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Article

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Multisource energy conversion modes in minimally altered plants with soft epicuticular coatings

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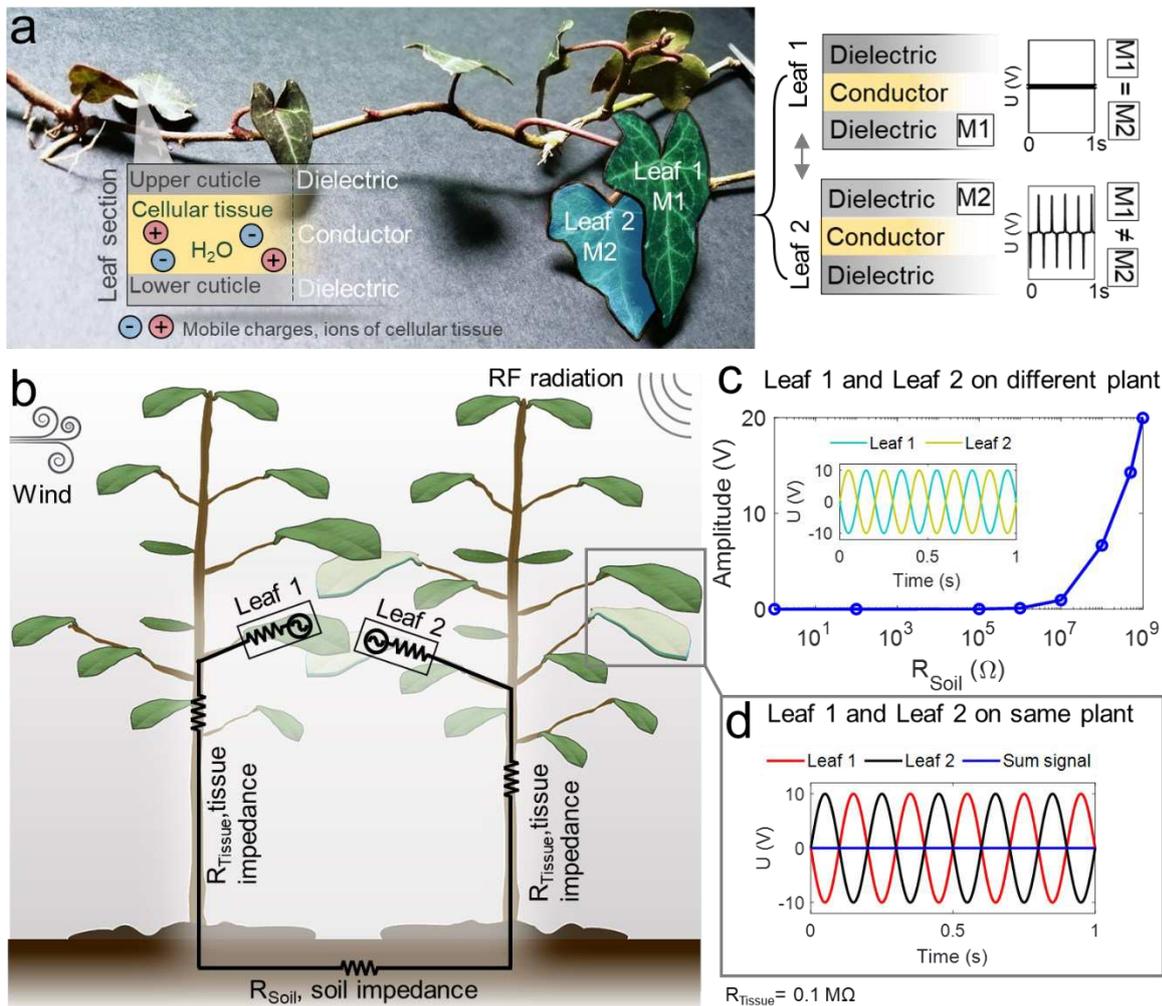
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Living plants have recently been exploited for unusual tasks such as energy conversion¹⁻⁶ and environmental sensing.⁷⁻¹² Yet, using plants as small-scale autonomous energy sources¹⁻⁵ was obstructed by insufficient power outputs for steadily driving even low-power electronics. Moreover, multicable and -electrode installations on the plants made a realization challenging. Here, we show that plants, by a minimal modification of the leaf epicuticular region and by exploiting their intrinsic circuitry, can be transformed into cable-free, fully plant-enabled integrated systems for multisource energy conversion. In detail, leaf contact electrification caused by wind-induced inter-leaf tangency was magnified by a transparent elastomeric coating on one of two interacting leaves for converting wind energy into harvestable electricity. Further, augmentation of the power output is achieved by coupling multi-frequency band radio frequency (RF) energy conversion modes using the same plant as an unmatched Marconi-antenna. In combination, we observed up to 1100 % enhanced energy accumulation respective to single source harvesting and a single plant like ivy could power a commercial sensing platform wirelessly transmitting environmental data. This shows that living plants could autonomously supply application-oriented electronics while maintaining the positive environmental impact¹³ by their intrinsic benefits such as O₂ production, CO₂ fixation, self-repair, and many more extremely difficult (if at all possible) to realize in artificial harvesters.

Plant-integrated solutions like plant-hybrid sensing platforms⁷⁻¹², plant-internal electronic circuits^{14,15}, and plant-hybrid robotics¹⁶, as well as living plant-driven energy harvesting¹⁻³ using wind⁵, rain drops⁴, the root/soil microbiome^{17,18}, and sap components^{19,20} endow great prospects for connecting plants to man-made digitalized technology and eventually derive new, sustainable concepts to fight climate change. Often, substantial modification of specific species is required like installing specific electrodes, integrated systems like artificial leaves, and multiple cables and maintaining certain conditions (e.g., high humidity, assure enzymatic activity etc.) to realize the plant-hybrid energy harvesting. Plants continuously change their morphology by growing at their apical regions and by exchanging leaves. Hence, preserving complex artificial components in plants is a challenging issue and environmentally questionable on a larger scale. Consequently, approaches that require minimal alteration of the biological component by further integration and elimination of external components as best as possible are required.

38 Our approach consists in modifying plants with the least possible, micrometer-scale variation while
39 rendering them capable to obtain significant electrical outputs using a combination of wind-induced
40 interleaf touching and plant-antenna-based radiofrequency energy conversion. Fig. 1a gives an
41 overview of the plant's simplified electrical structure consisting of the dielectric and purely polymeric
42 cuticular membrane on the leaf surface and the ion-conductive inner cellular tissue and vascular
43 system. A mechanical contact between the cuticle and another material leads to contact electrification
44 generating surface charges that become electrostatically induced into the tissue as detailed in our
45 previous investigations.¹ In this work, we describe for the first time how to fully realize and integrate
46 the mechanical energy conversion in the plant using contacts of two leaves. Given by the well-
47 recognized rules of contact electrification²¹⁻²³, two similar materials ($M1 = M2$) such as two cuticles
48 that touch each other would generate insufficient charges for energy harvesting as they naturally
49 consist of structurally similar lipids and waxes²⁴ forming a material pair that does not enhance contact
50 electrification. However, by tuning the materials ($M1, M2$) of the interacting cuticles, higher charging
51 may be achieved and hence we integrated a thin epicuticular dielectric layer of silicone elastomers on
52 the leaf cuticle as one of the best counter materials for efficient contact electrification of plant
53 leaves.^{1,3} Fig. 1b illustrates a simplified circuit used to predict the behavior of a coated leaf when
54 transiently touching an uncoated leaf such as during wind fluttering. Fig. 1c shows the voltage
55 amplitude as function of the impedance of the soil (R_{Soil}) between two nearby plants. During transient
56 mechanical contact, the two leaves generate a corresponding alternating current (AC) of opposite
57 polarity. If R_{Soil} is lower than a given threshold, the signals compensate each other through the internal
58 plant-soil circuit and cannot be easily harvested. The equivalent occurs, when two leaves on the same
59 plant touch each other as the intrinsic tissue resistance does not provide sufficient separation of the
60 two electrodes (Fig. 1d). However, at sufficiently high R_{Soil} ($>10^8 \Omega$) the charges generated can be
61 separated and the electricity produced on both leaves can be effectively harvested (Fig. 1c). High R_{Soil} 's
62 can simply be achieved by potting plants in isolating pots (common plastic-based pottery), in dry soil,
63 or for example by maintaining long distances between leaves and roots/soil. Moreover, it is expected
64 that multiple leaf pairs generating signals at various frequencies and amplitudes lead to an overall
65 positive power balance (Extended Fig. 2).



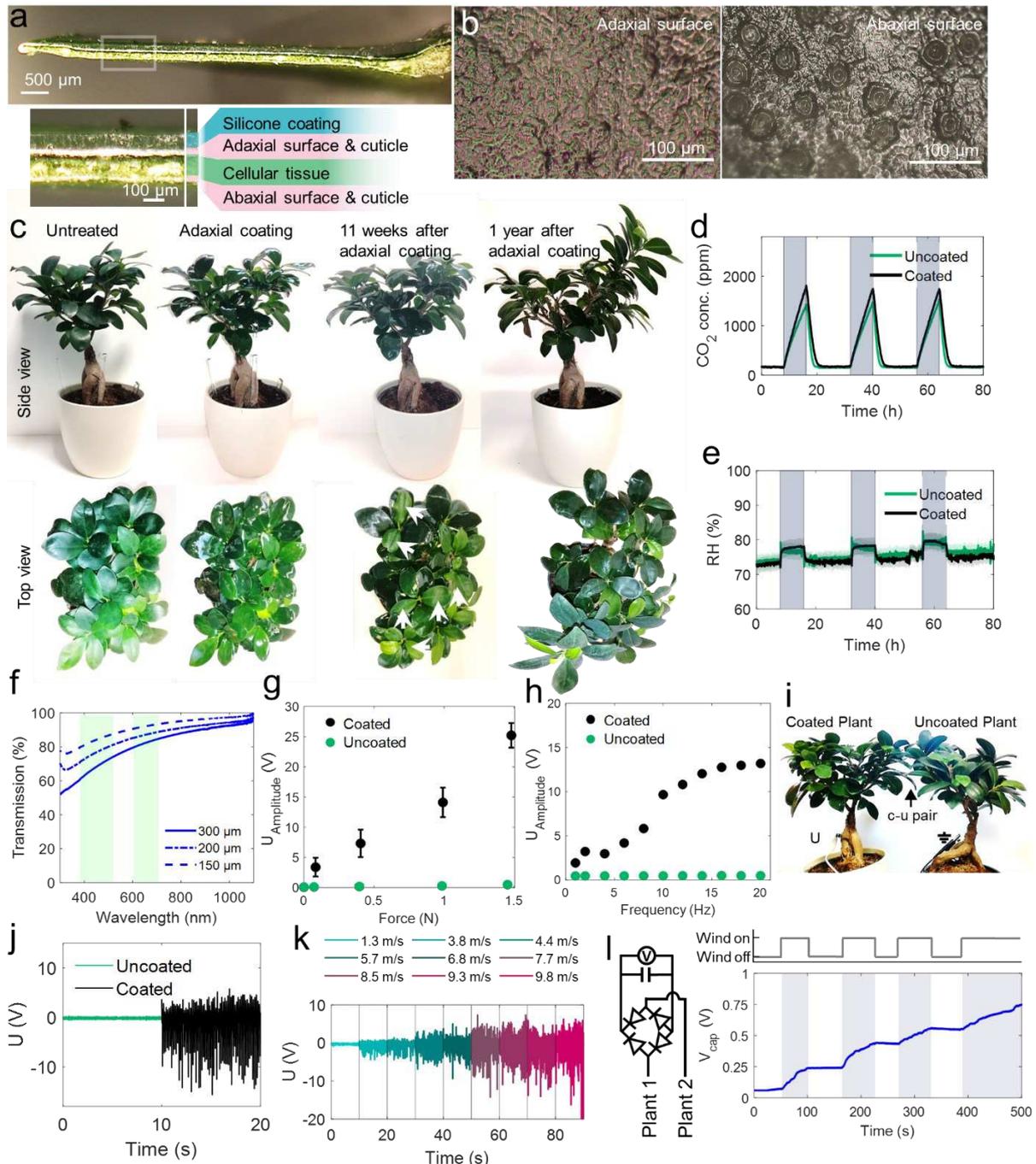
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67 **Fig 1. Overview and model of living plant structure-based multisource energy harvesting.** a) Inner
 68 cellular and vascular tissue are ionic conductors; the cuticle on the plant surface is a dielectric
 69 polymeric layer. When a leaf with epicuticular coating comes in contact with an uncoated leaf, contact
 70 electrification generates only considerable voltages U in the tissue if the dielectric material $M1$ and $M2$
 71 inhere a material pair that specifically enhances contact electrification, typically $M1 \neq M2$. b) Illustration
 72 of basic circuitry established by the plants in a wind and RF energy harvesting scenario. c) Circuit
 73 modelling reveals that during mechanical interaction of two leaves from different plants, voltages in
 74 the tissue build up only when R_{Soil} is sufficiently high. d) Signals of the two leaves cancel out when the
 75 leaves are on the same plant, due to too low tissue impedances (typically $\sim 0.1\text{-}1\text{ M}\Omega$).

