

1 **Technical Note: Pondi – a low-cost logger for long-term**
2 **monitoring of methane, carbon dioxide, and nitrous oxide in**
3 **aquatic and terrestrial systems**

4 Martino E. Malerba ^{A,B}, Blake Edwards ^C, Lukas Schuster ^A, Omosalewa Odebiri ^A, Josh Glen
5 ^A, Rachel Kelly ^A, Paul Phan ^A, Alistair Grinham ^D, Peter I. Macreadie ^{A,B}

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8
9 ^A Centre for Nature Positive Solutions, Department of Biology, School of Science, RMIT University, Melbourne,
10 VIC 3000, Australia

11 ^B School of Life and Environmental Sciences, Deakin University, Burwood Campus, Burwood, VIC 3125,
12 Australia

13 ^C Leading Edge Engineering Solutions Pty. Ltd. (LEES), Yackandandah, Vic 3749, Australia

14 ^D School of Civil Engineering, The University of Queensland, St Lucia Qld 4072, Australia

15
16 *Correspondence to:* Martino E. Malerba (martino.malerba@rmit.edu.au)

17 **Abstract.** Understanding the complex dynamics of greenhouse gases (GHGs) such as carbon dioxide (CO₂),
18 methane (CH₄), and nitrous oxide (N₂O) fluxes between aquatic and terrestrial ecosystems and the atmosphere
19 requires extensive monitoring campaigns to capture spatial and temporal variations adequately. However,
20 conventional commercial GHG analysers limit data collection due to their high costs, limited portability,
21 cumbersome weight, and restricted field autonomy. To overcome these challenges, we developed the *Pondi* – a
22 lightweight (0.8 kg) logger from cost-effective components tailored for long-term (weeks to months) continuous
23 monitoring of CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O concentrations in terrestrial and aquatic environments. *Components for a Pondi*
24 *cost approximately USD 750 (or AUD 1,166) and require six hours of specialised labour.* The *Pondi* features solar
25 panels for indefinite runtime, Global Positioning System (GPS) for tracking, an Inertial Measurement Unit (IMU)
26 for motion detection, and an optional microcontroller-powered add-on to support self-venting and additional
27 sensors. *The Pondi can be attached to either floating chambers to measure aquatic GHG emissions, or terrestrial*
28 *chambers to quantify respiration (with dark chambers) or net primary productivity (with transparent chambers).*
29 The *Pondi* is connected to a cloud-based system for real-time data access and remote configuration. The
30 components for the *Pondi* are readily available in most countries, and *basic* engineering and IT skills are sufficient
31 to assemble the device. By offering a practical, cost-effective, and reliable solution for GHG monitoring, the
32 *Pondi* contributes to efforts to assess and mitigate anthropogenic GHG emissions.

33 **Keywords**

34 *Methane ebullition, climate technology, IoT environmental sensors, field autonomy, portable gas analysers, data*
35 *cloud integration, autonomous monitoring systems, environmental impact assessment.*

36 **Data availability:** All data and Gerber files for the printed circuit board will be available upon request.

37 **Code availability:** Not applicable.

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53 **Author contributions:** M.E.M. and P.I.M. conceptualised the research. M.E.M., B.E., A.G., and P.P. developed
54 the *Pondi*. L.S., O.O., J.G., R.K., and P.P. collected and analysed the data. M.E.M. wrote the first draft. All authors
55 contributed to the final draft.

56 **Competing interests:** The authors declare no competing interests.

57 Short summary

58 The *Pondi* is a cost-effective, lightweight logger designed for long-term monitoring of carbon dioxide, methane,
59 and nitrous oxide emissions in both terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems. It addresses key challenges in greenhouse
60 gas monitoring by providing an automated, low-cost, solar-powered solution with cloud connectivity and real-
61 time analytics. Its robust design enables deployment in diverse environmental conditions, supporting large-scale,
62 high-resolution emission assessments.

63

64 1. Introduction

65 The continued rise in greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions from human activities is intensifying the impacts of
66 climate change. In 2019, global net anthropogenic emissions reached 59 ± 6.6 Gt CO₂-eq, which is a 12% increase
67 from 2010 and 54% from 1990 levels (IPCC, 2023). The three dominant GHGs—carbon dioxide (CO₂), methane
68 (CH₄), and nitrous oxide (N₂O)—originate from a range of land- and water-based processes and vary in both
69 atmospheric lifetime and warming potential (EPA, 2023; UN Environment Programme, 2023). Aquatic
70 ecosystems play a critical role in the cycling of all three gases. CO₂ is exchanged through aquatic primary
71 production, microbial respiration, and organic matter decomposition (Webb et al., 2019). CH₄ is produced in
72 anoxic sediments via methanogenesis and released through diffusion or bubble fluxes (Rosentreter et al., 2021;
73 Saunio et al., 2024). N₂O emissions arise from nitrification and denitrification processes in nutrient-rich waters,
74 including wastewater treatment plants, aquaculture ponds, and agricultural drains (Thakur and Medhi, 2019; Hu
75 et al., 2012). Small inland waters contribute disproportionately to these fluxes due to high rates of biological
76 activity and large surface-area-to-volume ratios (Holgerson and Raymond, 2016). Yet, quantifying GHG
77 emissions from aquatic systems remains challenging, with large uncertainties arising from spatial heterogeneity,
78 episodic fluxes, and limited monitoring at scale (Rosentreter et al., 2021).

79 While satellite and aerial monitoring offer a broad, top-down perspective of GHG emissions, they often fail to
80 capture the fine-scale variability and mechanistic drivers of emissions at the ground level (Boesch et al., 2021).
81 This limitation is particularly problematic in heterogeneous landscapes, such as agricultural mosaics, where GHG
82 sources are spatially variable and often transient (McGinn, 2006). Reliable *in situ* measurements are essential to
83 overcome this gap, as they provide high-resolution, ground-truth data necessary to calibrate and validate satellite-
84 based and airborne models (Kent et al., 2019; Pigliatille et al., 2020). Ultimately, this synergy between *in situ*
85 and remote sensing approaches enables more accurate monitoring, supports targeted mitigation strategies, and
86 enhances confidence in large-scale emission inventories (Janssens-Maenhout et al., 2020).

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Deleted: Carbon dioxide (CO₂), methane (CH₄), and nitrous oxide (N₂O) are significant contributors to global warming (EPA, 2023; UN Environment Programme, 2023). Its primary sources are fossil fuel combustion and deforestation (UN Environment Programme, 2023). (IPCC, 2023)(Rosentreter et al., 2021)(Saunio et al., 2024)CO₂ is the most predominant, responsible for approximately 76% of global GHG emissions. Its primary sources are fossil fuel combustion and deforestation (UN Environment Programme, 2023). CH₄, though less abundant, is over 25 times more potent than CO₂ over a 100-year period and accounts for 16% of global emissions, largely from agricultural activities and waste management (UN Environment Programme, 2023). N₂O, although contributing to only 6% of GHG emissions, is 300 times more potent than CO₂ and predominantly emitted through agricultural practices (UN Environment Programme, 2023).

107 The current landscape of commercial GHG analysers for *in situ* monitoring has significant limitations (see
 108 comparison in Table 1). While accurate and precise, most commercial CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O analysers have
 109 substantial drawbacks in costs, portability, and energy demands (Rodríguez-García et al., 2023). For instance,
 110 products from leading companies in this field—such as G2508 and G2509 Gas Concentration Analyzers by Picarro,
 111 Ultraportable Greenhouse Gas Analyzer by Los Gatos Research, and LI-7810 and LI-7815 by Li-COR—are
 112 capable of measuring gas concentrations at sub-parts per billion levels. However, these devices are expensive,
 113 typically USD >50,000. They are also heavy, weighing up to 20 kilograms, and require a power source (e.g.,
 114 portable generator) to meet their high energy consumption (20–50 W; Rodríguez-García et al., 2023).
 115 Alternatively, GHGs can be quantified by sending samples in pre-evacuated vials to a specialised laboratory,
 116 eliminating the need to purchase an analyser (Bonetti et al., 2021; Ollivier et al., 2019). However, this approach
 117 comes with higher costs per sample, requires personnel in the field for every measurement, and is unsuitable for
 118 long-term deployments (>1 week) because of the risk of gas dissolution and oxidation, leading to underestimation
 119 of fluxes (Table 1; Thanh Duc et al., 2020).

120 Developing loggers for greenhouse gases using cost-effective components is a promising compromise to reduce
 121 instrument costs, increase replication, and meet the demand for intensive field campaigns (Table 1). Flux chamber
 122 studies, a widely used method in GHG research, involve enclosing a defined area of soil, water, or vegetation to
 123 measure gas exchange with the atmosphere. These studies are critical for understanding the spatiotemporal
 124 variability of GHG emissions, particularly in ecosystems like freshwater systems, which are significant sources
 125 of CH₄, CO₂, and N₂O (Malerba et al., 2022a; Malerba et al., 2022c). Accurate flux chamber measurements
 126 provide insights into key processes driving emissions and inform models used for climate change mitigation and
 127 policy development (Janssens-Maenhout et al., 2020).

128 Today, many sensors can be sourced and combined in automatic, lightweight, long-lasting loggers at much lower
 129 costs than high-sensitivity commercial models (Bastviken et al., 2020; Dey, 2018; Maher et al., 2019; Morawska
 130 et al., 2018; Rodríguez-García et al., 2023; Curcoll et al., 2022; Dalvai Ragnoli and Singer, 2024; Harmon et al.,
 131 2015; Sø et al., 2024). While these sensors may lack the sub-ppm accuracy required for direct atmospheric GHG
 132 monitoring, they are well suited for flux chamber studies, where gas concentrations increase by orders of
 133 magnitude during incubation. This makes them a remarkably cost-effective alternative for capturing accumulation
 134 rates within enclosed spaces. Moreover, these sensors can be installed within loggers with standard features like
 135 solar panels for indefinite runtime and Internet of Things (IoT) connectivity to the cloud for real-time data
 136 monitoring. However, while many individual components of low-cost, autonomous GHG monitoring are now
 137 widely available—such as solar power, cloud connectivity, and off-the-shelf sensors—integrated DIY prototypes
 138 that combine all these features into a field-ready, multi-gas logger remain exceptionally rare. Most existing
 139 systems are limited to single-gas detection and lack the autonomy and connectivity required for effective field
 140 deployment. This gap has created a bottleneck in scaling high-resolution GHG monitoring, especially in regions
 141 or applications with limited budgets or technical capacity (Thanh Duc et al., 2020).

142 This article presents the *Pondi*—a novel open-source IoT device designed to monitor CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O fluxes
 143 (Table 1, Fig. 1). Unlike most existing devices, the *Pondi* is optimised for flux chambers deployed in the field,
 144 either mounted on floating chambers to monitor aquatic emissions or terrestrial chambers to monitor emissions
 145 from the terrestrial biosphere. This work was motivated by entities like the European Union and the U.S.

Deleted: Developing a granular, bottom-up understanding of the mechanisms driving GHG emissions is crucial for effective climate mitigation strategies (Janssens-Maenhout et al., 2020). While satellite and aerial monitoring provide a broad, top-down view of emissions, these approaches often miss the finer details of the underlying processes and drivers (Boesch et al., 2021). Therefore, on-ground measurements are needed to identify the specific sources and mechanisms of GHG emissions at a localised level – such as the impact of specific agricultural practices on GHG release or mapping emission levels in urban areas (Kent et al., 2019; Pigliautile et al., 2020). This detailed understanding enables policymakers and scientists to predict emission hotspots and implement more effective, localised solutions. Also, reliable *in situ* measurements are required to calibrate and validate top-down monitoring (McGinn, 2006). In this context, on-ground GHG monitoring becomes essential for more transparent and accountable climate change policies, bridging the gap between top-down, large-scale observations and bottom-up, local-scale emissions.

