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3 **Elevated temperature and CO₂ interactively modulate sexual competition and**
4 **ecophysiological responses of dioecious *Populus cathayana***

5

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20

21 **Running title:** Climate change modulates sexual competition

22

23 **Abstract** It remains unclear how global climate change affects dioecious plants that may be
24 especially vulnerable to climate drivers, because they often exhibit skewed sex ratios and
25 eco-physiological specialization in certain microhabitats. In this study, female and male
26 saplings of *Populus cathayana* were employed to explore sex-specific responses and the
27 effects of sexual competition under elevated temperature (ET), elevated CO₂ (EC) and
28 combination of elevated temperature and CO₂ (ETC). The results demonstrated that elevated
29 temperature and CO₂ interactively modulated sexual competition and responses of *P.*
30 *cathayana*. Moreover, competition patterns affected the eco-physiological responses of *P.*
31 *cathayana* to climate change treatments. Under both intra- and inter-sexual competition,
32 biomass components, photosynthetic parameters and carbon-related metabolites of females
33 were most strongly affected by ET, while males exhibited a higher photosynthesis and
34 resource use efficiency, and a better biomass accumulation and carbon balance mechanism
35 when compared to females when experiencing intra-sexual competition under EC. The
36 competitive pressure of females on males in inter-sexual competition was intensified by ET,
37 while it was alleviated by ETC. We conclude that climate change drivers and competition
38 patterns differently regulate the sex-specific responses and competitive intensity of males and
39 females, which may have a crucial effect on sex ratios, spatial sexual segregation, biomass
40 production and carbon sequestration in dioecious species in the future.

41

42 **Keywords:** nitrogen use efficiency; sexual competition; climate change; non-structural
43 carbohydrates; structural carbohydrates; photosynthetic capacity

44

45 **1. Introduction**

46

47 Dioecious species, distributed among 959 plant genera, represent 6% of angiosperm plants
48 (Renner and Ricklefs, 1995) and play an important role in terrestrial ecosystems. Many of
49 them express sexual dimorphism that involves sex-related phenotypic differences, including
50 differences in morphology, physiological processes, life-history (Dawson and Ehleringer,
51 1993; Geber *et al.*, 1999; Correia and Barradas, 2000; Retuerto *et al.*, 2000), and responses to
52 environmental stresses (Chen *et al.*, 2010; Zhang *et al.*, 2012; Juvany and Munné-Bosch,
53 2015). However, there is still limited information on how opposite sexes of dioecious plants
54 respond to global climate drivers, such as elevated temperature and CO₂ concentration. The
55 average surface temperature of our planet will continue to increase by 1.4-4.8 °C and the CO₂
56 concentration will increase to 670-936 ppm by the end of the current century (IPCC, 2013),
57 which will have major effects on ecosystems.

58

59 Some dioecious trees express sexual differences in photosynthesis, xylem anatomy and tree
60 ring growth under climate change (Wang and Curtis, 2001; Rozas *et al.*, 2009; Hultine *et al.*,
61 2016; Olano *et al.*, 2017). The flower buds of *Populus tomentosa* females show better
62 adaptation to high temperature compared to males (Song *et al.*, 2014), while *P. trichocarpa*
63 shows no significant sexual difference under elevated temperature (McKown *et al.*, 2017).
64 According to the principle of optimal carbon balance and resource allocation, plants would
65 regulate their investment in reproduction, growth and defense in a changing environment
66 (Fernandez *et al.*, 2016; Guo *et al.*, 2018). Knowledge of the dynamics of primary

67 carbohydrates and secondary metabolic substances, such as tannins and phenolics etc., are
68 important when explaining plant adaptation and carbon cycling under climate change
69 (Blaschke *et al.*, 2002; Randriamanana *et al.*, 2015; Cha *et al.*, 2017; Ghimire *et al.*, 2018).
70 This may also provide a potential mechanistic explanation for differences in climate change
71 effects on dioecious plants. It has been reported that the proportion of males in *Valeriana*
72 *edulis* has increased by warming climate (Petry *et al.*, 2016). The effects of climate change on
73 dioecious populations may counteract the Fisherian sex-ratio balance effect (Loarie, 2011).
74 Sex-specific responses to climate change can alter sex ratios and eventually lead to a
75 population decline due to decreased reproductive success and fitness (Hultine *et al.*, 2016;
76 Petry *et al.*, 2016). Therefore, sexual dimorphism in responses of some dominant dioecious
77 woody species may be of particular importance for the productivity and carbon sequestration
78 in terrestrial ecosystems under global climate change (Norby *et al.*, 2005; Zhao *et al.*, 2012;
79 Thom *et al.*, 2017).

80

81 Climate change can affect the community composition and structure, and species diversity by
82 modifying the direction and intensity of species interactions, including competition and
83 facilitation (Michalet, 2006; Maestre *et al.*, 2009; Dijkstra *et al.*, 2010; Levine *et al.*, 2010;
84 Kleynhans *et al.*, 2016; Olsen *et al.*, 2016). Some studies have demonstrated asymmetric
85 competition and plasticity in reproductive or resource allocation between females and males,
86 while the effect of sexual competition on the eco-physiological responses has been largely
87 neglected (Hesse and Pannell, 2011; Tonnabel *et al.*, 2017). Although biased sex ratios and
88 spatial segregation of the sexes (SSS) associated with microhabitat differences in dioecious

89 species have been observed in the nature (Eppley, 2006; Garbarino *et al.*, 2015; Petry *et al.*,
90 2016), it remains unclear whether sexual competition at the seedling or adult stage is the
91 primary reason for sex ratio biases and SSS in natural populations. Climate change may result
92 in an imbalance of reproduction frequency and influence population structure and distribution
93 in dioecious plants (Miller *et al.*, 2011; Miller and Inouye, 2013). A key question is how
94 global change drivers alter intra- and intersexual competition patterns in dioecious species.
95 Plant interactions may lag or supersede the effects of climate change (Stocker *et al.*, 1999;
96 Bloor *et al.*, 2008; Alexander *et al.*, 2015; Arndal *et al.*, 2018). Therefore, sex-specific
97 responses and competitive interactions of females and males in dioecious species might be
98 critical determinants when adapting to climate change.

99

100 *Populus*, a dioecious tree genus belonging to Salicaceae, is distributed widely in boreal and
101 temperate ecosystems and used as an important forest plantation species (Zhang *et al.*, 2012).
102 *Populus* forests form an important part of carbon budget in terrestrial ecosystems, and poplar
103 is regarded as a suitable model tree to study the responses of dioecious species to climate
104 change. Previous studies have indicated that *P. cathayana* females and males show significant
105 differences in their responses to stressful environments (Zhao *et al.*, 2009; Zhang *et al.*, 2011,
106 2014, 2019; Xia *et al.*, 2020). Moreover, females appear more sensitive to elevated
107 temperature and drought (Xu *et al.*, 2008), while males are positively affected by CO₂
108 enrichment (Zhao *et al.*, 2012). However, these studies have been mostly conducted in
109 non-competitive conditions without plant interactions. It is currently unclear, whether females
110 are more sensitive to competition or whether they are better competitors than males under

111 climate change conditions. It may be predicted that female sensitivity could be reinforced by
112 sexual competition over resources under a given stress environment (Chen *et al.*, 2014, 2015).
113 However, females with greater carbon requirements for reproduction could develop enhanced
114 carbon acquisition and a stronger allocation to aboveground biomass under elevated
115 temperature and CO₂, which may improve females' competitive abilities. Therefore, by
116 elucidating the effects between sexual competition and climate drivers, the afforestation and
117 management of dioecious species will be promoted in the future.

118

119 The present study was designed to explore intra- and intersexual competition and sex-specific
120 responses in *P. cathayana* under different climate change scenarios, including elevated
121 temperature and CO₂ concentration alone or their combination. We hypothesized that climate
122 drivers and competition patterns would modulate the adaptability of the two sexes by changes
123 in resource acquisition and carbon-related metabolism processes. Moreover, there might be
124 interactive effects caused by elevated temperature and CO₂ concentration. The promoting
125 effect of CO₂ on females or males may be regulated by elevated temperature. In the present
126 study, the biomass accumulation and partitioning, photosynthetic characteristics, water and
127 nitrogen use efficiencies, structural and non-structural carbohydrates and secondary
128 metabolites of *P. cathayana* females and males were determined from different competition
129 experiments (female × female, FF; female × male, FM, male × male, MM). The aims of the
130 study were as follows: (1) to identify the competition relationship of *P. cathayana* females
131 and males under different climate change scenarios, and to reveal, whether climatic factors
132 affect the competition intensity and competitiveness of the sexes; (2) to identify the effects of

133 sexual competition, elevated CO₂ and temperature alone and their combination on the
134 eco-physiological responses of *P. cathayana* females and males, and to reveal, whether
135 competition patterns regulate the effect of climate change on dioecious plants.

