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1 **Driving forces of nitrogen use efficiency in Chinese croplands on county scale**

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22 23 **Abstract:**

24 Nitrogen use efficiency (NUE, defined as the fraction of N input harvested as
25 product) is an important indicator to understand nitrogen use and losses in croplands as
26 an element of determining sustainable food production. China, as the country with the
27 largest amount of nitrogen fertilizer use globally, research into NUE consistently finds
28 it to be much lower than that in developed countries. Understanding the driving forces
29 of the underlying causes of this low NUE is thus crucial to improve nitrogen use and
30 reduce losses in China. Here we applied the CHANS model to estimate cropland NUE
31 for over 2800 counties in China for the year 2017. Results showed that in most counties
32 NUE ranged between 20% and 40%, while an NUE > 50% was mainly found in
33 Northeastern China, likely as a result of large-scale, modern agriculture operations. The
34 source of N input and crop types significantly affected NUE in our assessment. Nitrogen
35 deposition, straw recycling, and biological nitrogen fixation (BNF) could improve NUE,
36 while chemical nitrogen fertilizer and manure inputs reduce NUE. Grain crops have a
37 much higher NUE compared to vegetables, which are often over-fertilized. Moreover,
38 NUE in Southern China is strongly influenced by natural factors such as temperature
39 and precipitation. Specifically, NUE in the Yangtze River Delta (eastern coastal region
40 of China) is associated with socio-economic factors including GDP and the degree of
41 urbanization, while in North-central China, NUE is mainly determined by nitrogen input
42 sources. These examples illustrate that approaches aiming at improving NUE need to be
43 location-specific with consideration of multiple natural and socioeconomic factors.

44
45 **Keywords:** NUE; Nitrogen source; Driving force; Environmental pollution; Crop type

46

47 **1. Introduction:**

48 As both a critical nutrient for food production and a pollutant to the environment,
49 nitrogen (N) plays an important role in China's society, economy and environment (Gu
50 et al., 2015). Globally, the rate of N input to terrestrial ecosystems has tripled compared
51 to pre-industrial times as a result of human activities. Although this lead to a boost of
52 agricultural production, a large proportion of N is lost to the environment due to the
53 overuse N fertilizer and inefficient N management (Zhang et al., 2015; Cui and
54 Shoemaker, 2018), which has caused serious environmental pollution such as water
55 eutrophication and air pollution and not only threatens human health, but also reduces
56 crop yields (Fowler et al., 2013; Robertson et al., 2013; Yu et al., 2019; Guo et al., 2020) .

57 China, the world's most populous country, feeds 18% of the world's population on
58 less than 10% of global croplands (Gu et al., 2017). To meet the food demand, synthetic
59 N fertilizer input per crop area in China is substantially higher compared to that in other
60 countries (Ju et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2015) , with nearly 30% of global fertilizer applied
61 to Chinese cropland (FAO, 2017). China's grain production increased by 74% from 354
62 million tons in 1982 to 618 million tons in 2017 (Fowler et al., 2013; Cui and Shoemaker,
63 2018). The average cropland NUE in China was around 32% in 2017, much lower than
64 the world average at 55% (MOA, 2017a). While too little N inputs is known to lead to
65 poor productivity, too much N input results in environmental risks (Tilman et al., 2001;
66 Liu et al., 2007), illustrating the need for integrated N management in agricultural
67 systems. How to maximize the harvest of N input as products and achieve a balance
68 between increasing grain yields while not causing damage to the natural environment is
69 a crucial challenge for China (Cassman et al., 2003).

70 NUE is a powerful indicator to help to address the challenges of food security,
71 environmental degradation and climate change in a consistent way (Sheldrick et al., 2003;
72 Galloway et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2015; Yu et al., 2019). Chinese policymakers have
73 implemented a range of measures to increase overall NUE of agricultural systems, such
74 as the "Zero Chemical Fertilizer Increase" by 2020 (MOA, 2015), or the "Action Plan
75 for Manure Nutrient Usage" (2017-2020) (MOA, 2017b). However, regional differences
76 in climate, agricultural practices and socioeconomic parameters lead to large variations
77 in cropland NUE across China, reducing the effectiveness of policy measures (Le Noë
78 et al., 2017; Swaney et al., 2018) . To understand the driving forces of cropland NUE,
79 previous studies have investigated cropland NUE at provincial scale in China (Yan et al.,
80 2022) . Yet, this spatial scale has been identified as too coarse for determining effective
81 management approaches for NUE for agricultural sustainability due to the large
82 variations of NUE between different counties within a province. Given the availability
83 of socioeconomic data, county scale is the finest scale that could currently be used to
84 analyze the driving forces of cropland NUE in a more meaningful way.

85 In this study, based on the Coupled Human And Natural Systems (CHANS) N
86 cycling model developed by Gu *et al* (2015), combined with detailed socioeconomic
87 data at county scale, we use PCA (principal component analysis) and multiple regression
88 analysis, in order to (1) estimate cropland NUE in all counties of China; (2) explore the
89 driving forces of NUE and (3) assess the contribution of different drivers to NUE, in
90 order to identify a pathway to improve cropland NUE in China.

91

92 **2. Materials and Methods**

93 **2.1. System boundary**

94 We calculated cropland NUE in all counties of China based on the CHANS N
95 cycling model (Gu et al., 2015; Gu et al., 2019). CHANS is a mass balance model with
96 a Nitrogen (N) focus, consisting of 14 subsystems (Cropland, Forestland, Grassland,
97 Industry, Livestock, Aquaculture, Urban Greenland, Human, Pets, Wastewater treatment
98 plants, Solid waste treatment, Surface water, Groundwater and Atmosphere), which
99 combines N input and output fluxes across the 14 subsystems to provide a
100 comprehensive understanding of the overall N budget and human and natural drivers
101 affecting it. The agricultural system studied in this paper involves cropland, industry,
102 livestock, human, atmosphere and surface water subsystems. More details of the
103 CHANS model were described in the supporting information (SI). A simplified version
104 of the CHANS can be downloaded for free at <https://person.zju.edu.cn/en/bjgu>.

105

106 **2.2. The calculation of N fluxes and NUE**

107 The CHANS N cycling model can estimate N fluxes of 14 subsystems and reduce
108 the uncertainties of N fluxes calculation by strongly constraining interactions between
109 different subsystems. We calculated the overall N balance of the relevant subsystems
110 first, then the N fluxes involved in NUE calculation from the subsystems were extracted
111 from the overall budget. The principle of the CHANS model is the mass balance of the
112 whole system and each subsystem:

$$113 \quad \sum_{h=1}^m IN_h = \sum_{g=1}^n OUT_g + \sum_{k=1}^p ACC_k$$

114

(1)

115 where IN (Tg) and OUT (Tg) represent the total N input (e.g. fertilizer to cropland, BNF,
116 N deposition) and N output (e.g. grain yields, losses to environment) respectively, and
117 ACC (Tg) represents N accumulation that is calculated as the difference of inputs and
118 outputs. If there is N flow from one subsystem to another, the flux in the two related
119 subsystems should be equal. This was used to constrain the estimation of N fluxes.