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186 Environmental Protection Agency being increasingly interested in low-cost GHG monitoring options to improve
187 their capabilities for collecting data *in situ* at large scales (Borrego et al., 2015; Watkins, 2013).
188

Table 1: Comparison of greenhouse gas (GHG) monitoring approaches, including IoT loggers (e.g., *Pondi*), traditional GHG analysers, and manual sampling methods.

	<i>IoT logger (e.g., Pondi)</i>	<i>Traditional GHG analyser</i>	<i>Manual sampling and lab analysis</i>
<i>Cost-effectiveness</i>	Low/intermediate equipment costs (USD <1k per unit), low costs per sample	High equipment costs (USD >50k per unit), low costs per sample	Negligible equipment costs, high costs per sample (approx. USD 20 per sample)
<i>Accuracy</i>	Sufficient for flux chamber studies	High precision, sub-ppm levels	High precision, but risks of gas dissolution and oxidation
<i>Deployment</i>	Easy, remote-friendly, solar-powered, self-operating	Logistically challenging, power-hungry, personnel-dependent	Personnel-dependent , unsuitable for long-term deployments
<i>Data Management</i>	IoT connectivity, cloud-based, real-time monitoring	Varies, often manual data transfer	Manual data transfer after lab processing

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2. Materials

2.1 Overview

The *Pondi* is our cost-effective solution for continuous ~~GHG~~ monitoring in aquatic and terrestrial environments (Fig. 1; see Fig. S1-S3 for onboard printed circuit board designs, and Table S1 for the list of components). The approximate cost of the components for a *Pondi* is around USD 750 (or AUD 1,166) and requires around six hours of specialised labour to assemble. *Pondi* integrates solar panels to sustain operation indefinitely, with an additional panel available for improved performance in low-light conditions, such as winter in Melbourne (~~Australia~~), with 9 hours of sunlight at 2-4 kWh m⁻² day⁻¹ (instead of 15 hours at 5-7 kWh m⁻² day⁻¹ in summer). To ensure seamless data management, *Pondi* maintains connectivity to a cloud-based system, reducing reliance on local storage and enabling immediate data access. In case of connectivity loss, *Pondi* transitions to internal storage, initiating a batch data transfer once connectivity is restored. Additional features include GPS for ~~tracking~~ and an Inertial Measurement Unit (IMU) ~~for detecting motion, orientation, and tilt of the device~~. Finally, *Pondi*'s modular design can connect to an external unit for additional tasks, such as integrating supplementary sensors (e.g., water turbidity, water temperature) or activating an air pump to reset gas concentrations within the collection chamber to environmental levels.

Materials and components used

GHG sensors: Off-the-shelf sensors measure gas concentrations within the chamber at a user-configurable frequency to calculate fluxes. These sensors are the Figaro TGS2611-E00 for CH₄, Sensirion SCD40 for CO₂, and Dyanment Platinum P/N2OP/NC/4/P for N₂O (Table 2 and S1). These models were chosen because of their low costs, energy efficiencies, and small sizes. Their detection ranges are ~~0-10,000~~ ppm for CH₄, ~~0-40,000~~ ppm for CO₂, and ~~0-1,000~~ ppm for N₂O. Also, they have already been used for field deployment by others (Berthiaume et al., 2020; Demanega et al., 2021; Eugster et al., 2020; Bastviken et al., 2020; Sieczko et al., 2020; Martinsen et

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al., 2018). The Sensirion SCD40 sensor also measures temperature and humidity, which are used to calculate fluxes and compensate gas readings for these environmental factors (see Section “Correcting for temperature and humidity”).

Table 2: Summary of the characteristics of the gas sensors used in the *Pondi*. The “Gas” column indicates the target gas measured. “Sensor Model” lists the specific sensor and its detection technology (e.g., metal oxide or non-dispersive infrared). “Range” provides the operational concentration range validated for field use, while “Res” indicates the resolution, or the smallest detectable change in gas concentration. “Accuracy” refers to the measurement uncertainty at a representative concentration, expressed both in absolute and relative terms. “Cross-Sensitivities” describes known sources of interference, such as temperature, humidity, or other gases. “MAPE” refers to the Mean Absolute Percentage Error across a typical measurement range, based on field calibration data. “Notes” explain the strategies implemented to correct or compensate for sensor limitations. Finally, “Ref” provides the source of the information, including manufacturer specifications (with hyperlinks) and peer-reviewed publications. For details on the *Pondi* components, see Table S1.

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Gas	Sensor Model	Range	Res	Accuracy	Cross-Sensitivities	MAPE	Notes	Ref
CH ₄	Figaro TGS2611-E00 (MOx)	0–10,000 ppm	~0.1 ppm	± 1.7 ppm at 28 ppm (ca. 6%)	Humidity and temperature.	8.93% (3–10,000 ppm)	Temperature correction applied using NTC thermistor. Operating RH usually >50%, minimizing humidity effects. Minimal temperature and humidity effects (Fig. 4C).	Figaro manual, Shah et al. (2023)
CO ₂	Sensirion SCD40 (NDIR + T/RH sensor)	0–40,000 ppm	1 ppm	± 40 ppm at 5,000 ppm (ca. 5%)	Minimal due to NDIR design.	19.9% (400–10,000 ppm)	Integrated temperature and RH compensation. Sensor underpredicts above 5,000 ppm (Fig. 3B).	Sensirion manual
N ₂ O	Dynamant P/N2OP/NC/4/P (NDIR)	0–1,000 ppm	~0.1 ppm	± 50 ppm at 1,000 ppm (5%)	CO ₂ (~0.05 ppm N ₂ O per ppm CO ₂).	4.96% (0–1,000 ppm)	CO ₂ correction factor applied. Sensor robust to temperature and RH variation (Fig. 4A and S7).	Dynamant manual

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The *Pondi* supports flexible calibration for each GHG sensor. Users can upload new calibration parameters remotely via the cloud interface, allowing for recalibration without physical access to the device. Following manufacturer guidelines, we performed a one-point calibration for CH₄ and CO₂ under atmospheric conditions, and a two-point calibration for N₂O using both atmospheric concentrations and a high reference concentration (1,000 ppm). This architecture enables users to correct for sensor drift over time or to regularly apply new calibrations, which is particularly beneficial for long-term autonomous deployments in remote environments.

Typically, sensors deliver data in digital format directly to the desired units. However, the output of the Figaro CH₄ sensor is in analog format, requiring additional processing to convert these signals into CH₄ concentration

values. Following Figaro's hardware implementation guide, we incorporated a temperature compensation circuit on our sensor Printed Circuit Board (PCB) using a Negative Temperature Coefficient (NTC) thermistor. Through trial and error, we fine-tuned this circuit over several PCB iterations to minimise the impact of temperature fluctuations on CH₄ readings. The *Pondi* reports the Figaro sensor's resistance via a voltage divider, and this resistance is subsequently processed in the cloud to determine CH₄ concentration levels. By performing this conversion in the cloud, we can continuously refine and update the equation as calibration data changes over time. Using time series data of gas concentrations measured with *Pondi* sensors, it is possible to estimate the total flux of each gas as:

$$F_g(T, P, RH) = \left(\frac{S_g \cdot C_g(T, P, RH) \cdot V}{A} \cdot Z_d \cdot Z_g \right) \quad (\text{eq. 1})$$

Where $F_g(T, P, RH)$ is the total gas flux (mg m⁻² day⁻¹) for the gas g (either CH₄, CO₂, or N₂O); S_g is the rate of change in gas concentration within the chamber over time for each gas (ppm hour⁻¹); V is the headspace volume in the chamber (m³); and A is the area of the chamber exposed to the water (m²); Z_d is the conversion factor from hours to days (24 hours day⁻¹); Z_g is the conversion factor from g to mg (1000 mg g⁻¹); and $C_g(T, P, RH)$ is the conversion factor from ppm to mg m⁻³ for each gas, which is calculated based on temperature (T), pressure (P), and relative humidity (RH), as:

$$C_g(T, P, RH) = \left(\frac{M_g \cdot P_d(T, P, RH)}{R \cdot T} \right) \quad (\text{eq. 2})$$

Where M_g is the molecular weight of gas g (CH₄ = 16.04 g mol⁻¹, CO₂ = 44.01 g mol⁻¹, N₂O = 44.013 g mol⁻¹); R is the ideal gas constant (8.314 J mol⁻¹ K⁻¹); T is temperature (in Kelvin); $P_d(T, P, RH)$ is partial pressure of dry air (in Pa), which is calculated as:

$$P_d(T, P, RH) = P - e(T, RH) \quad (\text{eq. 3})$$

Where P is total atmospheric pressure; and $e(T, RH)$ is vapor pressure of water at temperature T and relative humidity RH (in %), calculated as:

$$e(T, RH) = RH \cdot e_s(T) \quad (\text{eq. 4})$$

Where $e_s(T)$ is the saturation vapor pressure of water, calculated using the Magnus-Tetens approximation, as:

$$e_s(T) = 610.78 \cdot \exp\left(\frac{17.27 \cdot [T - 273.15]}{T - 35.85}\right) \quad (\text{eq. 5})$$

We explored the sensitivity of eq. 1 by systematically altering the values of temperature (T), atmospheric pressure (P), and relative humidity (RH) within the formula, based on typical seasonal variations observed in Victoria (Australia). Specifically, we increased T by 30°C, decreased P by 10 kPa, and increased RH from 33% to 99%, while holding all other variables constant. These changes were used to quantify their effect on the calculated gas flux (F_g). Results showed that a 30°C increase in temperature raised F_g by 13%, a 10 kPa drop in pressure increased F_g by 10%, and higher relative humidity reduced F_g by 3% (Fig. S4).

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Deleted: increase would raise F_g by 13%, while a 10% drop in pressure would increase F_g by 10%. A higher relative humidity (from 30% to 100%) would reduce F_g by 3% (Fig. S4).

296 *Floating or terrestrial chambers:* The *Pondi* uses a sealed chamber to accumulate GHGs. Typically, the *Pondi* is
297 installed on 16-litre plastic chambers, but various chamber designs can be used (for details, see section 2.7
298 Deployment protocol). The chamber can be outfitted with flotation rings to monitor aquatic emissions or inserted
299 into the ground for terrestrial flux measurements. In both cases, the chamber must be fully sealed to prevent gas
300 leakage. For terrestrial applications, the chamber is mounted on a 50 cm metal collar that is driven into the soil to
301 a depth of 5–10 cm. This collar provides structural stability and ensures a hermetic seal between the chamber and
302 the soil surface, minimizing diffusion losses during flux measurements. For aquatic applications, the chamber is
303 supported by a custom-designed flotation frame that maintains vertical alignment and ensures the chamber floats
304 stably at the water–air interface, minimising tilting and providing stability even during windy conditions.

305 The central connection between the *Pondi*'s sensor module and the plastic chamber is established using a threaded
306 plastic screw fitted with an O-ring. This O-ring compresses tightly against the chamber's surface when the screw
307 is secured, creating an airtight seal. Similarly, the N₂O sensor is connected to the chamber via a second hole, using
308 another threaded plastic screw with an O-ring to ensure a secure and leak-free connection (see photos in Fig. S5).
309 The flux calculations based on changes in gas concentrations are configurable to accommodate different chamber
310 volumes and intake areas.