76

77 We then selectively deposited thin epicuticular silicone coatings ($\sim 10\text{ mg/cm}^2$, $94 \pm 16\ \mu\text{m}$ thick) on
 78 model species *Ficus macrocarpa* (Fig. 2a) on the adaxial surface of leaves with less stomata compared
 79 to the abaxial surface (Fig. 2b) to reduce coatings effect on plant transpiration. We analyzed the plant's
 80 viability after coating the entire foliage by observing growth in a 1-year-period and by measuring
 81 whole-plant level CO_2 and H_2O transpiration rates during day-night cycles (Fig. 2c-e) revealing that
 82 transpiration and growth capabilities are maintained and that the epicuticular coating does not seem
 83 to affect plant health. This is also supported by the fact that the thin, soft, adaptive, and
 84 semipermeable coatings allow high light transmission at wavelength regimes essential for leaf
 85 photosynthesis (Fig. 2f). In addition, the coatings on mature leaves (which are fully developed) does

86 not give a substantial mechanical obstruction to further plant growth and development (see new leaf
87 and branch development in 1-year-growth-period Fig. 2c).
88 Fig. 2g and 2h show the strong increase in the voltage amplitudes at given impact force and frequency,
89 respectively after coating when two leaves of two *F. microcarpa* touch each other. Signals successfully
90 induced in the inner tissue were measured by a single pin-electrode in the stem at a distance of ~15
91 cm of the stimulated leaves. Voltage amplitudes up to 25 V, generated by one leaf pair are produced
92 by combination of coated and uncoated leaves (c-u pair) whereas the contact between uncoated-
93 uncoated leaves (u-u pair) show signals in the mV range (details in Extended Data Fig. 1a-c). The
94 experiment reveals a 450-times increase in the generated potential difference for c-u pairs compared
95 to u-u pairs. The current generated by a single c-u pair reaches an amplitude of 0.75 μ A (Extended Data
96 Fig. 1d). Fig. 2i shows an arrangement of two plants used to test voltage generation during air-
97 flow/wind-excitation. Therein a c-u and a u-u leaf pair were realized at the position where both plants
98 overlap and substantial voltages are obtained expectedly only from c-u pairs (Fig. 2j). Moreover, the
99 output voltage scales with the wind speed bearing a potential for an air-flow sensing capability (Fig.
100 2k). The contact of just two leaves in such a configuration can already charge a 10 μ F capacitor in wind-
101 susceptible manner (Fig. 2l).



103

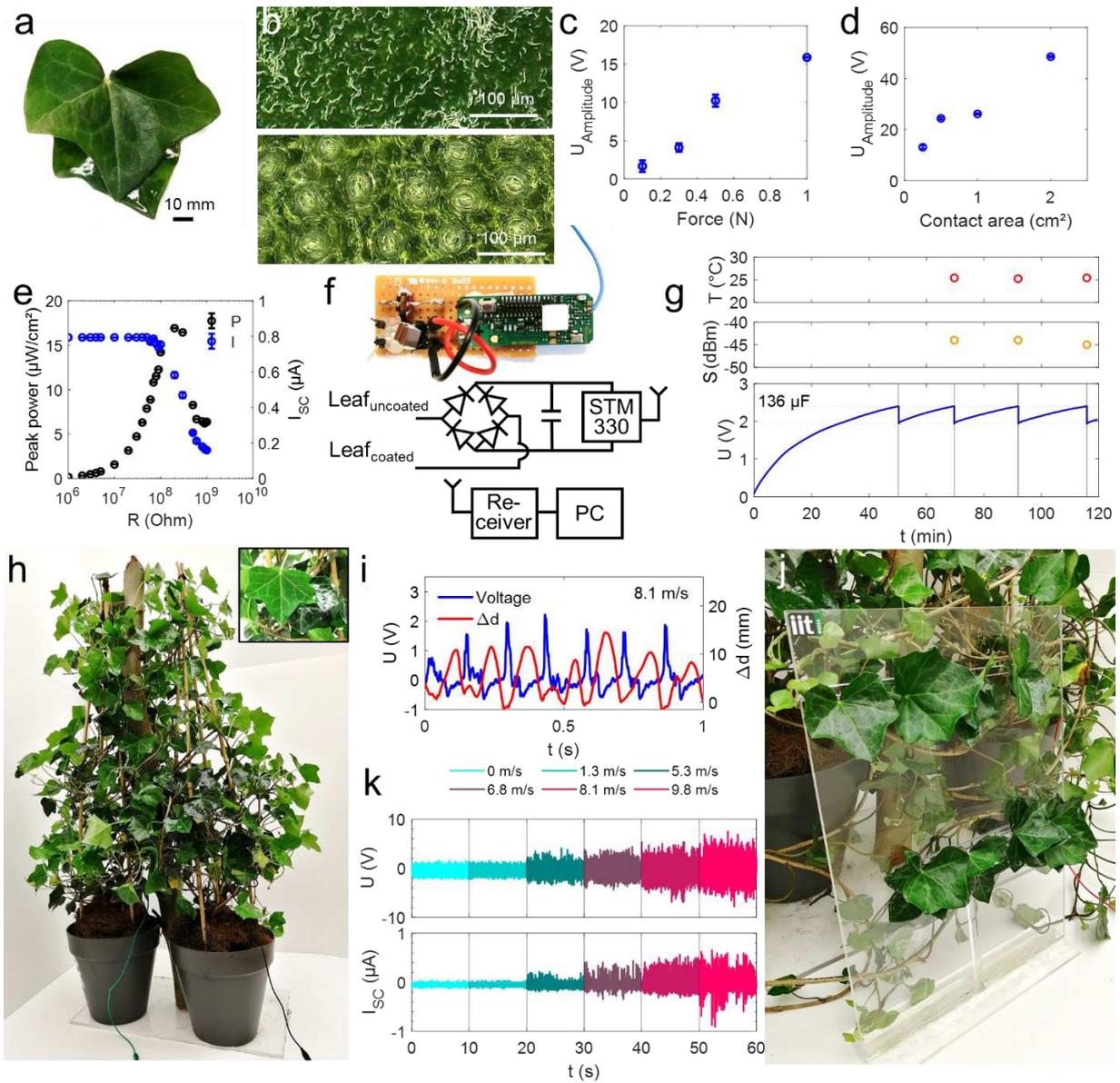
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105 **Fig 2. Leaf-epicuticular coating, influence on plant viability, and enhancement of mechanical energy**
 106 **harvesting.** a) Cross-section of *F. microcarpa* leaf with $\sim 100 \mu\text{m}$ epicuticular silicone rubber coating on
 107 adaxial surface. b) Microscopy images representing stomatal density on adaxial and abaxial leaf
 108 surface. c) One-year growth observation of a fully coated *F. microcarpa*. White arrows point to new
 109 leaves that developed within 11 weeks after coating growing further into new branches within 1 year.
 110 d) and e) CO_2 and H_2O transpiration (in RH%), respectively before and after epicuticular coating. f) Light
 111 transmission of epicuticular coatings, green bars highlight photosynthesis relevant wavelengths. g) and
 112 h) Enhancement of voltage generation after epicuticular coating as function of impact force (@ 10 Hz
 113 frequency), and of frequency (@ 1N impact force), respectively in u-u and c-u leaf pairs. i) Two *F.*

114 *microcarpa* (left, coated, right uncoated) in separate pots, overlapping leaves used for wind energy
115 harvesting. j) Air-flow induced voltage generation of the u-u and c-u *F. microcarpa* pair. k) Voltage
116 generation as function of windspeed in a c-u *F. microcarpa* pair. l) c-u *F. microcarpa* leaf pair-based
117 capacitor charging (10 μ F) with indicated circuit as function of wind source on-off switching.

118 For proving that the effect is species-transferable and to analyze a plant species that is especially
119 interesting for urban ecosystems realized by vertical plant growth and greening of buildings²⁵, we
120 modified the climber *Hedera helix* (ivy) with epicuticular coatings on multiple leaves of two
121 intertwining plants to obtain c-u pairs (Fig. 3a) and by coating again the adaxial leaf surfaces with less
122 stomata, Fig. 3b. The generated voltage amplitude of c-u pairs scales with the impact force as well as
123 the area reaching now even up to ~ 50 V for single leaves (Fig. 3c and 3d, respectively with 2 cm² contact
124 area and 1 N impact force). The power analysis of the system reveals a peak power at 17 μ W/cm² (at
125 1N stimulus and a load resistance of 200 M Ω), which are typical values achieved with plant-hybrid
126 systems^{1,5} and many common triboelectric and piezoelectric generators²⁶⁻²⁸ in particular at low impact
127 forces. This shows that the combination of the epicuticular coatings and the whole plant as a circuit is
128 competitive despite minimal fabrication effort and can even convert low forces ≤ 1 N into satisfactory
129 electrical energy – notwithstanding the expectedly relatively low mechanical-to-electrical energy
130 conversion efficiency at non-optimum conditions (5.6*10⁻⁵ %, for the c-u pair). Indeed, the energy
131 harvested from a single c-u pair is sufficient to supply a commercial temperature sensor with wireless
132 transceiver connected to the plant using the circuit in Fig. 3f. The charging curve of the 136 μ F capacitor
133 driving the sensor during c-u pair excitation (1 N, 30 Hz) is depicted in Fig. 3g along with the wirelessly
134 transmitted data and received signal strength.