136 **2. Materials and Methods**

137

138 *2.1. Plant material and experimental design*

139

140 Male and female cuttings of *P. cathayana* were collected from 60 different trees sampled
141 from 15 populations (four adult trees per population), including 30 males and 30 females, in
142 riparian and valley flat habitats (Datong, 35°56'N, 101°35'E, altitude of 2450 m, annual
143 temperature of 3.7 °C, annual precipitation of 350 mm) in the Qinghai Province, China. In
144 April 2015, the *P. cathayana* cuttings were planted in plastic pots. After growing for about
145 one month, 288 healthy cuttings (144 males and 144 females) with approximately the same
146 crown size of 15 cm and height of 25 cm were chosen and replanted (two cuttings in each pot
147 according to three different competition patterns: female × female, female × male, male ×
148 male) in 30-L plastic pots. The pots were filled with 25 kg homogenized surface sandy soil
149 (0-30 cm) taken from the experimental site. The saplings were moved to 12 growth chambers
150 with an automatic control of air temperature and CO₂ concentration allowing a simulation of
151 climate change conditions. According to the IPCC report (IPCC, 2013), the climate change
152 treatments were selected as follows: temperature elevated by 2 °C (ET), CO₂ concentration
153 elevated to 700 ppm (EC), and the combination of elevated temperature and CO₂
154 concentration (ETC). The control treatment had ambient temperature and CO₂ concentration

155 (CK). The experiment followed a fully randomized design. The experimental design is shown
156 in Figure 1.

157

158 The climate-controlled growth chambers were located at the ecological station of the
159 Wanglang Nature Reserve, Sichuan province of China (104°9'E, 32°54'N, altitude of 2461 m).

160 The site has a temperate monsoon climate with distinct dry and wet seasons. The annual
161 accumulated temperature is about 1056 °C, the average precipitation varies from 801 to 825

162 mm, and the CO₂ concentration is about 348.2 ppm. The plant growth chambers are nearly
163 cylindrical structures with 11 walls. The top of each growth chamber has a hollow sunlight

164 plate, and the sides are closed by hollow tempered glass with light transmittance greater than
165 85%. The temperature was regulated by computer-controlled heating and cooling units, and

166 the CO₂ concentration was monitored and controlled by CO₂ sensors and injectors in the
167 growth chambers (Figure 1). The experiment lasted from early May 2015 to 28 September

168 2015. The ambient day temperature varied between 14-28 °C and the night temperature
169 between 9-15 °C during the experiment. The elevated temperature treatments had

170 temperatures increased by 2 °C compared to the ambient temperature. The growth chambers
171 had a relative air humidity range of 50-70% during the experiment. Into each pot, 12 g slow

172 release fertilizer (13% N, 10% P and 14% K) was added, and the pots were watered every
173 two days during the experiment. The position of saplings in the growth chambers was

174 frequently changed to decrease the position effect on plant growth. During the experiment, a
175 total of six saplings were randomly sampled from each treatment (2 replicates of each

176 competition pair from 3 replicates of each climate change treatment) and the photosynthetic

177 characteristics were measured. These same six cuttings were sampled to determine plant dry
178 mass and metabolite contents at the end of the experiment.

179

180 *2.2. Determination of biomass accumulation*

181

182 At the end of the experiment, the same six saplings used for the measurement of
183 photosynthetic characteristics were harvested (excluding cuttings that were used at the
184 beginning of the experiment). The sampled plants were divided into leaves, stems and roots.
185 Biomass samples were dried at 70 °C for 48 h and their dry mass was determined. The
186 root/shoot ratio (RS ratio) was calculated as root biomass/(leaf biomass + stem biomass), and
187 the root/leaf ratio (RL ratio) as root biomass/leaf biomass. The relative growth rate (RGR) of
188 aboveground and belowground biomass was calculated as follows:

$$189 \text{RGR}_a = (\ln \text{DW}_{a,t+1} - \ln \text{DW}_{a,t}) / \Delta t \quad (\text{Eq. 1})$$

$$190 \text{RGR}_b = (\ln \text{DW}_{b,t+1} - \ln \text{DW}_{b,t}) / \Delta t \quad (\text{Eq. 2})$$

191 $\text{DW}_{a,t}$ and $\text{DW}_{a,t+1}$ are the aboveground biomasses of the two sexes, while $\text{DW}_{b,t}$ and $\text{DW}_{b,t+1}$
192 are the belowground biomasses of the two sexes from initial to final t+1 time under each
193 treatment, Δt was the time interval of initial and ending time in the experiment.

194

195 *2.3. Determination of gas exchange characteristics*

196

197 Leaf photosynthetic characteristics were estimated for the fourth fully expanded intact leaf
198 from six randomly chosen individuals from each treatment using a LI-6400 portable

199 photosynthesis system (Li-Cor, Inc., Lincoln, NE, USA) between 08:00 and 11:30 h on 15
200 and 17 August 2015. Net photosynthetic rate (P_n , $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) and transpiration rate (E ,
201 $\text{mmol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) were measured after leaf gas exchange rates had stabilized under the following
202 conditions: leaf temperature 25 °C; leaf-to-air vapor pressure deficit 1.5 ± 0.5 kPa; light
203 intensity $1500 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$; relative air humidity 50%; and ambient CO_2 concentration $400 \pm$
204 $5 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$. From these measurements, instantaneous photosynthetic water-use efficiency
205 (WUE_i , $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$) was calculated as the ratio of P_n to E . The same leaves used for gas
206 exchange measurements were sampled. Their area was estimated by a scanner, then the
207 leaves were oven dried at 70 °C and ground for the N analysis. The N content ($\%N \text{ g}^{-1}$ dry
208 weight) was estimated by a semi-micro Kjeldahl method (Mitchell, 1998). About 25 mg of
209 dry leaf tissue were weighed and transferred to a microdigestion tube, then digested with 5
210 ml of H_2SO_4 and a few mg of 3:1 $\text{CuSO}_4\text{-K}_2\text{SO}_4$ mixture. The acid digest was diluted with 1
211 ml ammonia-free water and washed into the distillation apparatus. The ammonia was
212 collected in 10 ml of 0.01 M H_2SO_4 . Distillates were boiled and titrated with 0.01 M
213 NaOH to a methyl red endpoint, and then the N content was calculated. Photosynthetic
214 nitrogen-use efficiency (PNUE , $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}\text{Ns}^{-1}$) was calculated as the ratio of P_n to leaf N
215 content.

216

217 *2.4. Determination of non-structural and structural carbohydrate contents*

218

219 The leaf and root samples for starch and sucrose analyses were sampled from the same six
220 individuals harvested to estimate biomass accumulation at the end of the experiment.

221 Approximately 0.2 g of dried leaf and root tissue was incubated in 80% (v/v) ethanol at 80 °C
222 for 30 min, and centrifuged at 5000 g for 10 min. The ethanol extract was used for the
223 determination of the sucrose according to the method of Green, Mitchell and Gjerstad (1994).
224 The residue was further hydrolyzed with 9.2 mol l⁻¹ HClO₄ for 30 min, and centrifuged at
225 5000 g for 15 min. The extract solution was used for the analysis, and the starch content in
226 glucose equivalents was determined according to the anthrone reagent method of Yemm and
227 Willis (1954). For the determination of cellulose and lignin contents, 0.5 g of dried leaf
228 powder was extracted with 1 M cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB)-H₂SO₄ solution.
229 The cellulose and lignin contents were determined by the Fibertec™ M61020/1021 fiber
230 analyzer (Foss, Hillerød, Denmark), according to the manufacturer's standard analytical
231 procedures for acid detergent fiber and acid detergent lignin.

