

INVITED REVIEW OPEN ACCESS

Three Decades of Soil N₂O Research—Insights and GapsKlaus Butterbach-Bahl^{1,2}  | Laurent Philippot³  | João Serra¹  | Whendee L. Silver⁴  | Stephen Ogle^{5,6}  | Diego Abalos¹ ¹Land-CRAFT, Department of Agroecology, Aarhus University, Aarhus, Denmark | ²Institute for Meteorology and Climate Research (IMK-IFU), Karlsruhe Institute of Technology, Garmisch-Partenkirchen, Germany | ³Univ Bourgogne Europe, INRAE, Institut Agro Dijon, Agroecologie, Dijon, France | ⁴Department of Environmental Science, Policy and Management, University of California Berkeley, Berkeley, California, USA | ⁵Natural Resource Ecology Laboratory, Colorado State University, Fort Collins, Colorado, USA | ⁶Department of Ecosystem Science and Sustainability, Colorado State University, Fort Collins, Colorado, USA**Correspondence:** Klaus Butterbach-Bahl (klaus.butterbach-bahl@agro.au.dk)**Received:** 11 May 2026 | **Revised:** 27 June 2026 | **Accepted:** 29 July 2026**Keywords:** denitrification | microbial ecology | modeling | N₂O | nitrification | process

ABSTRACT

Nitrous oxide (N₂O) is a potent greenhouse gas (GHG) whose atmospheric concentration continues to rise, largely driven by nitrogen (N) inputs to agricultural soils. Over the past three decades, research on soil N₂O emissions has advanced substantially, yet key uncertainties still constrain mitigation efforts. Here, we synthesize developments in measurement techniques, process understanding, microbial ecology, and modelling from the 1990s to the present, and identify critical gaps for future research. Advances in high-frequency measurements, laser spectroscopy, and isotopic approaches have revealed the importance of temporal “hot moments” and spatial “hotspots,” challenging earlier assumptions based on sparse sampling. Concurrently, molecular and multi-omic tools have transformed our understanding of the microbial drivers of N₂O production and consumption, highlighting the role of community composition, truncated pathways, and previously overlooked N₂O-producing and reducing organisms. Process-based models have evolved from research tools into policy-relevant frameworks underpinning GHG inventories, with emerging integration of data assimilation, ensemble modelling, and artificial intelligence. However, despite these advances, persistent challenges remain in linking scales, reducing uncertainties, and translating mechanistic insights into scalable mitigation strategies. Closing these gaps offers a unique opportunity to translate decades of scientific progress into next-generation mitigation strategies that align agricultural productivity with climate stabilization goals.

1 | Introduction

Nitrous oxide (N₂O) is an important GHG in the atmosphere, contributing about 6% to observed global warming (IPCC 2019). The atmospheric concentration of N₂O has increased from approximately 280 parts per billion by volume (ppbv) in preindustrial times to approximately 440 ppbv in 2025, with an increasing growth rate since 1985, reaching > 1 ppbv per year in recent years (WMO 2025) (Figure 1). With a global warming potential nearly 300 times higher than CO₂ and an atmospheric lifetime of 114 years, the undamped increase in atmospheric N₂O concentrations is alarming, as it

makes achieving climate goals difficult (Clark et al. 2020). The main driver of this increase is the use of organic and synthetic N fertilizers. Agricultural sources, specifically fertilized agricultural soils, accounted for over 60% of total global anthropogenic emissions in 2020, which is an increase of about 65% since 1980 (Tian et al. 2024). There is an urgent need to reduce agricultural N₂O emissions without jeopardizing food production. However, progress in identifying mitigation options is hindered by limitations and uncertainties related to measurements, understanding of the involved processes, and modeling. In this mini-review, we summarize developments in agricultural soil N₂O emission research since the 1990s and

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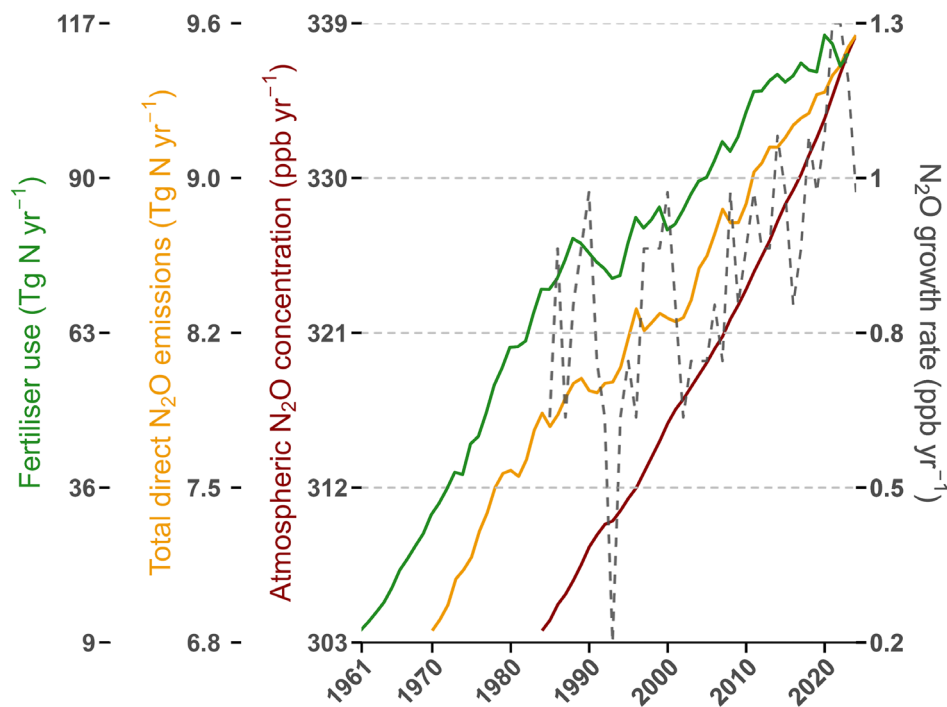


FIGURE 1 | Changes in atmospheric nitrous oxide (N_2O ; ppb year^{-1}) concentrations (WMO 2025), total direct N_2O emissions from fertilized land ($\text{Tg N-N}_2\text{O year}^{-1}$; EDGAR 2025), fertilizer use (Tg N year^{-1} ; Ludemann et al. 2024), and the growth rate of atmospheric N_2O (WMO 2025; ppb year^{-1}) over the last few decades from 1961 to 2024, although this study focuses on 1991–2025.

identify ways to move forward, resolving research gaps and identifying tangible mitigation options that allow for reducing the N_2O footprint of agricultural production under environmental change conditions.