120 The NUE is calculated as total N in products divided by total N input (Yan et al.,
121 2014; Zhang et al., 2015). Cropland NUE is defined here as the ratio of total N in the
122 crop harvested (including grain and straw removed from croplands) divided by the total
123 N input to the cropland (including N fertilizer, manure, BNF, N deposition and irrigation).
124 Straw recycled to cropland is the portion of straw that is not removed from the croplands,
125 which is neither harvested N nor the external N input to the farm, so the straw recycle is
126 not included in the NUE calculation. The calculation of cropland NUE of each county is
127 formulated as follow:

$$128 \quad NUE_i(\%) = \frac{Harvested N_i}{Total N input to cropland_i} \times 100$$

129

(2)

130 Where NUE_i is the cropland NUE in county i. $Harvested N_i$ (Tg) is the sum of the yield
131 of each crop multiplied by their N content, $Total N input to cropland_i$ (Tg) is the sum N

132 inputs from various N sources.

133 Data involved in NUE calculations in the CHANS N cycling model can be divided
134 into two categories: (i) socioeconomic information such as crop/livestock production,
135 population and the N fertilizer usage at county scale were obtained from province
136 statistical yearbooks, and for data that could not be obtained from these sources,
137 national-level statistical yearbook data were allocated based on the proportion of
138 cultivated land area, all statistical yearbooks of 2017 are available at
139 <https://data.cnki.net/Yearbook/Navi?type=type&code=A>; (ii) coefficients and
140 parameters used for the calculation of N fluxes such as N concentrations in grain and
141 straw or the rate of BNF were mainly taken from the synthesis of peer-reviewed literature
142 and field measurements. The most important coefficients and parameters can be found
143 in Gu *et al* (2015) and Zhang *et al* (2017).

144

145 **2.3. Multiple regression analysis**

146 Although N sources providing inputs to croplands play a decisive role in NUE,
147 NUE is also significantly influenced by other factors such as climate (Sheng *et al.*, 2011),
148 economic growth (Yan *et al.*, 2022), urbanization level (Wang *et al.*, 2021), GDP and
149 crop type (Zhang *et al.*, 2015). To gain a comprehensive understanding of NUE dynamics
150 in China, N sources of cropland (N fertilizer, BNF, manure, N deposition), straw
151 recycling to cropland, crop type, GDP per capita, urbanization level, temperature and
152 precipitation were selected as parameters for a multiple regression analysis. Some
153 counties were excluded from the analysis due to missing data. Data on crop type, GDP
154 per capita and urbanization level for each county were obtained from the provincial
155 statistical yearbook of 2017. Raster data of temperature and precipitation with a spatial
156 resolution of 1km x 1km were downloaded from the China Meteorological Data Web
157 (<http://data.cma.cn/>) as well as Fick and Hijmans (2017), and the raster contained in each
158 county was averaged as the temperature and precipitation data for that county by
159 applying the spatial statistical tool of GIS. The strong negative correlation between N
160 fertilizer and BNF is subject to co-linearity in multiple regression analyses, leading to
161 changes in their positive and negative correlations with NUE. For example, BNF and
162 NUE showed a negative correlation, inconsistent with previous studies (Lassaletta *et al.*,
163 2014). Therefore, four regression models, controlling for other variables, both N
164 fertilizer and BNF are considered, N fertilizer only, BNF only and neither of the two,
165 were designed to eliminate this co-linearity and to correctly identify the relationship
166 between NUE and driving factors. Furthermore, we carried out regressions of single
167 drivers against NUE within several provinces as case studies to validate the multiple
168 regression results. All statistical analyses were performed using the Stata statistical
169 software package. We set the following equation of Model 1 using county-level data of
170 2017, other models are adapted on this basis according to their selection of drivers:

$$171 \text{ NUE} = \alpha \cdot \text{Nfer} + \beta \cdot \text{BNF} + \gamma \cdot \text{Manure} + \delta \cdot \text{Ndep} + \varepsilon \cdot \text{Straw} + \epsilon \cdot \text{Grain} + \theta \cdot \\ 172 \text{ Vegfruit} + \vartheta_1 \cdot \text{LnPGDP}^2 + \vartheta_2 \cdot \text{LnPGDP} + \mu_1 \cdot \text{Urban}^2 + \mu_2 \cdot \text{Urban} + \pi \cdot \text{Tem} + \\ 173 \rho_1 \cdot \text{Pre}^2 + \rho_2 \cdot \text{Pre} + \sigma \\ 174 \tag{3}$$

175 $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta, \varepsilon, \epsilon, \theta, \vartheta, \mu, \pi, \rho$ and σ are coefficient calculated by regression analysis.

176 *Nfer* denotes the % of N inputs from N fertilizer; *BNF* denotes the % of N inputs from
 177 biological N fixation; *Manure* denotes the % of N inputs from the sum of human and
 178 livestock excreta recycled to cropland; *Ndep* denotes the % of N inputs from N
 179 deposition (total dry and wet deposition); *Straw* (1000 kg ha⁻¹) denotes the amount of N
 180 recycled to the field from the straw per hectare (ha). *Grain* (Million ha) refers to the
 181 harvested area of grains, and *Vegfruit* (Million ha) refers to the harvested area of
 182 vegetables and fruits. *LnPGDP* (USD) is the logarithm of GDP per capita. *Urban* (%)
 183 refers to the urbanization level, *Tem* (°C) refers to the average temperature and *Pre* (mm)
 184 refers to accumulative precipitation across the year. LnGDP², Urban² and Pre² are the
 185 quadratic of LnGDP, urbanization level and precipitation respectively.

186

187 **2.4. The contribution of drivers to NUE**

188 In addition to the drivers of the multiple regression analysis, we also added other
 189 properties which are subject to large regional differences and are expected to
 190 significantly affect on NUE, such as clay content (Asseng et al., 2001), soil pH (Zou et
 191 al., 2016) and farm size (Ren et al., 2019) to estimate the relative importance of various
 192 natural and anthropogenic variables that potentially drive geographic variation in NUE
 193 by PCA. Soil clay content and soil PH data were obtained from the Harmonized World
 194 Soil Database (FAO, 2012) and Resource and Environment Science and Data Center
 195 (<http://www.resdc.cn/data.aspx?DATAID=264>), while farm size data was collected from
 196 the Second National Pollution Census across China in 2017. Where data cannot be found
 197 for some counties, we calculated the average of the surrounding counties and used this
 198 as a proxy. All drivers were classified into three categories by attributes: natural factors
 199 (temperature, precipitation, pH and clay content), socio-economic factors (GDP per
 200 capita, urbanization level, crop type and farm size) and sources (N fertilizer, N deposition,
 201 manure application, BNF, straw recycling). N input through irrigation is not considered
 202 due to data limitations at county scale.