135 The whole-plant *H. helix* (Fig. 3h) is also capable of converting wind energy into electricity. Fig. 3i shows
136 the correlation of the voltage signal with the distance variation Δd between two leaves in a c-u leaf
137 pair fluttering at a wind speed of ~ 8 m/s (Video 1 shows the fluttering motions of c-u pairs leading to
138 signal generation in *H. helix* and *F. microcarpa*). The data confirms that the transient contact-and-
139 release events are caused by the leaf oscillations leading to corresponding voltage signals. As analysis
140 showed that the output is force- and contact area-dependent, the system is more efficient, the higher
141 the kinetic energy is that is transferred to the leaf surface instead of being dissipated by mechanical
142 deformation of the leaf and the petiole. Thus, a supporting rigid substrate such as a wall on which the
143 plant climbs (a typical support for *H. helix*, Extended Data Fig. 3a) facilitates that more kinetic energy
144 translates into contact electrification (and not elastic deformation). We analyzed the wind-speed-
145 dependent voltage and current signals using a supporting panel (overview and characteristics of
146 different panel materials are given in Extended Data Fig. 3b, 3c). The panel (Fig 3j) holds eight c-u pairs
147 of two *H. helix* plants. Fig 3k shows that wind-generated voltage and current signals scale with
148 windspeed and reach amplitudes up to ~ 10 V and ~ 1 μ A, and thus 10 μ W peaks, respectively. Although
149 this is sufficient to drive low-power electronics, the power output of solely mechanical energy
150 conversion can be theoretically upscaled using more leaf-pairs due to the contact area-output
151 relationship and by achieving a more effective c-u contact as function of leaf orientations and support.
152 However, at still air and very low wind speeds, the system would not provide the same energy and
153 other effects occurring outdoor like wetting of the leaf surface (during rain periods) will affect the
154 signal transiently even if it recovers after leaf-drying (see effect of leaf-wetting on mechanical energy
155 conversion, Extended Data Fig. 4). Limitations of a single energy source could be overcome by realizing
156 multiple independent and complementary energy conversion modes in plants for different energy
157 sources.

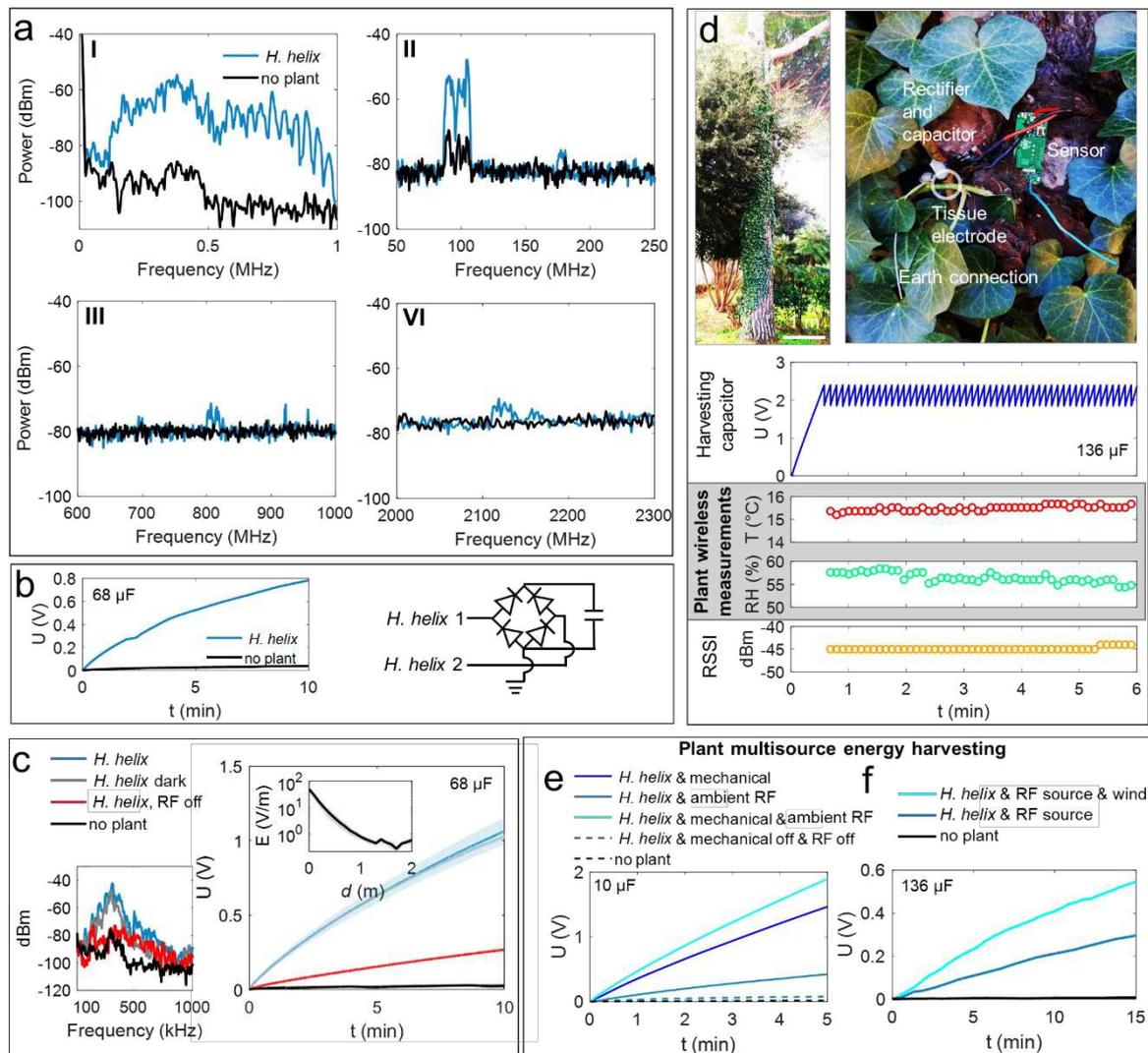


160 **Fig 3. Realization of mechanical energy harvesting in epicuticular coated climber *H. helix*.** a) Photograph of a *H. helix* c-u leaf pair. b) Microscopy images representing stomatal density adaxial on
 161 adaxial and abaxial leaf surface. c) and d) Voltage amplitude generated by a *H. helix* c-u leaf pair as
 162 function of impact force (@ contact area 0.25 cm²) and contact area (@ 1N impact force), respectively
 163 (10 Hz stimulus). e) *H. helix* c-u leaf pair peak power analysis as function of load of resistance. f) Circuit
 164 overview used in g) wirelessly transmitted temperature measurement data packets and signal strength
 165 of a c-u leaf pair powered wireless sensor (@1 N, 30 Hz mechanical stimulation). h) Typical
 166 arrangement for *H. helix* wind energy harvesting in which multiple c-u leaf pairs are realized from two
 167 separately potted plants. i) Correlation of voltage signal generated and distance of the two surfaces in
 168 a *H. helix* c-u leaf pair fluttering in air-flow. j) Voltage and short circuit current generated by eight c-u
 169 pairs under wind excitation. Unidirectional leaf pairs were realized by fixing two branches of the two
 170 *H. helix* on a support panel as shown in k) for exposure to wind.
 171

172 Indeed, a further opportunity for augmenting the overall power output arises, if the plant structure, a
 173 branched conductor with dielectric outer surface, would be suitable for RF energy harvesting and

174 plants were previously suggested for radio reception and transmission.^{29,30} We thus analyzed the
175 received spectrum using the *H. helix* as a receiving antenna in an outdoor environment with ambient
176 RF pollution (Fig. 4a). The power spectrum analysis shows that the plant receives signals at multiple
177 frequencies: 100 to 800 kHz, low and medium frequency radio communication; at 87-107 MHz, ultra-
178 high frequency FM broadcast radio stations; at ~800 MHz, likely related to Global System for Mobile
179 Communications (GSM); 2.1-2.2 GHz range, fourth generation (4G) broadband cellular network
180 showing broad range RF reception. We thus slightly modified the harvesting circuit by introducing an
181 earth connection at the rectifier providing a potential difference so that the plant can act as vertical
182 receiver of a Marconi-antenna (Fig. 4b). Indeed, the charging kinetics of a 68 μF capacitor with and
183 without connecting the circuit to two *H. helix* (height ~120 cm) suggests that the signals received by
184 the plant can be converted and stored without the need of any further modifications of the plant.
185

186 We then exposed the *H. helix* to a fluorescent lighting system acting as a controllable RF source (on-
187 off switching caused a transient peak received by the plant in the kHz range, likely caused by the ballast
188 emission of the fluorescent lighting system³¹) in a phytochamber (25 °C, 40-50 % RH). Characteristics
189 of the RF source in terms of electric field strength and emitted power (6.9 ± 2.3 dBm along plant z-axis)
190 are given in Extended Data Fig. 6a and 6b. Fig. 4c shows the charging kinetics of a 68 μF capacitor and
191 the main frequencies received by the plants. The maximum instantaneous power transfer under these
192 conditions were 250 nW at a matching load resistance of 10-30 M Ω and a maximum current of 300 nA
193 by considering the capacitor as the load. In addition, to exclude that the exposure to light/dark
194 conditions and circuit components such as shielded antenna cables for connecting the plant have an
195 effect, we measured the capacitor charging and frequency spectrum when *H. helix* was fully covered
196 with a lightproof cloth and of the bare circuit with all cables but without plants, respectively. Exposure
197 to darkness did not affect charging and processes related to photosynthetic activity expectedly do not
198 influence the plant-driven charge accumulation from RF energy. The capacitor charging without plant
199 is yet marginal confirming that the plant is the main receiving antenna. Indeed, obstructing ion mobility
200 and conduction by naturally drying the tissue eliminates the charging capability (Extended Data Fig.
201 5a). The Bode plots of the tissue impedance and phase shift analyzed up to a frequency of 1 MHz show
202 the typical behavior of electrolyte-based conductors (Extended Data Fig. 5b) signifying that tissue ion
203 motion is caused over a large frequency range. Ions for receiving RF signals are also used in ionic liquid-
204 and water-based antennas.³² Varying the distance of the *H. helix* from the RF source influences the
205 capacitor charging kinetics (Extended Data Fig. 6c) as the power and the field strength (Extended Data
206 Fig. 6a and 6b and inset in Fig. 4c) expectedly decrease with the distance from the source. Comparing
207 the emitted power of the RF source and the instantaneous power charging the capacitor $P_{cap,charging}$
208 provided by the plant suggests a specific efficiency of $2.2 \cdot 10^{-3}$ % in this experiment of the plant
209 converting the RF signal into electricity. The harvesting circuit operates at an efficiency of ~1%
210 comparing plant-received power and $P_{cap,charging}$. Even if the conversion efficiency is significantly
211 lower than for tuned RF harvesting systems³³, the simplicity of realization and marginal material
212 consumption in our case rises the overall sustainability.



213

214 **Fig. 4 Plant based RF energy harvesting and boosted multisource wind-RF energy harvesting.** a) and
 215 b) overview of the frequencies received by an *H. helix* acting as antenna outdoor (e.g., @100 MHz,
 216 center frequency of nearby radio emitter), circuit and charging curve of a 68 µF capacitor relative to
 217 these signals, respectively indicating potential to transduce RF radiation into electricity. c) Exposure of
 218 *H. helix* in dark and light conditions to a switchable RF source resulting in a received main frequency
 219 ~400 kHz-center when the RF source is on, when off, the peak diminishes. The capacitor charging
 220 curves (68 µF) show RF-source and plant-dependent energy harvesting by *H. helix*. The inset shows the
 221 electric field strength as function of distance from the RF source, energy harvesting was performed in
 222 ~1 m distance, further details in Extended Data Fig. 5. d) Demo of a plant-powered sensing and
 223 wireless data packet transmission using a modified commercial sensing system in an outdoor
 224 environment with a *H. helix* growing on a pine tree, charging of a 136 µF capacitor powering sensor
 225 and transceiver unit. The plant powers a humidity/temperature sensor and wireless data transmission,
 226 plant-powered measurements and transmission signal strengths are given. e) Multisource (mechanical
 227 and RF) energy harvesting with a c-u *H. helix* pair by selectively adding RF (environmental) or
 228 mechanical energy (controlled 1 N, 10 Hz stimulus) sources leads to increasing capacitor charging
 229 dynamics. f) Multisource wind and RF plant energy harvesting, wind speed ~8.1 m/s, RF, 400 kHz center
 230 frequency, (see spectrum analysis in c)), conversion by c-u *H. helix* pairs as described in Fig. 3 feeding
 231 a 136 µF capacitor. Combination of RF and wind leads to a 550%-increase in the energy output
 232 compared to RF as single source.