2 | Advances in Soil Nitrous Oxide Measurements

Publications from the 1990s on agricultural soil N_2O emissions primarily relied on manual, infrequent sampling campaigns that usually only covered the crop-growing period (Stehfest and Bouwman 2006) (Figure 2a,b). The standard procedure was to collect gas samples with syringes and often store them for weeks before analyzing them in laboratories. Gas chromatography was the usual analytical method (Mosier and Mack 1980; Mosier et al. 1996) (Figure 2c). Due to the technique's relatively low sensitivity (around 1–2 ppbv), the required chamber closure time was 30–60 min. This resulted in flux detection limits of 3–5 $\mu\text{g N}_2\text{O-N m}^{-2} \text{h}^{-1}$ at best. Additionally, changes in chamber headspace concentrations had to be thoroughly checked for linearity, which affected flux calculations (Hutchinson and Mosier 1981). For example, one had to decide whether to use linear or non-linear functions for calculating fluxes (Venterea et al. 2009). Flux sampling frequency was mostly biweekly or monthly (Figure 2d) and often excluded non-seasonal fluxes because the non-vegetation period was generally assumed to contribute little to annual fluxes. Consequently, due to the low sampling frequency and sparse or missing off-season measurements, studies often failed to capture important peak emissions or missed high emission events altogether. This led to significant underestimates of annual emissions and high uncertainty, which were unknown at the time (Shang et al. 2020, 2024; Buma 2024).

Around the end and beginning of the 20th century, an increasing number of studies of managed and natural ecosystems (Figure 2e) demonstrated that freeze–thaw (Christensen and Tiedje 1990; Papen and Butterbach-Bahl 1999; Wagner-Riddle et al. 2007) and soil rewetting periods (Ruser et al. 2006) trigger significant pulses of N_2O emissions. These emissions can contribute disproportionately to annual emissions (Matzner and Borken 2008; Wagner-Riddle et al. 2017) (Figure 2f). In addition to temporal hot moments of emissions, spatial hotspots such as clumps of residues incorporated into the soil were found to be important factors in improving understanding of the magnitude of soil N_2O fluxes (Groffman et al. 2009; Kravchenko et al. 2017). These findings have led to an increased use of automated measurement systems, as well as recommendations for more frequent sampling (Barton et al. 2015; Grace et al. 2020) and a focus on spatial flux variability (e.g., Breuer et al. 2000; Savage et al. 2014). However, due to their high cost, limited number of providers, and difficulty of operating them in field settings, automated chamber flux measurements are still relatively uncommon for N_2O measurements.

Progress in developing laser spectroscopy technologies, particularly quantum cascade lasers (QCLs) and cavity ring-down spectroscopy (CRDS), has enabled high-precision, continuous, and rapid measurements with detection limits below one part per billion (ppb) since the 2000s. Following these advancements, several groups began measuring soil N_2O fluxes using micrometeorological methods such as eddy covariance and flux gradient (Christensen et al. 1996; Laville et al. 1999; Fowler et al. 2009). Today, laser spectroscopes can operate at near-room temperature with thermoelectric cooling, eliminating the need for liquid N. However, the high cost of instrumentation for QCL- or CRDS based eddy covariance

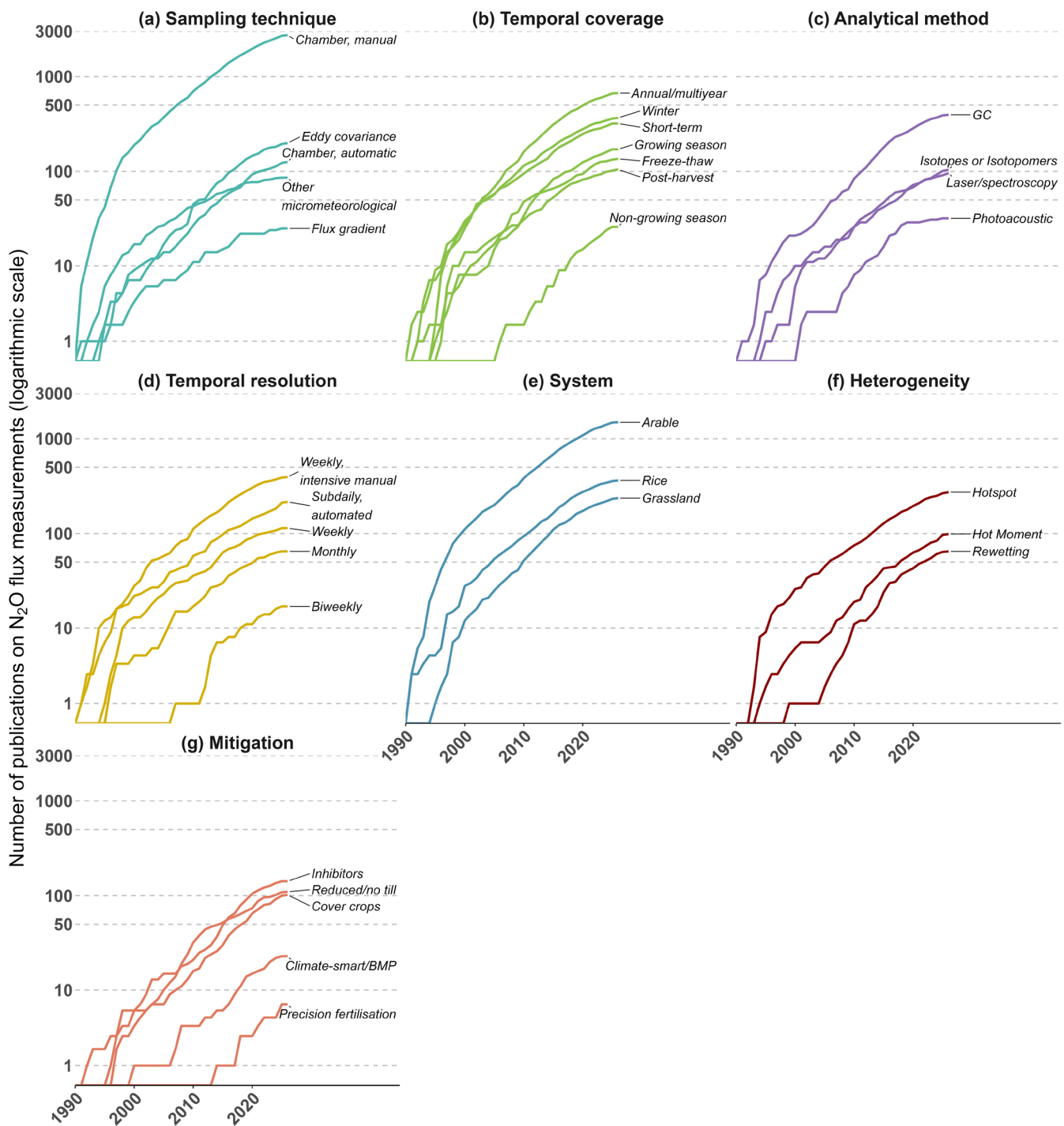


FIGURE 2 | Temporal development of N₂O flux measurement techniques and research focus. (a) Underlying flux measurement technique; (b) Temporal coverage of measurements; (c) Analytical method for measuring sample air N₂O concentration; (d) Temporal resolution of flux measurements; (e) Ecosystem types studied; (f) Spatial heterogeneity; (g) N₂O mitigation options. The number of publications (y axis) are log scaled. Within temporal resolution, intensive manual measurements reflect discontinuous daily-to-weekly manual chamber campaigns. The analysis is based on the number of published manuscripts during the period from January 1990 to December 2025 ($n = 3406$ publications) from Web of Science. For details about the query and data used, the reader is referred to Serra (2026).

measurements of N₂O fluxes has prevented this method from becoming widespread. These costs can be reduced slightly by using the flux gradient method or by positioning the EC flux tower between two fields with different land management practices and fluxes, which are then partitioned according to a footprint analysis of wind directions. This is because one high-precision N₂O instrument can be used to measure fluxes

in two (EC; e.g., Fuchs et al. 2018) to four (flux gradient, e.g., Wagner-Riddle et al. 1997) fields. Furthermore, micrometeorological measurements of N₂O fluxes require predominantly flat and homogeneous terrain and management of hundreds of meters in lateral extent (Denmead 2008). This makes it difficult to study landscape hotspots caused by topography or other biogeochemical drivers, so static chamber approaches

TABLE 1 | Status and summary of the most advanced technical and measurement developments.