232

233 *2.5. Determination of total polyphenol and anthocyanidin contents*

234

235 Leaf samples of the same six individuals of each treatment harvested at the end of the
236 experiment, were analyzed for total polyphenol and anthocyanidin contents. For that, 0.25 g
237 of dried leaf powder was extracted with 80% (v/v) aqueous methanol. The polyphenol
238 content was determined by the Folin-Ciocalteu method using gallic acid as a standard (Astill
239 *et al.*, 2001). For analyzing the anthocyanidin content, 0.2 g leaf powder was placed into a
240 50-ml beaker. After adding 10 ml of 2% hydrochloric acid methanol solution, the beaker was
241 air-tightly closed with a sealing membrane to prevent volatilization. After extracting for 2 h at
242 room temperature in the dark, the solution was filtered to a 50-ml volumetric flask and

243 constant volume with 2% hydrochloric acid methanol solution. The absorbance of the
244 solution was analyzed by a UV-330 spectrophotometer (Unicam, Cambridge, UK) at 530 nm.

245

246 2.6. Determination of relative competition index (RCI)

247

248 The influence of different neighbors on the responses of the two sexes to climate change was
249 assessed by the relative competition index (RCI) estimated for different types of competition
250 ($RCI_{f/fm}$, competition effect of males on females in inter-sexual competition; $RCI_{m/fm}$,
251 competition effect of females on males in inter-sexual competition) according to the
252 following formulas (Weigelt and Jolliffe, 2003; Manea and Leishman, 2011).

$$253 \quad RCI_{f/fm} = (Y_{f/fm} - Y_{f/ff}) / Y_{f/ff} \quad (\text{Eq. 3})$$

$$254 \quad RCI_{m/fm} = (Y_{m/fm} - Y_{m/mm}) / Y_{m/mm} \quad (\text{Eq. 4})$$

255 $Y_{f/fm}$ and $Y_{m/fm}$ are the biomasses of the two sexes under inter-sexual competition, and $Y_{f/ff}$
256 and $Y_{m/mm}$ are the biomasses of the two sexes under intra-sexual competition.

257

258 2.7. Statistical analysis

259

260 One-way and three-way analyses of variance (ANOVAs) were performed using the SPSS
261 19.0 for windows statistical software package (SPSS, Chicago, IL, USA). Before conducting
262 ANOVAs, data were checked for normality and homogeneity of variances, and
263 log-transformed to correct for deviations from these assumptions when needed. The
264 differences among means within treatments were separated by Tukey's tests following

265 one-way ANOVAs. Independent-sample *t*-tests were employed to determine the significance
266 of differences between inter- and inter-sexual competition under different climate change
267 treatments. Three-way ANOVAs were used to evaluate the effects of sex competition,
268 elevated temperature and CO₂ and their interactions. All statistical tests were considered
269 significant at $P < 0.05$. A principal component analysis (PCA) was further undertaken using
270 SPSS 19.0 to gain insight into the trait loadings as dependent on the interactive effect of
271 sexual competition and climate change, and to distinguish the differences in competitiveness
272 and adaptation abilities among the sexes under different climate change scenarios.

273

274 **3. Results**

275

276 *3.1. Effects of simulated climate change treatments and competition on biomass partitioning*

277

278 Compared with ambient environment, ET treatments increased the total biomass of F/FM and
279 F/FF, EC treatments increased the biomass of M/FM and M/MM (Figure 2a, b, c, d), and
280 ETC treatment increased the total biomass of F/FM, F/FF, M/FM and M/MM. However, no
281 significant difference was observed between ambient environment and ET treatment in
282 M/MM and M/FM. In the inter-sexual competition treatment, compared with males, females
283 showed a higher biomass, RGR_a and RGR_b under ET and ETC and higher RS under EC,
284 while lower RL and RS under ET (Fig. 2a-f). In intra-sexual competition, compared with
285 males, females (F/FF) had a lower leaf, root and total biomass, RGR_a and RGR_b under EC
286 and ETC treatments, and a lower RS ratio under ETC (Fig. 2a-f). In females, F/FM showed a

287 higher leaf and total biomass, and RGR_a , and lower RL than F/FF under ET, while a higher
288 biomass and RGR_a under ETC, and a higher biomass, RL and RS under EC. In males,
289 compared to M/FM, M/MM showed a higher biomass and RGR_a under all climate change
290 treatments. Three-way ANOVAs indicated that CO_2 , temperature and competition alone
291 affected leaf, stem, root and total biomass, RGR_a and RGR_b . The interaction between CO_2
292 and temperature affected growth traits, except for stem biomass, RL and RS ratio. The
293 interaction between competition and CO_2 or temperature affected all growth traits, while the
294 interaction of CO_2 , temperature and competition affected root and total biomass, RGR_b , RS
295 and RL ratio.

296

297 *3.2. Effects of climate change treatments and competition on gas exchange characteristics*

298

299 Compared with ambient environment, ET and ETC treatments increased P_n , WUE_i and
300 PNUE of females. EC and ETC increased P_n , WUE_i and PNUE, while they decreased E of
301 males under intra- and inter-sexual competition. In intersexual competition, females showed
302 higher P_n , WUE_i and PNUE, and lower E under ET, higher P_n under ETC, while lower P_n ,
303 WUE_i and PNUE, and a higher E under EC than males (Table 1). In inter-sexual competition,
304 M/MM had higher P_n , WUE_i and PNUE under EC and ETC treatments, and a lower E value
305 under EC than F/FF (Table 1). Moreover, F/FM showed higher P_n , WUE_i and PNUE than
306 F/FF under ET and ETC treatments. M/MM showed lower E and higher WUE_i under EC, and
307 higher P_n and WUE_i than M/FM under ETC. According to the statistical analysis, CO_2 ,
308 temperature and competition alone, the interaction between competition and CO_2 or

309 temperature, and the interaction of CO₂, temperature and competition affected all gas
310 exchange characteristics. The interaction between CO₂ and temperature affected PNUE and
311 *E*.

312

313 *3.3. Effects of climate change treatments and competition on the content of carbohydrates*

314

315 Compared with controls, EC, ET and ETC treatments increased leaf starch and sucrose
316 contents of females from intra- and inter-sexual competition. However, EC, ET and ETC
317 treatments had no significant effect on the root starch of females, and only ETC significantly
318 increased the root sucrose of females from intra- and inter-sexual competition (Figure 3a-d).
319 On the other hand, ET significantly increased the leaf starch content, while EC, ET and ETC
320 treatments significantly increased leaf sucrose contents of males from inter-sexual
321 competition. Moreover, EC and ETC treatments significantly increased root starch and
322 sucrose contents of males from intra- and inter-sexual competition. In inter-sexual
323 competition, females had lower leaf starch, and higher leaf and root sucrose and root starch
324 contents under ambient environment and ET, but a lower root sucrose content under ETC,
325 while a higher leaf starch content under EC and ETC when compared to males. In
326 intra-sexual competition treatments, M/MM showed higher leaf and root sucrose levels under
327 EC and ETC treatments, and higher root starch contents under ETC than F/FF, while F/FF
328 had a higher leaf sucrose content under ET, and a higher leaf starch content under EC and
329 ETC treatments. In addition, F/FM showed a lower leaf starch content than F/FF under EC
330 and ETC, and a higher leaf sucrose content under ETC than F/FF, while M/MM showed a

331 higher leaf sucrose level under EC and ETC treatments, a higher root starch content under
332 ETC and a higher root sucrose content under EC than M/FM (Figure 3a-d). Compared with
333 ambient environment, ET, EC and ETC treatments increased leaf cellulose and lignin
334 contents of females and males from inter-sexual competition, while EC and ETC increased
335 leaf cellulose of F/FF and leaf lignin of M/MM, while only ETC increased leaf lignin of F/FF.
336 In the inter-sexual competition, females had more cellulose than males under all climate
337 change treatments, except for ETC, a higher leaf lignin content under ET and a lower leaf
338 lignin content under EC and ETC than males (Figure 4a, b). In the intra-sexual competition,
339 F/FF had more cellulose under all climate change treatments, while less leaf lignin than
340 M/MM under EC and ETC. Moreover, F/FM showed a lower cellulose content under ETC
341 and higher lignin contents under ET and ETC when compared to F/FF, while M/MM showed
342 higher lignin contents under EC and ETC than M/FM. CO₂, temperature and competition
343 alone, and the interaction between competition and CO₂ or temperature affected all observed
344 carbohydrate variables. The interaction between CO₂ and temperature affected carbohydrates,
345 except for root starch. The interaction of CO₂, temperature and competition affected
346 carbohydrates, except for the leaf lignin content.

