Turf scientists' recommendations were developed for the best-predicted establishment and performance of turf based on climate, as well as other factors (e.g., light). However, cultivation of turfgrass species not adapted to local conditions is feasible since management of other factors (e.g., precipitation

alleviation via irrigation, moving height) can offset environmental limitations (Ward 1969). More recent turf adaptation zones include potential competitive dynamics and lawn management practices to predict C₃/C₄ lawn plant communities (Cook and Ervin 2010). Our empirical findings demonstrate the importance of lawn management on the distribution of warm and cool-season grasses in residential lawns. In LA, local climatic conditions predict dominance of C3 grasses (ample precipitation for grass productivity occurs during the cool months; Sage and Monson 1999; Table 1). Yet the substantial C₄ lawn cover observed in LA lawns suggests irrigation practices alleviate precipitation constraints on the distribution of C₄ plant species (precipitation < 25 mm/yr constrains grass growth; Collatz et al. 1998). Similarly, climate conditions in SLC predict dominance by C₃ species (Table 1). However, in contrast to LA, SLC homeowners appear to be primarily cultivating C₃ turf species, suggesting that year-round climatic conditions exert some influence on homeowner lawn planting choices or competitive dynamics between lawn species in SLC residential lawns (Fig. 5). It is possible that, in addition to summer months, SLC residents desire green lawns during cold spring and fall months when C₃ species are more competitive than C₄ species (Cook and Ervin 2010).

As expected, the proportion of C_4 species in residential lawns was correlated with the proportion of C_4 species in the regional grass flora (Fig. 6). For six cities, C_4 species were under-represented in the lawns compared to the regional flora. The exception is LA, where the number of C_4 species found in residential lawns is slightly greater than the number of C_4 species in the regional grass flora (Fig. 6). This supports the idea that homeowners plant C_4 species in this city in greater numbers than represented in the regional flora. Furthermore, the majority of C_4 turf species present in these residential lawns (73%) are not native to the United States, suggesting nonnative C_4 turf species are competitive and persistent in LA lawns with dynamics that differ from the regional native ecosystem.

The plant composition in residential lawns is a result of dynamics between homeowner plant management and competition between cultivated (turf) and spontaneous (non-turf) plants. Across the United States, urban residents have created a new biome, i.e., the American Residential Macrosystem (Groffman et al. 2017), which reflects land management, planting choices, and irrigation practices that increase lawn cover. This has implications for water use, especially in arid climates, and energy balance in urban landscapes. For example, greater water-efficient C4 turf species planted in LA lawns may decrease landscape water requirements in the warm, arid summer months. Furthermore, using regionally adapted native species for turf is a more sustainable approach for lawn management as these species allow for reduced resource inputs and increased performance compared with nonnative turf monocultures (Simmons et al. 2011). Future work will focus on how alterations to current lawn management practices modify energy and water cycles within this American Residential Macrosystem.

Conclusion

The species composition of residential lawns is a result of complex relationships between climate controls on the competitive dynamics between C3 and C4 plants and resident lawn management and horticultural practices, such as cultivating desirable turf species and weeding undesirable plants. We showed that $\delta^{13} \mbox{C}$ of lawns across seven cities was strongly correlated with the proportion of observed C₄ plant cover, providing a simple means of assessing the distribution of C₃ vs. C₄ species in lawns. MAT was a strong control on lawn species composition across the United States, but cities differed as to whether these patterns were driven by cultivated lawn grasses vs. weedy species. In some cities, biotic interactions with weedy plants appeared to dominate, while in other cities, C₄ plants were predominantly imported and cultivated. C₄ lawn cover exhibited no relationship with MAP, demonstrating the importance of irrigation in overriding climate constraints in arid cities (e.g., PHX). In cities with hot, mesic summers (BAL, BOS), substantial cover by C₄ non-turf species suggests that weedy species may be responding to warm summer temperatures in these cities even though homeowners select C3 turf species. Furthermore, minimal C₄ non-turf cover in LA, PHX, and SLC suggests weed species are not thriving in these arid cities, and either are not competitive or are not present in the local seed pool. These results provide the first comprehensive assessment of lawn biogeography in the United States, and advance our understanding of the complex interactions between social and biophysical drivers of plant species composition in urban residential lawns.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This research was funded by a series of collaborative grants from the U.S. National Science Foundation Macrosystems Biology Program (EF-1065548, 1065737, 1065740, 1065741, 1065772, 1065785, 1065831, 121238320). The authors thank La'Shaye Ervin, William Borrowman, Moumita Kundu, and Barbara Uhl for field and laboratory assistance.

LITERATURE CITED

Beard, J. B., and H. J. Beard. 2005. Beard's turfgrass encyclopedia for golf courses, grounds, lawns, sports fields. Michigan State University Press, East Lansing, Michigan, USA.

Bell, G. E. 2011. Turfgrass physiology and ecology: advanced management principles. CAB International, Cambridge, Massachusetts, USA.

Bertoncini, A. P., N. Machon, S. Pavoine, and A. Muratet. 2012. Local gardening practices shape urban lawn floristic communities. Landscape Urban Planning 105:53–61.