203 To reduce any effects between predictor variables, both PCA and PCR (principal
 204 component regression) were used to identify the relative importance of each of the driver
 205 variables in each county. At the county scale, through PCA, we transformed the input
 206 variables (which have been normalized by standard deviation) into a new set of variables
 207 (principal components) that were now uncorrelated but still explained all the variation
 208 in the data. Each component has a loading which indicates the correlation between the
 209 principal component and the input variables. We then performed a multiple linear
 210 regression with NUE as the dependent variable and the principal components as the
 211 independent variables, defining the sum of the absolute values of the multiplication of
 212 the regression slope of the PCR by the respective loadings of the PCA as the score for
 213 each variable. As a result, we obtained county-level estimates of the relative importance
 214 of the potential driving variables on NUE. The details of PCA and PCR are as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 215 \text{Comp}_i = & \alpha_i \cdot Nfer + \beta_i \cdot BNF + \gamma_i \cdot Manure + \delta_i \cdot Ndep + \varepsilon_i \cdot Straw + \epsilon_i \cdot Grain \\
 216 & + \theta_i \cdot Vegfruit + \vartheta_i \cdot Lngdp + \mu_i \cdot Urban + \pi_i \cdot Tem + \rho_i \cdot Pre + \sigma_i \\
 217 & \cdot Clay + \tau_i \cdot PH + \varphi_i \cdot Farm + \omega
 \end{aligned}$$

218

(4)

$$NUE = \sum_{i=1}^8 \lambda_i \cdot Comp_i + v \quad (5)$$

$Comp_i$ denotes the i^{th} principal component, eight principal components were selected for this analysis. $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta, \varepsilon, \epsilon, \theta, \vartheta, \mu, \pi, \rho, \sigma, \tau$ and φ are loadings of component that were calculated by PCA. ω, λ and v are coefficients that need to be estimated. *Clay* and *PH* are soil properties, where *Farm* (ha) refers to the size of the cropland.

We first calculated the score of each driver on the NUE, and then counted the total scores of the three types of drivers. Here we showed the calculation of the score for the natural factors briefly, and so on for other categories. The relative contribution of each category of drivers to the NUE is calculated by dividing the score of the category by the total score.

$$\begin{aligned} Score_{natural} &= Score_{tem} + Score_{pre} + Score_{clay} + Score_{PH} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^8 |\lambda_i \cdot \pi_i| + \sum_{i=1}^8 |\lambda_i \cdot \rho_i| + \sum_{i=1}^8 |\lambda_i \cdot \sigma_i| + \sum_{i=1}^8 |\lambda_i \cdot \tau_i| \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

$$Con_{natural}(\%) = \frac{Score_{natural}}{Score_{sum}} \times 100 \quad (7)$$

$Score_{tem}$, $Score_{pre}$, $Score_{clay}$ and $Score_{PH}$ refer to the score of temperature, precipitation, clay and PH on NUE, respectively. $Score_{natural}$ refers to the score of natural factors (including temperature, precipitation, clay and PH) on NUE. $Score_{sum}$ refers to the total score of all 14 variables of the NUE. $Con_{natural}$ denotes the contribution of natural factors to the NUE.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. NUE, N input and crop type

Based on the CHANS model, we calculated the total N input, output, surplus (defined as N input minus N output as harvest) per hectare (ha) and NUE of all counties of China in 2017 (Fig. 1). Total N input varied across counties, and values $>400 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1}$ were mainly found for the south part of the North China Plain, the Sichuan Basin, and coastal regions in South China. Multiple harvests per year and intensified agricultural practices are dominant factors leading to higher N input in these regions. N output is typically much smaller than the input, less than 200 kg ha^{-1} in most counties, with higher values found in Henan, Hebei, Shandong and Guangxi. This results in an NUE ranging between 20% and 40% in most counties, with a higher NUE $>50\%$ calculated for Northeast China and parts of Guangxi, where a large amount of sugarcane production occurs. Regions with high N surplus were consistent with those with high N input, indicating more N input was not necessarily translated into more yield, but rather more N losses (Vitousek et al., 2009). Previous studies have also found that agricultural N practices with N inputs above $550\text{-}600 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1}$ did not considerably boost crop yields, while resulting in substantial N losses to the environment (Ju et al., 2009).

We analyzed major N inputs to cropland from N fertilizer, manure application, BNF

260 and N deposition in China (Fig. 2). N fertilizer was the dominant N source to croplands,
261 accounting for more than 40% of total N input in most regions, with the exception of
262 Northeastern China. In Northwestern China and coastal areas of Southeast China, values
263 for N fertilizer input exceeded 70% of total N input. Farm sizes are consistently larger
264 in Northern compared to Southern China, and studies have highlighted that fertilizer use
265 typically decreases with farm size (Wu et al., 2018). Moreover, a larger share of
266 vegetable and fruit production occurring Southern China tend to be overfertilized.
267 Guangxi province is a major center of sugarcane production that also heavily relies on
268 fertilizer use (Thorburn et al., 2017). In contrast, high BNF rate is mainly found in
269 Northeastern China and Central China, where large areas cultivating leguminous crops
270 can be found. Compared to N fertilizer input, BNF is a sustainable, non-polluting, cheap
271 and more efficient source of N provision to agricultural crops (Ci and Gao, 2004). The
272 proportion of BNF input increased regionally on a transect from Southern to Northern
273 China, consistent with the spatial distribution of soybean production, as the symbiotic
274 relationship between legumes and rhizobia is considered to be the most important N
275 fixation mechanism (Liu et al., 2011). The BNF rate is also affected by N fertilizer
276 application, as a high N fertilizer application rate inhibits the activities of N-fixing
277 bacteria (Pandey et al., 2017). Regions with low BNF values have a significant
278 proportion of N inputs delivered by N fertilizer application. Soumare et al. also pointed
279 out that more than 60% of the fixed N inputs globally result from BNF, which is the best
280 alternative to N fertilizer (Soumare et al., 2020).

281 As the world's largest meat and egg producer (Bai et al., 2018), China's animal
282 husbandry operations produce around 25% of global manure (Bai et al., 2016; Bai et al.,
283 2018). Despite farmers considering manure as a nutrient rather than a waste product
284 (Swaney et al., 2018), only one-third of manure N in China was recycled to cropland in
285 2010, while the remaining two thirds are lost as environmental pollution (Bai et al.,
286 2017). Manure recycling rarely contributes more than 20% of the total N input to the
287 croplands. Only few regions with predominantly vegetable and fruit production
288 operations have slightly higher manure input rates compared to other regions. An
289 increasing of decoupling of animal and crop production (Ju et al., 2005) is an important
290 driver for low manure recycling rates, since the share of rural households with both crop
291 planting and livestock raising has sharply declined from 71% in 1986 to only 12% in
292 2017 (Jin et al., 2021). Tibet, Sichuan and Qinghai have a higher proportion of manure
293 recycled to croplands, mainly due to cattle manure in these regions as an important
294 nutrient for crop production where fertilizer supplies and affordability is low (Bai et al.,
295 2016; Liu and Li, 2018). Of the main sources of N applied to cropland, N deposition
296 accounts for a smaller proportion, in the range of 10%, with comparatively little variation
297 between regions.