347

348 *3.4. Effects of climate change treatments and competition on leaf anthocyanidin and total* 349 *polyphenol contents*

350

351 Compared to ambient environment, EC and ETC treatments increased the leaf polyphenol
352 content of both females and males, while ET increased the leaf polyphenol content of males

353 in both intra- and intersexual competition. ET and ETC treatments increased the leaf
354 anthocyanidin content of F/FM, and EC and ETC treatments increased the leaf anthocyanidin
355 content of M/FM, while ET, EC and ETC treatments increased leaf anthocyanidin contents of
356 F/FF and M/MM. In inter-sexual competition, females had more leaf anthocyanidin under
357 ambient environment and ET, but less under EC and ETC, and less polyphenols under ET and
358 EC treatments than males (Figure 4c, d). In intra-sexual competition, F/FF had more leaf
359 anthocyanidin under ET, and less anthocyanidin in EC and ETC treatments compared with
360 M/MM. Among males, M/MM showed higher leaf anthocyanidin amounts than M/FM under
361 ET, EC and ETC. According to three-way ANOVAs, CO₂, temperature and competition alone,
362 the interaction between competition and CO₂ or temperature as well as the interaction of CO₂,
363 temperature and competition affected leaf anthocyanidin and total polyphenol, while the
364 interaction between CO₂ and temperature affected leaf total polyphenol.

365

366 *3.5. Relative competition index (RCI) and principal component analysis (PCA)*

367

368 F/FM had positive RCI values, while M/FM had negative RCI_{leaf}, RCI_{stem}, RCI_{root} and RCI_{total}
369 values under ET, EC and ETC treatments (Figure 5a-d), indicating that females benefitted
370 from the presence of males (compared to the presence of females), while males were
371 suppressed by females. Moreover, RCI_{root} and RCI_{total} of F/FM were higher under EC and
372 ETC than under ET and ambient conditions, which indicated that ETC and EC treatments
373 promoted the root and total biomass of females in inter-sexual competition more than ET. On
374 the other hand, RCI_{stem} of M/FM was higher in EC and ETC treatments than under ET, and

375 RCI_{root} of M/FM was higher in EC and ETC treatments than in ambient conditions, indicating
376 that EC and ETC treatments had a more positive effect on M/FM.

377

378 The PCA analysis highlighted the presence of a considerable distance between F/FM and
379 M/FM under the ambient environment, and ET and EC treatments. Moreover, ET further
380 separated F/FM and M/FM (Figure 6a), underscoring the major difference in how inter-sexual
381 competition affected males and females. However, ETC reduced the distance between
382 inter-sexual competition treatments, indicating that ETC benefitted males relatively more,
383 resulting in a reduction in the competitive pressure of females on males. In addition, in
384 intra-sexual competition under ambient environment, females and males were positioned
385 close to each other in PCA (Figure 6b), indicating similar competitive abilities in both sexes.
386 However, ET, EC and ETC treatments expanded the distance between them, indicating the
387 importance of the global climate change on competitive abilities. M/MM had higher PC1
388 factor scores than females under EC and ETC.

389

390 In inter-sexual competition, PC1 and PC2 explained 74.8% of the total variation. PC1
391 explained 60.3.0% of the variation, being affected by P_n , E , WUE_i , PNUE, root starch and
392 sucrose, leaf sucrose, leaf anthocyanidin, leaf lignin, RGR_a , RGR_b , and leaf, stem, root and
393 total biomass, while PC2 explained 14.5%, being affected by E , RL and RS (Figure 6c). In
394 intra-sexual competition, PC1 and PC2 explained 71.6% of the total variation. PC1 explained
395 54.0% of the variation, being affected by P_n , E , WUE_i , PNUE, root starch and sucrose, leaf
396 sucrose, leaf anthocyanidin, lignin, RGR_a , RGR_b , and leaf, stem, root and total biomass,

397 while PC2 explained 17.6% of variation, being affected by leaf starch, leaf polyphenol
398 contents, RL and RS ratio (Figure 6d).

399

400 **4. Discussion**

401

402 *4.1. Interactive effects of climate change and sexual competition on P. cathayana*

403

404 Only few studies have reported sexual dimorphism and sex ratio biases in responses to
405 climate change in dioecious plants (Tognetti, 2012; Álvarez-Cansino *et al.*, 2013; Hultine *et*
406 *al.*, 2016). Our study further indicated that the key climate drivers and sexual competition
407 patterns interactively affect growth, photosynthetic capacity, and the dynamics of
408 non-structural and structural carbohydrates and secondary metabolites in the two sexes,
409 which may alter biomass productivity and carbon sequestration of *P. cathayana* forests in
410 climate change conditions. In intra- and inter-sexual competition, elevated temperature (ET)
411 promoted female performance more, as shown as significant increases in biomass
412 accumulation, P_n , WUE_i and PNUE in females. Moreover, under the combined treatment of
413 ET and inter-sexual competition, females showed a higher total biomass and photosynthetic
414 capacity, and greater contents of leaf sucrose, root starch and sucrose, leaf cellulose, lignin
415 and anthocyanidin, indicating superior carbon assimilation and adaptability when compared
416 to males. However, in several single-plant experiments, opposite responses have been found,
417 in particular that females suffer greater negative effects from elevated temperature (Xu *et al.*,
418 2008; Zhao *et al.*, 2012). The differences in results imply that sexual competition patterns

419 change the responses of the two sexes to climate change. The identity of neighbors
420 significantly affects the ability of roots to capture resources (Rogers and Eppley, 2012), and
421 sexual differences in sensitivity to adjacent plants may be an important factor regulating the
422 growth patterns of dioecious plants under a given habitat (Zhang *et al.*, 2009).

423

424 Our study showed that elevated CO₂ (EC) significantly increased biomass accumulation,
425 photosynthetic capacity, and water and N use efficiency, with stronger positive effects on
426 males than on females under intra-sexual competition. It has been reported that *Salix arctica*
427 and *P. tremuloides* males show higher photosynthetic rates than females under elevated CO₂
428 concentration (Jones *et al.*, 1999; Wang and Curtis, 2001). Males have lower resource
429 demands and higher resource utilization efficiencies (Li *et al.*, 2007; Zhao *et al.*, 2011).
430 Moreover, the gas exchange, N content per leaf area and soluble protein content of mature
431 leaves of *P. cathayana* males increase with elevated CO₂ (Zhao *et al.*, 2012), which may
432 enhance competitiveness and fitness of males under elevated CO₂. The combination of
433 elevated CO₂ and temperature has been shown to promote photosynthesis and carbon
434 transformation from source to sink (Luo and Polle, 2009). Our results indicated that the
435 combined elevated temperature and CO₂ treatment significantly increased the leaf and total
436 biomass, P_n, WUE_i, PNUE, and the contents of carbohydrates and secondary metabolism of
437 both sexes in all competition patterns. Thus, the data collectively indicated that climate
438 drivers alone and in combination show different effects on the two sexes, which may
439 potentially affect the distribution and population dynamics of dioecious plants in the future.

440

441 There is a trade-off among reproduction, growth and defense functions in plants according to
442 the optimum resource allocation principles and carbon balance hypothesis (Fernandez *et al.*,
443 2016; Guo *et al.*, 2018). It has been previously reported that elevated temperature affects the
444 secondary metabolism of *P. davidiana* and that *Salix myrsinifolia* females increase leaf
445 flavonoid and tannin contents more than males under increased temperature (Randriamanana
446 *et al.*, 2015). Our results also showed that elevated temperature, elevated CO₂ and their
447 combination significantly affected carbon metabolism and balance. Higher leaf cellulose,
448 lignin and anthocyanidin contents of both sexes were observed under ETC, which may
449 alleviate the suppressing effect on photosynthesis caused by excess carbohydrates in
450 chloroplasts (Zhao *et al.*, 2012).

451

452 Males can sustain a higher rate of carbon assimilation with greater sink activities (Wang and
453 Curtis, 2001; Zhao *et al.*, 2012), and they have greater adaptability and greater carbohydrate
454 use efficiency than females under CO₂ enrichment (Zhao *et al.*, 2011). In the present study,
455 males possessed lower leaf starch, and higher root starch and leaf polyphenol contents when
456 compared to females under intra-sexual competition, thus indicating a more efficient C
457 allocation under elevated CO₂ (Zhao *et al.*, 2012). Our results showed that the greatest
458 increase in polyphenols, anthocuanidins and lignins of both sexes occurs under EC and ETC,
459 while males from inter-sexual competition accumulate more leaf starch and less cellulose
460 than females under ET, indicating switching from growth to non-structural C storage that in
461 consistent with low photosynthesis and biomass production. It has been reported that climate
462 drivers affect tree lignification (Blaschke *et al.*, 2002), the content of tannins and phenolics

463 (Ghimire *et al.*, 2018), and litter decomposition (Cha *et al.*, 2017), implying an indirect effect
464 on soil and plant-herbivore interactions (Cornelissen and Stilling, 2005; Kelley *et al.*, 2011),
465 which can further affect plant adaptation and competitiveness under future climate change. In
466 all, climate drivers and sexual competition of dioecious species may interactively affect the
467 C-related nutrient balance between source and sink, and carbon sequestration in terrestrial
468 ecosystems.

