

Nature-inspired interfacial engineering for energy harvesting

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Abstract

The ever-increasing demand for low-carbon energy underscores the urgency of harvesting renewable energy sources. Despite notable progress, current energy harvesting techniques are still limited by low efficacy and poor durability. Biological systems exhibit diverse principles of energy harvesting owing to their ability to interact with the environment. In this Review article, we explore diverse energy harvesting processes in nature to establish a fundamental understanding of nature's strategies and provide a biomimicry design blueprint for high-efficiency energy harvesting systems. Next, we systematically discuss recent progress in nature-inspired surface/interface designs for efficient energy harvesting from water, sunlight, and heat. We then highlight emerging hybrid approaches that can integrate multiple energy conversion processes within a single design through interface engineering to achieve mutual reinforcement. Finally, we deliberate on remaining fundamental and technical challenges to guide future research directions and potential applications of sustainable energy harvesting.

Key points:

Sustainable energy harvesting from water, solar and heat has emerged as a low-carbon energy solution. However, most techniques still face limitations in efficacy that are often dictated by the

surface/interfacial properties of materials. Nature is an engineer proficient in energy manipulation, particularly by leveraging intriguing surfaces to interact with the environment. In this review, we explore diverse energy harvesting processes in nature to provide a biomimicry design blueprint for efficient energy harvesting. We discuss recent progress in nature-inspired interface designs for water, sunlight, heat energy harvesting, and the emerging hybrid approaches to achieve mutual reinforcement. Perspectives on remaining challenges and future directions were present.

[H1] Introduction

The use of fossil energy has been a major contributor to rising environmental pollution and energy crises^{1,2}. Tapping into the vast renewable energy sources such as water, solar, and heat, sustainable energy harvesting has emerged as a low-carbon energy solution. However, most existing energy harvesting technologies are associated with low efficacy, poor durability, and limited scalability, which are often dictated by the surface and interfacial properties of materials³⁻⁵. Nature is an engineer proficient in energy manipulation. Biological systems have orchestrated diverse strategies to harvest energy based on surfaces with well-defined interfacial properties to interact with surrounding sources such as water, sunlight, and heat, achieving the highest energy efficiency with minimal materials⁶⁻¹¹. Based on physics-guided design, nature-inspired interfacial engineering, which regulates surface properties of materials to control interfacial behaviours at multiple spatial-temporal scales, has been developed to harvest energy from diverse environmental sources.

In this review article, we provide a holistic view on a nature-inspired framework to guide the design, selection, fabrication, and tailoring of engineered materials and interfaces, with the ultimate goal to develop advanced highly efficient energy harvesting systems. We first present an overview of energy harvesting processes in nature to provide a biomimicry design blueprint for artificial energy systems. Next, we discuss recent progress in translating these principles into nature-inspired interface designs for developing efficient energy harvesting technologies targeted at different energy sources, including water, solar, and heat. We then highlight emerging hybrid approaches that can integrate multiple energy conversion processes within a single design to achieve performance with mutual reinforcement by interface engineering. Finally, we present perspectives on remaining fundamental and technical challenges to guide future research directions and potential applications of sustainable

55 energy harvesting.

56 1. [H1] Energy harvesting in nature

57 Nature relies on interfacial interactions with surroundings to harvest energy with high efficiency and
58 minimal materials. Natural organisms can harvest and manipulate energy to facilitate a wide range of
59 biological activities through diverse energy transformation, storage, and even direct electricity
60 generation. There are many examples in nature when sophisticated surfaces are used for efficient
61 energy harvesting and electricity generation, including sunlight energy harvesting and storage,
62 diverse bioelectricity generation, and energy extraction in electrogenic bacteria.

63 [H2] Water-enabled energy harvesting in nature

64 Confined in a place permanently without the presence of muscles or nerves, plants and fungi in nature
65 leverage dynamic water-surface interactions to achieve energy harvesting through the uptake or loss
66 of water in response to environmental conditions. In this process, water serves as the primary medium
67 for energy transformation, driving reversible or irreversible mechanical activities. One notable
68 example is the self-burial seed of *Erodium cicutarium*^{12,13}(**Fig. 1a**). The self-burial is facilitated by
69 hygroscopic bilayer structure of awns in seeds, which enables spontaneous helical coiling and
70 uncoiling in response to changes in dry and wet conditions, converting energy into mechanical
71 motions that drill the seed into soil. Similar process has been found in other organisms such as
72 pinecone and moss capsule peristomes that close and open in response to wet and dry conditions^{14,15}.

73 Water-enabled adaptive energy harvesting also facilitates a wide range of irreversible mechanical
74 momenta, achieved through continuous water uptake or loss on plants' surfaces or hygroscopic
75 structures. A typical example is Buller's drop for diaspore ejection found in most species of
76 *Basidiomycota*^{16,17}. Formed by continuous condensation and coalescence of water on the hydrophilic
77 surface, Buller's drop can merge into the adaxial drop. The rapid flow of water induced by surface
78 tension provides enough momentum to propel the spore off of the sterigma, converting the surface
79 energy of condensed water into kinetic energy. Contrary to water condensation, water evaporation or
80 dehydration in a dry environment could also generate efficient mechanical momenta, such as the
81 explosive spore ejection of *Sphagnum moss*^{18,19} and the cavitation catapult of *Fern Sporangium*²⁰.

82 Central to these water-enabled energy harvesting mechanisms is the natural surfaces and structures
83 that feature heterogenous wettability, stiffness, and charge, enabling intricate interactions with water.
84 These natural features serve as a valuable inspiration for the development of efficient water energy
85 harvesting systems^{21,22}.

86 **[H2] Sunlight energy harvesting in nature**

87 Sunlight is the fundamental driver for energy flow, matter cycling, and atmosphere regulation through
88 photosynthesis, a process that converts sunlight into stored chemical energy that sustains most life^{23,24}.
89 Photosynthesis takes place in chloroplasts, where pigments absorb sunlight, triggering electronic
90 excitation (**Fig. 1a**). Surface structures of photosynthetic organisms, especially in leaves and petals,
91 present with complex textures such as subwavelength and hierarchical structures to promote sunlight
92 harvesting by decreasing the loss of incident light and maximizing the absorbed light²⁵. For example,
93 petals of a rose leverage closely packed nanoscale papillae with broadband and omnidirectional
94 antireflection as well as light-trapping capability²⁶. Moreover, although photosynthesis does not
95 directly generate electricity, it has inspired the development of photovoltaics (PV) that can directly
96 convert sunlight into electricity. The surface structures and components of plants have inspired the
97 design principle for dye-sensitized solar cells and organic photovoltaics^{27,28}. The capability of oriental
98 hornets to harvest sunlight by distinct cuticular pigments in their stripes^{29,30}, offers valuable insights
99 for the advancement of sunlight energy harvesting in photovoltaic technologies.

100 **[H2] Bioelectricity generation in nature**

101 Direct bioelectricity generation is a remarkable trait of electrogenic creatures, such as electric eels,
102 electric rays, and electric catfish, which can emit electric pulses with diverse frequencies, amplitudes,
103 and durations for predation, protection, and detection. Typically, an electric eel can generate electric
104 shocks of up to 600 volts (**Fig. 1a**)^{31,32}. Such powerful electrical discharge is emitted by the membrane
105 proteins that are decorated with voltage-gated Na⁺/K⁺ channels in its electric organ. The Na⁺/K⁺
106 channels enable ion selectivity through the regulation of interfacial properties such as molecular
107 component, spatial configuration, and charge distribution. Regulated by ion-selection channels,
108 chemical energy is efficiently converted into ion gradient energy under the control of neural signals.
109 Another type of bioelectricity is bio-piezoelectricity, originating from piezoelectric effect that