311 *Electronics enclosure:* All electronics are incorporated into a waterproof enclosure placed on top of the chamber.
312 A 32 mm hole at the top of the chamber allows the GHG sensors to sample from the chamber space. A 32 mm
313 nut is threaded over the protruding sensors inside the chamber to join the electronics to the chamber securely. The
314 N₂O sensor enters the chamber space separately through a second hole on top of the chamber using the sensor
315 housing offered by the manufacturer (Dynamant).

316 *Power:* Power is provided onboard by four 18650 Li-Ion battery cells charged through a 2 W solar panel on top
317 of the electronics enclosure. During summer (typically 15 hours of sunlight at 5–7 kWh m⁻² day⁻¹ and max of
318 120,000 lux), this solar panel provides enough power for the device to monitor gases for at least four months
319 every hour, or a week every minute. However, in winter (typically 9 hours of sunlight at 2–4 kWh m⁻² day⁻¹ and
320 max of 80,000 lux), the solar panel can power the *Pondi* to monitor gases for two weeks at hourly intervals (or a
321 couple of days every minute). For longer deployment, a second 2 W solar panel mounted onto the side of the
322 electronics can extend the total photovoltaic input power during long periods of low sunlight and power the *Pondi*
323 for more than two months at hourly intervals (or two weeks every minute).

324 *Connectivity:* An onboard Mini Peripheral Component Interconnect Express (mPCIe) slot allows connecting to
325 many different off-the-shelf modems. However, the most effective way to connect a *Pondi* is through the 4G
326 Category M1 (CAT-M1) modem, which offers low power and long-range performance and allows data-intensive
327 tasks such as over-the-air (OTA) firmware updates. In remote locations with no CAT-M1 network, the mPCIe
328 slot can support data transfer through a satellite network, although this option will incur higher costs from network
329 providers. Alternatively, in areas with WiFi availability, the *Pondi* can also be configured for wireless local area
330 network (WLAN) connectivity.

331 *Onboard Microcontroller Unit (MCU):* The *Pondi*'s functionality is facilitated by a modern MCU, the ESP32-
332 S3. While a more basic MCU could also be used, the ESP32 enables helpful modern features such as OTA
333 firmware updates and many flexible general-purpose input/outputs (GPIOs) for integrating additional sensors and
334 peripherals.

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351 Backend data ingestion: *Pondi* loggers maintain continuous communications with a cloud provider (i.e., Amazon
352 Web Server; AWS) for uploading telemetry, synchronising device settings, receiving downlink commands, and
353 for various debugging purposes, such as log uploads (Fig. 2). Data from AWS can be used for a front-end website
354 where users can manage device settings and visualise the data received in real-time, facilitating efficient data
355 analysis and interpretation. For example, Leading Edge Engineering Solutions (LEES) has developed a front-end
356 using data from AWS to visualise and manage *Pondi* at <https://dashboard.leadingedgeengineering.com.au> (Fig.
357 2).

358 External self-venting attachment: To accurately measure GHG emissions over long periods, flux chambers must
359 be periodically reset to ambient conditions to avoid gas saturation. Without venting, gas concentrations inside the
360 sealed chamber can saturate, leading to an underestimation of emission rates (see section 2.3). The *Pondi* can be
361 connected to a companion microcontroller to manage the air pump for automatic self-venting. This self-venting
362 attachment is controlled by a control PCB and includes a small 6–12 V direct current air pump with an airflow
363 rate of 1.5–2.0 L/min through a 5 mm tube (4700 Adafruit Industries LLC; see Table S1 for components). The
364 pump can be initiated for a venting cycle at user-defined intervals (e.g., once a week).

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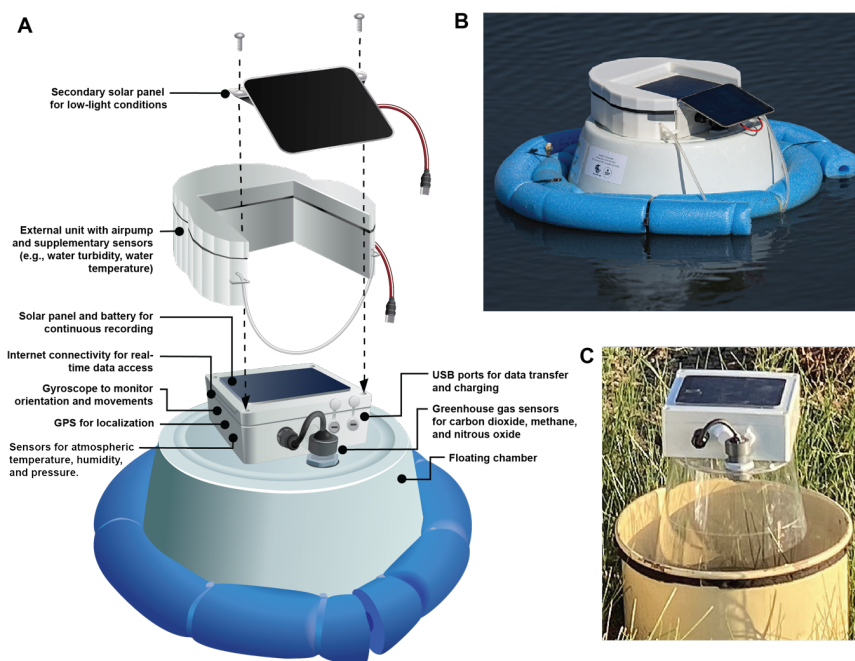


Figure 1: *Pondi* logger. (A) Device diagram and labels. Photos of *Pondi* during greenhouse gas monitoring of (B) a water body, including a second solar panel and a secondary unit for periodic self-venting, and (C) a terrestrial system mounted on a transparent chamber hermetically sealed inside a metal collar buried into the ground. See Table 2 for details about the gas sensors, and Table S1 for the list of components. Image credit: (B) Dr Kris Bell, (C) Dr Lukas Schuster.

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375 **2.2 Procedures and data management**

376 The physical components of the *Pondi* logger, including the microcontroller, sensors, communication modules,
377 and power system, are inside the main enclosure. The microcontroller serves as the central processing unit of the
378 *Pondi* logger, coordinating sensor data collection, data processing, and the operation of other components (Fig.
379 2). It interfaces with various sensors for CH₄ (through an Analog-to-Digital converter; ADC), CO₂, N₂O, pressure,
380 temperature, and the inertial measurement unit (IMU). Additionally, it can connect to a companion
381 microcontroller to manage the air pump for automatic self-venting and other sensors for measuring water
382 parameters such as temperature and turbidity.

383 Once the microcontroller processes the data, it transmits this information to ~~the~~ AWS cloud network via a Long-
384 Term Evolution (LTE) modem (Fig. 2). ~~Alternative transmission options include satellite or WiFi connectivity.~~
385 Upon arrival into the network, functions process alerts, check for erroneous data, and generate system health
386 reports. Users access this data via an online web dashboard where they log in to access data and manage settings.
387 This interface allows users to visualise location and time series data of gas concentrations and fluxes (CH₄, CO₂,
388 and N₂O), along with environmental conditions such as temperature, relative humidity, and atmospheric pressure.
389 It also provides insights into onboard analytics, including battery levels, solar panel charging status, and signal
390 strength. Additionally, the device supports remote configuration via the cloud, enabling users to adjust various
391 settings, such as toggling gas and GPS logging, setting logging intervals, configuring air pump flushing
392 frequencies, sensor calibration, and defining sleep periods to optimise battery usage.

393 The main enclosure contains the batteries. The device is recharged via solar panel or USB input, with an onboard
394 battery protection system guarding against overcharging, excessive discharge, and other potential risks. The
395 microcontroller monitors the battery state and the flow of charging input to optimise performance by dynamically
396 adjusting the power consumption to suit the conditions.

397 Additional key features of the onboard logic are:

398 *Dynamic power usage:* The *Pondi* employs dynamic power management to optimise performance according to
399 available sunlight levels, ensuring efficient energy utilisation. During periods of ample sunlight, power usage is
400 increased to maximise device performance; in low-light conditions, power consumption is minimised to prolong
401 battery life. Key variables governing power usage include the logging rate, upload/reporting frequency, and the
402 duty cycle of sensor heaters. This adaptive approach to power management enables *Pondi* to sustain indefinite
403 operation throughout both summer and winter, facilitated by a single 2 W solar panel in summer and dual 2 W
404 solar panels in winter. The charge sensor monitors the battery's status, optimising power usage and charging
405 cycles, while the charger and battery protection system safeguards against overcharging, discharging, and other
406 potential issues. Finally, the *Pondi* allows the N₂O sensor to be detached when unnecessary, reducing power usage
407 and providing longer battery life.

408

409 *Connectivity and onboard storage of offline telemetry:* The *Pondi* is designed to connect with the cloud through
410 the 4G Category M1 (CAT-M1) network to facilitate data offloading immediately after sampling using a
411 commercial data subscription. A SIM card or eSIM with an associated data plan is required for connectivity to
412 this network. This eliminates the need for a separate router or gateway, as the *Pondi*'s onboard modem directly

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416 handles data transmission. In remote locations without CAT-M1 coverage, the device can support alternative
417 connectivity options, such as [WiFi](#) or satellite internet, by connecting additional modules to the mPCIe slot. These
418 features ensure reliable data transfer in a variety of deployment settings. In instances of network unavailability,
419 data packets unable to be transferred to the [cloud](#) are stored onboard, awaiting reconnection for upload. This logic
420 can also significantly extend battery life by having an upload rate slower than the logging rate. The modem will
421 be powered down in between upload events and will upload multiple stored telemetry packets each time the device
422 is online.

423 *Movement alerts:* Using the onboard Inertial Measurement Unit (IMU) sensor, *Pondi* can notify users of any
424 changes in its orientation from handling, lifting, or other movements. These alerts serve as convenient markers to
425 indicate the commencement and conclusion of a deployment. Furthermore, they offer insights into external
426 influences, including wind conditions or wildlife interacting with the device – such as birds, mammals, or
427 amphibians.

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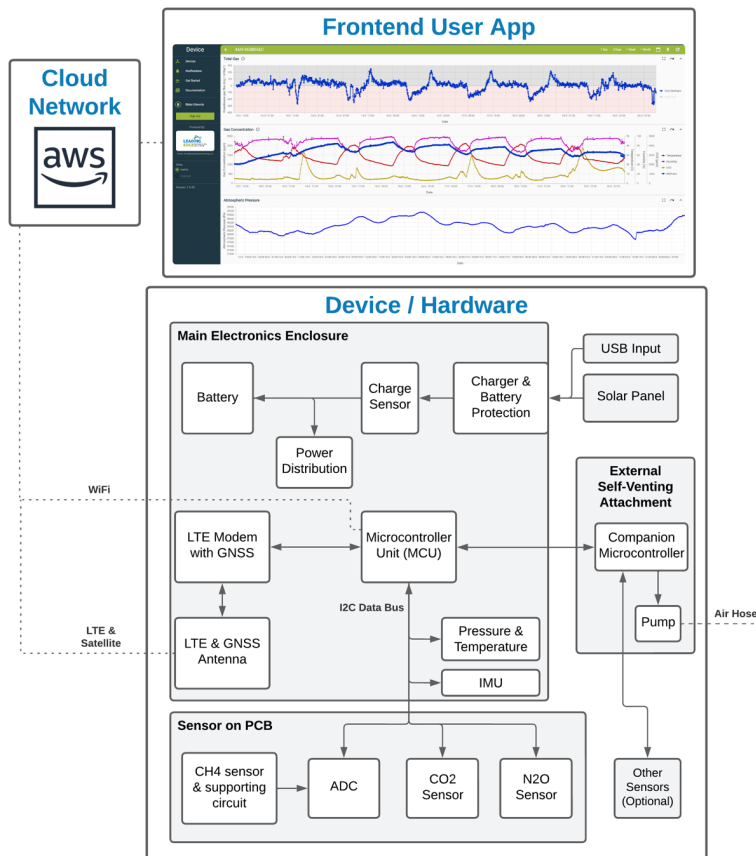


Figure 2: Operational logic of the *Pondi* logger. The main enclosure contains the microcontroller, batteries, sensors, and communication modules. The device is powered and recharged through a USB input or a solar panel. It supports connectivity to an external self-venting attachment, which includes a companion microcontroller that controls the automatic air pump and integrates additional sensors. Data from the *Pondi* is transmitted to the cloud via LTE, satellite, or WiFi, enabling real-time monitoring through the frontend user interface.