469

470 *4.2. Competition relationships of P. cathayana under different climate change scenarios*

471

472 Our study demonstrated that the two key climate change drivers, elevated temperature and
473 CO₂ alone and in combination affected the intensity of sexual competition in *P. cathayana*,
474 which means that sex ratios and population structures might be altered in the future. Previous
475 studies have found that the growth of plant species is modulated by elevated CO₂ depending
476 on inter- and intra-specific relationships and interactions with abiotic factors (Ward *et al.*,
477 1999; Ainsworth, 2016; Flexas *et al.*, 2016; Sánchez-Gómez *et al.*, 2017), or on competitors
478 that affect available soil resources by responding to chemical root signals and mechanical
479 touching from neighboring plants (Poorter and Navas, 2003; Gruntman and Novoplansky,
480 2004; Messier *et al.*, 2009; Alexander *et al.*, 2015; Arndal *et al.*, 2018). Some studies on
481 dioecious grasses have shown that there are sex ratio biases and sexual space segregation
482 under environmental gradients and that females have a greater competitive ability than males
483 (Eppley, 2006; Mercer and Eppley, 2010). Our results indicated that the sexual identity of the
484 neighbor significantly affects competitive abilities under all tested climate conditions.

485

486 The PCA and competition indexes showed that males had a greater competitive capacity
487 under intra-sexual competition under EC and ETC conditions. Elevated temperature
488 intensified the competitive pressure of females on males in inter-sexual competition.
489 However, the combined elevated temperature and CO₂ treatment alleviated the competition
490 pressure. In addition, there were more positive effects on males than females in intra-sexual
491 competition under EC and ETC. Such interactions implied that the two sexes have different
492 eco-physiological response plasticities and trade-offs among climate drivers and niche
493 differentiation under climate change conditions, as reported in previous studies as well
494 (Epply 2006; Niinemets and Valladares, 2006; Nicotra *et al.*, 2010; Laanisto and Niinemets,
495 2015). The alleviated competitive intensity under ETC may be related to niche differentiation.
496 Sex-specific resource allocation and utilization patterns may cause spatial segregation and
497 alleviate sexual competition (Sánchez-Vilas *et al.*, 2011; Xia *et al.*, 2020). The niche
498 differentiation hypothesis proposes that females and males have different niches due to
499 inter-sexual competition intensity being greater than intra-sexual competition, while the
500 sex-specific cost of reproduction hypothesis suggests that differences in costs of reproduction
501 may cause adaptation to different habitats (Bierzychudek and Eckhart, 1988; Eppley, 2006;
502 Stehlik *et al.*, 2008).

503

504 Sex ratio biases have been reported in many dioecious species, often towards males,
505 especially in less optimal habitats (Stehlik *et al.*, 2008; Hesse and Pannell, 2011). Climate
506 change may contribute to skewed sex ratios due to differential tolerance between sexes to

507 climatic factors (Tognetti, 2012; Hultine *et al.*, 2016). Elevated temperature intensified the
508 competitive advantage of *P. cathayana* females, which would eventually lead to a negative
509 effect on the reproductive success at the population scale (Hultine *et al.*, 2016). A
510 female-biased sex ratio triggered by an increased competitive success of females may
511 contradict previous thinking of the effect of climatic change drivers on dioecious species,
512 implying that competitive interactions between sexes may counteract factors that generate
513 male-biased sex ratios. Also, male-biased or female-biased sex ratios may further impact the
514 intensity of sexual selection and mate success.

515

516 The balance of facilitation and competition appears to vary with the life stages of interacting
517 species and with environmental gradients (Callaway and Walker, 1997; Michalet, 2006;
518 Brooker *et al.*, 2008; Olsen *et al.*, 2016). It is predicted that competition and facilitation
519 between males and females in dioecious plants may vary with the stage of climate change. In
520 our study, there was an increasing competitive asymmetry between males and females when
521 exposed to inter-sexual competition under elevated temperature. Compared with intra-sexual
522 competition, females showed more facilitation and less competitive pressure in inter-sexual
523 competition under elevated temperature and CO₂ and their combination. The outcome of
524 competitive interactions and the change from competition to facilitation depend on resource
525 levels under a given environment (Tilman, 1982, 1988; Grime, 2006). In particular, elevated
526 CO₂ and temperature may result in synergistic and antagonistic responses when interacting
527 with each other or with other biotic and abiotic factors (Alexander *et al.*, 2015;
528 Sánchez-Gómez *et al.*, 2017; Arndal *et al.*, 2018). If competitive interactions are neglected,

529 the effect of climate change on the productivity of ecosystems will be over-estimated.

530

531

532 **5. Conclusions**

533

534 The current study demonstrates that the two key climate change drivers, elevated temperature
535 and CO₂, affect the eco-physiological responses of males and females and the intensity of
536 sexual competition in *P. cathayana*. Females exposed to inter- and intra-sexual competition
537 showed greater responses to elevated temperature, while males from intra-sexual competition
538 were better adapted to elevated CO₂. The competitive pressure of females on males in
539 inter-sexual competition was intensified by elevated temperature, while it was alleviated by
540 the combination of elevated temperature and CO₂. Females suffered more from intra-sexual
541 competition pressure under elevated CO₂. The main implications for afforestation and forest
542 management are that the effects of climate drivers and sexual competition should be
543 considered in afforestation and management of dioecious tree species to enhance productivity
544 and carbon sequestration under future climate change. The two sexes should be grown in
545 proper combinations in order to decrease the inter- and intra-sexual competition pressure that
546 is regulated by elevated temperature and CO₂. Furthermore, effects of climate change drivers
547 on competition may further modulate sex ratios and spatial segregation of sexes in dioecious
548 plants in the future. We present that our results contribute to competition models that are
549 central for estimating the impact of climate change on dioecious species and consequent
550 effects on terrestrial ecosystems.

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901 **Table 1** Photosynthetic characteristics of *P. cathayana* females and males under different

902 competition patterns and climate change scenarios.

Competition	Climate change treatment	P _n ($\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$)	E ($\text{mmol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$)	WUE _i ($\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$)	PNUE ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}\text{Ns}^{-1}$)
Inter-sexual					
F/FM	CK	14.75 ± 0.41c**	5.59 ± 0.23bc	2.66 ± 0.14c*	28.09 ± 0.97bc**
	ET	21.79 ± 0.43a***	5.49 ± 0.22bc	4.00 ± 0.19ab***	41.25 ± 1.32a***
	EC	13.85 ± 0.19c*	6.72 ± 0.15a*	2.06 ± 0.04d	25.08 ± 0.86bc*
	ETC	22.63 ± 0.39a***	5.42 ± 0.19bc	4.20 ± 0.14a***	47.05 ± 1.82a***
M/FM	CK	11.21 ± 0.38d**	5.78 ± 0.15b	1.94 ± 0.04d**	21.99 ± 1.13c**
	ET	15.27 ± 0.32c	6.87 ± 0.15a	2.23 ± 0.08cd	31.08 ± 1.26b
	EC	17.95 ± 0.49b	4.98 ± 0.12bc**	3.62 ± 0.15b**	41.4 ± 1.52a*
	ETC	18.61 ± 0.31b***	4.94 ± 0.19c	3.79 ± 0.15ab***	45.31 ± 2.16a
Intra-sexual					
F/FF	CK	11.83 ± 0.41D	5.89 ± 0.19AB	2.02 ± 0.12C	21.82 ± 0.97C
	ET	17.18 ± 0.36B	5.96 ± 0.25AB	2.90 ± 0.10B	30.08 ± 1.08BC
	EC	12.37 ± 0.34D	5.78 ± 0.27AB	2.15 ± 0.06C	21.05 ± 1.54C
	ETC	14.63 ± 0.35C	5.55 ± 0.19B	2.66 ± 0.14BC	27.97 ± 1.23BC
M/MM	CK	14.57 ± 0.58C	5.71 ± 0.19B	2.57 ± 0.13BC	27.61 ± 0.79C
	ET	15.99 ± 0.41BC	6.67 ± 0.14A	2.41 ± 0.09BC	25.07 ± 4.47C
	EC	17.61 ± 0.24B	3.87 ± 0.20C	4.61 ± 0.23A	36.83 ± 0.72B
	ETC	25.52 ± 0.50A	5.07 ± 0.12B	5.05 ± 0.18A	50.09 ± 2.27A