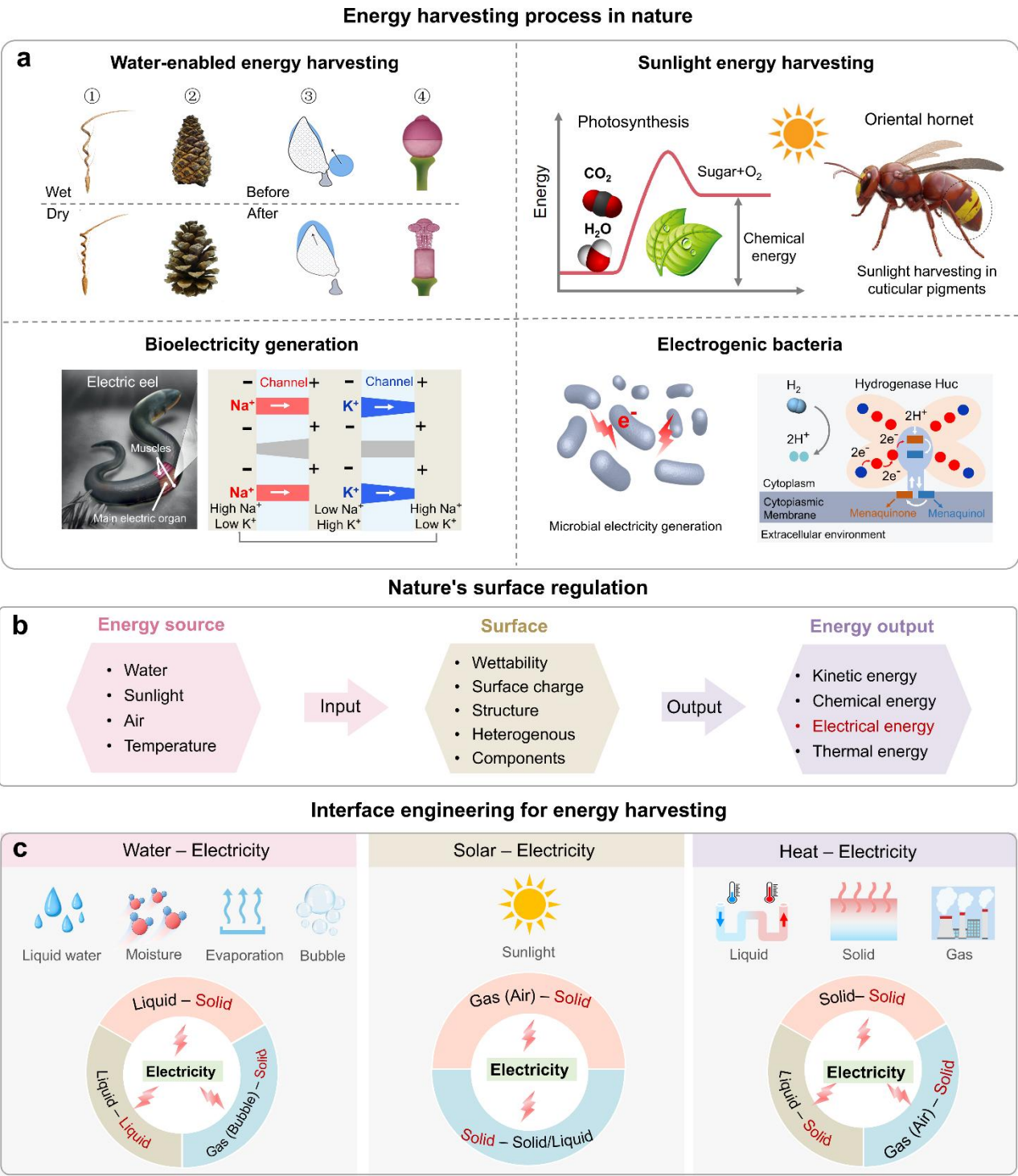
110 converts external mechanical stimuli into internal bioelectrical signals. Upon mechanical stimulation,
111 a wide range of interfacial polarized tissues, such as keratin, DNA, tendons, and elastin, generate bio-
112 piezoelectricity, which plays an active role in physiological phenomena^{33,34}.

113 In addition, as substantial microbial ecosystem engineers, electrogenic bacteria can generate
114 electrical energy by extracting energy from surroundings (**Fig. 1a**). A unique filamentous cable
115 bacteria feature highly ordered fiber structures can generate and mediate long-distance electrical
116 currents across cell membranes, allowing for electron donors and acceptors harvesting in widely
117 separated space^{35,36}. In addition, some electrogenic bacteria manifest the ability to extract energy from
118 atmosphere hydrogen³⁷. Central to these diverse bioelectricity generation, ranging from selective ion
119 channels to piezoelectric materials and electrogenic bacteria, is the sophisticated surface charges
120 manipulation of biological systems. Taking inspiration from elegant surface charge regulations paves
121 the way for sustainable electricity generation, including osmotic power generation, piezoelectric
122 energy harvesting, moisture power generation, and microbial fuel cells.

123 **[H2] Nature's surface/interface regulation**

124 Despite the diverse strategies employed by biological organisms to harness energy from their
125 environments, a common underlying feature is the evolution of surface properties enabling dynamic
126 interaction with surroundings to maximize energy efficiency. By regulating surface physio-chemical
127 properties - wettability, surface charge, structure, heterogeneity, and components - the input
128 environmental sources, such as water, solar, and heat, could be efficiently transformed into energy in
129 the form of electricity, kinetic energy, chemical energy, and thermal energy (**Fig. 1b**). Desert beetles,
130 lotus leaves, and water spiders manifest a wide range of surface wettability to regulate and rectify
131 water surface energy, so that they can collect water from dry environments, repel water to self-clean
132 and even gather air from underwater for survival^{38,39}. Moreover, this ability can be further tailored
133 and even amplified by surface topological structures, heterogeneity and components, giving rise to
134 more versatile multiple spatial-temporal scales for preferential mass, momentum, and energy
135 exchange⁴⁰. Surface charges, often neglected at the macroscopic scale, are another driving force for
136 mediating liquid flow⁴¹ and can be harvested by electric eels to emit electric energy with varying
137 frequencies, amplitudes, and durations for predation, protection, and detection.

138 Understanding, controlling, and mimicking nature's surface regulation and involved dynamic
 139 interfacial interactions also facilitate the efficient generation and transport of energy carriers
 140 (molecules, ions, charges, and photons) at the microscale, which fundamentally shapes the
 141 macroscopic energy processes such as water fluidics, sunlight capture, and heat transfer. The new
 142 insights learned from nature can prove instrumental for designing new energy harvesting systems^{42,43}.



143
 144 **Fig. 1 | Energy harvesting in nature.** a, Energy harvesting processes in nature can be divided into:

145 1) Water-enabled energy harvesting and transformation. Reversible mechanical movements in
146 response to wet and dry conditions: ① Helical coiling and uncoiling of the self-burying seed¹³. ②
147 The closing and opening of pinecone¹⁵. Adapted with permission from REF. 15. Irreversible
148 mechanical momentum: ③ Surface tension catapult of Buller's drop¹⁷. Adapted with permission from
149 REF. 17. ④ Spores dispersal by dehydration¹⁸. Adapted with permission from REF. 18. 2) Sunlight
150 energy harvesting in photosynthesis²³ and oriental hornet³⁰. 3) Bioelectricity generation in electric eel
151 based on ion channels³². Adapted with permission from REF. 32. 4) Electrogenic bacteria that
152 generate microbial electricity by extracting energy from surroundings³⁷. **b**, Nature's surface regulation
153 of transforming input environmental sources into energy outputs. **c**, Interface engineering for energy
154 harvesting. From left to right: Interfaces for water energy harvesting can be categorized into liquid-
155 solid (L-S), gas-solid (G-S), and solid-solid (S-S) interfaces, depending on the phase state of water
156 sources and surfaces for electricity generation. Solar energy harvesting entails the combined G-S
157 interfaces between the intangible sunlight and interfacial materials, as well as other internal S-S/L
158 interfaces. Interfaces for heat energy harvesting can be classified into L-S, S-S, and G-S, based on
159 the phase state of heat sources and surface.

160 **2. [H1] Tailoring interfaces for energy harvesting**

161 Despite advances in the design of engineered systems, it is unlikely for one specific surface to address
162 all the challenges across multiple spatial-temporal scales in the complex energy harvesting processes.
163 In this section we discuss recent advancements in nature-inspired interfacial engineering for energy
164 harvesting from water, sunlight, and heat. Energy harvesting technologies from each source are
165 categorized based on the triple-phase interfaces for electricity generation, formed by energy source
166 and surface of an energy device (**Fig. 1c**).

167 **[H2] Water energy harvesting**

168 Water cycle stores about 60 trillion kilowatts of energy each year, three orders of magnitude higher
169 than the annual global energy demand. Conventional techniques mainly rely on hydroelectric turbines
170 to collect high-frequency and centralized energy sources, such as river potential and tidal energy.
171 However, a significant reservoir of water energy stored in decentralized and low-frequency forms,
172 such as evaporation, osmosis, moisture, and raindrops, remains largely untapped. The past decade has
173 witnessed a surge in exploiting various technologies for harvesting these underutilized water energy
174 sources, including hydrovoltaic technology⁴, reverse electrodialysis⁴⁴, and triboelectric
175 nanogenerators⁴⁵ (**Fig. 2a**). All these approaches rely on the manipulation of interfacial electric
176 charges through interaction between water and interfacial materials^{46,47}. Despite progress, achieving
177 water energy harvesting with high efficiency, scalability, and high durability remains challenging,

178 partially owing to the lacking rational design of interface and materials design. To tackle this
179 challenge natural living organisms, especially their intriguing surfaces can serve as inspiration for
180 material design.

181 **[H3] Water energy harvesting via hydrophilic surfaces**

182 Generating electricity from water energy sources through osmosis, evaporation, and moisture requires
183 a durable and an intimate water-material interface to facilitate the continuous charge generation and
184 ion redistribution. Such interaction has been found in various natural hydrophilic surfaces. As a result,
185 many nature-inspired hydrophilic surfaces have been developed and applied in water energy
186 harvesting technologies.

187 Water energy stored in the salinity difference between seawater and river water, referred to as blue or
188 osmotic energy, has an estimated power density of 0.8 kWh m^{-3} at the sea-river interface⁴⁸. Current
189 osmotic energy harvesting mainly relies on two strategies: pressure retarded osmosis and reverse
190 electrodialysis. Between the two, electrodialysis has received increasing attention owing to its lower
191 operating pressure, broader applicability, and greater stability^{49,50}. Reverse electrodialysis generates
192 electricity leveraging the ion diffusion process across a semi-permeable membrane between salinity-
193 gradient water, which can result in charge separation and an electric potential difference.
194 Conventionally, ion-selective membrane serves as the core material for reverse electrodialysis owing
195 to its abundance, large area, and high ion selectivity^{51,52}. However, such a design suffers from limited
196 power density, mainly because the ion-selective membranes feature sub-nanometre scale pores
197 comparable with the size of ionic species and large thickness (several hundreds of micrometers).
198 These features weaken the ion transport due to the high ion resistance and charge polarization
199 occurring at the membrane–solution interface, and easily lead to the fouling from environmental
200 substances such as heavy metals, biological pollutants and large organic chemicals^{53,54}.