2.3 External self-venting attachment with companion microcontroller

The *Pondi* loggers measure GHG concentrations within a sealed chamber. The concentrations of CH₄, CO₂, and N₂O inside the chamber rise or fall over time due to release or absorption from soil or water sources. As these gases move between terrestrial or aquatic systems and the air within the sealed chamber, the *Pondi* monitors their concentrations (in ppm) and calculates their flow rates (in mg day⁻¹ m⁻²). However, gas accumulation does not continue indefinitely. Eventually, the gas concentrations reach a point where the emission rate equals the diffusion rate. At this equilibrium point, known as saturation, the gas levels stabilise, and the emission rates recorded by the *Pondi* loggers no longer represent the typical emissions of a habitat.

For long-term monitoring of aquatic or terrestrial emissions, the system must be vented periodically (typically once a week) to prevent saturation. Manual venting involves temporarily opening the sealed chamber to equalise the air with atmospheric conditions. For automatic venting, the *Pondi* can connect to an external self-venting attachment, which includes a companion microcontroller that controls an air pump to reset the chamber air to atmospheric concentrations. The microcontroller is programmed to initiate the venting process at user-configurable intervals. During each venting cycle, the air pump operates for a set duration (typically one hour) to flush the chamber with fresh air, ensuring a complete reset to ambient conditions. To prevent pressure buildup inside the chamber, the *Pondi* incorporates a pressure-regulating valve. This valve automatically opens for ten minutes following each flushing event, allowing the chamber to equilibrate with atmospheric pressure. This ensures that the system operates under stable conditions and eliminates potential artifacts in gas flux measurements caused by over-pressurization.

Users can specify the start time, day, and frequency of venting events (e.g., once a week) via the *Pondi*'s cloud-based interface or preset configurations. The algorithm ensures that the venting process aligns with power availability, prioritising periods of sufficient solar energy to recharge the batteries and maintain uninterrupted operation. This automated venting capability enables the *Pondi* to monitor emissions continuously over long-term deployments, minimising the risk of gas saturation while reducing the need for manual intervention.

The companion microcontroller in the external self-venting attachment can also manage additional sensors via a cable extending into the water. These sensors can measure environmental indicators, such as water temperature and turbidity. The companion microcontroller transmits the collected data to *Pondi*'s MCU, preparing it for upload to both the cloud back-end and the user-facing application.

2.4 Assessment and sensor validation

We validated the CH₄ and N₂O sensors within the concentration range specified by the manufacturer: atmospheric levels to 10,000 ppm for CH₄ and 0 to 1,000 ppm for N₂O. Because CO₂ accumulation in flux studies often exceeds the range of the *Pondi*'s CO₂ sensor (400 to 2,000 ppm), we validated its performance outside its specified range (0 to 10,000 ppm). Before validation, we calibrated all sensors using a 2-point calibration for N₂O and a 1-point calibration for CH₄ and CO₂ (see section 2.1 for details).

We validated the precision and accuracy of all GHG sensors in the laboratory. We created known gas concentrations inside a sealed 15 L plastic water drum (AdVenture Blue Tint Water). For CO₂ and CH₄, we

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introduced pure CO₂ and CH₄ from commercial cylinders using a high-precision fixed flow regulator at 0.25 L min⁻¹ (PureGas Aust Pty Ltd). We achieved five concentrations from atmospheric level to 10,000 ppm at 2,000 ppm increments by opening the regulator at 14-second intervals. We used a commercial greenhouse gas analyser (UGGA, Los Gatos Research, Model 915– 0011) to check these concentrations. For N₂O, we used three gas cylinders at 0, 500, and 1,000 ppm (all balanced with nitrogen gas) to fill the drum and record *Pondi* readings. The drum was kept at 21°C and away from sunlight. We exposed the *Pondi* to each concentration for 10 minutes before taking five measurements every two minutes and using the average value.

For each sensor, we calculated the Mean Absolute Percentage Error (MAPE) as the average magnitude of percentage errors between predicted (\hat{y}) and actual values (y), calculated as

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{|y_i - \hat{y}_i|}{y_i} \times 100. \quad (\text{eq. 6})$$

The CH₄ sensor recorded low MAPE (8.93%), demonstrating high precision and low bias overall (Fig. 3A and Table 2). Only at very high values (ppm > 8,000) did the readings show, on average, 10.6% of systematic overprediction (see points above the 1:1 line). The CO₂ sensor recorded the highest MAPE (19.9%; 3B and Table 2). It performed well within the concentration range specified by the sensor manufacturers and up to 5,000 ppm. Beyond that, the sensor systematically underpredicted readings by on average 21% (see points below the 1:1 line). Finally, the model for N₂O had low MAPE (4.96%), partly because this sensor has a smaller range (up to 1,000 ppm instead of 10,000 ppm; Fig. 3C and Table 2).

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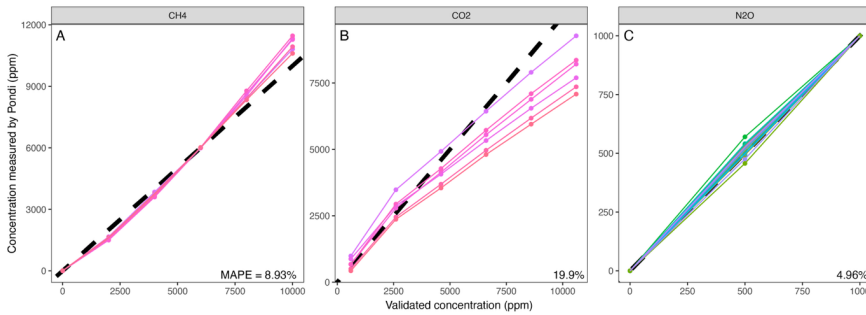


Figure 3: Validation of *Pondi* GHG sensors. We tested the CH₄, CO₂, and N₂O sensors in the *Pondi* at various gas concentrations using gas cylinders in the laboratory. The dashed line represents the unity line (1:1 ratio). Each coloured line shows the recordings of a different *Pondi*.

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510 2.5 Correcting for temperature and humidity

511 Previous studies have highlighted potential issues with temperature and humidity affecting sensor signals. To
512 address this, we ensured that all sensors included appropriate corrections for these environmental variables. The
513 CO₂ sensor (SCD40) features integrated temperature and humidity sensors, enabling real-time compensation
514 across its operating range. Similarly, the N₂O sensor (Dynamet Platinum P/N2OP/NC/4/P) incorporates
515 temperature and humidity compensation as part of its non-dispersive infrared (NDIR) technology. In contrast, the
516 CH₄ sensor (Figaro TGS2611) lacks built-in corrections and is known to be sensitive to temperature and humidity
517 (van den Bossche et al., 2017; Bastviken et al., 2020). To mitigate this, we implemented a temperature
518 compensation circuit on the Printed Circuit Board (PCB) using a Negative Temperature Coefficient (NTC)
519 thermistor to minimize temperature effects on CH₄ readings. For humidity, while dry conditions (relative humidity
520 <35%) can compromise CH₄ sensor reliability (Eugster and Kling, 2012), the CH₄ sensor inside the *Pondi* chamber
521 consistently operates at high humidity levels (50–100%), minimizing this concern.

522 We tested sensor performance for CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O under controlled laboratory conditions simulating field-
523 relevant temperature and humidity extremes (Figs. 4, S6, S7). Three *Pondi* loggers were placed sequentially in a
524 heated room and a refrigerator to create two scenarios: hot and humid (36°C, 75% RH) and cold and dry (15°C,
525 50% RH). These conditions reflect the typical range encountered in mid-latitude field deployments. However,
526 future work will include validation under more extreme temperature and humidity regimes, particularly to support
527 applications in tropical and arid environments. Once temperature and humidity reached equilibrium (see shaded
528 regions in Fig. S6), we recorded mean gas concentrations to evaluate sensor accuracy across both extremes.

529 Results showed that N₂O readings remained consistent across both conditions ($F_{1,4} = 0.139$, $p = 0.73$; Fig. 4A).
530 CO₂ readings exhibited a 7% decrease under cold and dry conditions ($F_{1,4} = 7.85$, $p = 0.048$; Fig. 4B). CH₄ readings
531 showed no statistically significant differences ($F_{1,4} = 2.08$, $p = 0.22$), though there was a slight 3% decrease in
532 colder and drier conditions (Fig. 4C). These findings demonstrate that temperature and humidity effects on *Pondi*
533 readings are minimal and unlikely to influence estimates in chamber flux studies, where gas concentrations
534 typically increase by several folds. Furthermore, these results align with the precision and accuracy estimates for
535 these sensors (cf. Fig. 3).

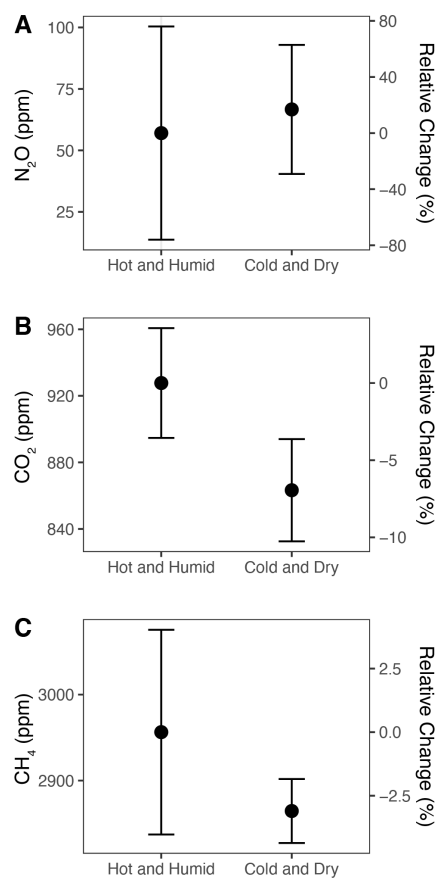
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546



547

548 **Figure 4:** Impact of environmental conditions on gas sensor readings, comparing hot and humid conditions (36°C,
549 75%) with cold and dry conditions (15°C, 50%). Means and confidence intervals are based on data from three
550 *Pondi* units after reaching equilibrium. Refer to Figs. S6 and S7 for detailed time series of all measured parameters
551 during the trial.

552

555 **2.6 Correcting for cross-sensitivities**

556 The manual of the Dynamet Platinum N₂O sensor highlights potential cross-sensitivity with CO₂, necessitating
557 an approach to account for this effect (Table 2). We used six *Pondi* across two relative humidity levels (medium
558 at 50% and high at 70%) to test how increasing CO₂ concentrations might generate false readings for N₂O. The
559 results revealed a consistent spurious increase of 0.05 ppm (± 0.002 SE; $F_{1,22} = 706$, $p < 0.001$) in N₂O readings
560 per ppm of CO₂, regardless of humidity levels (Fig. 5). To address this, we applied a correction factor based on
561 this relationship to the N₂O data.

