

# Energy-Efficient Energy Harvesting for IoT Systems - A Review

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**Abstract** - Throughout the technological evolution the Internet of Things has been a key factor in it. Yet when it comes to widespread implementations, it still has a battery dependency limitation that restrain the device in a short lifespan and maintenance costs. This paper come up with a review that emphasis IoT system focuses on sustainable power solutions in energy harvesting. We study six major harvesting modalities such as RF, solar, thermal, piezoelectric, and biochemical, and hybrid approaches analyzing 15 representative implementations across these categories. Key techniques include microbial fuel cells using *Gluconobacter oxydans* in sewage water ( $0.2 \text{ mW}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ ), high-efficiency RF rectifiers achieving 93.24% power conversion efficiency at  $-17.5 \text{ dBm}$ , multi-band differential rectenna systems harvesting from 2.1-3.6 GHz bands, indoor/outdoor solar harvesting delivering  $941 \mu\text{W}$  under well-lit conditions, thermoelectric generators producing  $180\text{-}500 \mu\text{W}$  from temperature differentials, piezoelectric harvesters with  $244.8 \text{ mW}\cdot\text{g}^{-2}\cdot\text{cm}^{-3}$  power density, and hybrid RF-thermal systems with dual-purpose designs. Findings show that existing harvesting technologies can effectively power autonomous Internet of Things nodes with suitable duty cycling (0.17–1%) and energy control techniques such as energy-neutral operation, adaptive maximum power point tracking (MPPT), and supercapacitors buffering. A 64% lifetime improvement is achieved by energy-neutral operation, while the combined area of integrated CMOS harvesters is just  $0.835 \text{ mm}^2$ . Identifying harvesting techniques that simultaneously deliver high power and low cost for widespread IoT deployment. This review offers a methodical comparison to direct researchers toward application-specific fixes that strike a balance between cost, performance, and suitability for the environment.

**Keywords** - Energy harvesting, Internet of Things, low-power electronics, microbial fuel cells, piezoelectric devices, RF energy harvesting, solar energy, thermoelectric generators, wireless sensor networks

## I. INTRODUCTION

THE Internet of Things (IoT) is something that molds our modern life when it comes to technology. It can be found in smart devices, sensors, and actuators across applications that vary from environmental to healthcare and industrial automation. Despite its many uses and widespread deployment, it encounters a fundamental challenge: power [1]. The main necessity for it to function. Conventional battery-powered systems require periodic replacement or charging, which sometimes makes them unsuitable for use in remote locations, embedded in infrastructure, or attached to wearables. In addition, disposing of batteries can cause environmental concerns [2].

One solution that arises from this challenge is energy harvesting. Energy from renewable sources such as electromagnetic waves, sunlight, thermal gradients, mechanical vibrations, and biochemical processes can be collected, enabling IoT devices to achieve self-powered operation and reducing battery dependency, allowing them to operate autonomously [3]. Energy harvesting has emerged and rapidly developed over the past decades, achieving conversion efficiencies of up to 93% for RF harvesters [4], power densities exceeding  $240 \text{ mW}\cdot\text{g}^{-2}\cdot\text{cm}^{-3}$  for piezoelectric devices [5], and complete self-powered sensor nodes capable of operating for years solely on harvested energy [6].

Existing solutions from related literature demonstrate various approaches to addressing this power challenge. Ten representative studies highlight the current landscape:

Microbial Fuel Cells utilize *Gluconobacter oxydans* bacteria in sewage water to generate  $0.2 \text{ mW}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$  continuously for IoT sensing and wireless communication [1].

High-Efficiency RF Rectifiers achieve 93.24% power conversion efficiency at  $-17.5 \text{ dBm}$  input power using MOSFET-modeled capacitors and bio-inspired optimization [4].

Multi-Band Differential Rectenna Systems harvest from 2.1-3.6 GHz bands with 69.83% efficiency, powering microcontrollers for overheating protection [9].

Remote Solar IoT Nodes using 0.36W panels achieve 1.8 km range with 1-year estimated battery life through 55-second duty cycling [6].

Indoor/Outdoor Solar Harvesters deliver  $941 \mu\text{W}$  under well-lit conditions and  $212 \mu\text{W}$  in low light, with 278-day measured lifetime [10].

Piezoelectric MEMS Harvesters with tungsten proof masses achieve  $244.8 \text{ mW}\cdot\text{g}^{-2}\cdot\text{cm}^{-3}$  power density at 50 Hz with 8x Q factor improvement [5].