233 An interesting application scenario is exploiting the plants of urban vegetation for powering battery-
234 free environmental sensing. We thus modified a commercial sensor and wireless transceiver by the
235 plant-charging circuit shown in Fig. 4b as exclusive energy source and connected it to a *H. helix* growing
236 on a pine tree in the front yard of a multifamily residence in a suburb of Pisa, Italy, (Fig. 4d) using the
237 house's ground connection as potential difference. Fig. 4d shows the voltage over the 136 μF capacitor
238 powering the system. Indeed, the plant autonomously powers the sensor platform and the wireless
239 transmission telegrams with temperature and humidity data shown in Fig. 4d.

240 Each measurement requires $\sim 75 \mu\text{C}$ according to the related voltage drop and the average time
241 required to harvest these charges is about 6 seconds in this configuration. The 136 μF capacitor driving
242 the sensing unit is only powered when the plant is connected to the circuit with a species-dependent
243 charging behavior (Extended Data Fig. 7a-i). Analysis of the received signals, charging dynamics, and
244 spectrum analyses of the multiple species-received signals are given in Extended Data Fig. 7a-i
245 indicating that different species of existing vegetation are suitable to harvest energy from
246 electromagnetic noise and radiation at frequencies from the super low frequency mains radiation (50
247 Hz) to higher frequencies such as here a peak at 657 kHz related to a MW radio emitter in 8 km
248 distance. A high contribution of the energy harvested in the urban scenario is due to 50 Hz mains
249 radiation (99.9% of energy accumulated and about 0.1 % was related to other ambient RF pollution,
250 Extended Data Fig. 7j) rendering the system in particular suitable for energy harvesting nearby
251 buildings. The average instantaneous power output with the *H. helix* during the outdoor experiments
252 was 6.8 μW and 10.5 μW using a pine tree, respectively.

253 We then proved that both energy conversion modes (mechanical and RF) can be simultaneously used.
254 Therefore, we exploited a setup that enables to selectively switch between RF exposure and
255 mechanical excitation. A c-u leaf pair realized in two *H. helix* plants (30 cm height) was mechanically
256 stimulated at controlled frequency (10 Hz) by a linear actuator in a Faraday cage. Ambient RF exposure
257 was controlled by adding/removing the electromagnetic shielding. Fig. 4e shows capacitor charging
258 curves under different conditions. The results confirm that both energy sources can be independently
259 and simultaneously harvested. Moreover, when RF and mechanical stimulation are simultaneously
260 applied, the signals add up leading to faster capacitor charging using the same rectifying circuit. The
261 graph shows that the accumulated sum charges of both sources corresponds to the difference
262 obtained when both sources are used independently. The overall enhancement in the energy
263 accumulated by using the plant to convert the combination of mechanical and ambient RF energy in
264 this experiment corresponds to an 11-times (or 1100%) increase compared to only RF energy
265 harvesting. Likewise, a strong enhancement was also observed when *H. helix* (120 cm) was exposed to
266 wind and RF radiation. Fig 4f shows charging dynamics of a 136 μF capacitor by the *H. helix* exposed to
267 RF emitted by the fluorescent lighting system of the phytochamber and additional air flow stimulating
268 c-u pairs. The data shows an enhancement in the accumulated energy of 550% compared to RF-only
269 harvesting.

270

271 In summary, we have presented a multisource energy harvesting approach by exploiting intrinsic
272 properties of plants. The epicuticular coatings on the leaf surfaces strongly enhance mechanical and
273 wind energy conversion leading to a cable-free plant-based wind generators. In addition, using plant
274 as receiving antenna harvesting multiband RF energy led to up to 1100 % enhancements in the overall
275 energy accumulation. In this configuration, a common *H. helix* with cuticle coating integrates into a
276 fully flexible battery-free system that can harvest wind and RF energy simultaneously in an easily

277 realizable and highly sustainable manner for autonomously powering commercial sensing platforms
278 for environmental monitoring. In comparison with artificial energy harvesters, plants are the most
279 sustainable and eco-friendly approach with excellent overall power balance that enables supplying
280 commercial sensors without great modification of the plant itself.

281

282 **Methods**

283 **Plant species**

284 *F. macrocarpa* (height $h = 25$ cm), large *H. helix* ($h=120$ cm), small *H. helix* ($h=35$ cm) were purchased at
285 a local plant nursery. The plants were kept in a phytochamber controlled at 50-60% relative humidity
286 (RH), a temperature of 25°C, and lighting in a 16 hours day and 8 hours night cycle, watered twice per
287 week, and fertilized once per month with a green plant fertilizer. Outdoor experiments with common
288 urban vegetation, i.e., *H. helix*, *P. pinea*, *Y. elephantipes*, and *P. peltatum* were performed during the
289 period of May 2020 to February 2021 in the front yard of a multifamily residence in a suburb of Pisa,
290 Italy. *H. helix* ($h \sim 8$ m) grew naturally on the stem of a ~ 15 m high *P. pinea* tree and *Y. elephantipes*
291 ($h=2.5$ m) grew in a distance of about 4 m from the *P. pinea*. *P. peltatum* ($h=25$ cm) was potted in
292 isolated PVC pottery fixed on the balcony balustrade of the residence in a height of 7 m.

293 **Materials and procedure for epicuticular coating**

294 The adaxial surface of leaves attached to the plant was coated with a low viscous, translucent silicone
295 elastomer prepolymer (Ecoflex 0030, Smooth-On Inc.) using a brush leading to a thin layer on the
296 leaves and excess precursors were left to drop off the leaf. The coated plants were left to cure at 25°C,
297 60% RH for 24 hours resulting in epicuticular coatings of ~ 10 mg/cm² polymer per leaf area and a
298 thickness of ~ 100 μ m.

299 **Pre- and post-coating transpiration analysis**

300 Whole plant transpiration analysis pre- and post-coating was performed in a transparent, gas tight
301 chamber equipped with internal CO₂ and humidity sensors (SCD30, Sensirion AG, Switzerland, sampling
302 rate 2s) which was placed in a grow room with a 16 hours day and 8 hours night lighting cycle. External
303 CO₂ and humidity sensors (SCD30, Sensirion AG, Switzerland, sampling rate 2s) served as reference.

304 **Setup for controlled mechanical and air-flow stimulation of c-u and u-u leaf pairs**

305 To apply controlled mechanical stimuli between c-u and u-u leaf pairs, a previously described setup
306 consisting of a linear actuator (4 Ω HiFi fullrange driver, diameter 8 cm, model FRS, Visaton, Germany)
307 driven by a monolithic power amplifier (OPA549T, Burr-Brown, USA) controlled by a function generator
308 (GFG-8217A, GW Instek, Taiwan) was used applying a vertical motion selecting waveform, frequency,
309 amplitude, and offset.¹ A load cell (LRF400, FUTEK Advanced Sensor Technology, Inc., USA) was used
310 to record the impact force during the multicycle contact-release stimuli and different impact forces
311 were adjusted by lowering or increasing the distance between the leaf pairs during stimulation using
312 a motorized stage in steps of 10 μ m (DC-3K, Controller MS 314, Mäzrhäuser GmbH & Co. KG, Germany).
313 The measurements were conducted in a Faraday cage under ambient conditions (temperature typically
314 22 °C and 50 % RH). To simulate wind, an air flow was created by a brushless cooling fan with an outlet
315 diameter of 4 cm in a distance of about 40 cm from the leaf pairs under investigation. Air flow was

316 controlled by adjusting the fan's supply voltage and resulting wind speeds were measured using a using
317 a hot wire anemometer (405i, Testo SE & Co. KGaA, Germany) at a distance of ~2 cm in front of the
318 leaf.

319 **RF sources and controlled exposure**

320 During outdoor experiments, the plants were exposed to normal ambient RF radiation from, e.g., radio
321 stations, building supplies, telecommunication etc. For in depth analysis of RF harvesting, the plants
322 were exposed to a controllable, on/off-switchable RF source constituted by the fluorescent lighting
323 system in the plant grow room consisting of 128 fluorescent lamps (MASTER TL5 HO 54W/840, Philips,
324 The Netherlands) that generated a ~390 kHz center frequency RF signal received by the plants during
325 the experiments when turned on. The generated electric field was analyzed in detail in terms of field
326 strength and radiated power as function of distance from the source (Extended Data Fig. 5). Faraday
327 caging made of plain square weave copper mesh with a density of 6.3 strands per cm (PSY406,
328 Thorlabs, Germany) was used to shield RF radiation.

329 **Voltage and current measurements**

330 Gold coated metal pin electrodes (0.2 mm) were inserted into the plant tissue for electrical
331 measurements (at the petiole for single leaves and in the stem for whole plants). Short circuit currents
332 were measured using a high input impedance electrometer (6517B, Keithley, USA) and voltages with
333 an oscilloscope (MSO7014A, Agilent Technologies, USA) with a passive 100 M Ω input impedance probe
334 (TT-HV 150, Testec GmbH, Germany). Voltages over capacitors were recorded either by a data
335 acquisition hardware (USB-6216, National Instruments, USA) or the electrometer (6517B, Keithley,
336 USA). The plants were connected using coaxial cables (SMA RG142U, RS PRO, UK) to avoid interference
337 of the cables on data acquisition.

338 **Spectrum analysis**

339 Spectrum analysis was performed using a spectrum and network analyzer with a frequency range from
340 9 kHz to 3.2 GHz (SVA1032X, Siglent Technologies, Germany). The plants were connected using coaxial
341 cables (SMA RG142U, RS PRO, UK) by connecting the central pin to the pin electrode penetrating the
342 plant tissue at the base of the stem.

343 **Electric field analysis**

344 Electric field strength and power was measured using a laser-powered, high-speed, low-noise 3D
345 electric field probe operating in a frequency range from 10 Hz - 8.2 GHz (LS Probe 1.2, LUMILOOP,
346 GmbH, Germany).

347 **Impedance spectroscopy**

348 Impedance spectroscopy was performed in freshly cut branches of *H. helix* applying a 1 V bias between
349 two pin electrodes inserted in the inner tissue at the indicated distances and frequencies using the
350 precision LCR Meter (E4980A, Keysight Technologies, USA).

351 **Energy harvesting circuits, sensing and wireless data transmission**

352 The components for assembling the energy harvesting, sensing and data transmission circuits were
353 low leakage diodes (BAS416, Nexperia, The Netherlands), ceramic capacitors (Taiyo Yuden Co. LTD.,

354 Japan) with indicated capacitances, and the temperature and humidity sensing and 868 MHz RF
 355 transmitter module (STM 330 & HSM100, EnOcean GmbH, Germany) of which the solar cell, battery
 356 and capacitor was removed and replaced with the plants using the indicated circuits for energy
 357 harvesting, sensing, and data transmission. The plants were typically connected using coaxial cables
 358 (SMA RG142U, RS PRO, UK) by connecting the central pin to the pin electrode penetrating the plant
 359 tissue at the base of the stem.

360 **Simulation of multiple leaf energy harvesting circuit**

361 Circuit simulation to estimate requirements for electrical insulation between two leaves to obtain a
 362 positive power balance during energy harvesting was done in Matlab/Simulink (Version R2019b) using
 363 the circuit depicted in Fig. 1 and assuming a tissue resistance of 100 kΩ and a 10 V, 5 Hz sinusoidal
 364 alternating voltage signal generated by the leaves. The analysis of the sum signal of multiple
 365 overlapping signals randomly generated by multiple leaves was done in Matlab using a code that builds
 366 the cumulative sum of a given number of sinusoidal functions of arbitrary phase and amplitude
 367 (Extended Data Fig 2).