562 The CO₂ sensor operates using nondispersive infrared (NDIR) technology, which is intrinsically less susceptible
563 to cross-sensitivities than electrochemical sensors (Table 2). Based on manufacturer specifications and our
564 validation tests, NO₂ does not interfere with CO₂ detection in this configuration. Additionally, elevated CO₂
565 concentrations had no measurable impact on CH₄ readings (Fig. 5).

566 Outdoor testing demonstrated that the N₂O sensor maintained stable and accurate readings across a broad range
567 of environmental conditions over several weeks. When deployed in a clean plastic bucket filled with rainwater
568 and left outdoors, the *Pondi* consistently reported steady N₂O concentrations, with no detectable influence from
569 fluctuating weather conditions such as temperature, humidity, or solar exposure.

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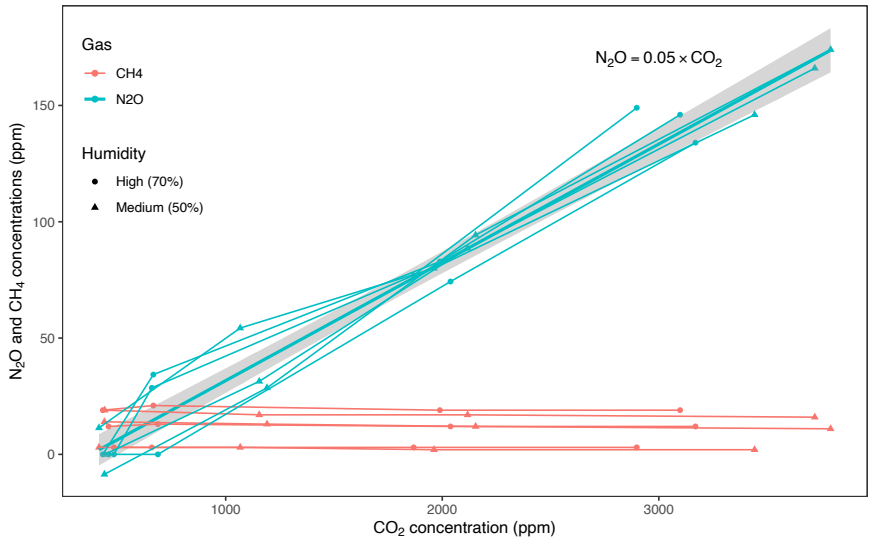
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572 **Figure 5:** Testing the cross-sensitivity of CH₄ and N₂O concentrations with increasing CO₂ levels. While CH₄
573 was insensitive to CO₂, N₂O readings increased by 0.05 (± 0.002 SE) ppm per ppm of CO₂, regardless of humidity
574 levels.

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587 2.7 Deployment protocol

588 *Pondi* loggers must be connected to sealed chambers to monitor the accumulation of greenhouse gas fluxes. These
589 flux chamber studies can happen in aquatic or terrestrial systems, and several deployment protocols are possible.
590 Below, we describe our typical setup for aquatic and terrestrial deployments.

591 *Aquatic Systems*

592 We installed *Pondi* atop a floating chamber to monitor GHG emissions of aquatic systems (Fig 1B). Before
593 deployment, we activated the logging function through the frontend user app, typically recording data hourly for
594 several weeks. The *Pondi* was carefully placed on the water surface and gently manoeuvred several meters from
595 the shoreline. We anchored the *Pondi* by either tethering with a rope and a 500 g lead sinker, or by installing a
596 pulley system spanning the waterbody, facilitating controlled offshore positioning. In areas with high bird activity
597 such as farm dams, we recommend adding a transparent plastic sheet above the solar panels to shield them from
598 bird droppings (see example in Fig. 6A).

599 *Terrestrial Systems*

600 We embedded a 50 cm metal collar 5-10 cm into the soil. An hour later, we affixed a 10-litre plastic transparent
601 chamber inside the metal collar using rubber gaskets to ensure a hermetic seal (Fig 1C). The *Pondi* was on top of
602 the transparent chamber to monitor gas accumulation. To record carbon fluxes while permitting photosynthesis,
603 the transparent chamber was exposed to natural sunlight, with concurrent measurements of temperature and light
604 intensity. For monitoring dark respiration, the chamber was shielded from light using insulation material. Before
605 switching from dark to light measurements, we flushed the gas collection chamber to restart from atmospheric
606 conditions. Dark and light measurements were typically recorded at one-minute intervals for thirty minutes.
607 Recording light intensity and temperature outside the *Pondi* and plant biomass inside the chamber offered valuable
608 data for understanding patterns in dark and light respiration.

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3. Results and discussion

Here, we present and discuss the results of three case studies in which we used *Pondi* to measure concentrations and fluxes of CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O in different settings, including agricultural ponds, wastewater lagoons, and freshwater wetland systems.

3.1 Case study 1: Agricultural ponds

Small freshwater systems significantly contribute to the uncertainty in global CH₄ budgets (Saunois et al., 2024). This uncertainty partly stems from a lack of data at large spatiotemporal scales necessary to capture the main drivers, such as light, temperature, and rainfall (Naslund et al., 2024; Bastviken et al., 2020). Additionally, short-term monitoring of aquatic habitats often underestimates fluxes by neglecting CH₄ ebullition—sporadic releases of CH₄ bubbles from sediments—which is a major emission source (Grinham et al., 2018).

Agricultural ponds (also known as farm dams, impoundments, dugouts, or excavated tanks) are water bodies used in agriculture for irrigation and livestock (Malerba et al., 2021). They are significant sources of GHGs, emitting more per area than many freshwater systems (Grinham et al., 2018; Ollivier et al., 2018). This emission results from the decomposition of organic matter, influenced by temperature, water level changes, and the presence of nutrients and organic matter (Malerba et al., 2022b). The typical time series of GHG fluxes from farm dams shows rapid increases in CO₂, reaching saturation after 2-3 days at around 10,000 to 20,000 ppm (Fig. 6). For CH₄, the concentration typically increases linearly for around a week until saturating at around 5,000 to 10,000 ppm (Fig. 6).

The deployment of *Pondi* in farm dams addresses significant logistical and methodological challenges in monitoring GHG fluxes in small agricultural water bodies. These devices can monitor multiple sites for long periods, capturing both ebullitive (sudden release of gas bubbles) and diffusive (gradual release) fluxes to better inform on average emissions and environmental drivers. For example, Odebiri et al. (2024) used *Pondi* to continuously monitor CH₄ and CO₂ for three months in 20 agricultural ponds in Victoria, Australia. This study analysed seasonal drivers to conclude that fencing farm dams to exclude livestock could reduce CH₄ emissions by 72-92%. Moreover, the simple design of *Pondi*, combined with geolocation and cloud connectivity, opens opportunities for citizen science programs. For example, farmers could receive a *Pondi* and only have to put it in the water to start data collection. This approach could further enhance the cost-effectiveness of documenting GHG fluxes at larger scales without relying on field technicians.

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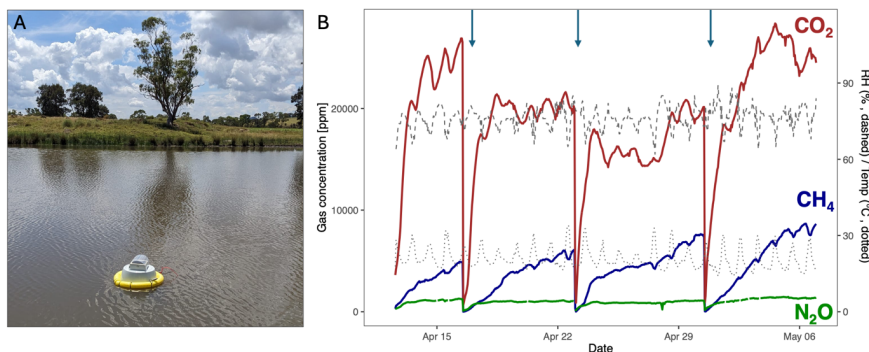


Figure 6: (A) *Pondi* in a farm dam. (B) Four weeks of hourly CO_2 , CH_4 , N_2O , relative humidity (RH), and temperature measurements inside the floating chamber of a *Pondi* in a farm dam. The arrows indicate the three venting events when the air pump diluted gas concentrations by injecting fresh air into the chamber. Image credit: (A) Dr Pawel Waryszak.

3.2 Case study 2: Wastewater lagoon

Wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs) emit significant amounts of GHGs, including CO_2 , CH_4 , and N_2O (Nguyen et al., 2019). Wastewater typically contains high organic loads and nutrient concentrations, especially nitrogen and phosphorus (Carey and Migliaccio, 2009). These high nutrient concentrations create ideal conditions for microbes to produce CH_4 through methanogenesis and N_2O through nitrification and denitrification (Li et al., 2021b). According to IPCC estimates, global GHG emissions from WWTPs account for approximately 2.8% of total anthropogenic emissions (IPCC, 2007). However, these figures are highly uncertain because they were estimated using average emission factors from WWTPs worldwide (IPCC, 2007).

Long-term deployments of *Pondi* loggers in wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs) enable precise quantification of anthropogenic GHG emissions at multiple locations. For example, CO_2 and N_2O concentrations monitored by a *Pondi* deployed in a wastewater lagoon rose rapidly, reaching saturation within a day (Fig. 7). In contrast, CH_4 accumulated more gradually, saturating after approximately one week. To continue measuring emission patterns, we vented the chamber weekly to reset gas concentrations to ambient atmospheric levels (Fig. 7).



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Deleted: (A) *Pondi* in a farm dam. (B) Four weeks of hourly CO_2 , CH_4 , and N_2O measurements by a *Pondi* in a farm dam. The arrows indicate the three venting events when the air pump diluted gas concentrations by injecting fresh air into the chamber.

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Deleted: Long-term measurements using multiple *Pondi* loggers can accurately determine anthropogenic emissions from large waterbodies in WWTPs. For example, GHG emissions from wastewater lagoons are dominated by CO_2 and N_2O emissions, with gas concentrations rapidly increasing within the *Pondi* chambers and saturating 3-5 hours after deployment (Fig. 7). Conversely, CH_4 emissions typically saturate within a week. Venting the chamber resets gas concentrations to atmospheric levels, enabling continuous observation of typical habitat emissions (Fig. 7). Importantly, the *Pondi* can generally withstand the harsh conditions typically commonly found in wastewater lagoons, such as high moisture levels and the presence of contaminants and corrosive substances in the water.

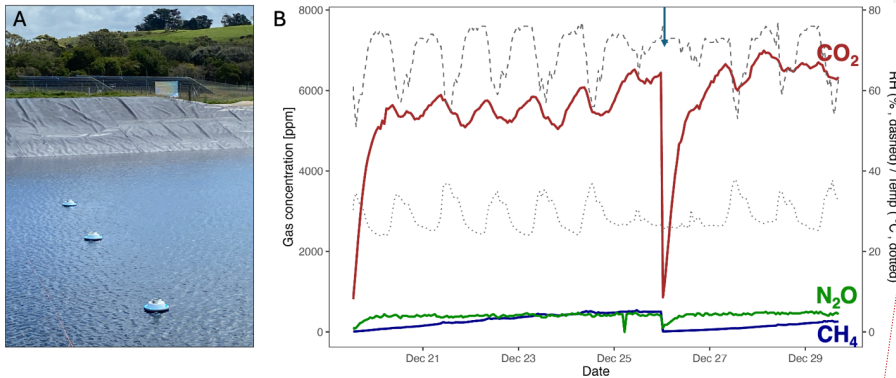


Figure 7: (A) Three *Pondi* in a wastewater lagoon. (B) Ten days of hourly CO_2 , CH_4 , N_2O , relative humidity (RH), and temperature measurements inside the floating chamber of a *Pondi* in a wastewater lagoon. The arrow indicates the venting event when the air pump diluted gas concentrations by injecting fresh air into the chamber.