298 Cash crops, such as vegetables and fruit typically receive higher N fertilizer inputs
299 to increase yields and consequently profits. A higher proportion of vegetable and fruit
300 cultivation in southern coastal areas thus results in a higher proportion of N fertilizer use
301 (Fig. 2a and 3a). In contrast, the proportion of grain cultivation (rice, wheat and corn)
302 increases on a gradient from southern to northern China (Fig. 3b), in line with a lower
303 manure recycling ratio. The distribution of bean production is consistent with the BNF

304 spatial distribution (Fig. 2c and 3c).

306 **3.2. Driving forces**

307 NUE is affected by three major driving factors: natural factors such as precipitation
308 and air temperature, socioeconomic factors such as GDP per capita and urbanization that
309 represent the management, and N input sources. The results of the PCA regarding the
310 three types of drivers and their influence on NUE are shown in Fig. 4. Natural factors
311 have a greater impact in the southern and coastal areas of China (Fig. 4a), mainly due to
312 the higher rainfall and climate variations. As the largest economic zone in China, the
313 Yangtze River Delta is affected by socio-economic factors including economic
314 development and urbanization (Fig. 4b). In addition, Yunnan is also affected by socio-
315 economic factors due to the prevalent cultivation of cash crops such as vegetables, fruit,
316 flowers and tobacco (Fig. 4c). NUE in North-central China is primarily associated with
317 N inputs, while southern coastal areas are less affected mainly due to the vegetables and
318 fruits cultivated here have long been overfertilized. Different regions are affected by
319 different drivers from N input sources to natural and socio-economic factors, illustrating
320 that the identification of measures for an effective increase in NUE in China needs to
321 consider local conditions.

322 The results of the multiple regression analysis showed that the drivers, with the
323 exception of BNF, remained relatively stable across the different regression models
324 (Table 1). NUE was negatively related to manure, vegetables and fruits, and positively
325 related to N deposition, straw recycling and grain production. It is worth noting that in
326 the case of controlling other variables, NUE was negatively correlated with BNF in
327 model 1, which considered N fertilizer input, while positively correlated in model 3,
328 which excluded N fertilizer input. While the relationship between NUE and BNF was
329 found to be positive for all provinces in China (Table S1). This could be due to the strong
330 negative correlation between N fertilizer input and BNF ($R^2=0.5563$) which led to an
331 interaction during the multiple regression analysis, affecting the positivity and negativity
332 of BNF and NUE. Moreover, NUE has an inverted U-shaped relationship with input,
333 urbanization level and precipitation and a U-shape relationship with GDP per capita. In
334 addition, our study shows a positive rather than an inverted U-shape relationship
335 between temperature and NUE, which is inconsistent with the findings of previous
336 studies (Peng et al., 2004; Ma et al., 2010). This is due to the fact that China's cropland
337 is mainly located in the cooler northern regions, with only few cropland areas in the
338 warmer southern regions, leading to a linear, rather than an inverted-U shaped
339 relationship of NUE with temperature.

341 **3.3. Impact of N input sources**

342 The proportion of each N input source (N fertilizer, manure, BNF, N deposition) on
343 total N inputs are strongly correlated with NUE (Fig. 5). The relationship between NUE
344 and total N inputs is marked by an inverted U-shaped curve, with the positive effect of
345 N input on NUE diminishing and eventually turning negative once input levels exceeded
346 the optimal rate (Li et al., 2019). China applies twice as much fertilizer per unit area
347 compared to the US, leading to 50% lower in NUE, confirming that more N fertilizer is

348 not more productive, but soil degradation, higher production costs and increased
349 environmental risks instead (Galloway et al., 2008; Sutton et al., 2011; Lassaletta et al.,
350 2014; Timilsena et al., 2015; Ju et al., 2016; Yu et al., 2019). NUE is positively correlated
351 with the relative contributions of N deposition, straw recycling and BNF, but negatively
352 correlated with N fertilizer and manure application rates. Lassaletta et al. found that
353 countries with a higher share of BNF rather than N fertilizer in total N inputs have a
354 higher NUE (Lassaletta et al., 2014). N deposition is an important pathway of delivery
355 for nutrient to crops, contributing 7% to 13% of terrestrial ecosystem productivity (Zhu
356 et al., 2021) , especially when other N inputs are scarce. Since N deposition is typically
357 small compared to other N inputs, a high N deposition proportion normally indicates a
358 low input of N fertilizer and manure, which in turn results in a higher NUE. China is a
359 country with abundant straw resources (Zeng et al., 2007). Straw recycling could replace
360 a portion of the N in fertilizer, which can reduce the application of N fertilizer (Yin et
361 al., 2018) . In addition, straw recycling improves soil quality through carbon input and
362 better soil physical structure, which benefits NUE and long-term crop production.

363 NUE is inversely correlated to manure N input as a share of total inputs, which is in
364 line with a study by Swaney et al (2018). This is mainly because on the one hand, manure
365 transport can be prohibitively costly due to the increased spatial disconnect between
366 livestock and plant production (Zhang et al., 2019). Farmers cannot afford the cost of
367 long-distance manure recycling and choose to apply excessive amounts of manure
368 locally instead. Compared to other N inputs, manure recycling is used more often not for
369 grain, but for vegetable production that has a relatively lower NUE. Since N fertilizer
370 input to vegetable production is typically excessive at present, an additional application
371 of manure would not be conducive to yield increases, but rather reduce overall NUE. On
372 the other hand, partial substitution of mineral fertilizers by manure could increase crop
373 yields, while the yield response declined with the increasing substitution level (Gai et
374 al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2020). In particularly, rice yields can be maintained with the rate
375 of manure replacing N fertilizer is 20% or less (Ding et al., 2018). Therefore, it is not
376 better to have more manure and less N fertilizer, but a suitable proportional relationship
377 between both so as to guarantee grain yield.

378

379 **3.4. Impact of natural and socio-economic factors**

380 Corresponding to the multiple regression results, the response of NUE to drivers in
381 several provinces as case studies is shown in Fig. 6. An inverted U-shaped relationship
382 between NUE and precipitation was found, which is in line with the results of Sharma
383 et al. who showed that within the appropriate range, sorghum yields increase with
384 increased precipitation, while the decline in sorghum yield may range from 18% to 38%
385 with excess precipitation (Sharma et al., 2019) . It suggests that extreme climate damages
386 crop production and reduces the NUE. Previously, we seldom took climate into
387 consideration when managing N for sustainable agriculture and environmental
388 protection. In fact, the interaction between climate and N cycle is also important driving
389 forces for the NUE improvement. Better micro-climate controls such as greenhouse and
390 irrigation could be used to promote the NUE.