368 **Further instrumentation and methods**

369 Leaf surfaces and manually cut cross-sections of leaves with epicuticular coatings were imaged with a
 370 digital microscope (KH-8700, Hirox, USA). Transmission spectra of epicuticular coatings were measured
 371 in a UV-Vis spectrophotometer (Lambda 45, Perkin Elmer, USA). The *H. helix* support panel was cut
 372 from 5 mm PMMA sheets using a laser cutter (VersaLaser VLS2.30, Universal Laser Systems, Austria).

373 **Plant's mechanical energy conversion efficiency**

374 To estimate the efficiency to convert mechanical energy applied to a c-u leaf pair $E_{mech,in}$ into
 375 electrical energy E_{out} after epicuticular coating, we analyzed the instantaneous conversion
 376 efficiency $n_{M,overall}$ of the c-u leaf contact as follows, equation (1)

$$377 \quad n_{M,overall}(\%) = \frac{E_{out}}{E_{mech,in}} 100 = \frac{\int_{t_{c,on}}^{t_{c,off}} I(t)^2 R_L dt}{mgh} 100 \quad (1)$$

378 where I is the current produced by the c-u leaf pair, R_L is the load resistance (10 MΩ), the potential
 379 energy $E_{mech,in} = mgh$, where m is the mass of a weight (here 7 g) with the dimension of 1 cm² onto
 380 which an uncoated leaf was fixed, that was dropped from a fixed height h (1 cm) on to a coated leaf
 381 supported by a rigid surface, and g is the gravitational acceleration. Currents across the two leaves
 382 connected through R_L during the current peak time interval from $t_{c,on}$ to $t_{c,off}$ measured by an
 383 electrometer were analyzed.

384 **Analysis of capacitor charging dynamics by plant converting environmental RF energy**

385 To estimate the efficiency n_{RF} of the plants charging the capacitor by converting RF energy at the
 386 specific given conditions, we considered the power balance between the RF input power $P_{RF,in}$ and
 387 the maximal power transfer to a load (capacitor) considering the global maximum of the instantaneous
 388 power charging the capacitor $P_{cap,charging} = \frac{C\Delta V^2}{2\Delta t}$ using the equation (2)

$$389 \quad n_{RF,overall}(\%) = \frac{P_{cap,charging}}{P_{RF,in}} 100 \quad (2)$$

390 where C is the capacitance, t is the time after which V over the capacitor was reached, and $P_{RF,in} =$
 391 $\sqrt{P_x^2 + P_y^2 + P_z^2}$ where P_x, P_y, P_z are the x-, y-, and z-components of the electric field power averaged
 392 over the full plant height in z direction, measured in the vicinity of the plant by an electric field probe.

393 The short circuit current related to capacitor charging was calculated by equation (3) for $t \rightarrow 0$ and
 394 capacitor initially discharged.

$$395 \quad I_{SC,cap} = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} C \frac{dV}{dt}; V_{(0)} = 0 \quad (3)$$

396 and the load equivalent was estimated by equation (4)

$$397 \quad R_e = \frac{\Delta V}{\Delta I} \quad (4)$$

398 To determine the load at which the maximal instantaneous power $P_{cap,charging}$ was transferred.

399 To estimate the conversion efficiency of the RF harvesting circuit $n_{circuit}$ under the specific conditions
 400 of the experiment, the power balance between and the maximal power transfer to the load (capacitor)
 401 considering the global maximum of the instantaneous power charging the capacitor $P_{cap,charging}$ and
 402 the power received by the plant, P_{SA} , was considered, equation (5)

$$403 \quad n_{circuit}(\%) = \frac{P_{cap,charging}}{P_{SA}} 100 \quad (5)$$

404 Here, P_{SA} is the average power of RF signals received by the plant with RF source turned on. The power
 405 of RF signals received by plant was measured by the spectrum analyzer.

406 **Analysis of increase of energy harvested by plant multimodal energy harvesting**

407 A factor $f_{E,increase}$ representing the energy rise by multimodal (RF + mechanical/wind) energy
 408 harvesting compared to single mode harvesting was calculated by (6):

$$409 \quad f_{E,increase} = \frac{\Delta E_{multimode}}{\Delta E_{single mode}} = \frac{\frac{1}{2} C \Delta V_{WRF}^2}{\frac{1}{2} C \Delta V_S^2} \quad (6)$$

410 where $V_{W,RF}$ is the voltage over capacitor harvested by wind and RF stimuli and V_S is the voltage over
 411 the capacitor when a single energy source (RF or mechanical) is converted by the plant into electrical
 412 energy. The variation of $E_{single mode}$ and $E_{multimode}$ during 10 min capacitor charging (in intervals of
 413 30 ms) have been considered.

414 **Charges required for sensing and wireless transmission cycle**

415 In order to estimate the charges required for a measurement cycle Q_{meas} (charge required for sensing
 416 the humidity and temperature and wirelessly transmitting the data to the receiver), the variation in
 417 the voltage $V_{cap,senor}$ across the capacitor with capacitance C during a measurement cycle was
 418 analyzed in the corresponding time interval using equation (7):

$$419 \quad Q_{meas} = C(V(t_1) - V(t_2)) \quad (7)$$

420 Where t_1 and t_2 are the timepoints of begin and end of the measurement cycle, respectively.

421 **Statistical methods**

422 Averages and standard deviations of typically five measurements are reported. Analysis with
423 controlled mechanical stimulation are averages and standard deviations of forty to sixty tests per
424 condition. The data was analyzed in Matlab (Version 2019b).

425 **Data availability**

426 The data supporting the findings of this study are available from the corresponding authors on
427 reasonable request. (additional publication in an online repository before publication planned).

428 **Acknowledgements**

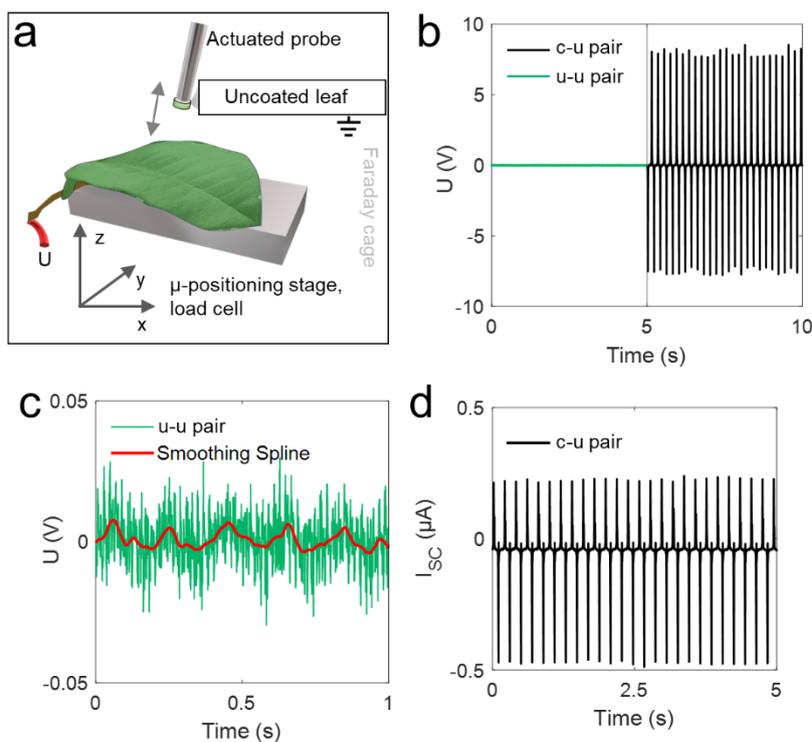
429 This work was funded by the project GrowBot, the European Union's Horizon 2020 Research and
430 Innovation Programme under Grant Agreement No. 824074.

431 **Author contributions**

432 F.M. conceived and developed the idea, performed the experiments, and wrote the manuscript. F.M.,
433 A.M., and B.M. designed experiments. F.M., A.M., F. V., G.Z., and M.C. analyzed the data and wrote
434 the manuscript. F.M. wrote the manuscript with contributions of all authors. All authors contributed
435 equally in revising the manuscript.

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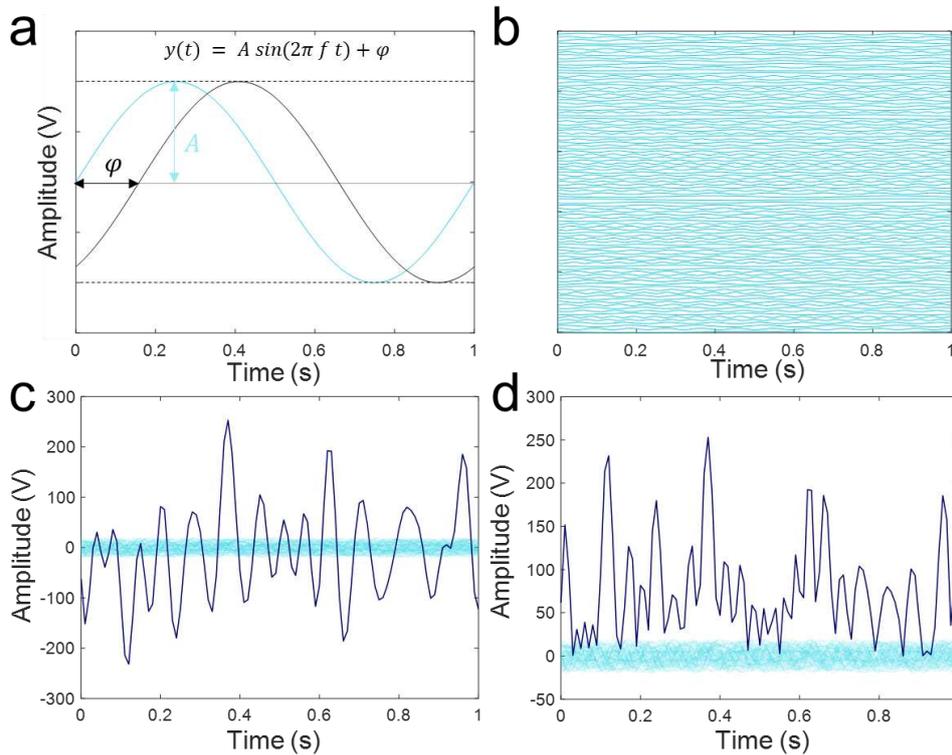
437 **Extended Data**



438

439 **Extended Data Fig 1. Mechanical energy conversion by c-u leaf pairs.** a) Schematic of the setup for
440 applying controlled mechanical stimuli on a leaf using a circular section of an uncoated leaf to establish
441 u-u and c-u pairs. b) Alternating voltage signals generated by a c-u *F. microcarpa* pair @ 5 Hz, 1 N

442 stimulus showing significant enhancement of the c-u pair after epicuticular coating. c) Zoom-in of the
 443 voltage signal generated by the u-u pair with an amplitude of ~ 45 mV. The smoothing spline reveals
 444 the 5 Hz stimulus signal. The amplitude of the c-u pair is thus ~ 450 times higher as achieved by the u-
 445 u pair. d) Short circuit current generated by a c-u *F. microcarpa* pair @ 5 Hz, 1 N stimulus.