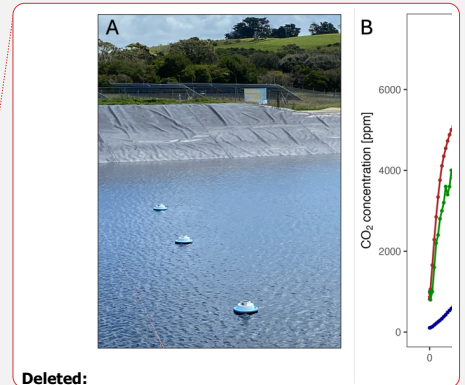
Image credit: (A) Dr Lukas Schuster.

3.3 Case study 3: Terrestrial fluxes

Measuring GHG fluxes from terrestrial habitats is essential to understanding their role in carbon sequestration, which is influenced by both abiotic and biotic factors (Smith et al., 2014; Rodrigues et al., 2023; Wu et al., 2023). Restoring degraded ecosystems has become a critical nature-based solution to mitigate climate change by enhancing carbon storage and biodiversity (Houghton et al., 2015; Griscom et al., 2017; Schuster et al., 2024).

Flux measurements using *Pondi* can help understand the GHG balances in terrestrial ecosystems and evaluate the effectiveness of ecological restoration. Restoration sites are often remote and difficult to access, making the *Pondi*'s small, lightweight design ideal for easy transportation. Additionally, the design of this logger supports various gas collection chambers to measure different types of GHG fluxes. For example, covering the chamber with insulation material or using a dark chamber allows the measurement of CO_2 emissions from ecosystem respiration (dark measurement; Fig. 8A). In contrast, clear chambers can estimate net ecosystem exchange (NEE), which accounts for both CO_2 emissions and uptake through photosynthesis (light measurement; Fig. 8B).

To measure terrestrial fluxes, there are biological constraints when enclosing vegetation in the chamber for extended durations. Specifically, plants show signs of heat stress, especially when sunlight is allowed to penetrate the transparent chamber. The heat buildup inside the sealed chamber can compromise their physiological functions and introduce inaccuracies in gas exchange measurements. To mitigate this, we limited the duration of terrestrial flux measurements to short intervals (typically <30 minutes), ensuring that plant metabolism remained stable (i.e., linear trends in CO_2 concentrations) and avoiding potential artefacts in the data. Active temperature regulation or intermittent venting might extend the measurement duration while minimising heat accumulation and maintaining plant health.



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Deleted: (A) Three *Pondi* in a wastewater lagoon. (B) Example of a time series for CO_2 , CH_4 , and N_2O generated by a *Pondi* in a wastewater lagoon. Annotations show when saturation starts for CO_2 and N_2O , and when the air pump resets gas concentrations to atmospheric levels inside the chamber (venting event).

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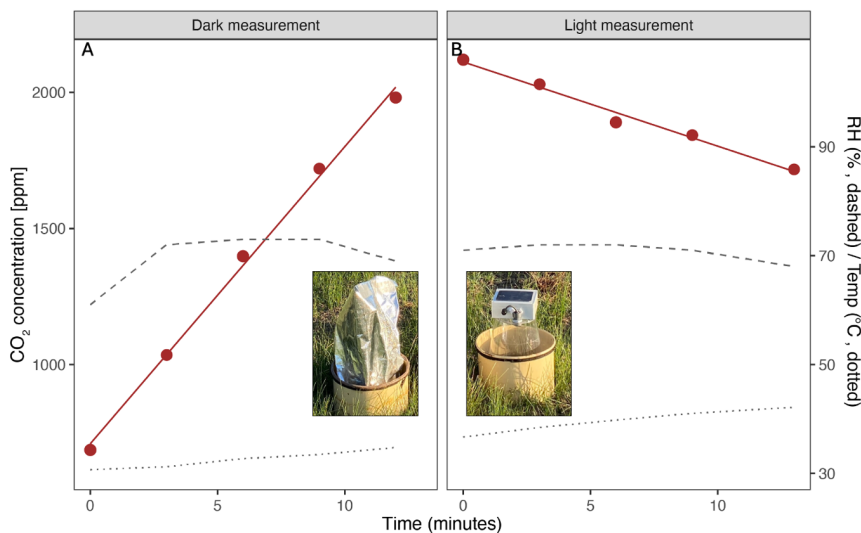
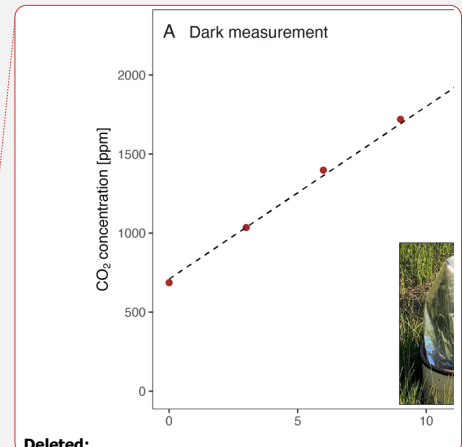


Figure 8: Monitoring CO₂ concentrations in vegetated terrestrial systems using *Pondi*. (A) *Pondi* recording dark respiration after the transparent chamber is covered with insulation material. (B) *Pondi* recording net primary production by allowing light through a transparent chamber. Coloured dots are measurements from a *Pondi*. Continuous coloured lines are linear models to estimate emission rates (dark measurement) and sequestration (light measurement). Dashed and dotted lines are relative humidity (RH) and temperature measurements inside the chamber of the *Pondi*, respectively. Image credit: Dr Lukas Schuster.

3.4 Limitations and further work

Several opportunities exist to enhance *Pondi* loggers for GHG monitoring. First, long-term deployments require regular upkeep, typically monthly, to clean solar panels and remove biofouling in aquatic systems. Monthly visits provide a natural opportunity to perform routine recalibration, which helps minimise any long-term drift that might otherwise accumulate. However, adding automatic wipers (such as those for underwater cameras and sensors) could reduce maintenance and extend deployment periods. Second, adverse weather may cause the *Pondi* to tip, disrupting GHG capture. Improving chamber design for increased stability could minimise this risk. Third, current sensors in the *Pondi* do not match the accuracy and precision of commercial analysers. Technological advancements could yield low-cost sensors with higher precision and reduced calibration needs. For example, the modern Sensirion SCD40 used in the *Pondi* has significantly advanced CO₂ sensor technology, offering higher accuracy and precision at lower costs and smaller sizes than older models (e.g., SenseAir S8, COZIR Ambient CO₂ Sensor, Telaire T6615). Fourth, the *Pondi* does not include a fan to mix air in the chamber, as adding one would significantly reduce energy efficiency for long-term deployments. While air mixing has not been an issue in our observations, particularly for aquatic applications, future work could evaluate the benefits of integrating a low-energy fan for terrestrial setups. Finally, the high-frequency sampling capabilities and venting mechanism of



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Deleted: Monitoring CO₂ concentrations in vegetated terrestrial systems using *Pondi*. (A) *Pondi* recording dark respiration after being covered with insulation material. (B) *Pondi* recording net primary production by allowing light through a transparent chamber. Dots are recordings from a *Pondi*. Dashed lines are linear models to estimate emission rates (dark measurement) and sequestration (light measurement).

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763 the *Pondi* enable the potential separation of total methane fluxes into their two primary components: diffusive
764 (slow, continuous transport of CH₄ across the air–water interface) and ebullitive (episodic release of CH₄ bubbles
765 from sediments) fluxes. Although we have not yet conducted this analysis, published methodologies that detect
766 temporal discontinuities in CH₄ concentration data are well suited for application to *Pondi* data (Hoffmann et al.,
767 2017; Varadharajan and Hemond, 2012).

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769 4. Comments and recommendations

770 Scalable, low-cost, IoT technology, such as the *Pondi*, can revolutionise our understanding of carbon and nitrogen
771 cycles by reducing costs and overcoming the logistical challenges of collecting data from the field (Salam, 2024;
772 Li et al., 2021a). These large datasets at fine spatial and temporal resolutions will provide the foundation for
773 training complex models. For example, a network of *Pondi* can provide spatially and temporally explicit data to
774 understand complex dynamics in a system. By integrating ground-based measurements with remote sensing
775 technologies, such as drones or satellites, scalable IoT solutions like *Pondi* can unlock transformative insights
776 into ecosystem dynamics, enabling advancements in agricultural productivity, environmental management, and
777 climate resilience at regional and global scales (Shafi et al., 2020; Rajak et al., 2023).

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778 Improving our ability to monitor and predict GHG dynamics can attract private sector investment to advance
779 climate goals (Bellassen et al., 2015). For example, IoT devices can reduce uncertainty and operational costs in
780 carbon projects, offering a robust and transparent system for measurement, reporting, and verification (MRV).
781 This technological approach has the potential to strengthen global carbon credit markets and accelerate climate
782 change mitigation efforts. In addition to carbon monitoring, devices like the *Pondi* can be expanded to include
783 passive acoustic sensors to monitor biodiversity through sound. Using AI-based species recognition algorithms,
784 it is possible to automatically identify birds, frogs, and other vocal fauna, enabling scalable, long-term biodiversity
785 assessments (Pérez-Granados, 2023; Höchst et al., 2022). Integrating AI-driven acoustic biodiversity monitoring
786 with GHG flux data could support the development of joint biodiversity and carbon credit systems, allowing land
787 managers to demonstrate measurable co-benefits of ecological restoration for both climate and nature (Bell and
788 Malerba, 2025).

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790 5. Acknowledgements

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793 thank BHP for philanthropic funding for this research. We acknowledge the use of generative artificial intelligence
794 tools to correct grammatical errors and improve the clarity of the text.

6. Supplementary information

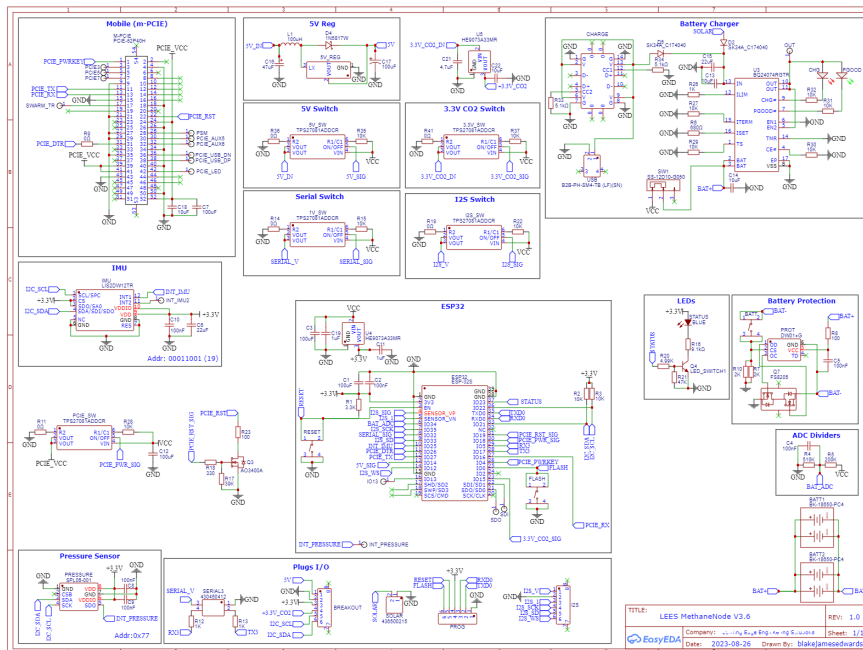


Figure S1: Electrical Schematic of the main *Pondi* PCB. To be used in conjunction with the Breakout PCB (see Fig. S2), connected via the 6-pin 'BREAKOUT' socket shown here.