Topic	1990s	2020–2025	References
Sampling	Manual	Automated	Grace et al. 2020
Flux method	Predominantly closed chamber	Auto-chamber, EC/Flux gradient	Hensen et al. 2013
Frequency	Weekly/Monthly	Subdaily/Daily	See Figure 2
Study length	Predominantly cropping season	Predominantly year round	See Figure 2
Scale	Small plots	Small plots to landscapes	Daly et al. 2025
N ₂ O analytics (precision)	GC-ECD (± 1 ppbv)	QCL/CRDS (0.05–0.5 ppbv)	Kostinek et al. 2019
N ₂ O-isotopes (precision)	Laboratory-based IRMS (1‰–2‰)	IRMS/In-situ laser spectroscopy (< 1‰)	Havsteen et al. 2026

are usually used for landscape and topography effect studies (Corre et al. 1996; Wangari et al. 2023). The expense and land areas required for micro-meteorological flux measurement approaches also makes it very difficult, nearly impossible, to replicate and thoroughly test different agricultural practices aimed at reducing N₂O emissions. This means that mitigation practices continue to be mostly tested by smaller-scale (e.g., 8 × 3 m) field trials and automated chambers (Figure 2g) (Butterbach-Bahl et al. 2025). Micrometeorological techniques and instrumentation continue to be developed. Laser spectrometers are becoming smaller, more robust, lighter, and more affordable, and micrometeorological flux measurements such as EC and flux gradient approaches and software solutions are becoming easier to apply by a wider research community.

Advances in the development of laser instrumentation have enabled portable measurements in the field. For example, the fast-box method (Hensen et al. 2013) can be used to explore spatial flux variability at a landscape scale (Wangari et al. 2023). Specifically, the instruments' high sensitivity reduces chamber closure times to a few minutes. In addition to being used for fast-box flux measurements, the instruments can be connected to automated chambers (Savage et al. 2014). Thus, the increases in sensor sensitivity allows to increase the number of chambers that can be sampled while reducing the bias that long periods of chamber closure may have on crop growth and soil environmental conditions.

Additionally, QCL- or CRDS measured atmospheric N₂O concentrations are the standard for tall tower measurements. Such measurements enable top-down estimates of N₂O fluxes at regional to national scales and deliver critical information for validating and improving bottom-up estimates for inventory purposes (Del Grosso et al. 2022).

As QCL and IRMS isotope ratio mass spectrometry become more robust and sensitive, one of the most fascinating areas of research is the ability to measure high-precision, in situ, site-specific N₂O isotopomer signals. Nitrous oxide isotopomers differ in their isotopic compositions of N (¹⁴N and ¹⁵N) and oxygen (¹⁶O and ¹⁸O) within their asymmetric, linear molecular structures. The positioning of the isotopes provides a unique “fingerprint” that can be used to judge underlying N₂O production and consumption processes, such as bacterial and fungal denitrification and nitrification, as well as quantify the extent of N₂O reduction to N₂ (dinitrogen) during denitrification (Brenninkmeijer

and Rockmann 1999; Ostrom et al. 2007; Denk et al. 2017). Currently, N₂O isotopomer measurements may require cryo-focusing and preconcentration of air samples. However, as measurement sensitivity improves rapidly, this may soon change, allowing for real-time, in situ measurements of N₂O isotope fingerprints of emitted N₂O (Havsteen et al. 2026). One of the remaining obstacles is the limited availability of calibration gases for N₂O isotopomers, which are currently primarily provided by research institutions rather than commercial suppliers. Therefore, interlaboratory comparison studies are needed and underway to refine calibration standards and to further develop methodological approaches (Yu et al. 2020) (Table 1).

3 | Process Studies and Underlying Process Understanding

3.1 | Drivers of N₂O Emissions via Nitrification and Denitrification

In the 1990's, researchers were making use of advances in IRMS to explore pathways of N₂O production and consumption in soils (Poth and Focht 1985; Stevens et al. 1997). The dominant biological processes resulting in N₂O production are nitrification and denitrification. Efforts focused on differentiating nitrifier denitrification (i.e., where the same organism completes both processes, often under fluctuating redox conditions) from simultaneous nitrification–denitrification, where nitrate (NO₃[−]) is rapidly reduced to N₂O or N₂ in adjacent anoxic microsites in soils where redox gradients occur, from canonical denitrification (Stein 2011). An enriched ammonium (¹⁵NH₄⁺) tracer was used to determine the proportion of ¹⁵N₂O produced via nitrification, while labeled ¹⁵NO₃[−] was added to quantify rates of canonical denitrification (Stevens et al. 1997). To further differentiate nitrification-derived N₂O production from canonical denitrification, researchers started to use low concentrations of acetylene to block ammonia monooxygenase (Myrold 1990). Studies from the 1990's showed that a variety of factors, including fertilizer use, soil moisture content, and the deposition of animal waste, could impact the relative importance of nitrification versus denitrification as a source of N₂O (Mulvaney et al. 1997; Stevens et al. 1997; Clough et al. 1998).

While isotope tracers remain a valuable tool for exploring the dynamics of N₂O production, the technique can produce some artifacts. Ammonium tracer addition can stimulate

nitrification, and NO_3^- addition can increase denitrification by enhancing microbial substrate availability. Nitrification can proceed rapidly, within minutes to hours of substrate addition in some soils, making it difficult to distinguish between nitrifier denitrification and canonical denitrification (Silver et al. 2001). The acetylene inhibition technique can also produce artifacts; it does not act uniformly on all nitrifiers, may not diffuse well into moist or wet soils, and can be metabolized in soils with the byproducts providing a potential energy source for denitrifiers (Knowles 1990; Bollmann and Conrad 1997). Thus, partitioning N_2O emissions between nitrification and denitrification remains a challenge.

3.2 | Gross N_2O Production and $\text{N}_2:\text{N}_2\text{O}$ Ratio Measurements

A gas-flow soil core method was developed in the mid 1980s for measuring denitrification in a laboratory setting (Parkin et al. 1984; Tiedje et al. 1989). An advantage of the gas flow soil core method is the ability to strictly control headspace gas composition, moisture, temperature, and redox conditions. It also allows replacing the N_2 gas of the soil atmosphere with an inert gas such as helium, allowing for the measurement of N_2O and N_2 fluxes to approximate complete, or gross denitrification rates (Groffman et al. 2006; Wen et al. 2016; Yankelzon et al. 2025). While this method advanced the mechanistic understanding of denitrification and N_2O dynamics, it necessitated changing soil gas composition and thus did not necessarily represent field conditions.