Bertrand, A., Y. Castonguay, A. Azaiez, and J. Dionne. 2013. Low temperature stress. Pages 279–318 *in J.* Stier, B. P. Horgan, and A. Bonos, editors. Turfgrass: biology, use, and management. ASA, CSSA, SSSA, Madison, Wisconsin, USA.

- Bijoor, N. S., C. I. Czimczik, D. E. Pataki, and S. A. Billings. 2008. Effects of temperature and fertilization on nitrogen cycling and community composition of an urban lawn. Global Change Biology 14:2119–2131.
- Bonan, G. 2008. Ecological climatology: concepts and applications. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK.
- Boutton, T. W. 1996. Stable carbon isotope ratios of soil organic matter and their use as indicators of vegetation and climate 9 change. Pages 47–82 in T. W. Boutton and S. Yamasaki, editors. Mass Spectrometry of Soils. Marcel Dekker, New York.
- Bruhl, J. J., and K. L. Wilson. 2007. Towards a comprehensive survey of C₃ and C₄ photosynthetic pathways in Cyperaceae. Aliso: A Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Botany 23:99–148.
- Campbell, G. S., and J. M. Norman. 2012. An introduction to environmental biophysics. Springer Science & Business Media, Berlin, Germany.
- Christians, N. E., and M. Engelke. 1994. Choosing the right grass to fit the environment. Pages 99–113 *in* A. R. Leslie, editor. Integrated pest management for turf and ornamentals. Lewis Publishers, London, UK.
- Claritas Inc. 2008. PRIZM Segment Narratives. The Nielsen Company (US), Inc. www.claritas.com/MyBestSegments/Default.jsp
- Collatz, G. J., J. T. Ball, C. Grivet, and J. A. Berry. 1991. Physiological and environmental regulation of stomatal conductance, photosynthesis and transpiration: a model that includes a laminar boundary layer. Agricultural and Forest Meteorology 54:107–136.
- Collatz, G. J., M. Ribas-Carbo, and J. A. Berry. 1992. Coupled photosynthesis-stomatal conductance model for leaves of C₄ plants. Australian Journal of Plant Physiology 19:519–538.
- Collatz, G. J., J. A. Berry, and J. S. Clark. 1998. Effects of climate and atmospheric CO₂ partial pressure on the global distribution of C₄ grasses: present, past, and future. Oecologia 114:441–454.
- Cook, T. W., and E. H. Ervin. 2010. Lawn ecology. Pages 153–178 in J. Aitkenhead-Peterson and A. Volder, editors. Agronomy monograph 55. Urban ecosystem ecology. ASA, CSSA, SSSA, Madison, Wisconsin, USA.
- Dionne, J., S. Rochefort, D. R. Huff, Y. Desjardins, A. Bertrand, and Y. Castonguay. 2010. Variability for freezing tolerance among 42 ecotypes of green-type annual bluegrass. Crop Science 50:321–336.
- Duffy, G. A., and S. L. Chown. 2016. Urban warming favors C₄ plants in temperate European cities. Journal of Ecology 104:1618–1626.
- Ehleringer, J. R. 1978. Implications of quantum yield differences on the distributions of C₃ and C₄ grasses. Oecologia 31:255–267.
- Ehleringer, J., and O. Björkman. 1977. Quantum yields for CO₂ uptake in C₃ and C₄ plants. Plant Physiology 59:86–90.
- Ehleringer, J. R., R. F. Sage, L. B. Flanagan, and R. W. Pearcy. 1991. Climate change and the evolution of C₄ photosynthesis. Trends in Ecology and Evolution 6:95–99.
- Ehleringer, J. R., T. E. Cerling, and B. R. Helliker. 1997. C₄ photosynthesis, atmospheric CO₂, and climate. Oecologia 112:285–299
- Farquhar, G. D., J. R. Ehleringer, and K. T. Hubick. 1989. Carbon isotope discrimination and photosynthesis. Annual Review of Plant Physiology and Plant Molecular Biology 40:503–537.
- Groffman, P. M., C. O. Williams, R. V. Pouyat, L. E. Band, and I. D. Yesilonis. 2009. Nitrate leaching and nitrous oxide flux in urban forests and grasslands. Journal of Environmental Quality 38:1848–1860.