903 Each value is the mean ± SE (*n* = 6). Different lowercase letters within the column indicate

904 significant differences between the sexes from inter-sexual competition, while different

905 uppercase letters within the column indicate significant differences between the sexes from

906 intra-sexual competition under different climate change scenarios according to Tukey's test

907 (*P* < 0.05). Asterisks indicate significant differences according to independent-samples *t*-tests908 between inter- and intra-sexual competition within each climate change treatment (*0.01 < *P*909 < 0.05; **0.001 < *P* ≤ 0.01; ****P* ≤ 0.001). CK: ambient temperature and CO₂ concentration,910 ET: elevated temperature, EC: elevated CO₂ concentration, ETC: combined elevated

911 temperature and CO₂ concentration treatment. F/FM, female individual from inter-sexual
 912 competition; M/FM, male individual from inter-sexual competition; F/FF, female individual
 913 from intra-sexual competition; M/MM, male individual from intra-sexual competition.

914 **Table 2** Statistical effects of elevated CO₂, elevated temperature and sexual competition
 915 treatments and their interactions on the ecophysiological characteristics of *P. cathayana*
 916 females and males.

Characteristic	P_{CO_2}	P_T	$P_{comp.}$	$P_{CO_2 \times T}$	$P_{CO_2 \times comp.}$	$P_{T \times comp.}$	$P_{CO_2 \times T \times comp.}$
P_n	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***	0.270 ^{ns}	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***
E	0.00***	0.031*	0.002**	0.002**	0.00***	0.00***	0.022*
WUE _i	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***	0.091 ^{ns}	0.00***	0.00***	0.007**
PNUE	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***	0.012*	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***
Leaf starch	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***
Leaf sucrose	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***
Root starch	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***	0.068 ^{ns}	0.00***	0.017*	0.001**
Root sucrose	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***	0.015*	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***
Leaf cellulose	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***
Leaf lignin	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***	0.666 ^{ns}
Anthocyanidin	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***	0.062 ^{ns}	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***
Total polyphenol	0.00***	0.00**	0.004**	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***
Leaf biomass	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***	0.190 ^{ns}
Stem biomass	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***	0.369 ^{ns}	0.00***	0.00***	0.084 ^{ns}
Root biomass	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***	0.004**	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***
Total biomass	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***
RL	0.147 ^{ns}	0.721 ^{ns}	0.624 ^{ns}	0.952 ^{ns}	0.00***	0.001**	0.016*
RS	0.990 ^{ns}	0.042*	0.00***	0.548 ^{ns}	0.00***	0.010**	0.00***
RGR _a	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***	0.003**	0.712 ^{ns}
RGR _b	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***	0.00***

917 Note: P_{CO_2} , elevated CO₂ effect; P_T , elevated temperature effect; $P_{comp.}$, sexual competition
 918 effect; $P_{CO_2 \times T}$, interactive effect of elevated CO₂ and temperature; $P_{CO_2 \times comp.}$, interactive
 919 effect of elevated CO₂ and sexual competition; $P_{T \times comp.}$, interactive effect of elevated
 920 temperature and sexual competition; $P_{CO_2 \times T \times comp.}$, tinteractive effect of elevated CO₂, elevated

921 temperature and sexual competition. * $0.01 < P < 0.05$; ** $0.001 < P \leq 0.01$; *** $P \leq 0.001$, ns,
922 non-significant.

Figure legends

Figure 1 Schematic diagram of the experimental design. F, *P. cathayana* females; M, *P. cathayana* males. CK: control treatment - ambient temperature and CO₂ concentration, ET: elevated temperature treatment; EC: elevated CO₂ concentration treatment; ETC: combined elevated temperature and CO₂ treatment. Competition patterns, female × female, FF; female × male, FM; male × male, MM. Each competition pair (FF, MM and FM) and climate change treatment (CK, ET, EC and ETC) included 12 replicates. A total of 288 saplings (144 males and 144 females) were kept in 12 growth chambers with an automatic control of air temperature and CO₂ concentration allowing a simulation of climate change conditions.

Figure 2 Biomass accumulation and partitioning and relative growth rates in *P. cathayana* females and males under different competition patterns and climate change scenarios. (a) Leaf biomass, (b) stem biomass, (c) root biomass, (d) total biomass, (e) root/shoot (RS) ratio, (f) root/leaf (RL) ratio, (g) relative growth rate of aboveground biomass (RGR_a) and (h) relative growth rate of belowground biomass (RGR_b). Each value is the mean ± SE ($n = 6$). Different lowercase letters within the bars indicate significant differences between sexes from inter-sexual competition, while different uppercase letters within the bars indicate significant differences between sexes from intra-sexual competition under different climate change scenarios according to Tukey's test ($P < 0.05$). Significant differences according to

independent-samples *t*-test between inter- and intra-sexual competition pattern within each climate change scenarios are shown as follows: * $0.01 < P < 0.05$; ** $0.001 < P \leq 0.01$; *** $P \leq 0.001$. CK: ambient temperature and CO₂ concentration, ET: elevated temperature, EC: elevated CO₂ concentration, ETC, combined elevated temperature and CO₂ concentration treatment. F/FM, female individual from inter-sexual competition; M/FM, male individual from inter-sexual competition; F/FF, female individual from intra-sexual competition; M/MM, male individual from intra-sexual competition.

Figure 3 Non-structural carbohydrate contents of *P. cathayana* females and males under different competition patterns and climate change scenarios. (a) Leaf starch content, (b) leaf sucrose content, (c) root starch content and (d) root sucrose content. Each value is the mean \pm SE ($n = 6$). Competition treatment codes, climate change codes and statistical significance codes are as in Figure 2.

Figure 4 Leaf structural carbohydrate, anthocyanidin and polyphenol contents in *P. cathayana* males and females under different competition patterns and climate change scenarios. (a) Leaf cellulose content, (b) leaf lignin content, (c) leaf anthocyanidin content and (d) leaf polyphenol content. Each value is the mean \pm SE ($n = 6$). Competition treatment codes, climate change codes and statistical significance as in Figure 2.

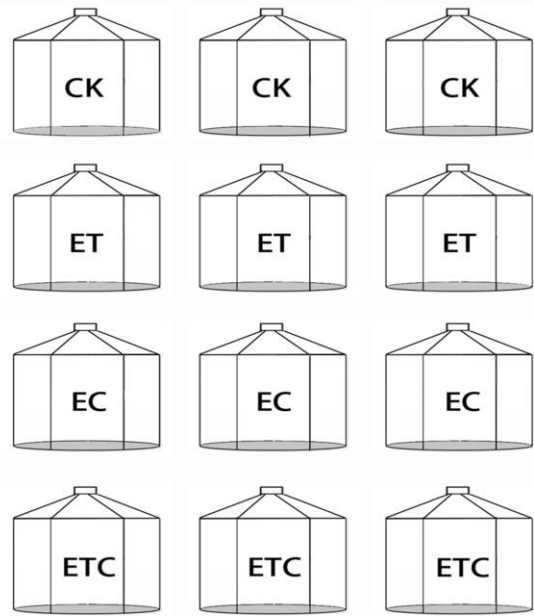
Figure 5 Relative competition index (RCI) in *P. cathayana* males and females under different climate change and competition treatments. (a) RCI_{leaf}, (b) RCI_{stem}, (c) RCI_{root} and (d) RCI_{total}.

Each value is the mean \pm SE ($n = 6$). Different letters in the same column indicate significant differences among treatments according to Tukey's test ($P < 0.05$). Competition treatment codes and climate change codes as in Figure 2.