In the early 2010s, a new method was developed to estimate gross gas fluxes from soils, built on the ^{15}N pool dilution approach (Kirkham and Bartholomew 1954). Called the N_2O pool dilution method, this approach uses isotopically labeled $^{15}\text{N}_2\text{O}$ coupled with a conservative tracer (e.g., sulfur hexafluoride (SF_6)) to simultaneously account for production of $^{14}\text{N}_2\text{O}$ via isotope dilution, N_2O consumption via loss of the original labeled N_2O , and leakage via SF_6 accounting (Yang et al. 2011). The addition of the $^{15}\text{N}_2\text{O}$ tracer, primarily as an end product, results in less stimulation of N_2O production compared with the addition of substrates like NH_4^+ and NO_3^- . However, limited diffusion of the $^{15}\text{N}_2\text{O}$ label could lead to underestimates of N_2O consumption and an overestimate of N_2O production, with reported errors on the scale of 10% (Yang et al. 2011). Estimating gross production of N_2O allows for the approximation of the N_2O yield, defined as the relative N_2O versus N_2 produced via denitrification (Yang et al. 2011). This method has been applied in both a laboratory and field setting using manual chambers, providing new insights into N_2O consumption and gross production (Yang and Silver 2016; Stuchiner and von Fischer 2022). Importantly, the $^{15}\text{N}_2\text{O}$ pool dilution characterizes N_2O consumption in soils but does not allow capturing the direct intracellular denitrification of NO_3^- to N_2 , a process that has yet to be quantified.

Quantifying the N_2O yield from soils and the associated drivers could facilitate management to lower N_2O emissions from agriculture. Ideally, both N_2O and N_2 could be used to quantify denitrification rates, but measurements of N_2 are complicated by the high background atmospheric concentrations

(about 78.1%) relative to fluxes from soils. Isotope tracing of N_2 fluxes requires large inputs of both NO_3^- and a strong ^{15}N label for detection and thus may be used only for heavily fertilized agricultural systems (Takeda et al. 2024), conditions that are unrealistic for some agricultural ecosystems such as grazing land and some N-fixing crops. High concentrations of acetylene can inhibit N_2O reductase enzyme activity and have been used to estimate total denitrification, but the method suffers from the same shortcomings as mentioned above for nitrification inhibition (Knowles 1990; Bollmann and Conrad 1997). The ratio of N_2 to argon (Ar) is widely used in marine systems to estimate N_2 emissions. It is based on the use of Ar as an inert, conservative tracer and thus changes in the ratio of N_2 to Ar result from changes in the concentrations of N_2 (Yang and Silver 2012). There are several challenges to accurately quantifying the $\text{N}_2:\text{Ar}$ ratio from soil fluxes, including fractionation effects from temperature, moisture, and transport. These fractionating factors lead to a high detection limit, reducing the utility of this approach for most field conditions (Yang and Silver 2012). However, advances in IRMS and controlled chamber environments may facilitate the use of this method in the future.

A promising way forward could as well be the use of enhanced Raman gas spectroscopy (Blohm et al. 2024), which allows the sensitive and selective detection and isotopic differentiation of N_2 and N_2O . Though it has only been tested in laboratory settings thus far due to its high instrumental demands, the technique is suitable for experiments involving natural or artificial (He/O_2 or Ar/O_2) atmospheres, with or without isotopic labels. The latest tests show that with reduced background N_2 levels and using artificial He/O_2 or Ar/O_2 atmospheres, changes in headspace N_2 concentrations at the ppb level can be measured (Merian et al. 2024).

4 | Microbial Ecology of N_2O

4.1 | Early Culture-Based Insights Into the N_2O Producing Microorganisms

By the early 1990s, it was already recognized that denitrifiers, ammonia oxidizers (nitrifiers), and nitrate-ammonifiers (DNRA) were capable of producing N_2O under certain conditions, although the understanding of the underlying mechanisms was strongly uneven across these guilds.

At that time, only ammonia-oxidizing bacteria (AOB) had been identified and most studies were almost exclusively centered on *Nitrosomonas europaea* serving as the dominant model organism, with N_2O production by other AOB lineages remaining largely unexplored until the late 1990s (Jiang and Bakken 1999). The key enzymes involved in nitrification—including ammonia monooxygenase (AMO), hydroxylamine oxidoreductase (HAO), and nitrite oxidoreductase (NXR)—were later characterized throughout the 1990s (McTavish et al. 1993; Igarashi et al. 1997; Spieck et al. 1998).

DNRA were still described primarily among enteric and fermentative bacteria but the actual ecological role of DNRA was still unclear (Tiedje 1988; Cole 1996). The nitrate reductase

(NAR) and multiheme cytochrome c nitrite reductase (NRF) have been purified since the early 80s, while the corresponding genes were progressively identified and characterized during the 1990s (Berks et al. 1995; Simon 2002).

In contrast, the phylogenetic diversity of denitrifiers was already known to be important. Thus, denitrification had been documented across a wide range of bacterial taxa, as well as in archaea (e.g., Tomlinson et al. 1986) and fungi (e.g., Shoun et al. 2012). Characterization of denitrifying isolates had revealed large physiological differences among denitrifiers, particularly in their capacity to reduce N_2O to N_2 , already pointing at a possible role of the composition of microbial communities for understanding N_2O fluxes (Conrad 1996; Cavigelli and Robertson 2001). All the main reductases catalyzing the four denitrification steps—NAR, copper and cd1 nitrite reductases, nitric oxide reductase (NIR) and nitrous oxide reductase (NOS)—had already been purified for over a decade (Hochstein and Tomlinson 1988) and denitrification genes were sequenced from a handful of bacterial strains, predominantly Proteobacterial (Zumft 1997).

4.2 | The Emergence of Molecular Microbial Ecology

In the late 1990s, research on the ecology of microorganisms involved in N_2O emissions underwent a decisive shift from culture-based approaches to molecular, culture-independent methods. The shift was largely driven by the recognition that about 1% of the microorganisms could be cultivated (Hofer 2018), raising concerns about the ecological validity of process interpretations only based on a limited number of cultured strains, which were not necessarily representative of natural populations in the environment. DNA extraction from the environment combined with the development of functional gene markers targeting key steps of the nitrification, DNRA, and denitrification processes allowed assessing the diversity of the microorganisms involved in N_2O production and consumption across environments, bypassing the cultivation bias (Rotthauwe et al. 1997; Hallin and Lindgren 1999; Philippot et al. 2002). These tools were rapidly complemented by real-time approaches to quantify the abundances of these guilds (Grüntzig et al. 2001; Henry et al. 2004, 2006).