201 Inspired by the biologically structured ion channels that can transport ions at a large flux of 10^7
202 ions per second⁵⁵ (**Fig. 2b**), the strategies for osmotic energy harvesting have shifted towards
203 designing various nanofluidic channels, which feature larger channel dimensions and highly charged
204 surfaces. The nanofluidic channels give rise to the enhanced ion flux in diffusion-osmotic flow, low
205 charge polarization, and resistance to environmental fouling, thereby enhancing electricity

206 generation^{56,57} (**Fig. 2c**, left). By optimizing parameters such as geometry, surface functionalization,
207 and size, the nature-inspired nanofluidic membranes can selectively transport specific ions, which
208 improves ion separation efficiency and thereby energy harvesting performance^{58,59}. Theoretically, the
209 nature-inspired nanofluidic membranes can improve the power density of the osmotic energy
210 harvesting technology up to 10^6 W m^{-2} , much higher than the ion-exchange membrane-based
211 design^{32,56,60} (**Fig. 2d**). Moreover, the design of nanofluidic channels-based membranes offers better
212 suitability for large-scale integration owing to the inherent flexibility and layered structures⁶¹.
213 Currently, nanofluidic channels-based osmotic energy harvesting is still at the laboratory stage and
214 has not been widely used in practical scenarios⁵². Presently, practical applications are limited by the
215 trade-off between selectivity and flux, performance saturation when scaling up, and the lack of simple
216 fabrication methods.

217 Evaporation is a ubiquitous phenomenon that drives energy transfer in the Earth's climate. However,
218 harvesting energy from evaporation remains challenging owing to the lack of explicit working
219 principles and reliable devices. One possible strategy is to harness the energy stored in evaporation
220 from water-responsive material deformation⁶² or interfacial ion transport⁶³. Leveraging the advances
221 in nanomaterials, harvesting energy from the evaporation-induced interfacial water/ion flow has
222 become a leading generic strategy with high adaptability to various environments (**Fig. 2c**, right)^{64,65}.
223 Facilitating continuous water and ion transport with high flux and density requires a surface design
224 characterized by high hydrophilicity, ionizability, durability, and a large surface area^{66,67}. However,
225 meeting all these requirements is difficult for conventional nanomaterials, most of which focus one
226 or two aspects of the requirements of surface design.

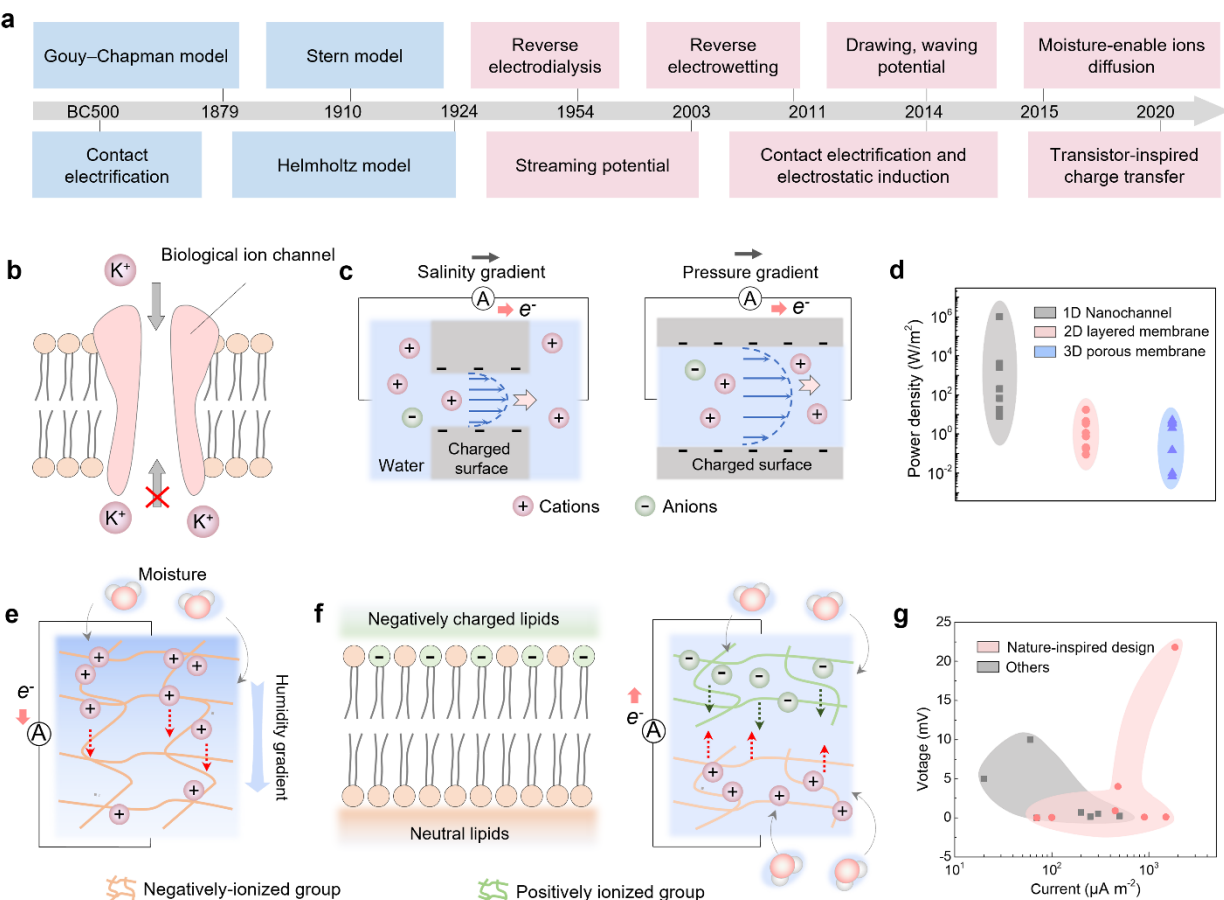
227 Addressing this challenge can be done by mimicking natural organisms' interfaces and materials.
228 Materials with plant-inspired hydrophilic structures such as hierarchical and capillary channels
229 feature a large specific surface area and high hydrophilicity, facilitating the water/ions transport flow
230 for electricity generation⁶⁸. Moreover, by taking inspiration from adaptive natural leaf structures such
231 as stomata⁶⁹, surfaces capable of adapting to environmental change for efficient water/ions transport
232 can be designed. Another approach for energy harvesting enhancement involves surface chemical
233 modifications with active chemical groups to intensify the water-materials reactions, which can

234 increase ion density at the interface^{70,71}. In addition to biomimetic materials, some biomaterials, such
235 as cellulose and microbial film, with sufficient functional groups and porous structures, are suitable
236 for evaporation-induced energy harvesting with environmental compatibility and renewability⁷².
237 While nature-inspired designs hold promises for enhancing evaporation energy harvesting, the
238 interplay of various characteristics such as channel size, wettability, and surface potential hinders
239 identifying the specific sources of performance optimization. Therefore, it is critical to establish
240 relationships between material properties and output power for guiding materials and interface design.

241 Ambient moisture is a tremendous natural energy source that can be harnessed through moisture-
242 induced energy harvesting technologies. Techniques based on moisture-responsive materials can
243 convert moisture-to-mechanical energy or chemical energy into electricity generation by integrating
244 with the piezoelectric effect²¹, the electromagnetic effect²², and redox reactions⁷³. However, these
245 approaches are limited by the extremely low energy density and complicated fabrication. The
246 thermodynamic process of ambient moisture absorption by sorbents presents a controllable and
247 sustainable method to harvest green energy from moisture⁷⁴. This strategy relies on electricity
248 generation by constructing asymmetric ion diffusion in the absorbent materials with a gradient or
249 homogeneous structure^{74,75} (**Fig. 2e**). These moisture energy generators still suffer from a low power
250 density ($> 0.1 \text{ W m}^{-2}$) and non-self-sustainable electricity generation owing to the low ion migration
251 velocity and gradient invalidation.

252 Drawing inspiration from surface heterogeneity found in nature, designing materials with
253 heterogeneous physio-chemical properties could be a promising solution. By imitating the
254 heterogeneous lipid bilayer found in the cell (**Fig. 2f**), a moisture-based generator with a charge-
255 heterogeneous structure can be constructed showing higher energy conversion efficiency and power
256 density because of highly asymmetric ion movement^{76,77} (**Fig. 2f, g**). For example, the bilayer
257 membrane composed of negatively charged PSSA and positively charged PDDA can produce a power
258 density of 0.5 W m^{-2} and a voltage of 1000 V with integration design at 85% RH, which is several
259 orders of magnitude larger than the voltage from other designs⁷⁶. Furthermore, introducing
260 heterogeneous wettability into sorbents enables a balance between hydrophilic adsorption and
261 hydrophobic desorption of moisture, thereby preventing the sorbents from total wetting and achieving

262 self-sustainable electricity generation^{78,79}. In addition to the heterogeneous materials design, the
 263 direct usage of biomaterials, such as protein nanowires, spider silk and microbial film, allows for
 264 developing moisture energy harvesting, which is cheap, non-toxic and environmentally friendly⁸⁰⁻⁸³.
 265 Nevertheless, the moisture energy is essentially a low-grade energy with a theoretical upper limit of
 266 10% on its efficiency. Reaching or even breaking this limit calls for the disruptive design of materials
 267 and designs.