391 Farmers' purchasing power of N fertilizer increases with economic development,

392 leading to an increase in crop yield and a decrease in NUE (Conant et al., 2013). With
393 the further development of the economy, people began to pay attention to their own
394 health and environmental quality and reduced N loss through measures such as applying
395 efficient N fertilizer, balancing N application with other nutrient amendments, soil
396 testing and precision fertilization, which also resulting in an increase in NUE (Cassman
397 et al., 2003; Snyder et al., 2014). Therefore, the NUE in developed regions of China is
398 expected to be increased with the further growth of economy. However, urbanization
399 level shows a different pattern with economic growth on cropland NUE, which declines
400 with urbanization (Yan et al., 2015). This may be due to variations of crop types with
401 urbanization. With the increase of urban population, suburban vegetable and fruit
402 production is commonly found, which normally have a substantial low NUE compared
403 to other crop types. Positive correlations between the proportion of grain area of total
404 agricultural area and NUE were found in this study while the reverse was observed for
405 vegetables and fruits. Previous studies have also verified that NUE varies among
406 different crops, with beans having a higher NUE than cereal crops, while vegetables
407 typically having the lowest NUE (Zhang et al., 2015; Yan et al., 2022). This means that
408 the higher the proportion of cereals grown the greater the NUE, and conversely the lower
409 the NUE for a higher proportion of vegetables. Therefore, improving the NUE for more
410 food with less pollution require managing multiple driving forces, not only socio-
411 economic factors but also natural factors. Meanwhile, due to large variation on country
412 scale, fine scale policy and measure arrangement is also crucial to improve the overall
413 NUE in China.

414 415 **3.5. Uncertainty analysis**

416 The uncertainty range in our analysis is mainly related to activity data and
417 coefficients used in the calculations, all activity data are from statistical yearbooks,
418 including the Chinese Statistical Yearbook, Provincial Statistical Yearbooks. These are
419 the most reliable data sources in China. The coefficients such as excretion rate and
420 nitrogen fixation rate are mainly obtained by summarizing the results published in peer-
421 reviewed literature. To analyze the extent of uncertainty inherent in such a calculation,
422 we used a Monte Carlo ensemble simulation to quantify the variability of the NUE and
423 more details can be found in SI.

424 425 **4. Conclusion**

426 This paper calculates the NUE of counties in China and systematically studies the
427 driving forces of the NUE of crop production. The overall NUE of China's cropland is
428 still at a low level, mainly due to the excessive use of N fertilizer and a large share of
429 vegetable and fruit production. Opposite to vegetables, the higher the share of cereals
430 grown the greater the NUE. The imbalance between N input and N output leading to
431 massive N lost to the environment. Different regions are affected by different drivers
432 from N input source to natural and socioeconomic factors, which reminds us that an
433 efficient increase in NUE in China needs to consider local conditions. The inverted U-
434 shaped relationship between NUE and urbanization level, precipitation and N input
435 suggests that too little or too much would both result in significant declines in NUE.

436 Combined application of manure and N fertilizer can be effective in increasing yields
437 and reducing environmental pollution, while the degree of substitution is not as high as
438 it could be as the yields decrease beyond a certain point.

439

440 **Acknowledgments**

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Table 1. Multiple regression analysis of NUE and drivers

Driving factors	Model1		Model2		Model3		Model4	
	Coefficient	Standard error	Coefficient	Standard error	Coefficient	Standard error	Coefficient	Standard error
Nfer (%)	-0.679 ^a	0.170	-0.01	0.035	NO		NO	
BNF (%)	-0.683 ^a	0.170	NO		0.02	0.035	NO	
Manure (%)	-0.724 ^a	0.170	-0.055	0.035	-0.048 ^b	0.016	-0.046 ^b	0.016
Ndep (%)	2.478 ^a	0.252	3.172 ^a	0.183	3.283 ^a	0.151	3.217 ^a	0.089
Straw (1000 kg ha ⁻¹)	0.01	0.014	0.008	0.014	0.008	0.014	0.008	0.014
Grain (Mha)	0.589 ^a	0.053	0.581 ^a	0.054	0.584 ^a	0.054	0.582 ^a	0.054
Vegfruit (Mha)	-0.233	0.159	-0.239	0.159	-0.268	0.159	-0.249	0.155
Ln PGDP ² (USD)	0.005	0.004	0.006	0.004	0.006	0.004	0.006	0.004
Ln PGDP (USD)	-0.023	0.025	-0.025	0.025	-0.024	0.025	-0.024	0.025
Urban ² (%)	-0.171 ^a	0.034	-0.170 ^a	0.034	-0.172 ^a	0.034	-0.170 ^a	0.034
Urban (%)	0.195 ^a	0.038	0.192 ^a	0.038	0.195 ^a	0.038	0.194 ^a	0.038
Tem (10 ² °C)	0.376 ^a	0.079	0.388 ^a	0.080	0.379 ^a	0.080	0.385 ^a	0.080
Pre ² (10 ⁴ mm)	-3.019 ^a	0.850	-2.678 ^b	0.849	-2.691 ^b	0.849	-2.679 ^b	0.849
Pre (10 ⁴ mm)	0.878 ^a	0.258	0.783 ^b	0.258	0.779 ^b	0.258	0.781 ^b	0.258
Province	Yes		Yes		Yes		Yes	
Number	2249		2249		2249		2249	
Adjust R ²	0.5899		0.5871		0.5872		0.5873	

627 ^a $P < 0.001$, ^b $P < 0.01$. Each column represents a separate regression model. Model 1,
628 all factors considered; Model 2, BNF removed; Model 3, N fertilizer removed; Model 4,
629 both BNF and N fertilizer have been removed. Province means province-level regional
630 effect is controlled as the degree of fragmentation of cropland varies from province to
631 province. Mha, Million hectare. Number, the number of samples. Nfer denotes the % of
632 N inputs from N fertilizer; BNF denotes the % of N inputs from biological N fixation;
633 Manure denotes the % of N inputs from the sum of human and livestock excreta recycled
634 to cropland; Ndep denotes the % of N inputs from N deposition; Straw denotes the
635 amount of N recycled to the field from the straw per hectare (ha). Grain refers to the
636 harvested area of grains, and Vegfruit refers to the harvested area of vegetables and fruits.
637 Ln PGDP is the logarithm of GDP per capita. Urban refers to the urbanization level. Tem
638 and Pre are the abbreviations of the average temperature (10² °C) and accumulative
639 precipitation (10⁴ mm) across the year, respectively. Pre² is the quadratic of precipitation.