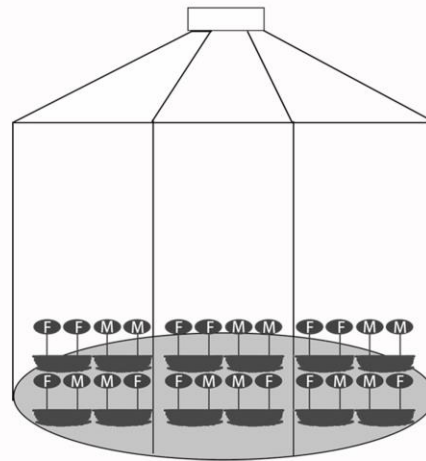
Figure 6 Results of principal component analysis of *P. cathayana* males and females from different competition and climate change treatments. (a) Factor score plot of *P. cathayana* from inter-sexual competition under different climate change treatments, (b) factor score plot of *P. cathayana* from intra-sexual competition under different climate change treatments, (c) factor loading plots of all ecophysiological characteristics of *P. cathayana* in inter-sexual competition and climate change treatments, (d) factor loading plots of all ecophysiological characteristics of *P. cathayana* in intra-sexual competition and climate change treatments. The acronyms are as follows: P_n , light-saturated net photosynthetic rate; PNUE, photosynthetic N-use efficiency; E_{value} , transpiration rate; WUE_i , instantaneous water use efficiency; L_{sta} , leaf starch content; L_{suc} , leaf sucrose content; R_{sta} , root starch content; R_{suc} , root sucrose content; Poly, leaf total polyphenol content; Cel, leaf cellulose content; Lig, leaf lignin content; Ant, leaf anthocyanidin content; LB, leaf biomass; SB, stem biomass; RB, root biomass; TB, total biomass; RS, root to shoot ratio; RL, root to leaf ratio; RGR_a , relative growth rate of aboveground biomass; RGR_b , relative growth rate of belowground biomass. F/FM and M/FM, respectively, indicate females and males from inter-sexual competition pattern under ambient temperature and CO₂ concentration; F/FF and M/MM, respectively, indicate females and males from intra-sexual competition pattern under ambient temperature and CO₂ concentration; TF/FM and TM/FM, respectively, indicate females and males from

inter-sexual competition pattern under elevated temperature; TF/FF and TM/MM, respectively, indicate females and males from intra-sexual competition pattern under elevated temperature; CF/FM and CM/FM, respectively, indicate females and males from inter-sexual competition pattern under elevated CO₂ concentration; CF/FF and CM/MM, respectively, indicate females and males from intra-sexual competition pattern under elevated CO₂ concentration; TCF/FM and TCM/FM, respectively, indicate females and males from inter-sexual competition pattern under combined elevated temperature and CO₂ concentration. TCF/FF and TCM/MM, respectively, indicate females and males from intra-sexual competition pattern under combined elevated temperature and CO₂ concentration.