- Groffman, P. M., et al. 2014. Ecological homogenization of urban USA. Frontiers in Ecology and the Environment 12:74–81.
- Groffman, P. M., et al. 2017. Ecological homogenization of residential macrosystems. Nature Ecology and Evolution 1: s41559-017.
- Hobbie, E. A., B. A. Schubert, J. M. Craine, E. Linder, and A. Pringle. 2017. Increased C₃ productivity of Midwestern lawns since 1982 revealed by carbon isotopes in *Amanita thiersii*. Journal of Geophysical Research: Biogeosciences 122:280–288.
- Madison, J. H. 1971. Principles of turfgrass culture. Principles of turfgrass culture. Van Nostrand Reinhold Company, New York.
- Milesi, C., S. W. Running, C. D. Elvidge, J. B. Dietz, B. T. Tuttle, and R. R. Nemani. 2005. Mapping and modeling the biogeochemical cycling of turf grasses in the United States. Environmental Management 36:426–438.
- NOAA. 2015. Earth System Research Laboratory, National Oceanic & Atmospheric Administration. National Centers for Environmental Information (NCEIG) http://www.ncdc.noaa.gov/
- O'Leary, M. H. 1981. Carbon isotope fractionation in plants. Phytochemistry 20:553–567.
- O'Leary, M. H. 1988. Carbon isotopes in photosynthesis. BioScience 38:328–336.
- Pickett, S. T. A., and M. L. Cadenasso. 2017. How many principles of urban ecology are there? Landscape Ecology 32:699–705.
- R Core Team. 2013. R: a language and environment for statistical computing. R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna. http://www.R-project.org/
- Richards, N. A., J. R. Mallette, R. J. Simpson, and E. A. Macie. 1984. Residential greenspace and vegetation in a mature city: Syracuse, New York. Urban Ecology 8:99–125.
- Romero, C. C., and M. D. Dukes. 2013. Net irrigation requirements for Florida turfgrasses. Irrigation Science 31:1213–1224.
- Sage, R. F. 2001. C₄ plants. Encyclopedia of Biodiversity. 1:575–598.
- Sage, R. F. 2004. The evolution of C_4 photosynthesis. New Phytologist 161:341–370.
- Sage, R. F., and D. S. Kubien. 2003. *Quo vadis* C₄? An ecophysiological perspective on global change and the future of C₄ plants. Photosynthesis Research 77:209–225.
- Sage, R. F., and R. K. Monson. 1999. C₄ plant biology. Academic Press, San Diego, California, USA.
- Sage, R. F., D. A. Wedin, and M. Li. 1999. The biogeography of C4 photosynthesis: patterns and controlling factors. Pages 313–373 in R. F. Sage and R. K. Monson, editors. C₄ Plant Biology. Academic Press, San Diego.
- Sage, R. F., P. Christin, and E. J. Edwards. 2011. The C_4 plant lineages of planet Earth. Journal of Experimental Botany 62:3155–3169.
- Sellers, P. J., D. A. Randall, G. J. Collatz, J. A. Berry, C. B. Field, D. A. Dazlich, C. Zhang, G. D. Collelo, and L. Bounoua. 1996. A revised land surface parameterization (SiB2) for atmospheric GCMs. Part I: model formulation. Journal of Climate 9:676–705.
- Simmons, M., M. Bertelsen, S. Windhager, and H. Zafian. 2011. The performance of native and non-native turfgrass monocultures and native turfgrass polycultures: an ecological approach to sustainable lawns. Ecological Engineering 37:1095–1103.
- Smith, M. D., and A. K. Knapp. 1999. Exotic plant species in a C₄-dominated grassland: invisibility, disturbance, and community structure. Oecologia 120:605–612.

- Stewart, G. H., M. E. Ignatieva, C. D. Meurk, H. Buckley, B. Horne, and T. Braddick. 2009. Urban biotopes of Aotearoa New Zealand (URBANZ) (I): composition and diversity of temperate urban lawns in Christchurch. Urban Ecosystems 12:233–248.
- Still, C. J., J. A. Berry, G. J. Collatz, and R. S. DeFries. 2003. Global distribution of C₃ and C₄ vegetation: carbon cycle implications. Global Biogeochemical Cycles 17:1–14.
- Terri, J. A., and L. G. Stowe. 1976. Climatic patterns and the distribution of C₄ grasses in North America. Oecologia 23:1–12.
- Trammell, T. L. E., D. E. Pataki, J. Cavender-Bares, P. M. Groffman, S. J. Hall, J. B. Heffernan, S. E. Hobbie, J. L. Morse, C. Neill, and K. C. Nelson. 2016. Plant nitrogen concentration and isotopic composition in residential lawns across seven U.S. cities. Oecologia 181:271–285.
- Volo, T. J., E. R. Vivoni, and B. L. Ruddell. 2015. An ecohydrological approach to conserving urban water through optimized landscape irrigation schedules. Landscape Urban Planning 133:127–132.
- Waller, S. S., and J. K. Lewis. 1979. Occurrence of C₃ and C₄ photosynthetic pathways in North American grasses. Journal of Range Management 1:12–28.
- Wang, W., D. Haver, and D. E. Pataki. 2014. Nitrogen budgets of urban lawns under three different management regimes in southern California. Biogeochemistry 121:127–148.
- Ward, C. Y. 1969. Climate and adaptation. Pages 27–79 in Hanson and Juska, editors. Turfgrass Science. American Society of Agronomy, Madison, WI.
- Wheeler, M. M., et al. 2017. Continental-scale homogenization of residential lawn plant communities. Landscape and Urban Planning 165:54–63.

SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional supporting information may be found online at: http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/eap.1884/full

DATA AVAILABILITY

The data that support the findings of this study are openly available from the Environmental Data Initiative: https://doi.org/10.6073/pasta/ae6a8154bf0df6492a7358e19ee08fc6