These molecular studies initially focused in the early 2000s on describing the diversity and abundance of N-cycling microbial guilds, revealing a greater diversity than previously recognized as well as strong environmental and anthropogenic controls on their distribution (Wallenstein et al. 2006; Enwall et al. 2005; Shen et al. 2008; Zhou et al. 2011). Patterns of niche partitioning among functional groups became evident, reflecting differences in ecological strategies and in their responses to environmental conditions (Philippot et al. 2009; Di et al. 2009). Research then increasingly moved beyond purely trait-based molecular approaches by incorporating microbial activity measurements for linking the abundance and/or the diversity of these microbial guilds to process rates and N_2O emissions. These efforts were framed either within an ecological perspective, drawing on biodiversity–ecosystem functioning relationships, or within a biogeochemical framework seeking to improve predictive models

of N cycling by explicitly incorporating microbial communities (Hallin et al. 2009; Rich and Myrold 2004; Patra et al. 2006; Salles et al. 2009). While some studies reported significant correlations between functional community abundance or diversity and process rates, others highlighted large variability and weak predictive power, underscoring the complexity of linking microbial community ecology to ecosystem functions.

4.3 | Expanding the Diversity of Micro-Organisms Involved in N_2O Fluxes and Importance of Truncated Pathways

After the major breakthrough that ammonia-oxidation was not restricted to ammonia-Oxidizing Bacteria (AOB), but is also carried out by ammonia-Oxidizing archaea (AOA) (Francis et al. 2005; Könneke et al. 2005; Leininger et al. 2006), several studies demonstrated that AOA are also capable to produce N_2O (Santoro et al. 2011; Löscher et al. 2012), thereby contributing to N_2O emissions across terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems, although generally with lower yields than AOB. A further expansion of nitrifier diversity came with the discovery of *Comammox Nitrospira*, which can perform the complete nitrification pathway (Daims et al. 2015; van Kessel et al. 2015). *Comammox* (COMplete AMMonia Oxidation) can produce N_2O , likely from abiotic reaction, and at lower rates to both AOB and AOA, suggesting a minor contribution to N_2O emissions from most environments (Han et al. 2021).

Characterization of the denitrification system in fungi showed that it is based on a copper nitrite reductase (NirK) and a cytochrome P450 nitric oxide (NO) reductase, while lacking the N_2O reductase, thereby making N_2O a terminal product, a trait that is widespread among fungi (Shoun et al. 2012; Maeda et al. 2015). Various approaches have been used to quantify the contribution of fungi to N_2O production, including substrate-induced respiration inhibition, and stable isotope analyses, each with distinct strengths and limitations. A significant contribution of fungi was reported in some soil environments, sometimes exceeding that of bacteria (e.g., Laughlin and Stevens 2002; Wankel et al. 2017).

This truncated denitrification pathway in fungi, with the lack of N_2O reductase, as well as in a subset of bacteria, challenged the traditional view of denitrification as a canonical, complete pathway and instead supports a modular organization of the process, in which some organisms lack one or several steps such as the genetic capacity to reduce N_2O to N_2 . This has important implications for N_2O emissions, as it indicates that N_2O reduction is not only controlled by environmental or physiological factors affecting the expression or activity of N_2O reductase (e.g., pH, substrate availability) (Bakken et al. 2012) but is also intrinsically constrained by the composition of microbial communities, in particular by the relative abundance of organisms genetically capable of N_2O reduction. As organisms lacking this gene are acting as net N_2O sources regardless of favorable environmental conditions for N_2O reduction, N_2O production can be due to the combined effects of physiological processes and the genetic potential of the resident microbial community, thereby linking N_2O emissions to microbial community composition (Philippot et al. 2011).

4.4 | Microbial N₂O Sinks—from Discovery to Mitigation Strategies

Several years after the landmark synthesis by Chapuis-Lardy et al. (2007), which highlighted the potential of soils to act as sink for N₂O, a major breakthrough came with the discovery of a previously unrecognized clade of N₂O, indicating that the diversity of N₂O consumers had been underestimated (Jones et al. 2013; Sanford et al. 2012). This new clade termed nosZII is widespread and most often at least as abundant as the typical canonical nosZI (Jones et al. 2013, 2014; Orellana et al. 2014). This discovery not only expanded the known diversity of bacteria capable to reduce N₂O, but had ecological implications for a better understanding of N₂O emissions, as many members of this newly identified nosZ clade II lack the other denitrification genes, thereby being purely a potential N₂O sink without contributing to N₂O production (Graf et al. 2014; Hallin et al. 2018). Subsequent studies demonstrated that the soil N₂O sink capacity was mostly explained by the abundance and diversity of this new nosZII clade (Jones et al. 2014), with the nosZII clade rather than nosZI being negatively related to in situ N₂O emissions (Domeignoz-Horta et al. 2018; Xu et al. 2020; Xiang et al. 2023). The ecological importance of this new clade was further confirmed experimentally by showing that inoculation of a non-denitrifier nosZII bacteria in soil could significantly decrease N₂O emissions, thereby providing proof of concept that nosZ enrichment can help mitigating N₂O emissions (Domeignoz-Horta et al. 2016). Building on this work, Hiis et al. (2024) showed the potential of nosZII-enriched organic amendment for reducing agricultural N₂O emissions. These findings reinforced the view that microbial community composition, and particularly the balance between N₂O producers and reducers, is an important determinant of N₂O emissions.

Microbial mitigation strategies are not restricted to nosZII-bacteria as members of the canonical nosZI clade can also contribute to lowering N₂O emissions. The most compelling example is provided by the N fixing rhizobia establishing symbiosis with legume plants such as soybean. Across the world, more than 120 million hectares of soybean are cultivated, the vast majority being inoculated with rhizobial strains to ensure efficient N fixation. These rhizobial strains can vary in their denitrification capacity and in particular to carry nosZI and reduce N₂O. After the initial findings that *Bradyrhizobium japonicum* can reduce N₂O in the soybean rhizosphere, subsequent studies showed that inoculation with single or mixed rhizobial strains carrying *nosZ*, as well as with genetically modified strains with enhanced N₂O reductase activity, increased N₂O reduction both in the rhizosphere and within nodules, thereby shifting the system toward a net N₂O sink (Sameshima-Saito et al. 2006; Hénault and Revellin 2011; Akiyama et al. 2016; Itakura et al. 2013). Moreover, several studies showed that plant-microbe interactions can not only enhance N₂O reduction but also suppress N₂O production. Thus, in a pioneering work, Subbarao et al. (2009) demonstrated that plant root exudates can contain biological nitrification inhibitors (BNI) affecting the ammonia monooxygenase. Cultivation of a grass releasing such BNI for 3 years resulted in decreased soil ammonia-oxidizers along with nitrification activity and N₂O emissions. This discovery initiated

more than a decade of research on biological nitrification inhibition, recently leading to the transfer of a chromosome region controlling BNI production to elite wheat cultivars, resulting in reduced soil nitrification and lower N₂O emissions (Subbarao et al. 2021). Collectively, these findings highlight the potential of leveraging plant-microbe interactions as a scalable strategy to reduce agricultural N₂O emissions.

More recently, the discovery of a previously unknown protein family involved in N₂O reduction (clade III lactonase-nosZ) further expanded the diversity of N₂O-reducing microorganisms (He et al. 2025). This identification of another N₂O reductase in previously unrecognized taxa suggests that microbial N₂O sinks remain incompletely characterized, opening new avenues for both understanding and mitigating N₂O emissions.