Figure 1



Climate change treatment



Competition treatment
in each chamber

Figure 2

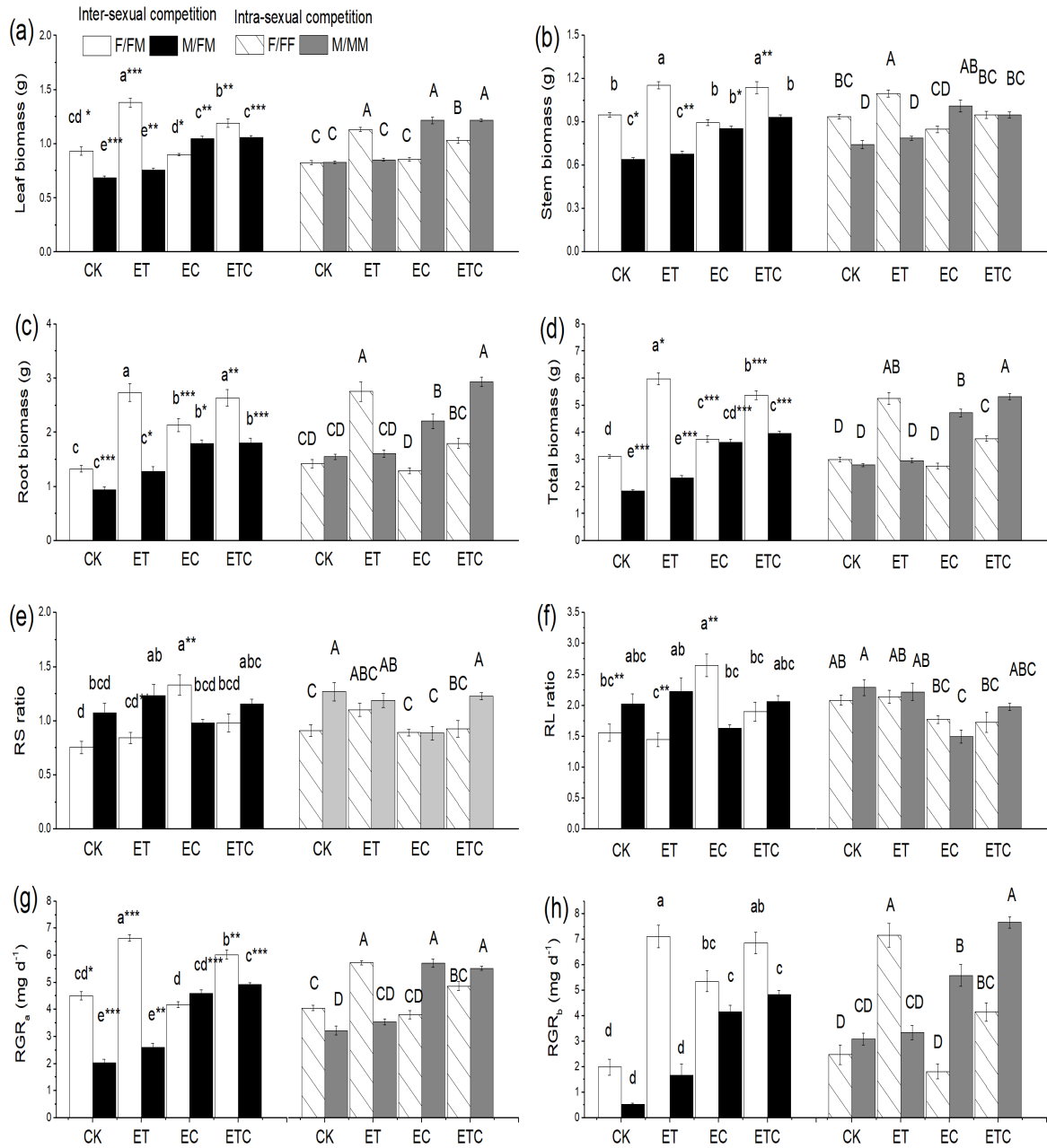


Figure 3

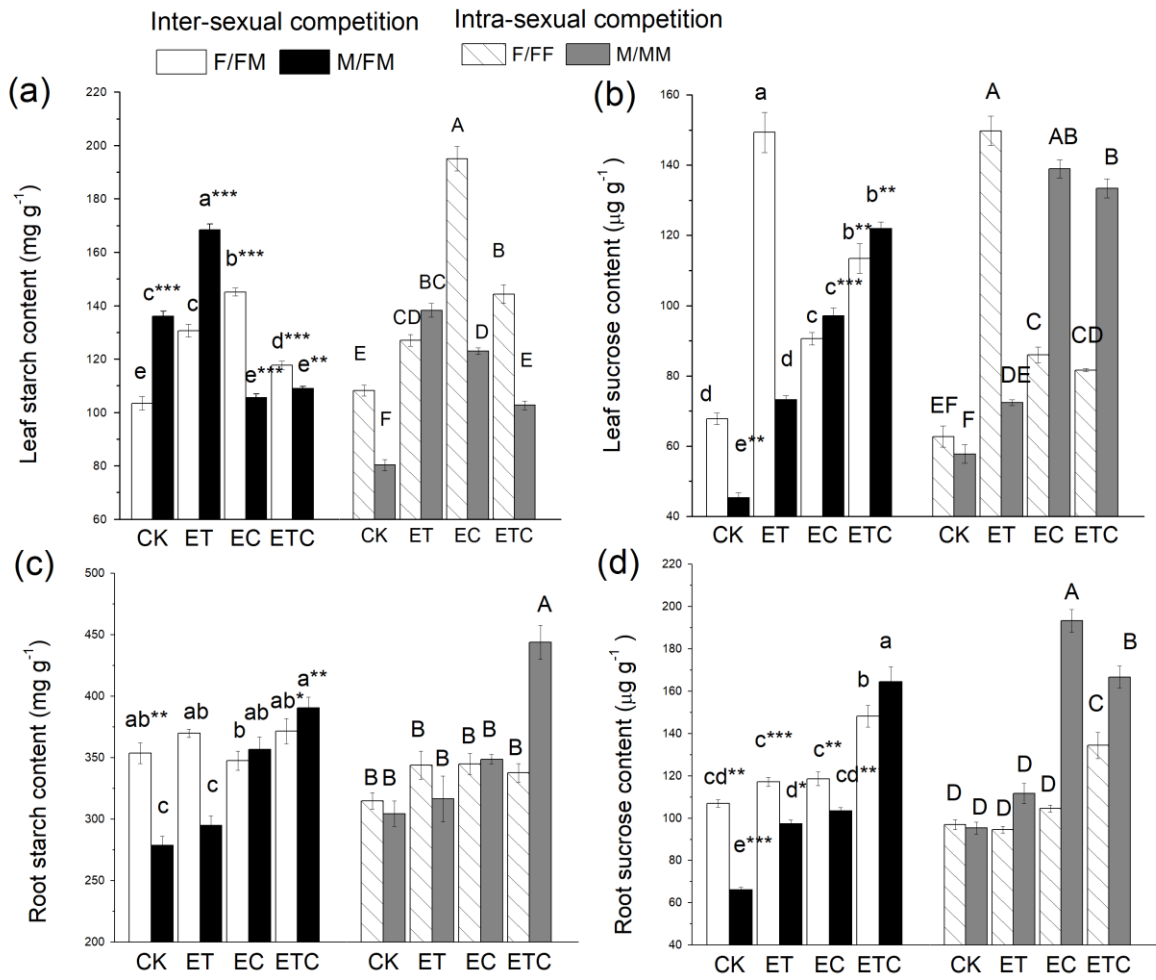


Figure 4

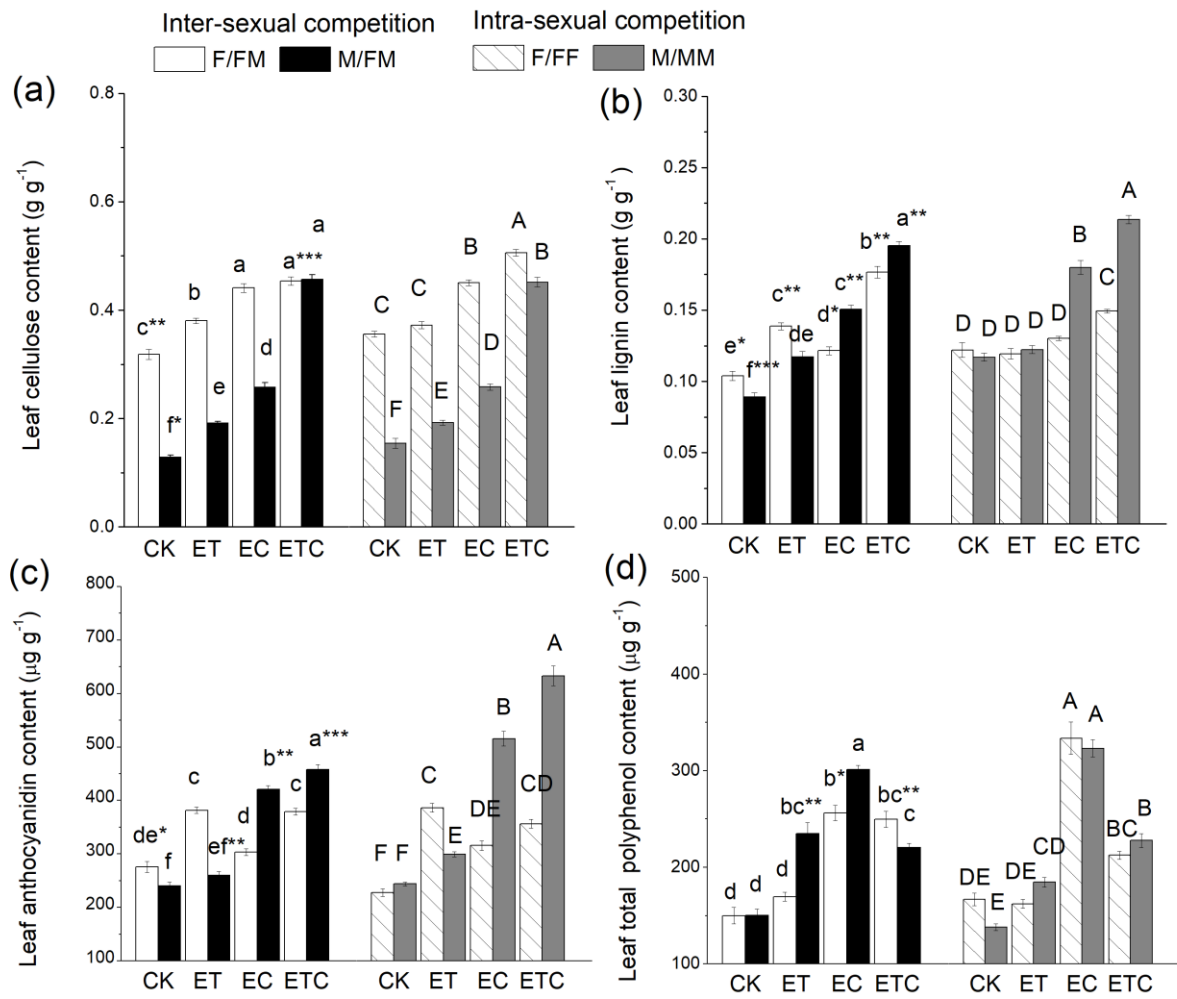


Figure 5

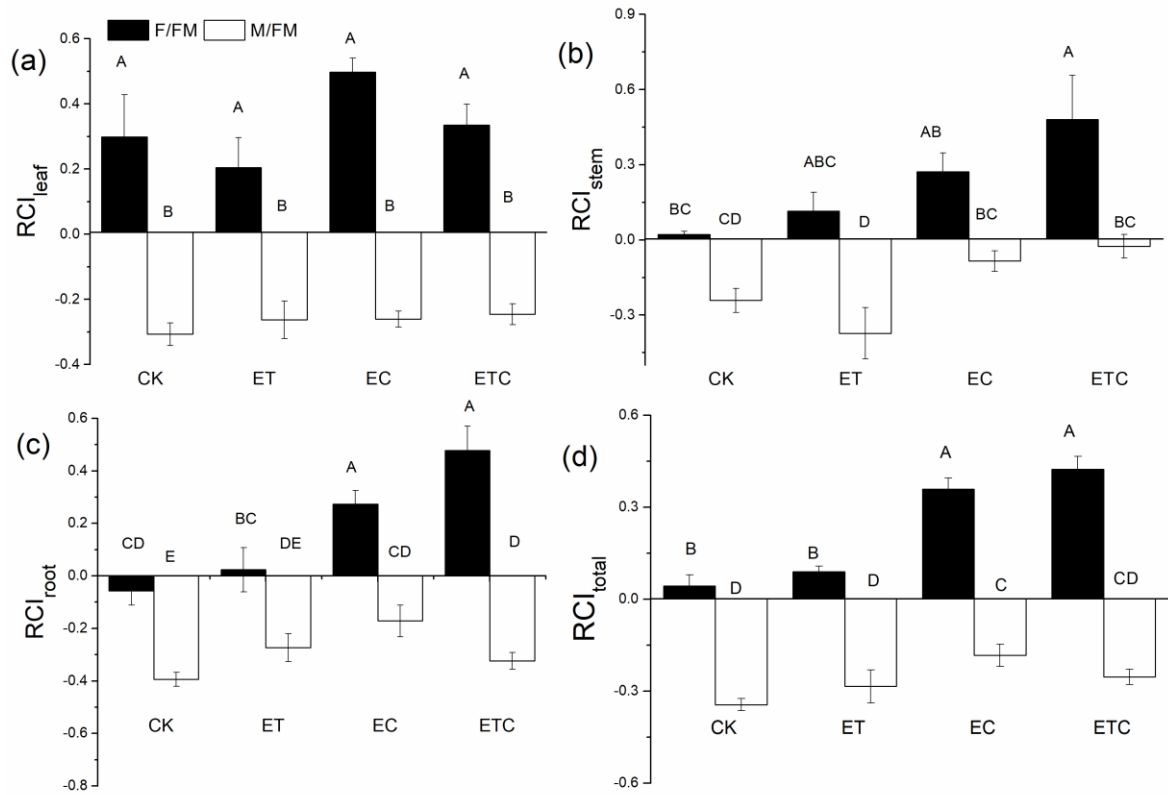


Figure 6