268 **Fig. 2 | Nature-inspired engineering for hydrophilic surfaces-based water energy harvesting.** **a**,
 269 Schematic illustrating the development of water energy harvesting based on the manipulation of
 270 interfacial electric charges, including common fundamentals (in blue) and emerging mechanisms for
 271 water energy harvesting (in red). **b-d**, Nature-inspired osmotic energy harvesting and evaporation-
 272 induced energy harvesting. A schematic drawing showing symmetrically structured ion channels
 273 embedded in lipid bilayers that can regulate transmembrane ion flow with high efficiency⁵⁵ (**b**).
 274 Schematic drawing showing the mechanism for water/ion flow-induced water energy generators
 275 based on charged nano/microchannels that can regulate ion behaviour under either the salinity
 276 gradient (left)^{56,57} or evaporation-induced pressure (right)^{64,65}, with the velocity profile inside the
 277 channel dragging the ions (**c**). Performance summary of osmotic energy harvesting with materials in
 278 various formats, including one-dimension (1D) nanochannel/nanopore, two-dimension (2D) layered
 279 membrane, and three-dimension (3D) porous membrane (**d**). **e-g**, Nature-inspired moisture energy

281 harvesting. Moisture energy harvesting based on materials with homogeneous structure^{74,75} (e).
282 Schematic showing the asymmetrical lipid bilayer consisting of the neutral lipids on one side and
283 negatively charged lipids on the other side (left)^{76,77}. Moisture energy harvesting based on materials
284 with heterogeneous structure (right) (f). Performance comparison of moisture energy harvesting with
285 nature-inspired design and others (g).

286 [H3] Hydrophobic surfaces for water energy harvesting

287 Hydrophobic surfaces have a low affinity for water, enabling transient contact and separation with
288 water. This type of water-materials interaction enables an interface transition and stronger charge
289 redistribution than that on hydrophilic surfaces, making hydrophobic surfaces suitable for harvesting
290 water from droplets and waves.

291 Triboelectric nanogenerator⁸⁴ and reverse electrowetting⁸⁵ are the examples of hydrophobic surface-
292 based water energy harvesting techniques. From the circuit architecture perspective, these generators
293 can be treated as an open-circuit system, which brings about several drawbacks including the limited
294 charge generation and the unwanted electrostatically screening effect imposed by the charges on the
295 underlying electrode, which is a component for outputting electricity in typical triboelectric
296 nanogenerators and reverse electrowetting.

297 One feasible strategy to overcome these limits is to use an architecture that can form a closed
298 loop between the hydrophobic electret material, two electrodes located below and above the dielectric
299 layer, and dynamically flowing water. The design is inspired by that of a field-effect transistor (FET),
300 which can dynamically gate the flow of carriers between its source and drain terminals^{3,47} (Fig. 3a).
301 The water energy generator with transistor-like architecture can fully harness the surface charge on
302 the hydrophobic surfaces and generate electric outputs with an energy conversion efficiency three
303 orders of magnitude larger than the conventional triboelectric nanogenerator and reverse
304 electrowetting. The transistor-like design concept provides a possibility generate electricity from a
305 single droplet to droplet arrays^{86,87}, from natural rocks to artificial windows and solar panels^{87,88}, with
306 continuous leaps in peak power density from 50 W/m² to 10³ W/m^{289,90}.

307 The performances of the hydrophobic surfaces-based water energy harvesting are dictated by the
308 interfacial properties of generator materials as well as their interaction with liquid. Efficient and
309 continuous electricity generation necessitates a high-density interfacial charge, a large liquid-solid

310 contact area, and rapid detachment of water from the generator. However, most hydrophobic surfaces
311 feature a two-dimensional contact with water that leads to a low surface charge density and low water-
312 material contact area. Moreover, the high-frequency contact of water on these surfaces may cause the
313 formation of continuous water film because of the long water-solid contact time, thereby disabling
314 the continuous electricity generation.

315 One way of addressing these issues is to design a lotus-inspired superhydrophobic surface-based
316 water electricity generator⁹¹⁻⁹³ (**Fig. 3b**). The hierarchical structure of the superhydrophobic surface
317 enables a three-dimensional one with water, resulting in a large water-surface contact area and a high
318 surface charge density. Moreover, the superhydrophobic surfaces can shed water within several
319 milliseconds because of their water-repellence properties, thereby allowing high-frequency water
320 energy harvesting. For example, the lotus-inspired water energy generator can generate three times
321 higher average electrical energy from 165 Hz droplet than that of a generator with a conventional
322 hydrophobic surface⁹¹. Other superhydrophobic designs mimic the hierarchical nano- and microscale
323 natural surfaces such as moth-eyes and bamboo leaves, or natural surfaces such as leaves and
324 stones^{94,95}.

325 Operating in various working conditions, solid hydrophobic surfaces are susceptible to external
326 pollution and unwanted wetting transitions caused by hydrodynamic impact in extreme environments.
327 More challenges emerge in the underwater condition. The hydrophobic surfaces face the high pressure
328 and flow shearing from surrounding water, as well as the biofilm fouling. All these problems could
329 result in the collapse of efficient contact and separation between the water and hydrophobic surface,
330 impairing energy harvesting efficiency and durability.

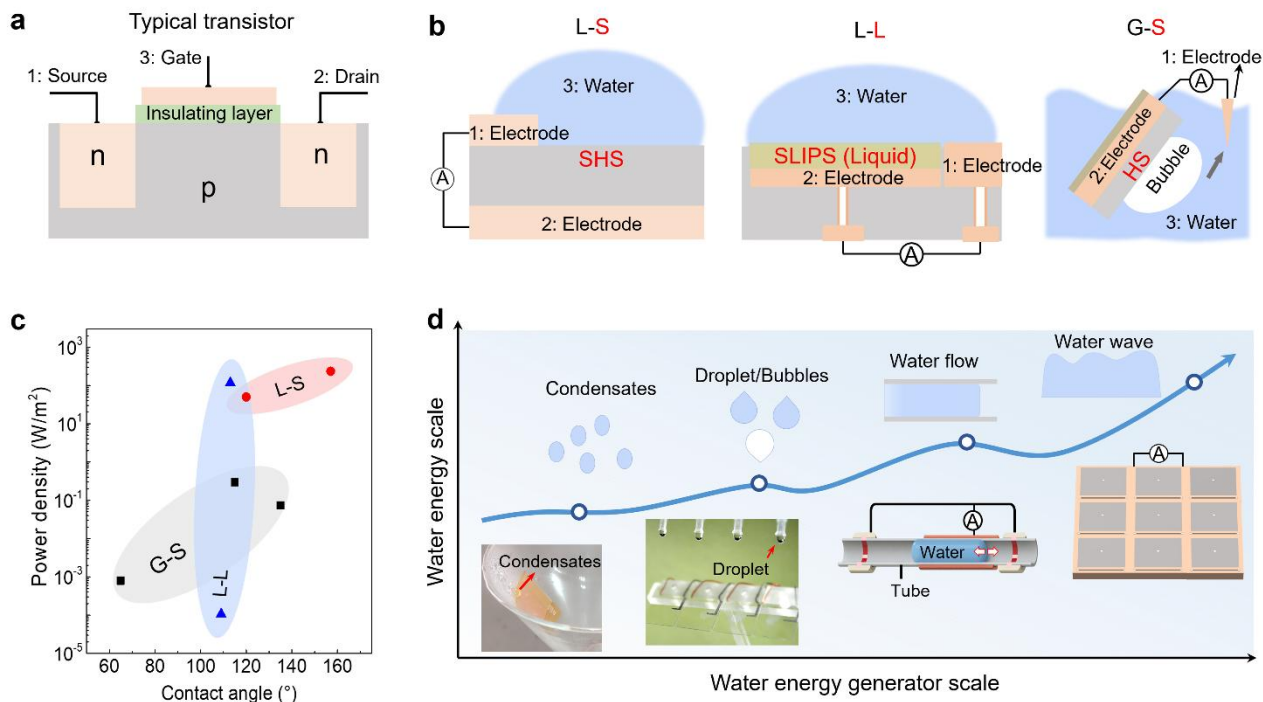
331 Mimicking natural liquid surfaces that can repel immiscible liquids with high stability provides
332 a feasible solution for designing hydrophobic generators with a liquid dielectric surface to enable
333 liquid-liquid contact with water (**Fig. 3b**). Choosing dielectric liquid with proper viscosity and a
334 dielectric constant, the liquid-liquid contact between water and the generator surface eliminates the
335 unwanted wetting transition and increases the effective liquid-solid contact area, all of which are
336 beneficial for water kinetic energy harvesting⁹⁶⁻⁹⁹. For example, inspired by the pitcher plant, slippery
337 liquid infused surface (SLIPS)-based water energy generators show a stable electrical output in a wide

338 spectrum of harsh environments, ranging from high salinity to caustic acid-base, in a wide humidity
339 and temperature range ⁹⁶ (**Fig. 3c**).