PVDF-Based Dual-Mode Harvesters combine piezoelectric and pyroelectric effects to generate  $1 \mu\text{W}$  and  $0.42 \mu\text{W}$  respectively, powering complete wireless sensor nodes [14].

CMOS-Integrated Thermal Harvesters with reconfigurable charge pumps deliver  $500 \mu\text{W}$  at 64% efficiency in only  $0.835 \text{ mm}^2$  area [11].

VCO-Based MPPT Circuits boost 0.25V TEG input to 3V output at 61.6% efficiency for low-voltage thermal harvesting [12].

Energy-Neutral Vibration Harvesters using adaptive duty cycling achieve 64% lifetime improvement through energy-neutral operation [18].

Despite its fast deployment of energy harvesting, choosing the most efficient way and suitable method to collect energy remains significant challenge. Numerous studies that focus on individual and each lacks unified comparison using consistent performance metrics on top of that being efficient and low cost sometimes cannot be in one device, therefore this study come up with a comprehensive review and comparison analysis of multiple energy harvesting technique to guide the selection of appropriate solution for sustainable IoT Systems.

## II. METHODOLOGY

In order to find, evaluate, and compile pertinent literature on energy harvesting for Internet of Things applications, this review employs a methodical approach.

### A. Review Stage

We conducted comprehensive searches in IEEE Xplore, Scopus, and Web of Science databases using keywords including: "energy harvesting," "IoT," "wireless sensor networks," "RF harvesting," "solar harvesting," "thermoelectric generator," "TEG," "piezoelectric," "microbial fuel cell," and "hybrid energy harvesting." The search focused on publications from 2017-2026.

### B. Inclusion Criteria

Papers were selected based on the following criteria:

Focus on energy harvesting for IoT, wearable, or wireless sensor applications

Presentation of specific techniques with measurable results

Inclusion of energy saving methods or power management strategies

Clear articulation of strengths and limitations

Experimental validation or fabricated prototypes (preferred)

### C. Selected Papers

Following initial screening and quality assessment, 15 papers were selected for detailed analysis, representing:

RF Harvesting: 2 papers (high-efficiency rectifier, multi-band rectenna)

Solar Harvesting: 2 papers (remote outdoor, indoor/outdoor)

Thermal Harvesting: 3 papers (CMOS integrated, MPPT circuit, wearable TEG)

Piezoelectric Harvesting: 3 papers (survey + 2 primary implementations)

Bio-chemical Harvesting: 2 papers (bacterial MFC, plant MFC)

Hybrid Harvesting: 2 papers (RF+thermal, thermal+vibration)

Energy Management: 1 paper (energy-neutral operation)

### D. Data Extraction

For each selected paper, we extracted:

Harvesting technique and underlying principles

Energy saving methods and power management approaches

Quantitative performance metrics (power output, efficiency, voltage, current)

Strengths and limitations

Application context and validation method

obtaining any security clearances.

## III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This section breaks down recent work in energy harvesting, organized by where the power actually comes from. Some methods are further along than others. A few exist only in simulation. A couple actually run real devices in dirty water or on people's wrists. Here's what's out there.

### A. Radio Frequency Harvesting

RF harvesting pulls from ambient signals cell towers, Wi-Fi, broadcast radio already floating through the air. No new infrastructure needed. It just grabs what's already there.

1. Paper 2 describes a modified rectifier using MOSFETs structured to act like capacitors. Instead of guessing at transistor sizes, the team applied something called the Walrus Optimization Algorithm to pick dimensions. The result, at least in simulation, hits 93.24% efficiency with an input of just -17.5 dBm. The whole thing fits in 35.22 square micrometers. Performance stays reasonably flat across a 25 dB input range. Among simulated RF harvesters, this one leads the pack. But it's worth noting: everything here comes from software. No one has actually built this chip. It assumes ambient RF signals strong enough to matter. And the optimization method itself is fairly complex.

2. Paper 4 presents a rectenna a rectifying antenna using differential feeding and a Villard voltage doubler. Unlike single-band designs, this one grab energy from three frequencies at once: 2.1 GHz (UMTS), 2.6 GHz (WLAN), and 3.6 GHz (WiMAX). Antenna gain ranges from 10.23 to 13.27 dBi, so it pulls in signal well. At -5 dBm input, conversion efficiency hits nearly 70%. Real-world testing delivered 30.91 microwatts at about 1.4 volts enough to run a small temperature-monitoring processor. So, it actually works outside the lab, handles multiple bands, and drives real circuitry. That said, efficiency isn't class-leading. It only hits peak numbers with a very specific 3-kilohm load. And like all RF harvesting, it depends entirely on nearby transmitters staying active.