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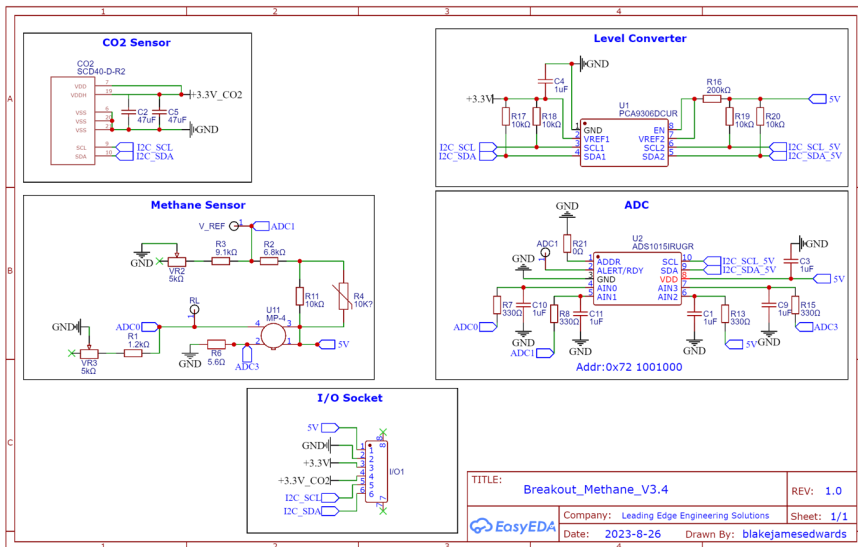
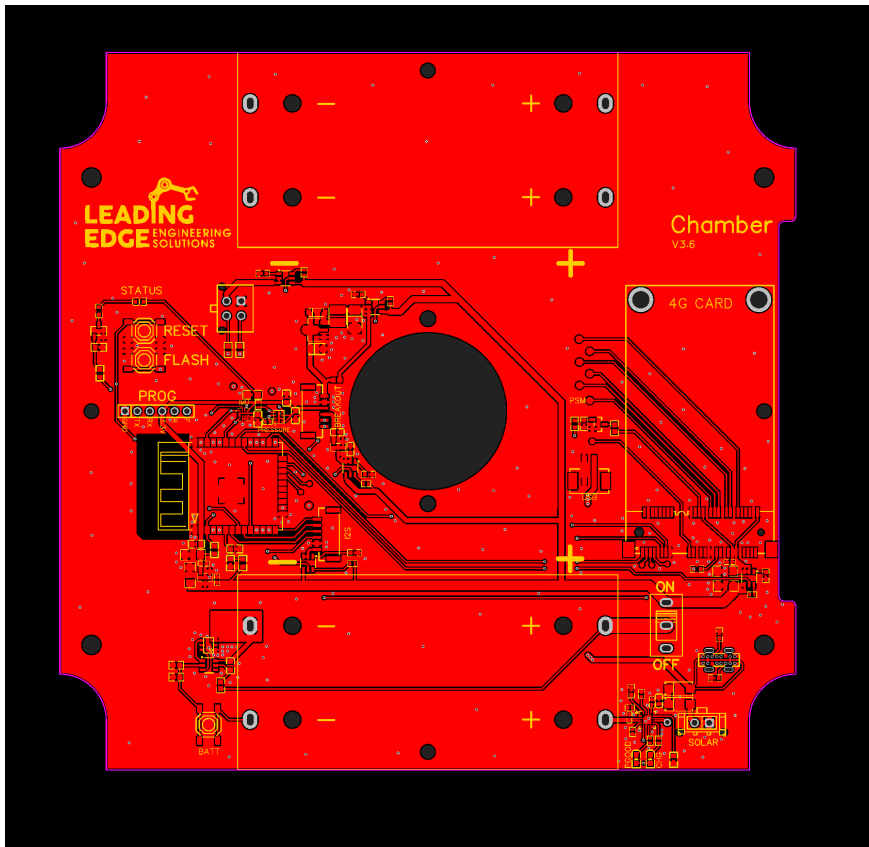


Figure S2: Electrical Schematic of the Breakout PCB located inside the chamber space.



813
 814 **Figure S3:** Top view of the custom *Pondi* PCB. All components are mounted on this top surface only. Gerber
 815 files for the PCB are available upon request.
 816

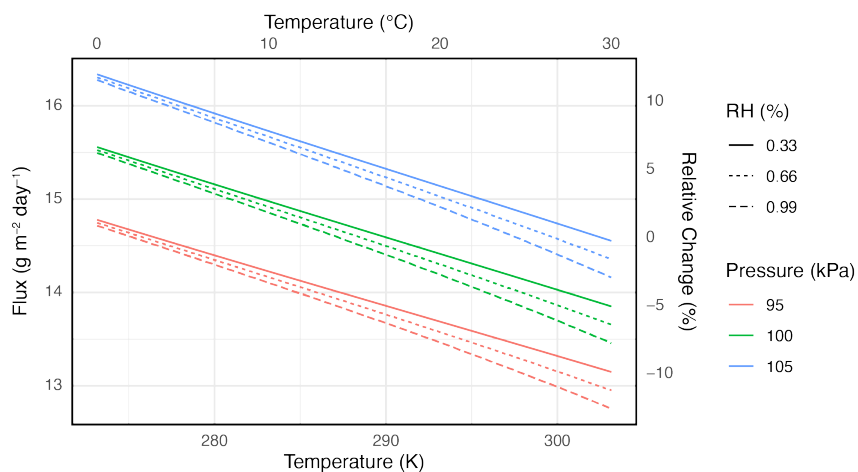
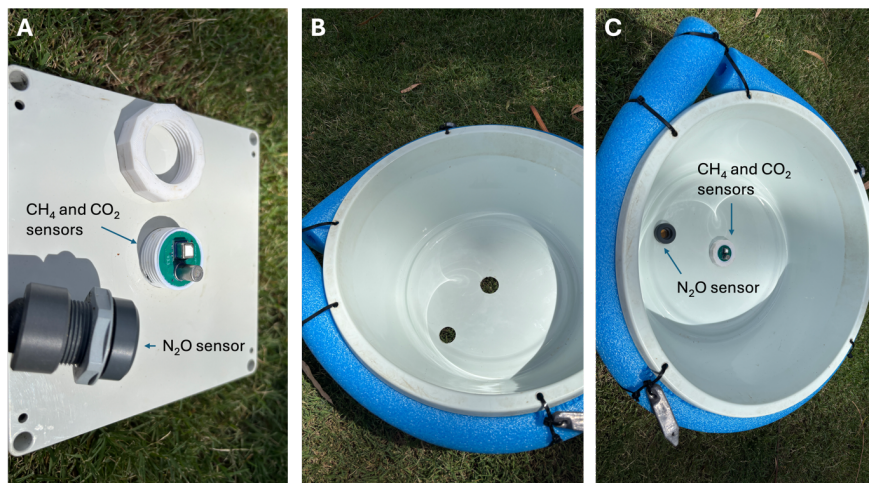


Figure S4: Sensitivity of gas flux estimates (F_g) to changes in temperature (T), atmospheric pressure (P), and relative humidity (RH). Fluxes were calculated using Equation 1, with all variables held constant except for the one being tested. We simulated a 30 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ change in temperature, a ± 5 kPa change in atmospheric pressure, and a shift in relative humidity from 33% to 99%. Results show that increasing temperature or decreasing pressure leads to higher flux estimates, while increasing relative humidity slightly reduces fluxes.

Deleted: Sensitivity analysis conducted using Equation 1 to simulate the effects of environmental variables—temperature, relative humidity, and partial pressure—on greenhouse gas fluxes (F_g). The variable ranges were based on typical environmental conditions observed during *Pondi* deployment in Southeast Australia across the year.

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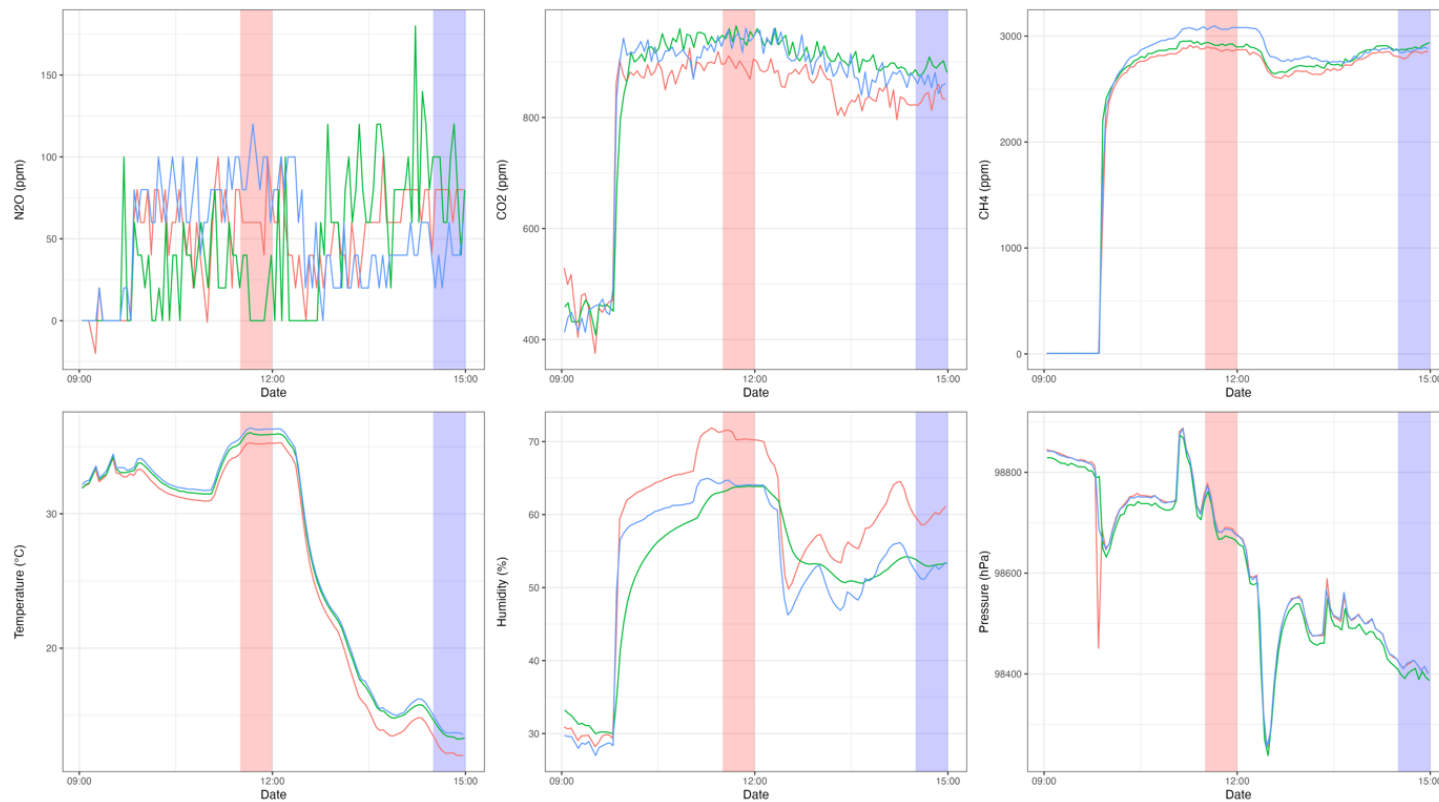
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832

833 **Figure S5:** Sealing the *Pondi* to the plastic chamber. (A) The threaded connections of the *Pondi*, showing the CH₄
834 and CO₂ sensors secured with a plastic screw and O-ring, and the N₂O sensor with its dedicated threaded housing
835 for a leak-proof connection. (B) The plastic chamber with pre-drilled holes designed to align with the positions
836 of the sensors. (C) The *Pondi* installed on the plastic chamber, demonstrating the fully sealed setup with both the
837 CH₄ and CO₂ sensors and the N₂O sensor properly secured to prevent gas leakage during flux measurements. The
838 floating design with foam and weights ensures stability during aquatic deployments.