4.5 | The Multi-Omic Area and the Overlooked Role of Biotic Interactions

Since 2020, a multi-omic era has emerged in microbial ecology, integrating genomes, metagenomes, metatranscriptomes, and proteomes. Comparative analyses of more than 60,000 genomes along with metagenome and metatranscriptome datasets showed that partial denitrifiers generally outnumber complete denitrifiers, and that the potential to initiate denitrification is more common than the potential to reduce N₂O to N₂, supporting the view that completion of the pathway is a community-level effort (Pold et al. 2025). Likewise, screening of more than 1,000,000 genomes for DNRA reductases revealed that about 40% of ammonifiers carry at least one denitrification gene and thus a higher potential for N₂O production than consumption (Saghāi et al. 2023). A combination of metagenomics and metatranscriptomics to understand the production of denitrification intermediates revealed early *nosZ* transcription yet delayed N₂O reduction in an acidic soil (Frostegård et al. 2022), underscoring the persistent difficulty in linking community-level DNA or RNA data to process rates due to regulatory mechanisms at multiple levels (Philippot and Hallin 2005; Rocca et al. 2015). Another reason is that such approaches often overlook biotic interactions between community members. This is well illustrated by the work of He et al. (2024), who characterized a metabolic cooperation between a fermentative *Serratia* sp. and a N₂O-reducing *Desulfosporosinus* sp. isolated from an acidic soil that sustained N₂O reduction at low pH.

Similarly, biotic interactions such as viral infection may represent an additional layer of control on microbial N₂O fluxes. Viruses can infect soil nitrifiers and carry auxiliary metabolic genes associated with denitrification and nitrification (Gazitúa et al. 2021; Kim et al. 2019; Lee et al. 2024). Experimental work further demonstrated that introducing different viral loads into agricultural soils altered prokaryotic community structure and significantly affected greenhouse gas emissions, including N₂O (Huang et al. 2024). These findings identify viral regulation as a new and potentially important frontier in the microbial ecology of N₂O and more broadly in N-cycling, with phage therapy offering another potential approach to mitigate soil N₂O emissions (Song et al. 2025).

5 | Modeling of Soil N₂O Emissions

5.1 | First Generation of Process-Based Biogeochemical Models

Early experimental work on N₂O emissions focused on understanding microbial N transformations, especially nitrification and denitrification, and their sensitivity to soil moisture, temperature, oxygen (O₂) status, and substrate availability. These insights motivated the first process-based biogeochemical models (PBMs) in the 1980s–1990s, which explicitly represented soil C and N pools and fluxes rather than relying on empirical emission factors. Pioneering frameworks such as CENTURY (Parton et al. 1987; Parton 1996) and its daily version DayCent (Parton et al. 1998), as well as DNDC (Li et al. 1992; Li et al. 1994), linked N₂O production to soil mineral N, water-filled pore space, temperature, and labile C availability. These models were initially research tools, used to explore process controls and explain observed variability and episodic “hot moments” of N₂O emissions. In subsequent years, these models were refined to better differentiate between N₂O production by nitrification and denitrification based on O₂ and substrate availability. These models use either a functional relationship between soil moisture, soil respiration, and a texture-dependent index of gas diffusivity (Del Grosso et al. 2000) or explicitly calculate the partial O₂ pressure in soil layers. The latter method considers gas diffusion as it is affected by soil water content, texture, soil organic carbon (SOC), plant oxygen transport via aerenchyma (e.g., rice), and microbial and root oxygen consumption (Li et al. 2000; Kraus et al. 2015) and is referred to as the “anaerobic balloon concept,” in which denitrification is restricted to the calculated anaerobic part of the soil.

As PBMs demonstrated their ability to reproduce field-level variability, the next challenge became their application in different systems, management conditions, and spatial scales. To meet this challenge, the 2000s saw the expansion of several PBMs originally focused on crop and soil dynamics, toward greater scope and complexity with the integration of biogeochemical components for simulating N₂O emissions. Models such as DSSAT (Basso et al. 2011) and APSIM (Vogeler et al. 2013) incorporated algorithms from DayCent, evolving into more comprehensive modeling frameworks with modular structures that represent soil processes, plant growth, and biosphere–atmosphere exchanges. These frameworks also enable seamless simulation of land-use and land-management changes (Haas et al. 2013; Hénault et al. 2005; Izaurralde et al. 2017). Despite these advances, models differ substantially in their representation of key processes, including the explicit versus implicit treatment of microbial dynamics, the coupling of C and N cycles, and the simulation of gas diffusion and redox conditions. Such developments, particularly the integration of algorithms from different modeling systems, necessitate rigorous calibration and re-evaluation of PBMs. At present, however, the extent of evaluation among PBMs capable of simulating N₂O emissions remains highly variable and also limited by the availability of N₂O emissions data, particularly datasets with continuous measurements.

At the same time, PBMs were increasingly used for scenario analysis of mitigation assessments at field level under varying

management and climate conditions (Abalos et al. 2016; Rafique et al. 2011), and for up-scaling from field to regional or national levels (Butterbach-Bahl et al. 2004; Del Grosso et al. 2009). Model intercomparison studies highlighted both their strengths (process realism, ability to capture management effects) and weaknesses (parameter uncertainty, data requirements, structural differences) (Butterbach-Bahl et al. 2004, 2013). These structural differences represent irreducible uncertainty across models, which cannot be resolved within a single modelling framework, motivating the development of ensemble approaches.

5.2 | Use of Models for N₂O Inventories

A major conceptual shift occurred with the integration of PBMs into GHG inventories, redefining their role from pure research tools to policy-relevant accounting frameworks. In the 2000s, there was a formal recognition of PBMs for use in national GHG inventories under the IPCC inventory framework. In the 2006 IPCC Guidelines, Tier 3 methods are defined as approaches that rely on models and/or measurement systems driven by high resolution, country-specific data and that explicitly represent spatial and temporal variability beyond simple emission factors (IPCC 2006).

Within this framework, PBMs are explicitly considered eligible Tier 3 methodologies when they are well documented, rigorously evaluated, and shown to be more accurate than Tier 1 methods, and subject to appropriate quality assurance and quality control procedures. This institutionalization imposed new requirements on models, including building modelling protocols to enhance transparency, reproducibility, and consistency, fundamentally changing the priorities in modelling design. Building on these guidelines, the United States has applied a Tier 3 approach based on process-based modelling to estimate direct soil N₂O emissions in its national greenhouse gas inventory since the late 2000s (Ogle et al. 2013; US-EPA 2009, 2015).