340 Although harvesting energy from water in the air provides an alternative energy harvesting strategy,
341 this approach becomes ineffective in the offshore condition due to off-grid conditions and limitation
342 of long-distance electricity transmission cables. One option is to harvest energy directly from bubbles
343 in the underwater environment. However, the hydrophobic generator surfaces that function well in
344 the air may break down when continuous interfacial water film forms in the confined underwater
345 environment, screening surface charges stored on the dielectric surface.

346 The design of surfaces for bubble energy harvesting draws inspiration from natural aquatic plants,
347 such as water hyacinths or water lilies, that can store and transport gases in the water through their
348 surface. Delicately tailored surface wettability endows dielectric surfaces with high-density surface
349 charges which facilitate fast bubble spreading and subsequent departure in the process of liquid/solid
350 interface transformation into a gas/solid interface. This interface transition allows for efficient charge
351 transfer and electricity generation in a water environment^{100,101} (**Fig. 3b**). In conjunction with the
352 transistor-like design, bubble energy generator with the optimal dielectric surface can yield an output
353 at least one order of magnitude higher than the control studies without surface control (**Fig. 3c**).
354 However, the durability of solid surface is susceptible to the harsh underwater environment that can
355 lead to surface fouling and wetting transition. Potentially, the usage of a liquid dielectric surface with
356 delicately controlled wettability could improve the stability and lifetime of the generator for
357 applications in underwater and offshore operations where direct energy harvesting from small bubbles
358 is otherwise impossible.

359 The fusion between the nature-inspired interface design and transistor-like architecture has
360 formulated a genetic design concept that dramatically enhances electricity generation at various
361 interfaces. (**Fig. 3d**).



362

363 **Fig. 3 | Nature-inspired engineering for hydrophobic surfaces-based water energy harvesting.**
 364 **a**, Schematic illustrating a typical transistor with an NPN configuration, which can dynamically gate
 365 the flow of carriers between its source and drain terminals. Labelling the three terminals in a transistor
 366 with 1, 2, and 3 is for making an analogy with the corresponding parts in the transistor-like water
 367 energy generators shown in **b**. **b**, Nature-inspired surfaces including superhydrophobic surface (SHS),
 368 slippery liquid infuse surface (SLIPS), hydrophobic surface (HS) enable transistor-like water energy
 369 harvesting at the various interfaces, including liquid-solid interface (L-S)⁹¹⁻⁹³, liquid-liquid interface
 370 (L-L)⁹⁶, and gas-solid interface (G-S)^{100,101}. **c**, Performance summary of transistor-like water energy
 371 harvesting versus the surface wettability at various interfaces. **d**, Schematic showing the integration
 372 of transistor-inspired generators for harvesting water energy at various scales ranging from
 373 condensates, rain droplets³, and water flow¹⁰², to water waves⁹⁶. Adapted with permission from REF.
 374 3,102, 96.

375 [H2] Solar energy harvesting

376 Solar energy, by far the largest and inexhaustible natural energy source, has now become the cheapest
 377 source of electricity. Solar or PV cells are capable of directly converting sunlight into electricity via
 378 the photovoltaic effect. The operation of solar cells relies on sunlight harvesting and subsequent
 379 internal processes involving the generation, transport, separation and collection of charge. From the
 380 perspective of interface engineering, sunlight harvesting process at the gas (air)-solid interface (G-S)
 381 involves intricate light-surface interactions between sunlight in the air and interfacial materials (**Fig.**
 382 **4a**). Driven by advances in materials and fabrication, configurations of solar cells have undergone an

impressive transition, from initially crystalline silicon solar cells to perovskite solar cells (PSCs), from single junctions to multi-junctions/tandem, making it possible to continuously break current efficiency limits^{103,104}.

Despite intense progress, existing solar cells still suffer from limited power conversion efficiency (PCE) and insufficient durability, especially when working in harsh environment^{5,105}. More challenges arise with the growing power demands of portable and wearable electronic devices, which necessitate more stable and optimized device integration¹⁰⁶. One possible solution to tackle these challenges lies in the design of nature-inspired surfaces that can regulate light-surface interactions to enhance sunlight harvesting, achieve optimal carrier dynamics, improve long-term stability and durability, as well as optimize device integration. In this section, we focus on discussing recent advances in optimizing solar cell performance through interface engineering, from the aspects of nature-inspired structural design for sunlight harvesting and nature-inspired surface design for enhanced stability (**Fig. 4b**).

Nature-inspired structural design for sunlight harvesting

The efficiency of sunlight harvesting of solar cells is closely dependent on the structure. Conventional solar cells usually exhibit relatively smooth non-textured structures, which is partially due to the fabrication process and materials employed. Despite facile manufacturing and low processing cost, these non-textured structures restrain efficient light-surface interactions, leading to high optical losses and low sunlight utilization. Ideal sunlight harvesting structures necessitate optimal light-surface interactions that contribute to broadband light absorption, minimized light reflection losses, and enhanced light trapping, etc. Inspired by excellent light management in the surface structure of moths' eyes, butterfly wings, and petal of flowers^{10,25,107,108}, three types of biomimetic structures have been extensively utilized to maximize sunlight harvesting (**Fig. 4b-1**), including designing subwavelength structures to minimize surface reflection, the hierarchical micro/nanoscale textures to enhance light trapping, and other multiscale structures.

Highly ordered nanostructured pillar arrays are a representative subwavelength structure with characteristic sizes smaller than the incident light's wavelength, which can control light propagation to minimize reflection, creating antireflective surfaces that enhance light absorption in solar

cells^{107,109}. To enhance the light trapping, the hierarchical micro/nanoscale textures have been also engineered, which is beneficial to increase the path length of light and facilitate multiple reflections and scattering of light within the active materials, contributing to efficient sunlight absorption^{108,110}. As a step forward, distinct from the above structures, a more elegant approach is to leverage on multiscale structure with diverse dimensions and textures. Despite their different functions, these structures interact and complement each other to optimize light propagation and interactions for maximum solar energy harvesting. For example, sunlight harvesting structures that mimic the surface structures of rose petals and viola flowers enhance the PCE of solar cells by 13.7% and 6.2%, respectively, compared to flat and untextured counterparts^{26,111}. It is anticipated that nature-inspired structural design offers a new dimension in regulating light management for efficient solar energy harvesting, particularly with the rapid development of multi-junction or tandem solar cell devices involving multiple interfaces.

[H3] Nature-inspired surface design for enhanced stability

Achieving high efficiency and long-term durability of solar cells is crucial for their practical deployment. Operating in outdoors, conventional solar cells are easily susceptible to the deposition and accumulation of dust, water, and moisture on surface, which significantly compromises the stable output power and requires frequent cleaning^{112,113}. Further performance degradation can be accelerated by moisture-induced lead leakage in lead halide perovskite solar cells, ultimately causing device failure and even environmental pollution^{114,115}. Moreover, the operational stability of solar cells is affected by the dynamic changes of natural light throughout the day, which causes energy-density loss and fluctuation in output power. These issues can be mitigated by regulating surface wettability and adaptability of solar cells. Inspired by natural superwetting surfaces, a wide range of strategies have been developed to endow solar cells with self-cleaning capabilities to ensure high energy efficiency and long-term durability (**Fig. 4b-2**).

Inspired by high roughness and low surface adhesion of surfaces in lotus leaf, external surfaces of solar cells decorated with water-repellence coatings can effectively prevent surface pollution and thereby ensure stable operation^{113,116}. The inherent water-repellent capability helps seamlessly integrate solar panels with water-based electricity generators, which require timely shedding of

439 liquids from the dielectric surface. Combining solar cells with water-based electricity generators
440 enables energy harvesting in all-weather conditions¹¹⁷⁻¹¹⁹. Apart from the wettability regulation on the
441 external surface of solar cells, it is equally important to tailor the wettability of internal interfaces for
442 some PSCs. By controlling materials, structures, and chemistry at the molecular level, the design of
443 interface wettability can further reduce surface defects and establish interface shields that effectively
444 mitigate environmental-induced degradation and failure, ensuring long-term stability and
445 durability^{120,121}. One remarkable example is superhydrophobic engineered PSCs, which retain 90%
446 of their initial efficiency during photovoltaic operation for 1000 hours in a relative humidity of 40%,
447 in striking contrast to the untreated samples that rapidly drop to 43% under the same conditions¹²².
448 Mimicking the nature's adaptivity, such as the phototropism of sunflowers that can self-orient towards
449 the sun to maximize sunlight exposure, adaptive solar cells with sunlight-tracking have been
450 developed^{123,124}. Capable of dynamically sensing and responding to changes in natural light, adaptive
451 solar cells achieve stable efficiency throughout the day, contributing to enhanced energy harvesting
452 performance. Using these strategies, performances of the solar cells (**Fig. 4b-3**), can be improved
453 through nature-inspired engineering.