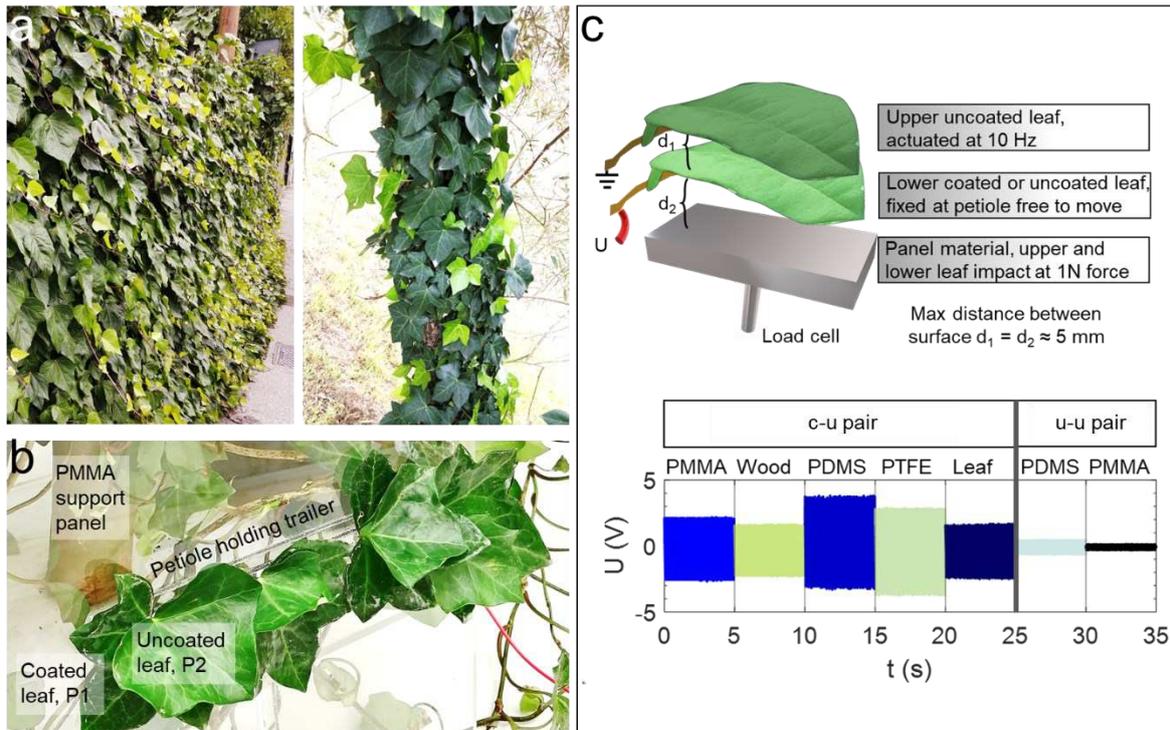


446

447 **Extended Data Fig 2. Analysis of the sum signal of multiple alternating sinusoidal signals**
 448 **representative for a scenario in which multiple leaves simultaneously convert mechanical contacts**
 449 **into electricity.** a) and b) 100 sinusoidal signals with random amplitude A , frequency f , and phase shift
 450 φ (in the limits of $A = 1$ to 10 V, $f = 1$ to 20 Hz, and $\varphi = 0$ to 0.05π , respectively) were generated. c)
 451 and d) show the direct and “rectified” sum signal (dark blue curves), respectively of the 100 input
 452 curves (light blue) indicating that the overlapping signals from multiple leaves may sum up leading to
 453 voltage spikes that can be more than 10 times larger than the maximal amplitude of a single leaf.

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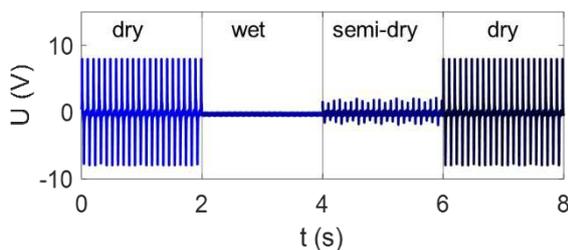


456

457 **Extended Data Fig 3. Influence of climber *H. helix*' support material on the mechanical energy**
 458 **conversion.** a) *H. helix* typically grows and climbs on a rigid support such as a wall or tree leading to
 459 multiple overlapping leaves from several branches. The support also introduces a barrier for
 460 mechanical motion of the leaf in the wind reducing the degrees of freedom for elastic deformation and
 461 increasing mechanical contact for energy conversion between the overlapping leaves. b) We tested
 462 how the material used for support influences the voltage generation using the depicted arrangement
 463 in which an uncoated leaf was actuated onto a coated/uncoated leaf kept at a given distance from a
 464 support material. The graph below shows the generated voltage signals (10 Hz stimulus) using PMMA,
 465 wood, PDMS, PTFE, and another leaf as support material when analyzing c-u and u-u pairs. PDMS and
 466 PTFE enhance the signal which can be explained by an additional contact charging due to contact of
 467 the leaf with this surface, PMMA, wood, and leaf as a substrate does not significantly change the signal.
 468 Using the u-u pair, the signal is expectedly lower and only slightly increased by the substrate and the
 469 main contribution for generated voltage is the c-u and u-u leaf pair. c) Depicts the PMMA support panel
 470 used for wind-exposure experiments in which multiple leaves of two branches of two *H. helix* plants
 471 (one coated, one uncoated) can be fixed at the petiole creating a c-u pair free to move in the wind
 472 while being connected to the main plant and supported by the PMMA panel.

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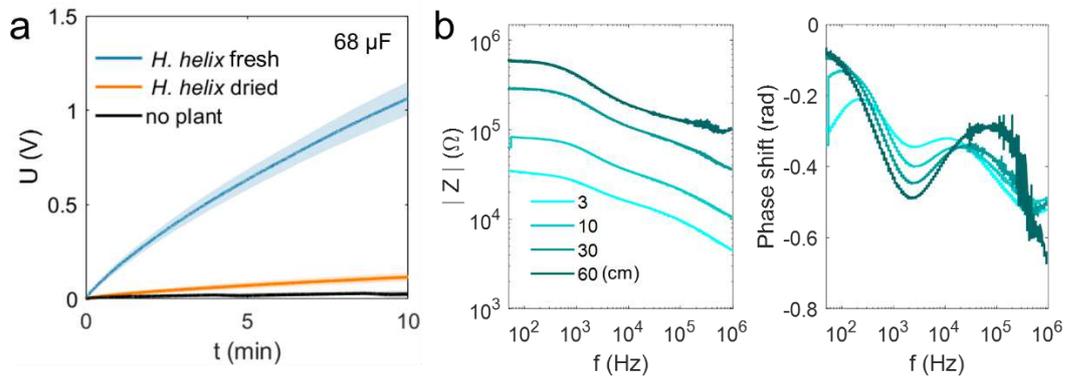
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476 **Extended Data Fig 4. Influence of leaf-wetting on c-u leaf pair energy conversion.** A *H. helix* c-u leaf
 477 pair was exposed to a 10 Hz mechanical stimulus and voltage amplitude is recorded before and after
 478 wetting by water spraying. Wetting expectedly strongly reduces contact electrification and obtained
 479 voltage amplitudes. However, the signal recovers when the leaves dry again.

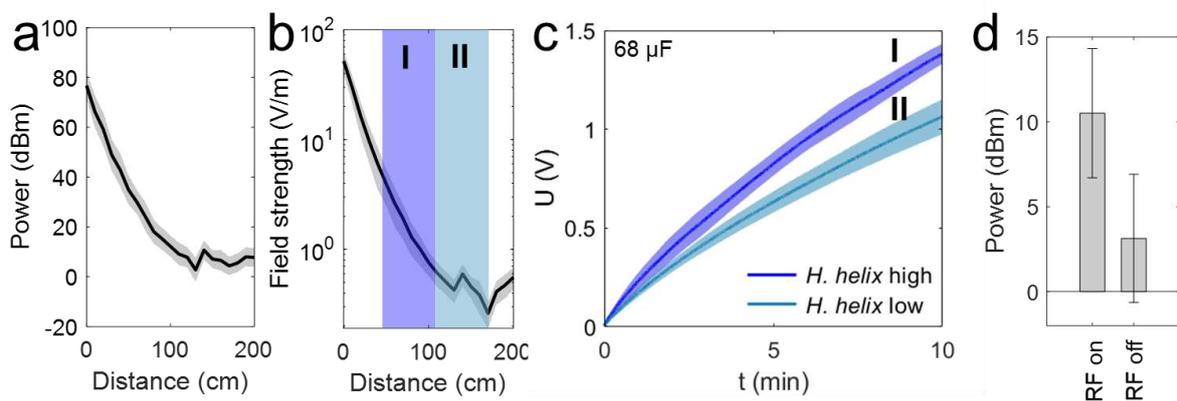
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482 **Extended Data Fig 5. Effect of ion conduction obstruction by tissue drying on energy harvesting and**
 483 **impedance analysis.** a) Influence of the *H. helix* water content on RF energy conversion and capacitor
 484 charging. Naturally drying the tissue (by omitting watering for 4 weeks, orange curve) obstructs ion
 485 conduction and results in an almost complete loss of charging compared to the fresh *H. helix* (blue
 486 curve) indicating that tissue water content and related ion mobility in living plants is expectedly
 487 essential for RF energy conversion and harvesting. b) Bode plots of impedance $|Z|$ and phase shift of
 488 a *H. helix* branch (diameter ~ 5 mm) as function of the length given in cm.

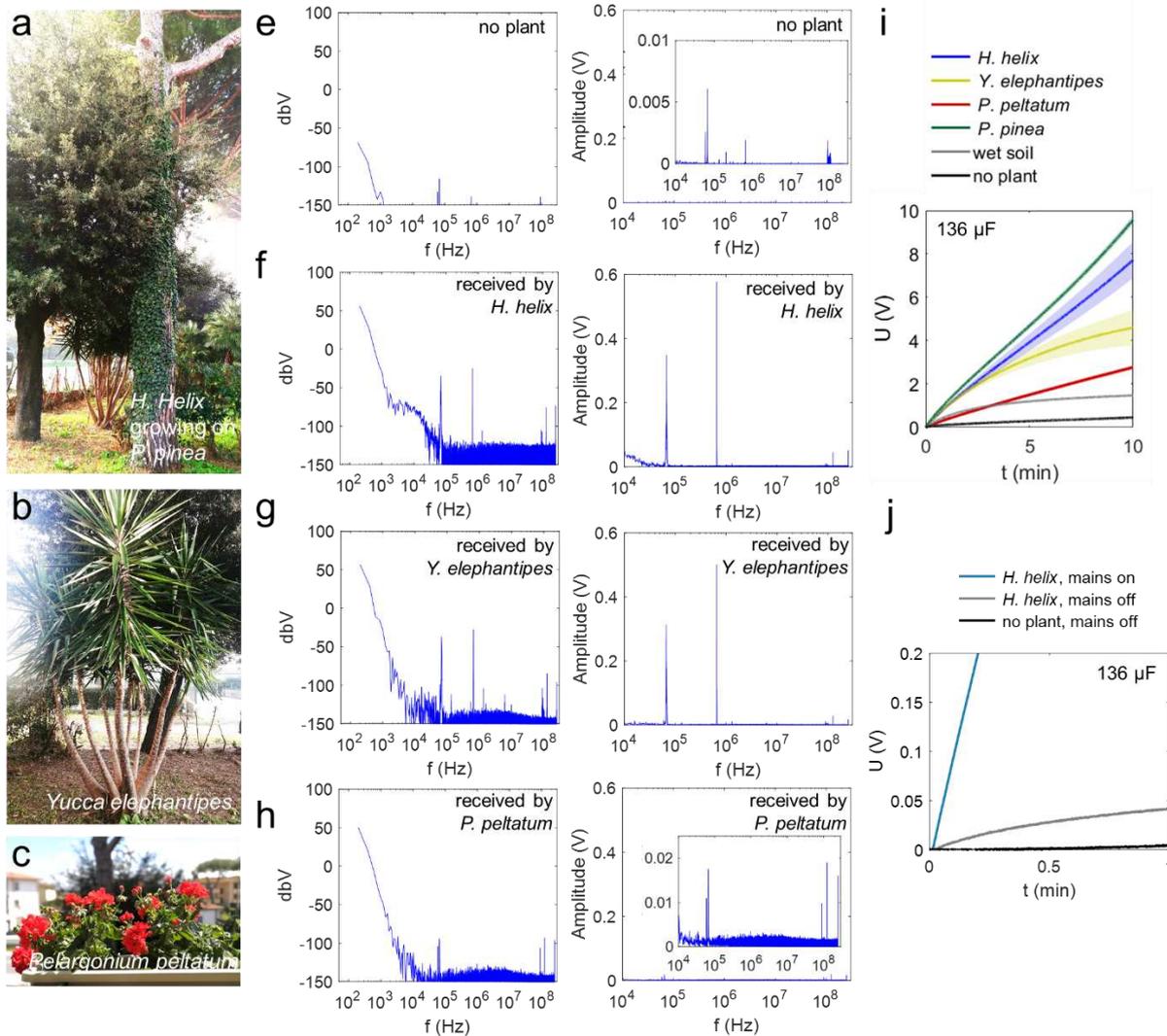
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491 **Extended Data Fig 6. Electric field characteristics and field strength-dependent energy harvesting**
 492 **using *H. helix*.** a) and b) power and field strength as function of distance of RF source. c) 68 μF capacitor
 493 charging with *H. helix* when placed in different distances from the RF source corresponding to the blue
 494 (I.) and green (II.) area in b). d) Difference in the average power of the electric field measured when RF
 495 source (fluorescent lighting system) is switched on/off.