At present, the United States remains the only country to implement a nationally operational IPCC Tier 3 approach based on PBMs for estimating direct soil N₂O emissions. Most other countries continue to rely on Tier 1 or Tier 2 emission factor-based methods, despite the widespread use of PBMs in research, scenario analysis, and mitigation assessments (Del Grosso et al. 2022; US EPA, O 2024). Nevertheless, several countries are actively developing or evaluating PBM-based approaches to support future Tier 3 methods for soil N₂O emissions in their national inventories, particularly where agricultural soils represent a key emission source. Notable examples include the application of DNDCv.CAN in Canada (Daly et al. 2025) and LandscapeDNDC in Europe (Haas et al. 2022) and Denmark (Butterbach-Bahl et al. 2025). The 2019 Refinement to the 2006 IPCC Guidelines further clarified expectations regarding transparency, evaluation and uncertainty characterization, and time series consistency for higher tier methodologies, thereby strengthening the methodological basis for PBM adoption (Ogle et al. 2020). Despite their conceptual advantages, Tier 3 PBM applications remain resource intensive and are therefore typically limited to key source categories, with resulting estimates carefully benchmarked against observations as well as lower tier inventory methods.

5.3 | Next-Generation Approaches in Process-Based N₂O Modelling

Process-based N₂O models have evolved from mechanistic research tools into operational methods for reporting N₂O emissions and are likely to become the backbone of IPCC Tier 3 inventory methodologies. Process-based models are now entering a new phase where ensemble approaches, data assimilation, and AI are used to improve accuracy and uncertainty characterization while preserving process understanding.

The use of model ensemble approaches is emerging as a robust strategy for Tier 3 estimation of N₂O emissions with PBMs (Basso et al. 2025). By integrating outputs from multiple models with differing structures, parameterizations, and representations of N cycling, ensembles may help capture structural uncertainty based on the variability in the heuristic understanding of the processes as encoded in PBMs. This approach may improve the reliability of national GHG inventories by providing more credible estimates and uncertainty bounds, while also reducing biases associated with individual models. Ensemble methods can be implemented through simple multi-model averaging (Ehrhardt et al. 2018), but other approaches may also be possible, such as Bayesian model averaging or other statistical approaches using weighting schemes based on model performance against observations (van Oijen et al. 2011; Dormann et al. 2018; Hinne et al. 2020). As computational capacity and data availability increase, ensemble approaches are expected to play a central role in advancing Tier 3 methodologies and supporting transparent, policy-relevant N₂O reporting.

As parameter uncertainty and equifinality became a major limitation in PBMs, model-data fusion (MDF) approaches emerged in the 2010s to become a key framework for improving N₂O simulations integrating observations with mechanistic representations of N cycling. Model data fusion employs approaches such as Bayesian inference and data assimilation to constrain model parameters and reduce uncertainties in microbial processes like nitrification and denitrification. By assimilating diverse datasets, including satellite remote sensing and isotopic information, MDF improves representation of spatiotemporal variability in N₂O emissions. In particular, N₂O isotopomers (e.g., site preference and $\delta^{15}\text{N}/\delta^{18}\text{O}$) provide strong constraints on simulated process partitioning and reduction efficiency, helping disentangle contributions from different production pathways and reducing equifinality (Yoshida and Toyoda 2000; Lewicka-Szczebak et al. 2020; Ibraim et al. 2020). Model data fusion also enables quantification of parameter and predictive uncertainty, supporting more robust scenario analyses. Remaining challenges include scale mismatches, uncertainties in isotopic fractionation, and balancing process detail with model complexity.

More recently, AI and machine-learning (ML) methods have been combined with PBMs to exploit the strengths of both while addressing some of their individual limitations. Pure ML approaches can reproduce complex patterns but lack extrapolative power and interpretability, whereas PBMs embed process knowledge but remain imperfect. The key challenge now is to leverage and combine the predictive power of ML while

preserving process-based interpretability and extrapolation capacity of PBMs, which are necessary requirements for scenario analyses and policy applications.

Hybrid approaches with potential to improve N₂O simulations include: (i) Knowledge-Guided ML, where PBMs generate synthetic data to train ML architectures (Liu et al. 2024); (ii) Coupled PBM–ML ensembles, which can outperform either method alone in predicting N₂O fluxes at regional scales (Sharma et al. 2026); and (iii) Digital twin concepts, especially in managed systems, where AI is layered on top of mechanistic models for real-time prediction and mitigation design. These developments are increasingly relevant for future Tier 3 inventories, as they offer pathways to improved accuracy and scalability—provided transparency and reproducibility standards are maintained, and uncertainty can be quantified in a statistically robust manner (Figure 3).

6 | Gaps and Outlook

Despite three decades of substantial progress in measuring, understanding, and modelling soil N₂O emissions, key gaps continue to limit our ability to predict and mitigate emissions with confidence. These gaps increasingly lie not in isolated domains, but at the interfaces between scales, disciplines, and applications.

A central challenge remains the linking of processes across scales, from microbial pathways to field fluxes and ultimately to regional and national inventories. While molecular and isotopic approaches have revealed unprecedented detail at the biochemistry and organismic level and provided new insights on pathways involved in N₂O production and consumption, their integration into predictive frameworks remains limited. Bridging this gap requires moving beyond correlations between microbial traits and fluxes toward mechanistic representations that capture how community composition, physiological regulation, and biotic interactions regulate N₂O yields under dynamic field conditions.

A second major gap concerns the quantification of complete denitrification, particularly the partitioning between N₂O and N₂. While advances such as ¹⁵N tracing and N₂O pool dilution have improved estimates of gross production and consumption, robust field-scale quantification of N₂ fluxes remains elusive. This limits our ability to constrain N₂O yields—a key variable for both process understanding and mitigation. Overcoming this challenge will require methodological innovation, including improved isotopic techniques, sensor development, and integration of multiple lines of evidence.

Third, measurement limitations continue to constrain our understanding of spatiotemporal variability. Although high-frequency and micrometeorological approaches have demonstrated the importance of emission “hot moments” and “hotspots,” their widespread application remains restricted by cost, logistical complexity, and scale requirements. As a result, observational datasets are still sparse and unevenly distributed, particularly across climates, soil types, and management systems. Expanding measurement networks and leveraging

Three decades of soil N₂O emissions: key breakthroughs and transitions (1990-2025)