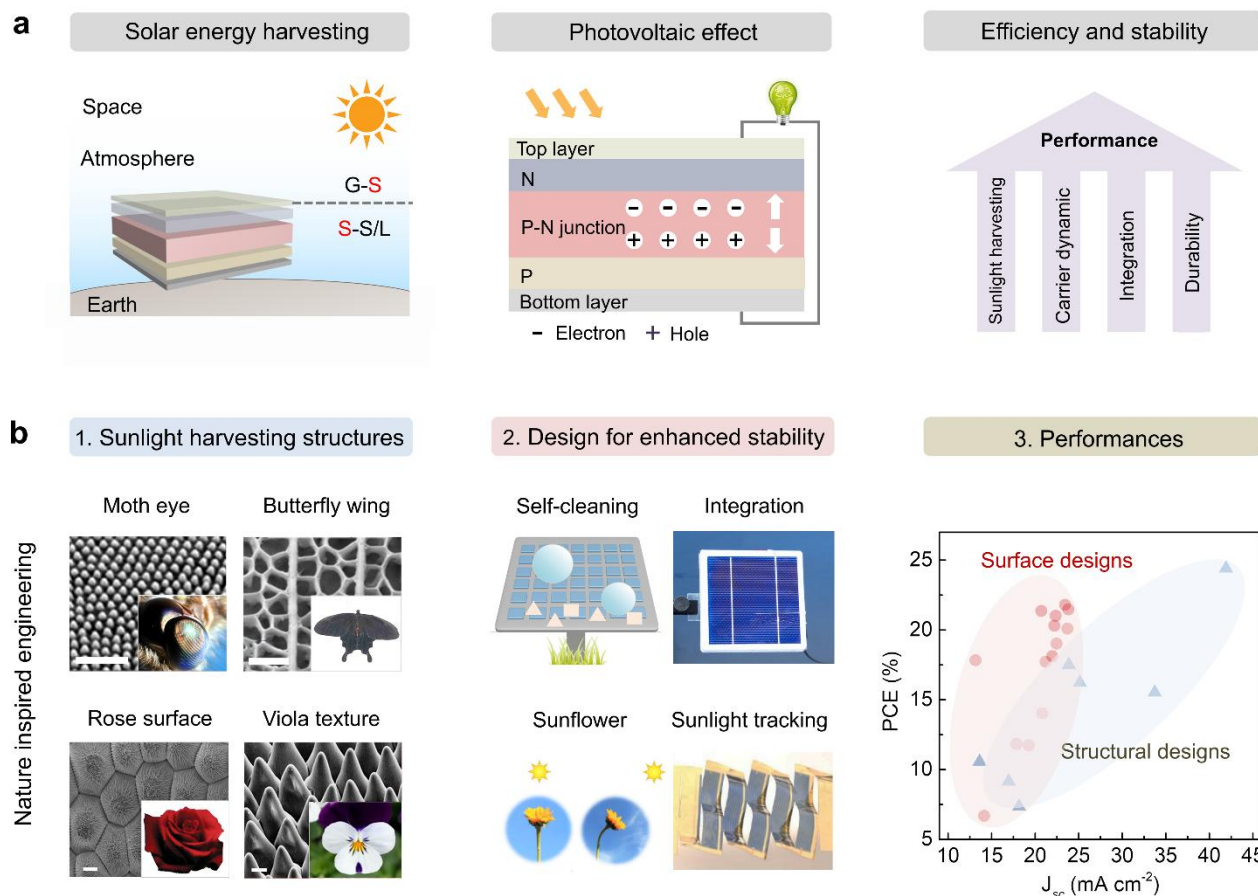


Fig. 4 | Nature-inspired engineering for solar energy harvesting at gas (air)-solid interface (G-S). **a**, Schematic illustrating the design principles of solar energy harvesting. From left to right: the working interfaces, the basic photovoltaic effect, and main performance factors of solar cells related to interface engineering. **b**, Nature-inspired interface engineering strategies for solar cells. From left to right: 1) nature-inspired structural design for sunlight harvesting, as exemplified by subwavelength structures in moth's eyes¹⁰⁷, hierarchical textures in butterfly's wing¹⁰⁸, and multiscale structures in petals surface of rose²⁶ and viola¹¹¹. Adapted with permission from REF. 107, 108, 26, 111. 2) Nature-inspired surface design for enhanced stability and durability, including superhydrophobic surface that enables self-cleaning and seamless device integration¹¹⁹, as well as adaptive sunlight-tracking design that mimics phototropism of sunflower^{123,124}. Adapted with permission from REF. 119, 123, 124. 3) Performance summary of solar cells by nature-inspired interfacial engineering in terms of power conversion efficiency (PCE) and short-circuit current density (J_{sc}).

[H2] Heat energy harvesting

Approximately 67 % of energy is wasted as heat^{125,126}. Tremendous efforts have been dedicated to developing thermal energy harvesting technologies to capture, store, and utilize waste heat, including molten salt technology, thermal chemical storage, and thermal power generation¹²⁷⁻¹²⁹. However, these technologies rely on bulk volume and only work with high-temperature thermal energy, leaving

the decentralized and low-grade ($< 100\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$) heat energy largely unexplored^{130,131}. To this end, thermoelectric generators (TEGs) have emerged based on different mechanisms such as Seebeck, Peltier, and Thomson effects, by which thermal phonon motion from the external medium is converted into internal ion and charge movement for electricity generation (**Fig. 5a**)¹³²⁻¹³⁴. These mechanisms have led to the rapid development of TEGs with various modes, including typical thermoelectric generator (TE)^{135,136}, pyroelectric generator (PE)^{137,138}, and thermogalvanic generator (TG) (**Fig. 5b**)¹³⁹. Current TEGs still suffer from low energy efficiency, limited scalability, and inadequate durability. Nature-inspired advanced interfacial designs may offer new possibilities to meet requirements for highly efficient heat energy harvesting¹⁴⁰⁻¹⁴³. In addition, waste heat is commonly stored in liquid and solid, underscoring the crucial role of the interface between the TEGs and the thermal medium in enhancing TEG performance.

[H3] Nature-inspired liquid-solid interface.

Waste heat in the form of liquid is ubiquitous, ranging from the vapor exited from nuclear power plants to the cooling water used in steel mills. Unlike the intensive exploration of advanced materials for TEGs, less attention has been placed on the interfacial interaction between TEGs and hot liquid mediums (**Fig. 5c**). Interfacial interaction, however, is an important factor that directly affects heat transfer, ion separation, and charge migration, influencing the performance of TEGs^{131,141}. First, the high fluidity and deformability characteristics of liquids facilitate convective heat transfer and ensure stable voltage output. Liquids can seamlessly adapt to various heat transfer surfaces regardless of shape, composition, and size with maximal contact area and minimal thermal resistance. Moreover, being excellent carriers of ions, liquids can decrease the ohmic resistance at the solid-liquid interface and generate electrical power through electrochemical redox reactions for harvesting low-grade heat¹⁴⁴.

Taking inspiration from living organisms featuring intriguing surfaces holds a significant potential to maximize heat harvesting efficiency. For example, nature-inspired super-hydrophilic surfaces can significantly expand contact surfaces and reduce thermal resistance between liquid-solid interfaces, thereby promoting heat transfer^{145,146}. Incorporating functional coatings, i.e., dynamic thermoregulatory material inspired by squid skin¹⁴⁷, on the surface of TEGs can also facilitate heat

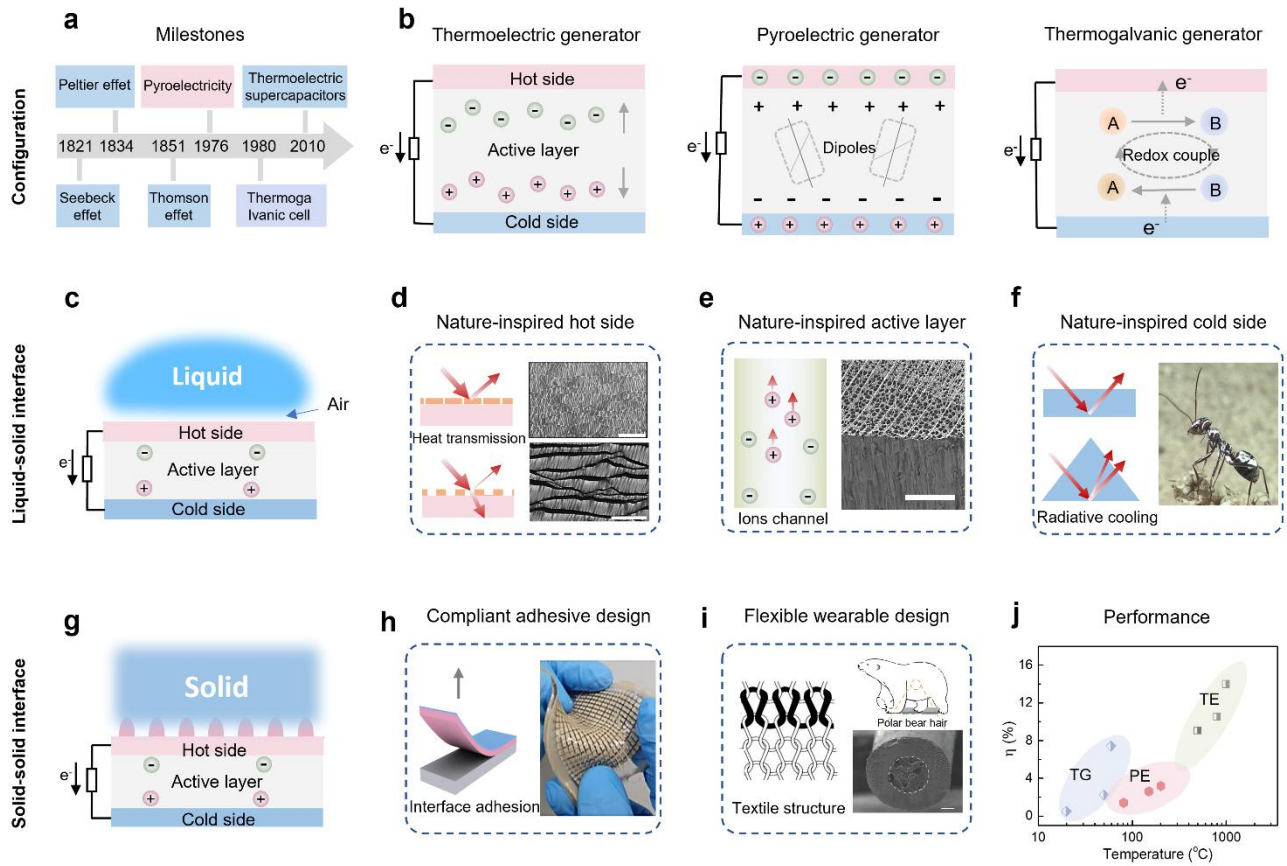
500 conduction and prevent surface oxidation and corrosion, resulting in improved durability (**Fig. 5d**).
501 Apart from surface modification, the internal structure manipulation of TEGs, such as the utilization
502 of porous cellulose membranes¹⁴⁸, endows the TEGs with larger accessible surface area, shorter heat
503 transfer path, and optimized integration to ensure high energy conversion efficiency (**Fig. 5e**). In
504 addition, structural chemical components in TEGs further contributes to improving the heat
505 harvesting capability as evidenced by the radiative cooling materials inspired by the desert silver
506 ants¹⁴⁹. The triangular shape of the silver hairs that cover their bodies can increase the reflection of
507 near-infrared rays and dissipate heat in dry and hot environment (**Fig. 5f**). Overall, these strategies,
508 despite their different functions, interact and complement each other to optimize heat transfer and
509 harvesting for maximum heat-to-electricity conversion.