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841 **Figure S6:** Impact of environmental conditions on gas sensor readings as three *Pondi* (coloured lines) transitioned from hot and humid (36°C, 75%) to cold and dry (15°C,
842 50%) conditions. Shaded areas indicate periods when the system reached equilibrium: red for hot and humid conditions, blue for cold and dry conditions. Refer to Figs. 4 and
843 [S7](#) for mean values and confidence intervals calculated from equilibrium data in these conditions.

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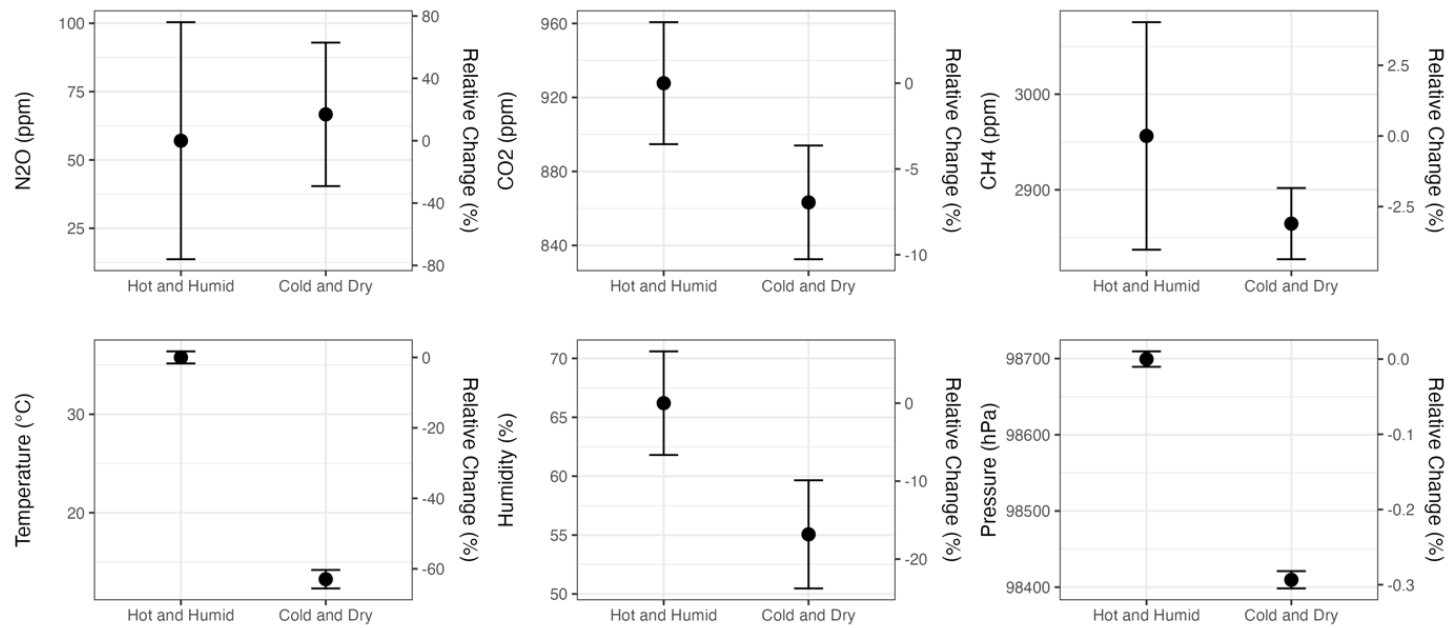


Figure S7: Impact of environmental conditions on gas sensor readings, comparing hot and humid conditions (36°C, 75%) with cold and dry conditions (15°C, 50% RH). Means and confidence intervals are based on data from three *Pondi* units after reaching equilibrium. Refer to Fig. S6 for a detailed time series of all measured parameters during the trial.

Table S1: List of the primary components used in the construction of the *Pondi*. It includes both core and optional parts. The approximate cost of the components for a *Pondi* is USD 750 (or AUD 1,166) and requires around six hours of specialised labour to assemble. “Component”: Major subsystem or category of parts (e.g., Enclosure, Solar, Sensors). “Description”: A brief explanation of the role of each component within the system. “Sub-Component”: Specific item within the component group. “Units per Device”: Number of units of that item required for the construction of one *Pondi* unit. “Manufacturer”: The company or brand providing the component. Generic items indicate cases where the brand is unimportant. Custom-designed parts (e.g., 3D-printed sensor mounts) were produced by Leading Edge Engineering Solutions (LEES). Items marked as optional (e.g., N₂O sensor, external solar panel) can be omitted to reduce cost or power demand, depending on deployment context.

Component	Description	Sub-Component	Units per Device	Manufacturer
Enclosure & Mounting	Protects the internal electronics and sensors from environmental exposure. Provides a secure housing and mechanical structure for field deployment, including mounting points for floating or terrestrial use.	Enclosure	1.0	Hammond Manufacturing, 1555RGY
		Vent	1.0	Amphenol LTW, VENT-PS1YGY-O8001
		Chamber	1.0	Ezy Storage, 16L Round basin
		Pool Noodle	1.0	Generic item
		Zip ties	7.0	Generic item
		Label - waterproof sticker	1.0	Generic item
		Foam seal - Enclosure to PCB (internal)	1.0	LEES custom design
		Foam seal - Enclosure to chamber (External)	1.0	LEES custom design
		USB-C panel mount waterproof socket & cap	1.0	Waterproof IP68 Type C Female to Male PFC Flat Cable 10cm
Solar	Onboard solar module that	Panel	1.0	First Solar, 5V 150mA

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	recharges the system's battery, enabling long-term autonomous operation without the need for external power sources.	Panel adhesive sealant	1.0	Generic item
		Micro-Fit 2 Pin Plug	1.0	Molex, 0436450200
Solar - External (optional)	An optional, larger solar panel for use in shaded environments or when higher energy capacity is needed (e.g., powering active ventilation or telemetry in low-light areas).	External Panel	1.0	Voltaic Systems P126
		External Panel - USB C plug	1.0	LEES custom design
		External Panel - Bracket, 1mm aluminium	1.0	LEES custom design
		External Panel - Double-sided tape	1.0	LEES custom design
		External Panel - 6mm heat shrink double wall	1.0	LEES custom design
PCBs & Components	Core electronics, including custom-assembled circuit boards, microcontrollers, data storage, and power management systems that run <i>Pondi's</i> operations, read sensors, and handle logging or telemetry.	PCB - Main	1.0	LEES custom design
		PCB - Breakout	1.0	LEES custom design
		PCB - Antenna	1.0	LEES custom design
		u.FI cable	2.0	TE Connectivity AMP Connectors, 2410329-2
		Battery holders 18650	2.0	Generic item
		Battery cells	4.0	INR18650B
		BG96 mPCI-e	1.0	Quectel, BG96
		mPCIe Standoffs	2.0	Wurth Elektronik, 9774015151R
		SIM card (cost of each card before data charges)	1.0	Generic item

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		Micro-Fit 2 Pin Socket	1.0	Generic item
		6-pin sensor cable to breakout PCB	1.0	INR18650B
Other Sensors	Sensors to measure CO ₂ , CH ₄ , temperature, and humidity, critical for calculating gas fluxes.	Methane (CH ₄)	1.0	Figaro TGS2611-E00
		Carbon Dioxide (CO ₂)	1.0	Sensirion AG, SCD40-D-R2
Fasteners	Includes bolts, nuts, and screws required to assemble the chamber, secure electronics, and mount components within the enclosure.	M2.5x4 (mPCle)	2.0	Generic item
		M3x6	4.0	Generic item
		M3x12	2.0	Generic item
Printed Parts	3D-printed or custom-fabricated parts used to hold sensors, guide airflow, or support other mechanical and structural elements of the system.	Stem	1.0	LEES custom design
		nut	1.0	LEES custom design
		Battery holders	2.0	LEES custom design
		Antenna mount	1.0	LEES custom design
Other Consumables	Miscellaneous materials needed for assembly and maintenance, such as adhesives, sealants, tubing, or cable ties, that ensure secure, leak-proof operation.	Micro-Fit Pins		Generic item
		Filament - ABS (kg)		Generic item
		Conformal coating		Generic item

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<u>N₂O (optional)</u>	Optional N ₂ O sensor and associated components for measuring nitrous oxide fluxes. May be excluded to reduce cost or power demand if only CH ₄ and CO ₂ are of interest.	<u>N₂O Sensor</u>	<u>1.0</u>	<u>Dynament Platinum P/N2OP/NC/4/P</u>
		<u>N₂O - PCB</u>	<u>1.0</u>	<u>Dynament</u>
		<u>N₂O - Panel mount</u>	<u>1.0</u>	<u>Dynament</u>
		<u>N₂O - Cable</u>	<u>1.0</u>	<u>4-core flexible cable</u>
		<u>N₂O - 4pin molex plug</u>	<u>1.0</u>	<u>Molex, 0430250400</u>
		<u>N₂O - Gland</u>	<u>1.0</u>	<u>12mm cable gland</u>
		<u>N₂O - Silicon mix</u>	<u>1.0</u>	<u>MG Chemicals Black Flexible Epoxy</u>
		<u>N₂O - Petroleum jelly</u>		<u>Generic item</u>
		<u>Printed mold</u>	<u>2.0</u>	<u>LEES custom design</u>
<u>Active Venting (optional)</u>	An add-on module that includes a small pump and microcontroller for periodically flushing the chamber with ambient air to reset internal gas concentrations between measurements.	<u>Pump</u>	<u>1.0</u>	<u>Adafruit Industries LLC, 4700</u>
		<u>Solenoid</u>	<u>1.0</u>	<u>DFRobot, DFR0866</u>
		<u>Control PCB</u>	<u>1.0</u>	<u>LEES custom design</u>
		<u>Printed frame</u>	<u>1.0</u>	<u>LEES custom design</u>
		<u>Tubing</u>	<u>1.0</u>	<u>Generic item</u>
		<u>Gland</u>	<u>1.0</u>	<u>12mm cable gland</u>
		<u>Vent</u>	<u>1.0</u>	<u>12mm mesh vent</u>
		<u>Vent O-ring</u>	<u>1.0</u>	<u>Generic item</u>

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RMIT Classification: Trusted

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