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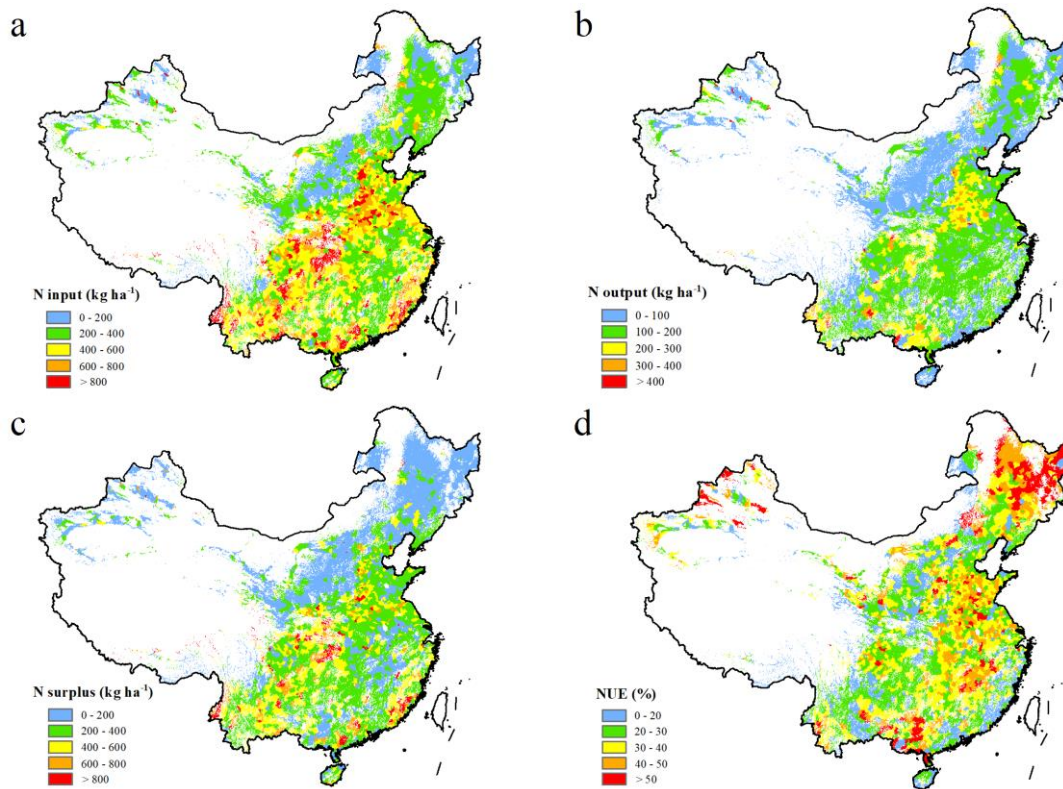
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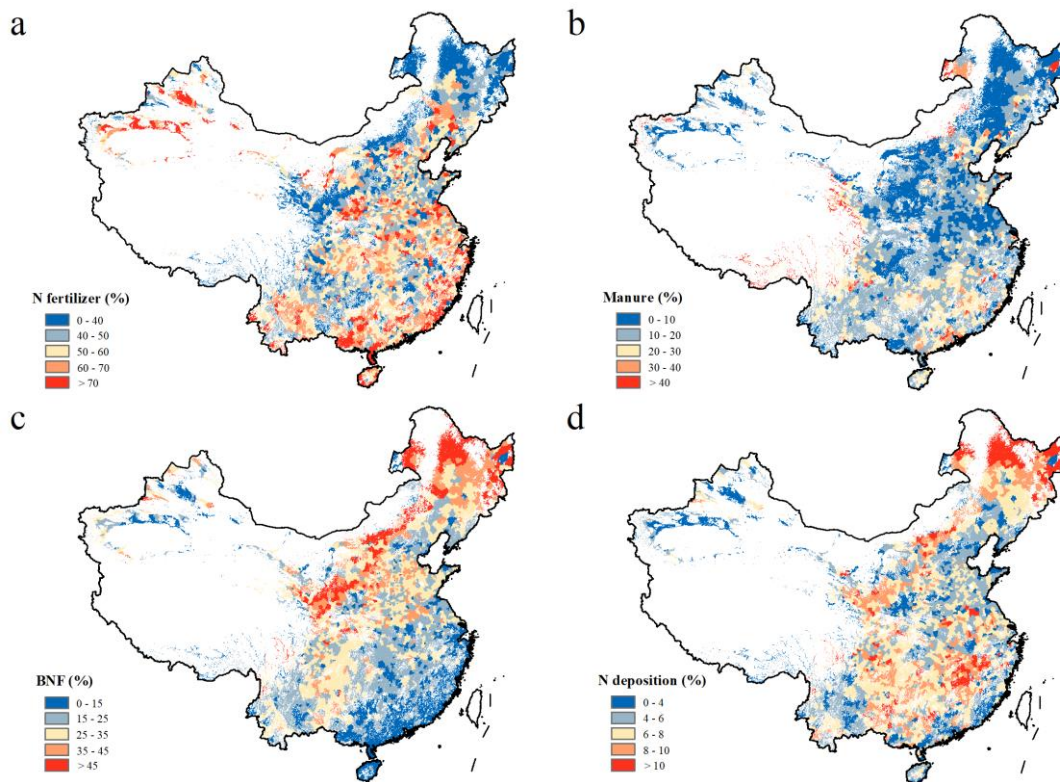
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650 **Fig. 1. The spatial distribution of NUE of China in 2017.** (a) Nitrogen input per
 651 hectare (ha); (b) Nitrogen output per hectare; (c) Nitrogen surplus per hectare; (d) NUE
 652 of China's croplands.