510 **[H3] Nature-inspired solid-solid interface**

511 Effectively harvesting waste heat stored in solid mediums is critical for many industries such as
512 electronics, automotive, aerospace, power generation, and directed energy systems. Current solid-
513 state TEGs are capable of harvesting waste heat for electrical generation; however, their practical
514 application is hindered either by low conversion efficiency or complex design. From an interface
515 perspective, these shortages arise from the mismatches of lattice and surface topology between TEG
516 materials and hot mediums (**Fig. 5g**). First, the lattice mismatch between TEG materials and hot
517 mediums may induce energy barriers and inhomogeneous thermal expansion, both of which hinder
518 heat transfer. Furthermore, the utilization of high-temperature heat mediums ($> 1000\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$) necessitates
519 more stable TEG materials to prevent oxidation, deformation, or even cracking and melting¹⁵⁰.
520 Second, the surface topology mismatch between TEGs and heat mediums introduces unwanted air
521 gaps that hinder their intimate contact and degrade heat transfer and charge migration.

522 The above mismatches can be mitigated by regulating microstructure and composition of TEG
523 surfaces. One potential solution is choosing flexible TEG materials to construct compatible solid-
524 solid interfaces, thereby reducing the heat transfer resistance. For example, the utilization of
525 stretchable and adhesive hydrogels as conformable thermal interfaces presents a promising solution
526 for effective heat transfer and enables compliant designing of TEGs in complex application scenarios
527 (**Fig. 5h**)^{151,152}. Another feasible approach is to introduce functional coating as intermediate layers

528 between heat sources and TEG materials to reduce thermal radiation losses and improve thermal
 529 energy conversion efficiency. One typical example is mimicking the hairs of polar bear to develop
 530 hollow structure that are efficient for thermal insulating¹⁵³. Additionally, the excellent processability
 531 of solid materials allows for the microscale design of TEGs, making them suitable for emerging
 532 applications such as the Internet of Things (IoTs), wireless sensor networks, and microelectronics¹⁵⁴.
 533 In particular, they can be seamlessly integrated into flexible wearable devices to power advanced low-
 534 energy electronic devices (**Fig. 5i**)¹⁵⁵⁻¹⁵⁷. TEGs with distinct working mechanisms have their
 535 operation temperature ranges (**Fig. 5j**). Among them, the thermoelectric generator demonstrates a
 536 relatively higher efficiency η at around 13 %, followed by the thermogalvanic generator (7.8 %) and
 537 pyroelectric generator (3.4 %).



538
 539 **Fig. 5 | Nature-inspired engineering for heat energy harvesting.** **a**, Schematic illustrating the
 540 evolvment and development of the thermos-enabled electricity generation. **b**, Three fundamental
 541 modes of the thermos-enabled electricity generations based on thermoelectric effect (TE),
 542 pyroelectric effect (PE) and thermogalvanic effect (TG), respectively. **c-f**, Nature-inspired liquid-
 543 solid interfaces for thermal energy harvesting, involving (d) hot side design using functional coating
 544 inspired by squid skin¹⁴⁷, (e) active layer design featuring porous ion channels utilizing wood-derived
 545 cellulose membrane¹⁴⁸, and (f) cold side design leveraging desert silver ant-inspired radiative

cooling¹⁴⁹. Adapted with permission from REF.147, 148, 149. **g-i**, Nature-inspired solid-solid interfaces for thermal energy harvesting, including (h) compliant adhesive design with conformal contact¹⁵² and (i) flexible wearable design with seamless integration^{156,157}. Adapted with permission from REF.152, 156, 157. **j**, Performance summary of thermos-enabled energy harvesting, in terms of energy conversion efficiency (η) and temperature.

[H1] Hybrid energy harvesting

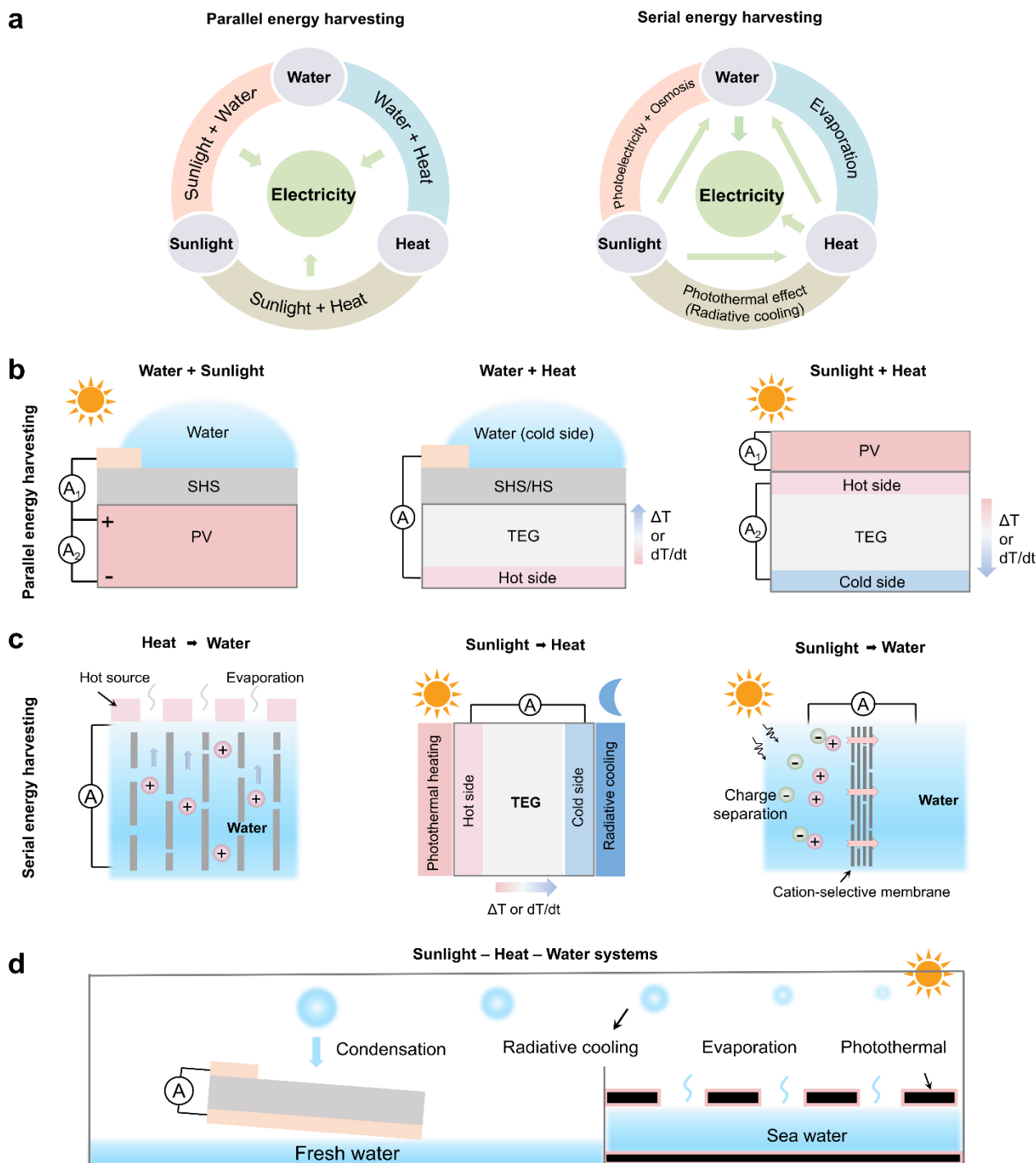
Nature-inspired interfacial design has reshaped the way of harvesting individual energy sources such as water, sunlight, or heat. However, in most scenarios, these energy sources coexist and can be mutually converted. Harvesting these energy sources in a hybrid manner offers the potential to overcome the intermittency of individual energy harvesting (**Fig.6a**). Current strategies mainly rely on the simple stacking of different individual energy harvesters, which may sacrifice the advantages of individual energy harvesting and even lead to lower overall efficiency. An ideal design of hybrid energy harvesting should achieve mutual reinforcement in individual performance, thereby leading to collective benefits, such as low cost, increased space utilization and energy conversion efficiency, as well as enhanced availability and stability.