496



497

498 **Extended Data Fig 7. Application scenario: Signals received during plant-based RF energy harvesting**
 499 **in an urban outdoor environment.** a) to c) images of the different species used for energy harvesting
 500 in a front garden and on a balcony of a multifamily residence. e) to h) Hanning-windowed frequency
 501 spectrum analysis (dbV, full range, left; V, >10 kHz, right) of voltage signals received by different plants
 502 (*H. helix*, *Y. elephantipes*, and *P. peltatum*). The house' ground was used as reference point/potential
 503 difference. Insets are zoom-ins into smaller peaks of the spectrum. Plants strongly increase signal
 504 reception at multiple frequencies starting from super low mains noise. Spectrum analysis of *H. helix*
 505 and *Y. elephantipes* shows among other frequencies also signals related to a nearby 657 kHz MW radio
 506 emitter (8 km distance). i) Plant-dependent charging dynamics of a 136 μF capacitor. Wet soil
 507 (electrode inserted 20 cm) and no plant, respectively are plotted as reference. *P. pinea* results in
 508 highest instantaneously transferred power of $\sim 10 \mu\text{W}$ and *H. helix* in $6.8 \mu\text{W}$, *P. peltatum* in $0.8 \mu\text{W}$
 509 showing a plant-dependent behavior likely due to plant size and branching that forms the receiving
 510 antenna. j) Analysis of 136 μF capacitor charging dynamics by *H. helix* when the mains circuit of the
 511 near-by multifamily residence is turned off, revealing that the energy output is strongly affected by the
 512 building mains.

513

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Figures

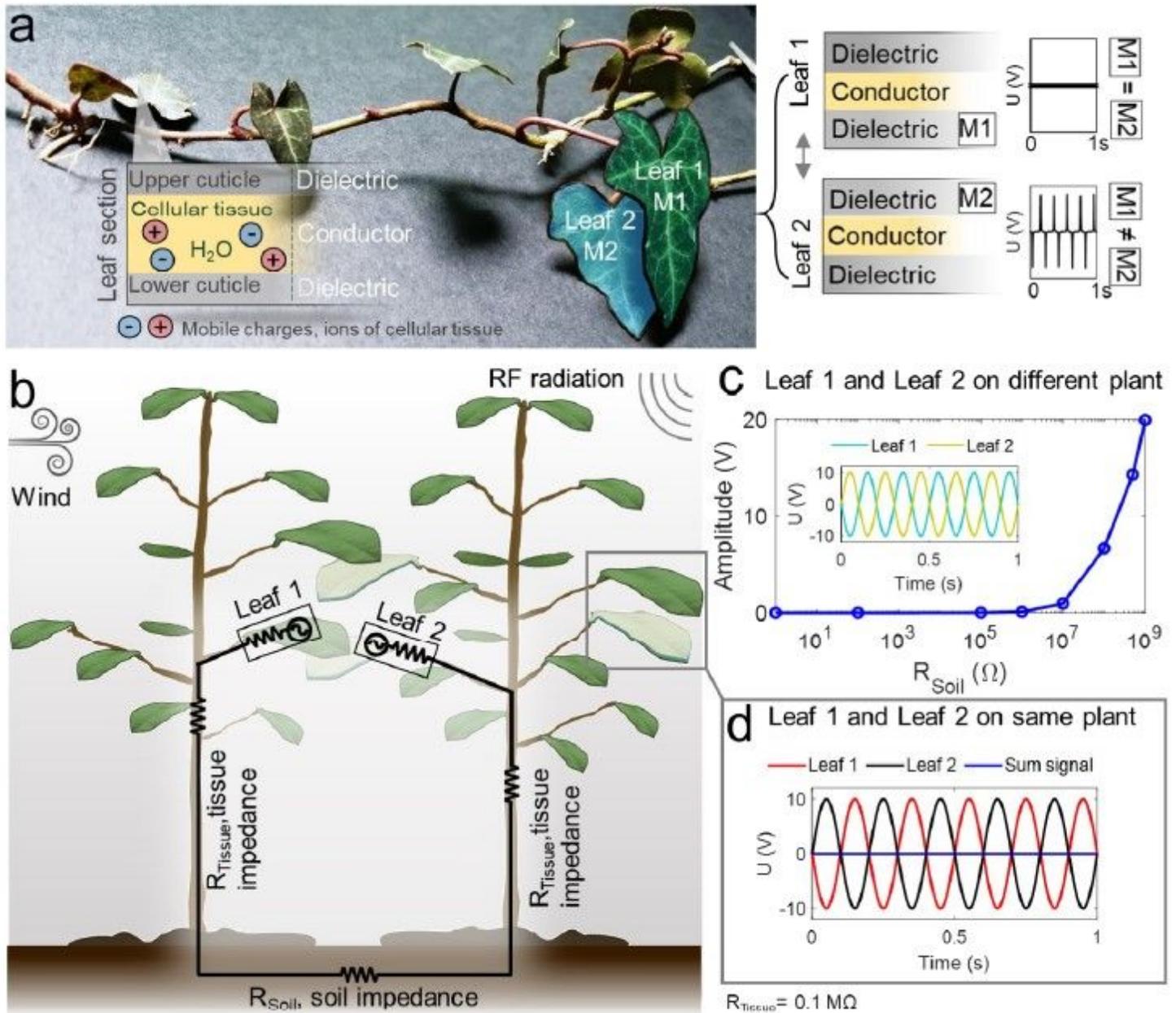


Figure 1

Overview and model of living plant structure-based multisource energy harvesting. a) Inner cellular and vascular tissue are ionic conductors; the cuticle on the plant surface is a dielectric polymeric layer. When a leaf with epicuticular coating comes in contact with an uncoated leaf, contact electrification generates only considerable voltages U in the tissue if the dielectric material $M1$ and $M2$ inhere a material pair that specifically enhances contact electrification, typically $M1 \neq M2$. b) Illustration of basic circuitry established by the plants in a wind and RF energy harvesting scenario. c) Circuit modelling reveals that during mechanical interaction of two leaves from different plants, voltages in the tissue build up only when R_{soil}

is sufficiently high. d) Signals of the two leaves cancel out when the leaves are on the same plant, due to too low tissue impedances (typically $\sim 0.1\text{-}1\text{ M}\Omega$).

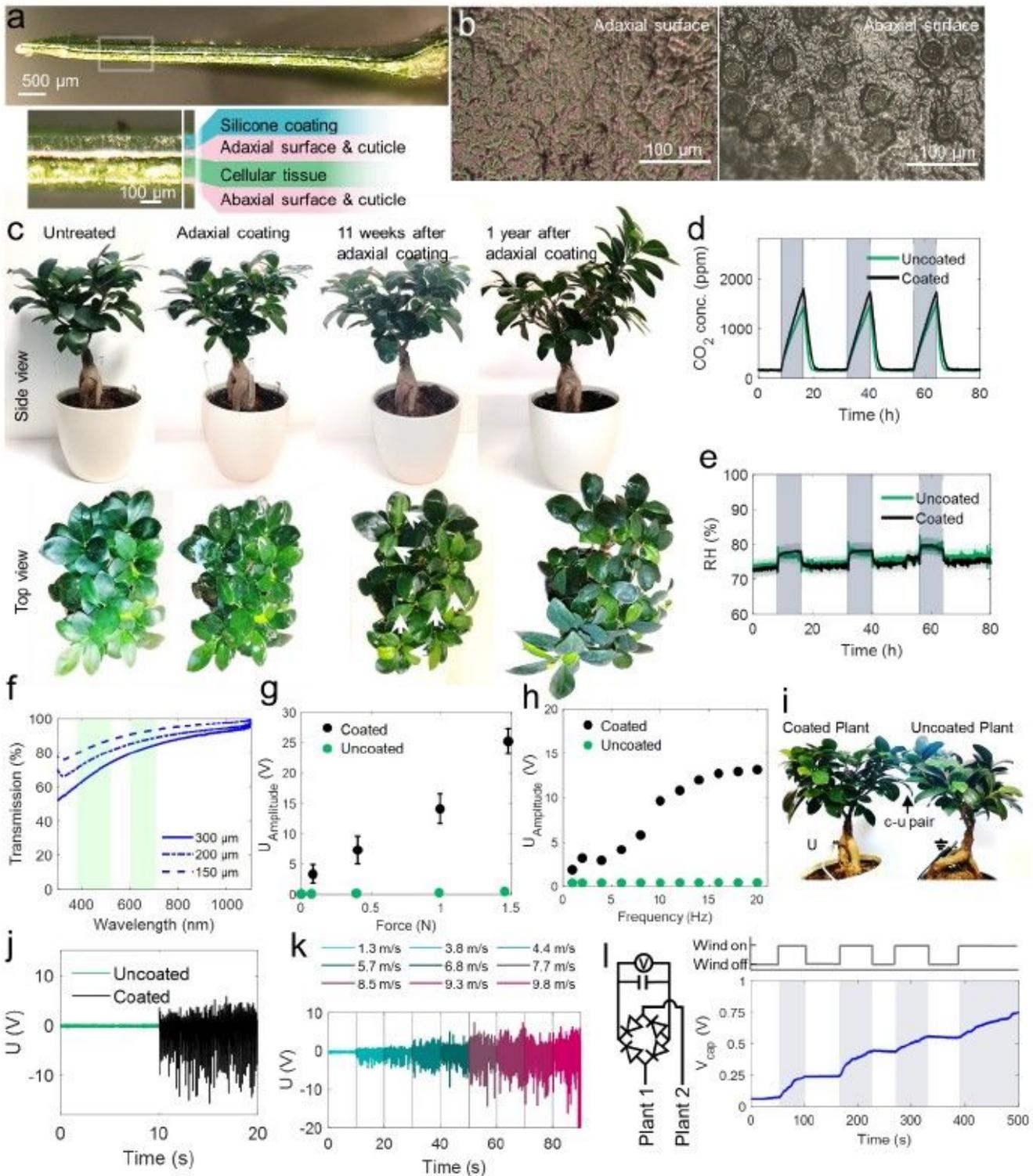


Figure 2

Leaf-epicuticular coating, influence on plant viability, and enhancement of mechanical energy harvesting. a) Cross-section of *F. microcarpa* leaf with $\sim 100\ \mu\text{m}$ epicuticular silicone rubber coating on adaxial surface. b) Microscopy images representing stomatal density on adaxial and abaxial leaf surface. c) One-

year growth observation of a fully coated *F. microcarpa*. White arrows point to new leaves that developed within 11 weeks after coating growing further into new branches within 1 year. d) and e) CO₂ and H₂O transpiration (in RH%), respectively before and after epicuticular coating. f) Light transmission of epicuticular coatings, green bars highlight photosynthesis relevant wavelengths. g) and h) Enhancement of voltage generation after epicuticular coating as function of impact force (@ 10 Hz frequency), and of frequency (@ 1 N impact force), respectively in u-u and c-u leaf pairs. i) Two *F. microcarpa* (left, coated, right uncoated) in separate pots, overlapping leaves used for wind energy harvesting. j) Air-flow induced voltage generation of the u-u and c-u *F. microcarpa* pair. k) Voltage generation as function of windspeed in a c-u *F. microcarpa* pair. l) c-u *F. microcarpa* leaf pair-based capacitor charging (10 μ F) with indicated circuit as function of wind source on-off switching.