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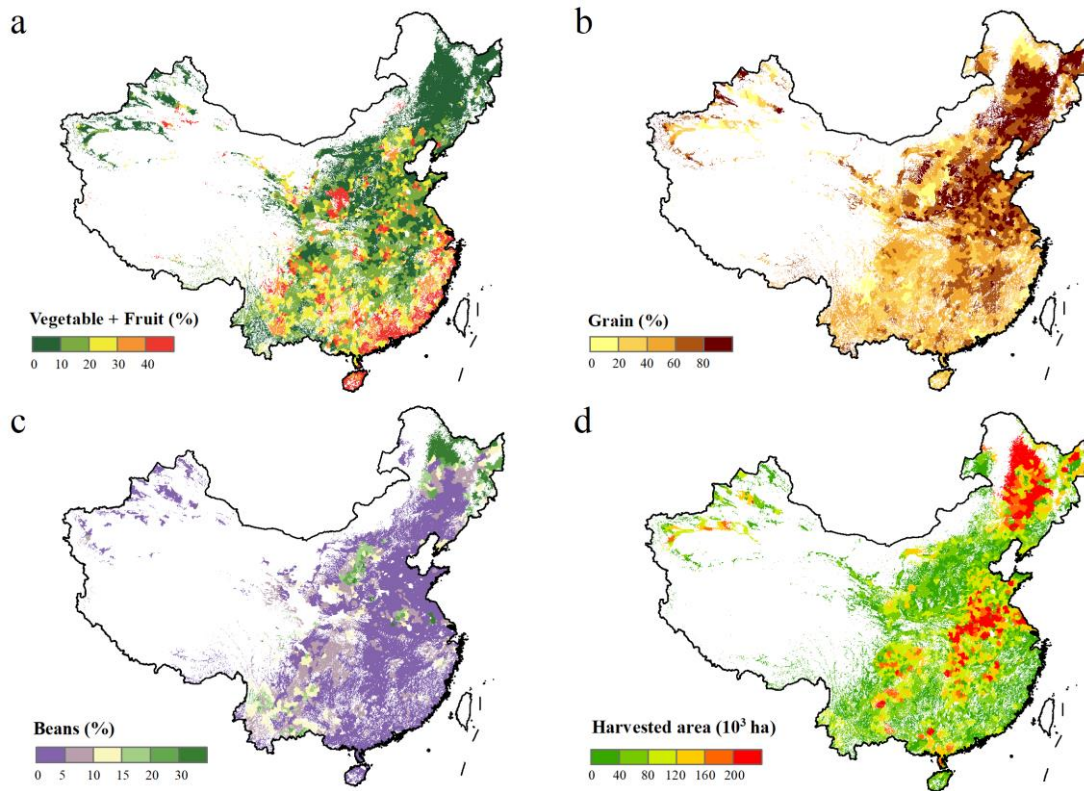
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Fig. 2. The spatial distribution of main N input sources of cropland in 2017. (a) % of N inputs from N fertilizer; (b) % of N inputs from the sum of human and livestock excreta recycled to cropland; (c) % of N inputs from biological N fixation; (d) % of N inputs from N deposition.



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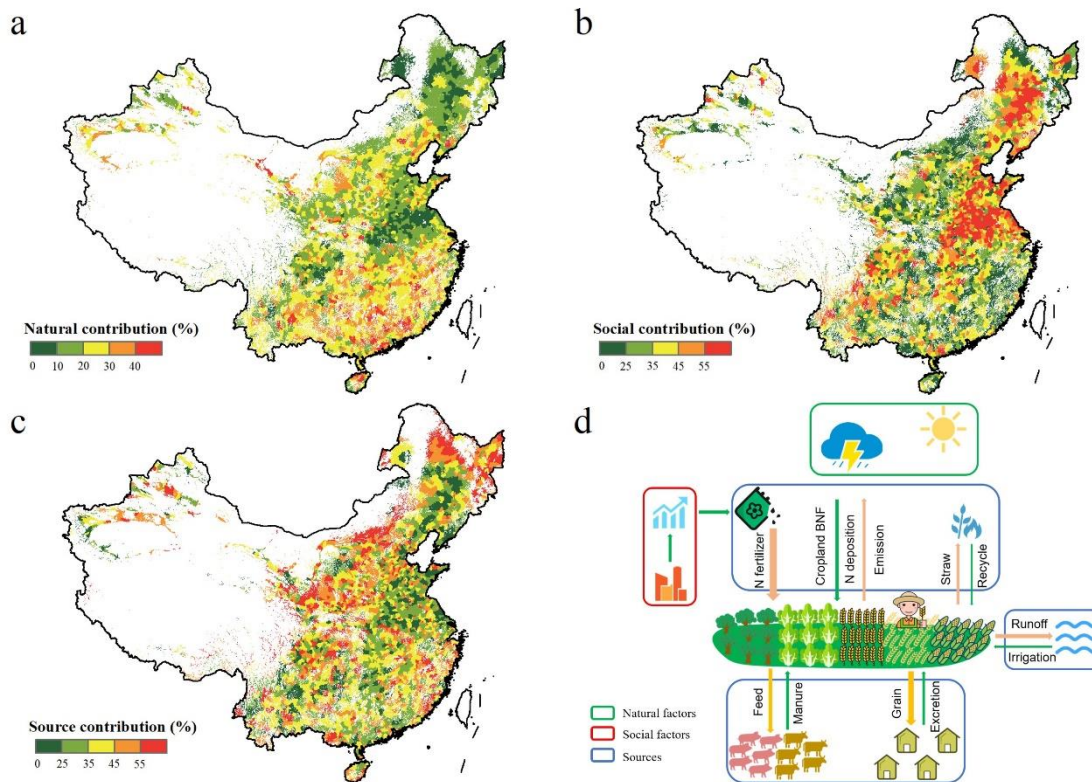
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Fig. 3. The planting structure of China's croplands in 2017. (a) % of total harvested area for vegetables and fruits; (b) % of total harvested area for grain (including rice, wheat and corn); (c) % of total harvested area for beans; (d) Total harvested area in 10^3 ha.