One solution is to seamlessly integrate water-sunlight-heat energy generators through rational interface design and materials optimization. To this end, the characteristics of each energy harvesting process should be carefully considered for optimized collective performance (**Fig.6b**). For example, integrating a superhydrophobic surface-based water energy generator with a PV cell provides superior self-cleaning, anti-reflection and longer operation time^{87,117,118}. Similar interface engineering principle enables hybrid water and heat energy harvesting, in which the kinetic energy and latent energy of water can be fully utilized¹⁵⁸⁻¹⁶⁰. Integrating PV cell and TEG with a common interface can simultaneously improve the temperature difference of TEG and cooling efficiency of PV cell, facilitating the mutual enhancement in energy harvesting efficiency¹⁶¹⁻¹⁶³. By harvesting multiple energy sources in a parallel manner, these hybrid energy generators can also improve energy utilization efficiency, energy reliability and stability, and provide cost reduction.

In addition to the parallel energy harvesting, optimizing the generator surfaces also enables hybrid energy harvesting leveraging the serial energy transduction (**Fig.6c**). For example, designing interfaces containing photothermal and radiative cooling materials can collectively generate thermal

575 gradients or fluctuations for thermoelectricity generation, enabling all-day energy harvesting from
576 both the sun and outer space¹⁶⁴⁻¹⁶⁶. In addition, the sunlight-to-water energy conversion can harvest
577 energy through the integration of photoelectric materials and ion-selective membrane, synergistically
578 converting sunlight energy and salinity gradient into electricity^{167,168}. Moreover, the coexistence of
579 sunlight, heat, and water sources in the natural environment can facilitate multiple energy
580 transductions via a highly integrated hybrid system (**Fig. 6d**), allowing for whether-adaptive energy
581 harvesting in one scenario.

582 Nature-inspired interfacial engineering in individual energy harvesting paves the way for the
583 springing out of hybrid systems with mutual reinforcement. Promoting these hybrid designs in
584 practical applications faces more challenges owing to the mismatching in the forms and scales of
585 electrical output produced by different energy generators. We envision a combination of
586 interdisciplinary technologies such as intelligent electronic control, energy storage, and management
587 can solve these problems, enabling maximum utilization of various energy sources.



588

589 **Fig. 6 | Hybrid energy harvesting.** **a**, Schematics showing hybrid energy harvesting systems harness
590 sustainable water-sunlight-heat nexus, including parallel energy harvesting from multisource
591 (Parallel energy harvesting, left) and serial energy transduction between multisource for electricity
592 generation (Serial energy harvesting, right). **b**, Representative examples of parallel energy harvesting
593 from multiple sources, including water-sunlight, water-heat, and sunlight-thermal energy generators.
594 SHS and HS represent the superhydrophobic surface and hydrophobic surface, respectively. **c**,
595 Representative examples of serial hybrid energy harvesting systems involving serial energy
596 transduction between multiple sources, such as heat-to-water (evaporation)-enabled electricity
597 generation, the photothermal effect-radiative cooling induced thermoelectricity generation, and

photoelectric-osmotic electricity generation. **d**, A highly integrated mixed hybrid energy harvesting system harnessing sunlight, heat, and water energy in one scenario.

Table 1 | Nature-inspired interfacial engineering for energy harvesting.

Energy harvesting techniques	Water energy		Solar energy	Heat energy
	Continuous water: Osmotic, Evaporation, Moisture	Discrete water: Droplet, Waves, etc.		
Interfacial design principle	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• High surface charge density• High water-affinity• High specific surface area• Approaching Deby length• High mechanical durability	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• High surface charge density• Low water-affinity• High specific surface area• Low contact angle hysteresis• High mechanical durability	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• High sunlight harvesting• Low surface reflection• Surface defect passivation• Optimal carrier dynamics• Tunable band gap• Photochemical stability	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Low heat resistance• Fast ion/charge transfer• High specific surface area• Matched/compatible contact with heat source• Thermal stability
Characteristics of natural counterparts	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Abundant functional groups• Hydrophilic• High ions selectivity• High porosity• Heterogeneous property• Topological structure	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Hierarchical structure• Hydrophobic• High porosity• Topological structure• Slippery surface• Heterogeneous property	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Subwavelength structures• Hierarchical textures• Superhydrophobic• Photosensitive• Adaptive phototropism• Photoelectrocatalytic	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• High porosity• Fractal structure• Good thermal insulating• Flexible/conformable• High reflection• High infrared emissivity
Advantages of nature inspired systems	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Electrical outputs improvement• High energy efficiency• Mutual reinforcement of hybridization• Seamless integration/scalability• Enhanced durability		<ul style="list-style-type: none">• High flexibility/conformability• High compatibility/adaptivity• Diverse portability• Favorable wearability• High sustainability	
Challenges of nature inspired systems	1) Fundamentally <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Limited energy conversion efficiency• Inefficient charge manipulation• Biological complexity imposed by the spatial-temporal scales processes		2) Technically <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Inadequate precision of manufacturing• Deficient materials• Inadequate reproducibility• Limited scalability• Insufficient durability	
Potential applications	1) Cross-scales power supplier <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Wearable devices• Portable electronics• Industrial Monitoring• Environmental Monitoring• Building automation		2) Self-powered sensors 3) Other scenarios <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Remote areas and offshores• Deep space exploration• Smart farming• Internet of Things	

[H1] Outlook

Learning from the ways energy is utilized in nature through the evolution of surface engineering has provided ample opportunities to achieve sustainable electricity generation with high efficiency (**Table1**). However more scientific effort is required to reveal underlying mechanisms in diverse energy processes.

Translating nature’s inspiration to practical applications calls for the innovative fusion of multidisciplinary fields. Firstly, despite extensive progress, the basic mechanisms underlying electricity generation from different resources remain to be fully clarified. For instance, the charging mechanism of triboelectric nanogenerators is still under debate regarding whether it involves electrons, ions, or mass transfer¹⁶⁹. The processes occurring at diverse interfaces and displaying

614 distinct spatial-temporal scales, are strongly related to the local physic-chemical properties of
615 interfaces, such as wetting, structure, surface charges, heterogeneity, and composition, which together
616 dictate the global behavior, the energy efficiency. Although energy efficiency is easy to measure and
617 quantify, a holistic understanding is elusive owing to its complexity imposed by the multiscale
618 processes. Therefore, a combination of advanced techniques in manufacturing, characterization,
619 visualization, modeling, as well as the latest toolkits in machine learning is needed to accelerate the
620 in-depth fundamental exploration¹⁷⁰.

621 Translating our fundamental understandings into practical applications presents several
622 challenges. Nature-inspired interfacial engineering has led to energy efficiency enhancement,
623 however, the precision as well as functions of current engineered interfaces are not yet comparable to
624 their biological counterparts. Further scaling up as well as the development of hybrid energy
625 harvesting systems may compromise reproducibility, compatibility, and reliability of engineered
626 interfaces. Addressing these challenges necessitates innovations in materials design, manufacturing,
627 and soft technologies, such as artificial intelligence, molecular dynamics, and smart energy
628 management algorithms. This approach will accelerate the miniaturization of energy harvesting
629 systems, which can be seamlessly integrated to self-sustained electronic devices, including wireless
630 sensors and wearable electronics for a wide range of fields such as environment monitoring,
631 infrastructure health management, or space exploration^{171,172}. Moreover, these innovations can
632 facilitate the scaling up of energy harvesting systems for utility-scale applications, especially in
633 remote or offshore regions with abundant natural resources but limited access to electricity. In
634 addition to enhancing their ability to effectively harness abundant natural sources such as water, solar,
635 and heat, it is possible to achieve mutual reinforcement of hybrid energy harvesting systems for
636 sustainable electricity supply, particularly in emerging fields like IoTs and smart farming.

637 The advances in nature-inspired interfacial engineering have demonstrated immense potential in
638 the design of new materials and devices to harvest multiple energy sources, paving the way for
639 sustainable electricity generation at multiple spatial-temporal scales and scenarios. Projecting to the
640 future, our continued venture into nature through the innovative convergence of multidisciplinary
641 fields, can potentially lead to transformative and highly efficient energy harvesting systems. These

advancements would hold increasing promise in accelerating the upgrade and transition of low-carbon energy portfolio. Finally, stimulating general interest among researchers from diverse disciplines and interactions within the scientific and industrial communities is required to drive the evolution of this exciting and dynamic field.

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993 **Author contributions**

994 All authors discussed and contributed to the writing of the manuscript. B.Z. and W.X. contributed
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996 **Competing interests**

997 The authors declare no competing interests.