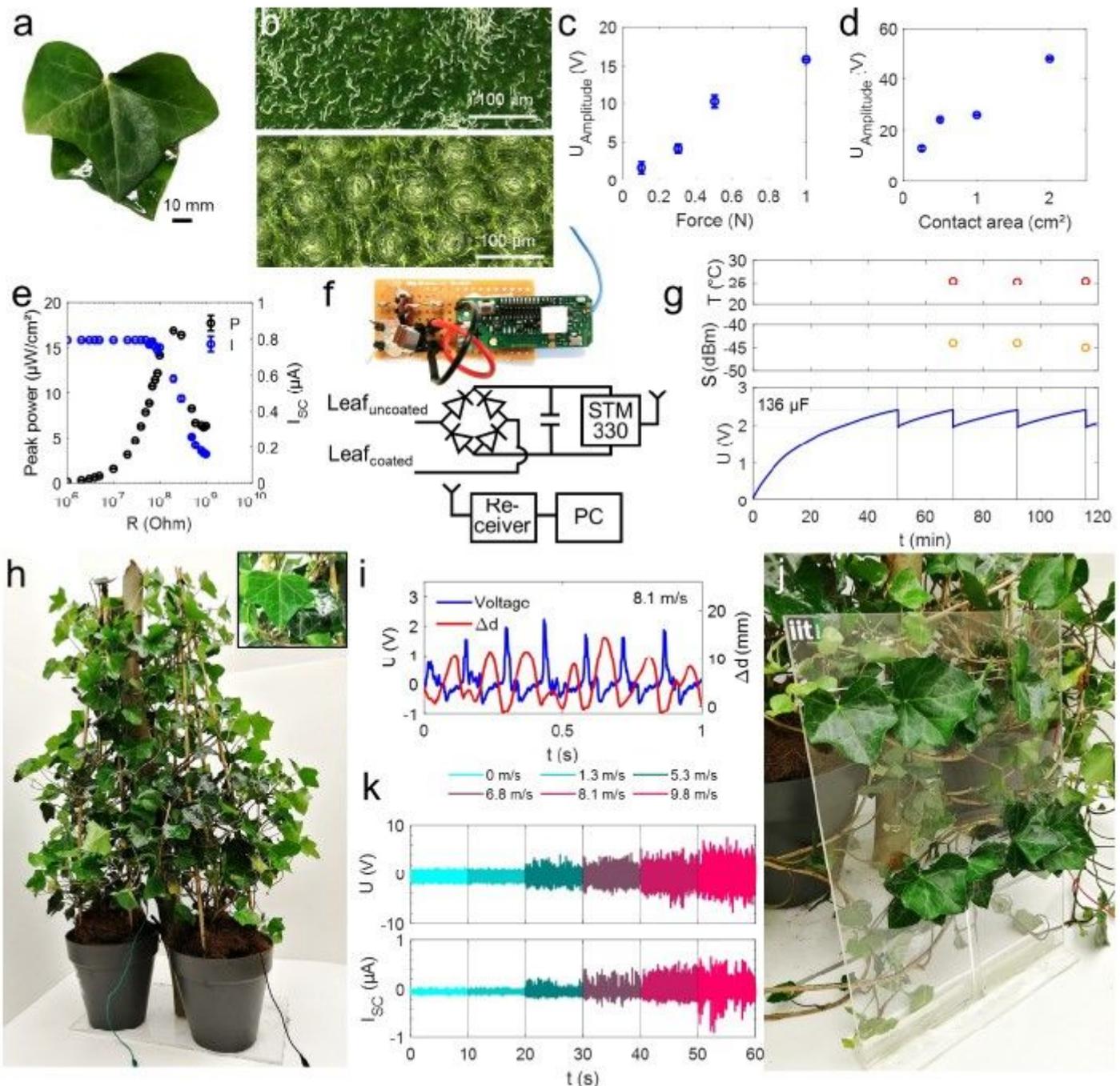


Figure 3

Realization of mechanical energy harvesting in epicuticular coated climber *H. helix*. a) Photograph of a *H. helix* c-u leaf pair. b) Microscopy images representing stomatal density adaxial on adaxial and abaxial leaf surface. c) and d) Voltage amplitude generated by a *H. helix* c-u leaf pair as function of impact force (@ contact area 0.25 cm²) and contact area (@ 1N impact force), respectively (10 Hz stimulus). e) *H. helix* c-u leaf pair peak power analysis as function of load of resistance. f) Circuit overview used in g) wirelessly transmitted temperature measurement data packets and signal strength of a c-u leaf pair powered wireless sensor (@1 N, 30 Hz mechanical stimulation). h) Typical arrangement for *H. helix* wind energy harvesting in which multiple c-u leaf pairs are realized from two separately potted plants. i) Correlation of voltage signal generated and distance of the two surfaces in a *H. helix* c-u leaf pair fluttering in air-flow. j) Voltage and short circuit current generated by eight c-u pairs under wind excitation. Unidirectional leaf pairs were realized by fixing two branches of the two *H. helix* on a support panel as shown in k) for exposure to wind.

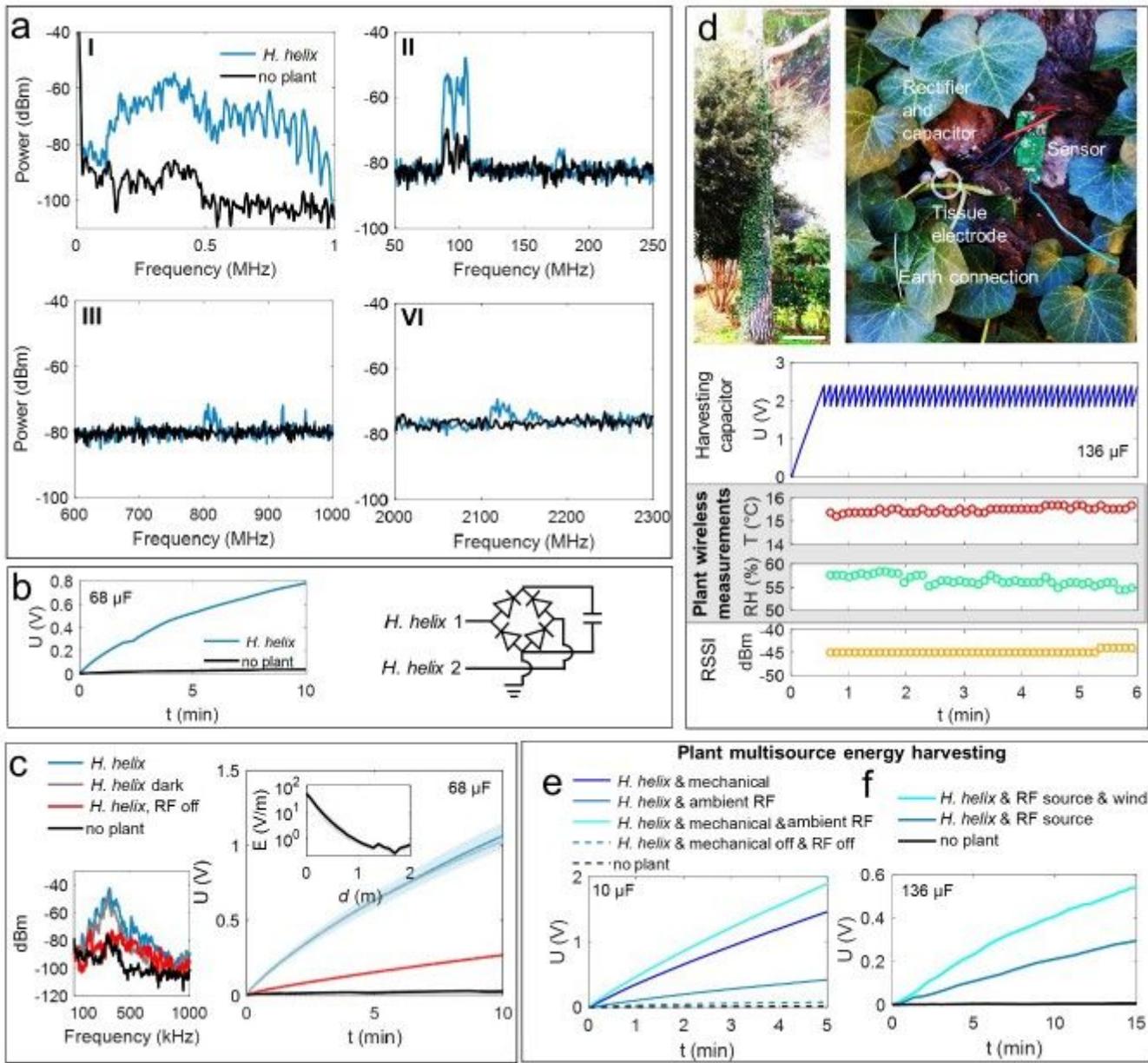


Figure 4

Plant based RF energy harvesting and boosted multisource wind-RF energy harvesting. a) and b) overview of the frequencies received by an *H. helix* acting as antenna outdoor (e.g., @100 MHz, center frequency of nearby radio emitter), circuit and charging curve of a 68 µF capacitor relative to these signals, respectively indicating potential to transduce RF radiation into electricity. c) Exposure of *H. helix* in dark and light conditions to a switchable RF source resulting in a received main frequency ~400 kHz-center when the RF source is on, when off, the peak diminishes. The capacitor charging curves (68 µF) show RF-source and plant-dependent energy harvesting by *H. helix*. The inset shows the electric field strength as function of distance from the RF source, energy harvesting was performed in ~1 m distance, further details in Extended Data Fig. 5. d). Demo of a plant-powered sensing and wireless data packet transmission using a modified commercial sensing system in an outdoor environment with a *H. helix* growing on a pine tree, charging of a 136 µF capacitor powering sensor and transceiver unit. The plant

powers a humidity/temperature sensor and wireless data transmission, plant-powered measurements and transmission signal strengths are given. e) Multisource (mechanical and RF) energy harvesting with a c-u H. helix pair by selectively adding RF (environmental) or mechanical energy (controlled 1 N, 10 Hz stimulus) sources leads to increasing capacitor charging dynamics. f) Multisource wind and RF plant energy harvesting, wind speed ~ 8.1 m/s, RF, 400 kHz center frequency, (see spectrum analysis in c)), conversion by c-u H. helix pairs as described in Fig. 3 feeding a $136 \mu\text{F}$ capacitor. Combination of RF and wind leads to a 550%-increase in the energy output compared to RF as single source.

Supplementary Files

This is a list of supplementary files associated with this preprint. Click to download.

- [Video1.mp4](#)