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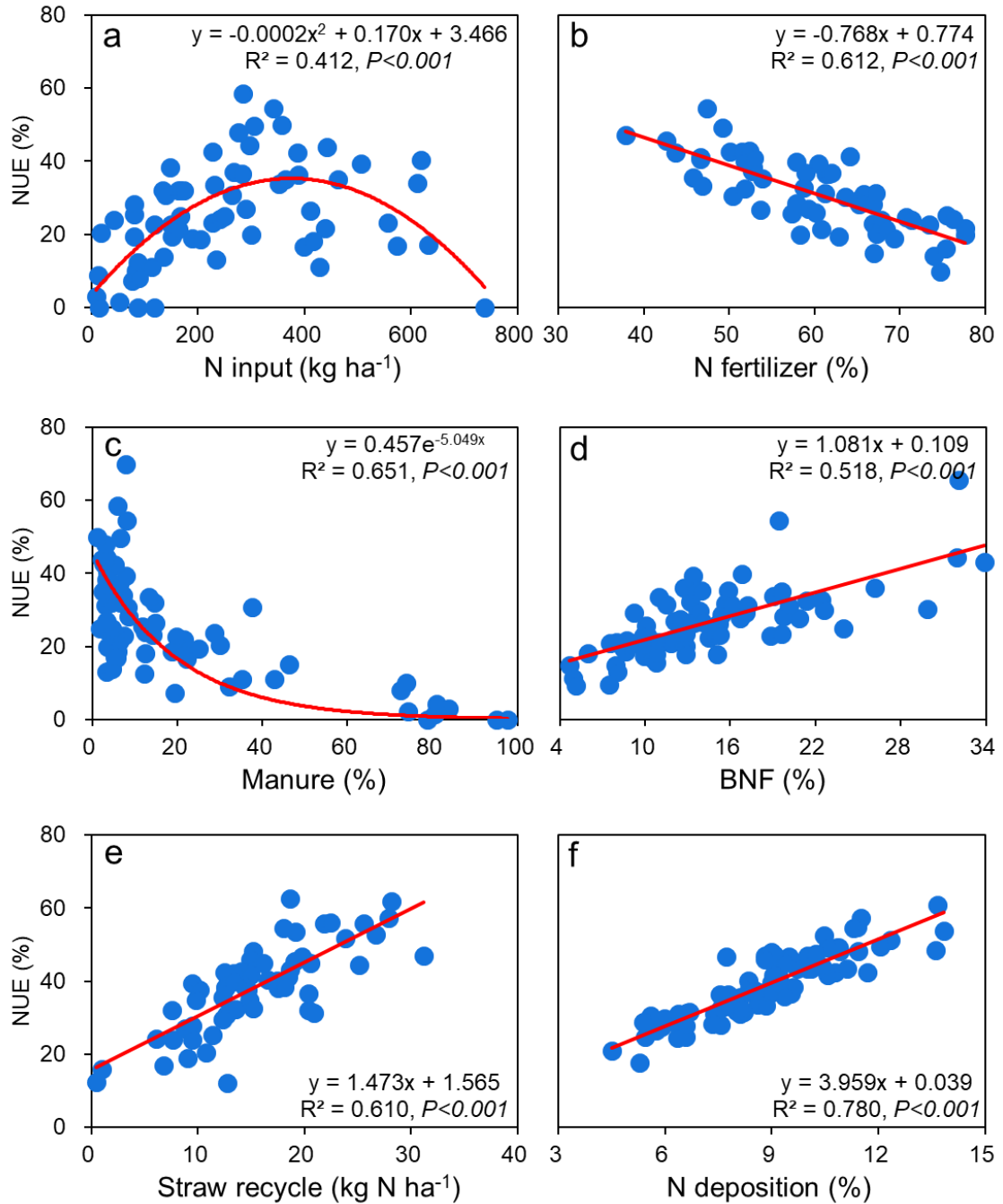
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Fig. 4. The distribution of the relative contribution of different NUE drivers in 2017.
 (a) Natural driving factors; (b) Social driving factors; (c) Nitrogen input sources of
 cropland; (d) Composition of three types of drivers on NUE.



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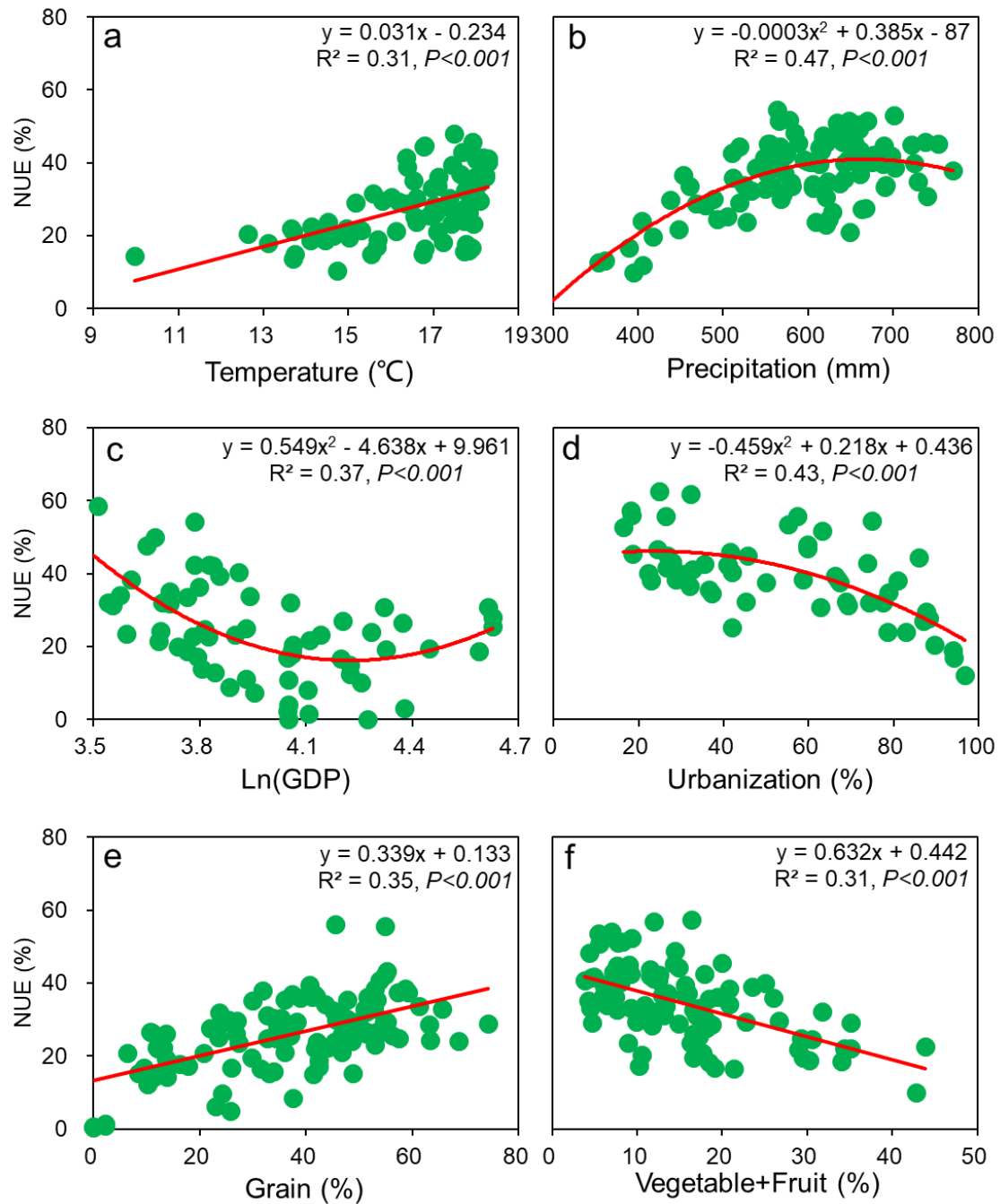
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Fig. 5. The relationship between N input sources and NUE in selected provinces.

Each dot represents one county. (a) N input vs NUE in Inner Mongolia; (b) N fertilizer

vs NUE in Jiangsu; (c) Manure vs NUE in Inner Mongolia; (d) BNF vs NUE in Zhejiang;

(e) Straw recycle vs NUE in Jilin; (f) N deposition vs NUE in Jiangxi.



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Fig. 6. The relationship between natural, socio-economic factors and NUE in selected provinces. Each dot represents one county. (a) Temperature vs NUE in Hubei; (b) Precipitation vs NUE in Shandong; (c) Ln PGDP (GDP per capita) vs NUE in Inner Mongolia; (d) Urbanization level vs NUE in Jilin; (e) Grain vs NUE in Sichuan; (f) Vegetable + Fruit vs NUE in Anhui.