From process understanding, to microbial ecology and data-driven models

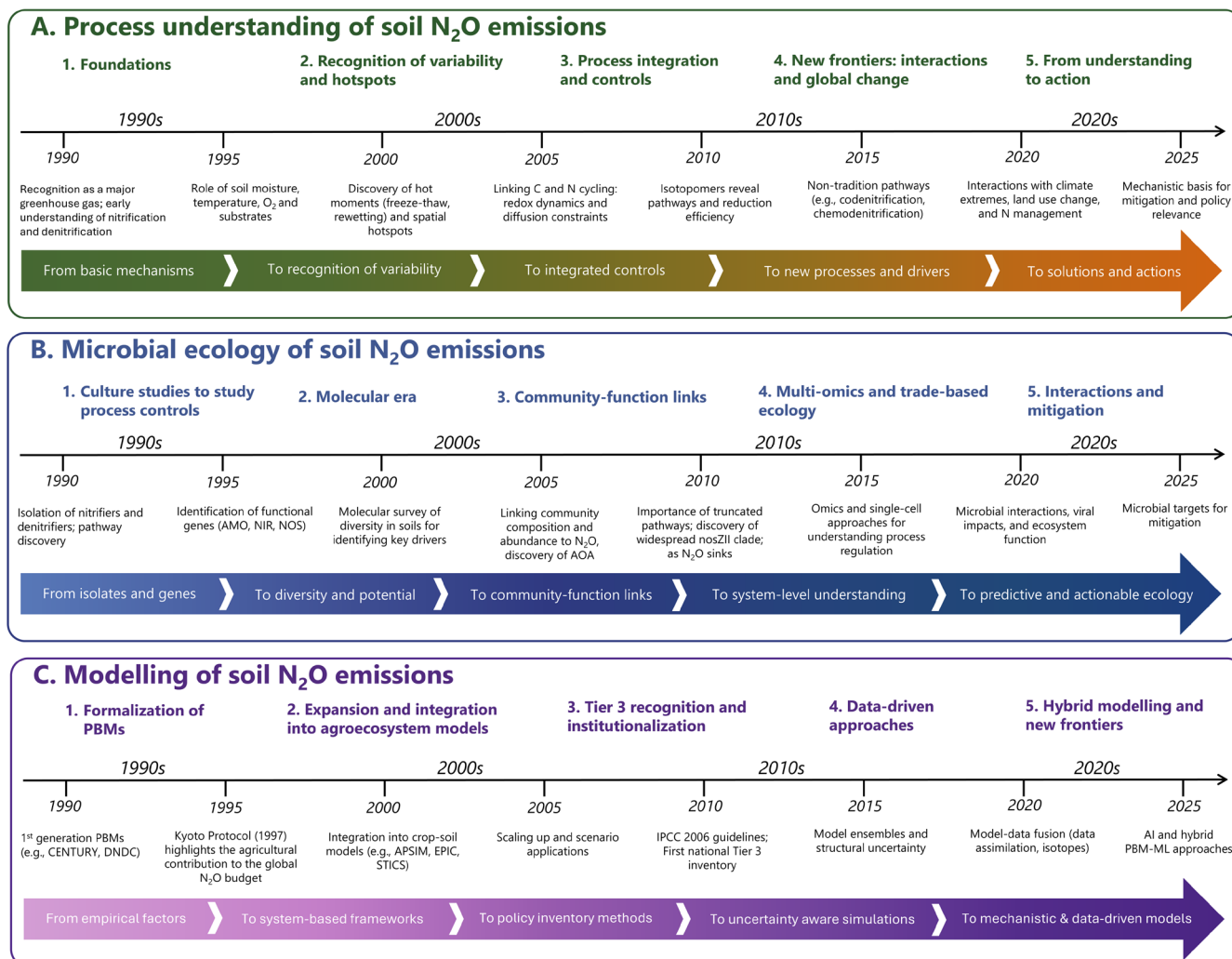


FIGURE 3 | Progress in N₂O Research and Key Breakthroughs and Transitions from 1990 to 2025 across three domains: (A) process understanding, (B) microbial ecology, and (C) modelling of soil N₂O emissions. (A) summarizes the transition from the early understanding of nitrification and denitrification as dominant N₂O-producing processes to the recognition of environmental covariates, climate extremes, land use changes, and nitrogen management as interacting controls. (B) highlights advances in microbial ecology, from culture-based identification of nitrifiers and denitrifiers to functional genes and enzymes, omics and single-cell approaches, and more recently, targeted microbial interactions for mitigation. (C) shows the evolution of how soil N₂O emissions were modelled, from early process-based biogeochemical models to their expansion into crop-soil models, use in greenhouse gas inventories, and the recent hybridization with machine learning approaches.

emerging low-cost and portable technologies will be essential to better characterize variability and reduce uncertainty.

A fourth gap lies in model uncertainty and integration. Process-based models have become central tools for both scientific understanding and GHG accounting, yet they remain affected by parameter uncertainty, structural differences, and equifinality. While model-data fusion, ensemble approaches, and hybrid process-ML frameworks offer promising pathways forward, challenges persist in reconciling model complexity with data availability, and in ensuring transparency and reproducibility for policy applications. In particular, the integration of isotopic constraints and microbial information into models remains in its infancy.

Fifth, research on N₂O is far too focused on N₂O alone. N₂O fluxes must be understood as part of the ecosystem N cycle, which is

closely linked to the C cycle. Therefore, measuring only N₂O fluxes without considering the full N budget, which includes all inputs (mainly biological N fixation and N deposition in natural systems and N fertilization in managed systems) and outputs (by gaseous or hydrological pathways or harvest), carries the risk of overlooking N pollution swapping. This hinders the development and testing of mechanistic models and the identification of N₂O (and environmental N loss) mitigation options. Regarding the latter, one might consider targeting not the magnitude of N₂O emissions itself, but rather reducing yield-scaled emissions per product, specifically for N₂O and, in general, with regard to environmental N losses. One example of such a comprehensive measuring-modeling approach is the AgNUE and SmartField initiatives. These pioneering projects establish a transatlantic N (and C) monitoring platform to test N₂O mitigation efforts within the context of total N/C balance measurements for

Denmark (SmartField; Butterbach-Bahl et al. 2025) and across Europe and the United States (AgNUE 2026).

Finally, there is a critical implementation gap between scientific knowledge and scalable mitigation. Although numerous mitigation options have been identified, their effectiveness is often context-dependent and difficult to generalize across systems as technologies and approaches for temperate, rainfed agricultural systems may not apply to agricultural systems in tropical climates or in semi-arid regions. Moreover, the translation of mechanistic insights into decision-support tools, incentives, and monitoring frameworks for farmers and policymakers remains limited. Bridging this gap will require closer integration of experimental research, modelling, and socio-economic considerations, as well as the development of robust monitoring, reporting, and verification (MRV) systems.

Looking ahead, emerging approaches, including real-time isotopomer measurements, new approaches for quantifying gross N_2O production and N_2 fluxes, microbiome-informed management, and AI-enabled digital twins of agroecosystems, offer new opportunities to address these challenges. Realizing their potential depends on coordinated efforts to integrate data across scales, harmonize methodologies, and develop open, interoperable modeling frameworks that can be tested using publicly available, high-quality datasets on ecosystem N (and C) cycling and N_2O losses. In this context, the next phase of N_2O research will be defined less by incremental advances within disciplines than by our ability to synthesize across them. Achieving meaningful reductions in agricultural N_2O emissions will require not only improved process understanding but also the development of predictive, scalable, and actionable solutions.

Author Contributions

Laurent Philippot: conceptualization, investigation, writing – original draft, methodology, visualization, writing – review and editing, formal analysis, supervision. **Klaus Butterbach-Bahl:** conceptualization, writing – original draft, writing – review and editing, visualization, supervision, investigation, methodology, formal analysis. **João Serra:** conceptualization, investigation, writing – original draft, methodology, visualization, writing – review and editing, formal analysis, supervision. **Stephen Ogle:** supervision, formal analysis, methodology, visualization, writing – review and editing, writing – original draft, investigation, conceptualization. **Diego Abalos:** conceptualization, investigation, writing – original draft, methodology, visualization, writing – review and editing, formal analysis, supervision. **Whendee L. Silver:** conceptualization, investigation, writing – original draft, methodology, visualization, writing – review and editing, formal analysis, supervision.

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Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

Data Availability Statement

The authors have nothing to report.

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