### B. Solar Harvesting

Solar remains the heavyweight champion among ambient sources. The tech is mature, the power density is high, and it works wherever there's light though "enough light" is doing a lot of work in that sentence.

1. One setup uses a 63x63 millimeter solar panel rated at 0.36 watts. Rather than a single storage method, it pairs a 5-

farad supercapacitor with a 120 milliamp-hour lithium coin battery. Charge it once in sunlight, and the system runs close to a full year on battery alone. With just the supercapacitor, expect about thirty-seven hours. It transmits sensor data temperature, humidity, light levels every 55 seconds, with a range up to 1.8 kilometers in good conditions. The design is compact but complete. Range is solid. Storage is dual-purpose. It genuinely lasts. But 55 seconds between readings means this isn't for real-time monitoring. And the panel itself isn't small 63 millimeters square demands real estate.

2. Paper 7 tests a similar 0.36-watt panel with just the 120 milliamp-hour lithium cell, aimed at indoor and outdoor use. In bright rooms, it averaged 942 microwatts over 60 hours. Dim conditions dropped that to 212 microwatts across one day. With data sends every 55 seconds at 228.5 meters range, the battery stretched to 278 days. These are real indoor numbers under actual lighting conditions, not just theoretical maxes. Weak-light performance gets logged. Lifespan gets tested. Cost stays low. But range is shorter than the previous design. There's no supercapacitor support. And honestly, it reads very close to Paper 5's work not a lot of new ground here.

### C. Thermoelectric Harvesting

Temperature differences drive these. Heat flowing from warm side to cold side moves electrons. No moving parts. Works anywhere warmth would otherwise go to waste engines, industrial exhaust, human skin.

1. A fully integrated on-chip converter built in standard 130-nanometer CMOS accepts input voltages from 0.27 to 1 volt. A smart capacitor network switches configurations based on incoming power. Maximum-power-point tracking keeps extraction efficient as conditions shift. The chip occupies 0.835 square millimeters smaller than a grain of rice. At 1 volt input, it delivers 0.5 milliwatts at 64% efficiency. Input resistance range spans one ohm to five thousand ohms very wide. This is real hardware, fabricated and tested. But it still needs an external thermoelectric module to actually generate that temperature difference. And nowhere do they state what delta-T produced those numbers. Performance is solid for the footprint, and fabrication proves it's real, but the missing gap temperature and external-part dependence limit how self-contained this really is.

2. Another design uses a voltage-controlled oscillator guiding a Pelliconi-style charge pump to boost very low inputs. Starting at just 0.25 volts, it outputs a regulated 3 volts. Built in the same 130-nanometer CMOS process, it targets scenarios with very small temperature differences. Efficiency hits 61.6% in testing. Peak output is 180 microwatts at 3 volts driving 60 microamps. This is the second time this thermal approach has appeared in literature so it's a known quantity. It operates down to 0.25 volts, which genuinely helps with minimal delta-T situations. A working chip exists. But again, max power is low. It needs an external TEG. And the exact temperature difference used in testing? Not reported.

3. Study 23 describes a flexible thermoelectric generator designed for smartwatches. It runs off body heat, using improved cooling structures to maintain the temperature gap. With an 8.5-degree Celsius difference between skin and air, it claims 3.55 volts at 1 ampere 3.55 watts peak. Testing shows extended battery life because recharging happens less often. This is the third in a series on thermal materials. It's designed

for wearables. Actual test units exist. Components are flexible. There's even discussion of market pathways. But that 3.55 watt figure raises eyebrows it's unusually high for a watch-sized device. Maintaining an 8.5-degree gap against skin day-to-day isn't guaranteed. Performance depends on consistent contact and ambient conditions. It's promising, but those numbers need a second look.

### D. Piezoelectric Harvesting

Squeeze or shake certain materials, and they produce voltage. Bridges swaying, floors vibrating, machinery running all become power sources. Conversion happens right where pressure changes.

1. A review paper surveys piezoelectric materials PZT, PVDF, ZnO and common structures like cantilevers and diaphragms. It covers circuit designs and real-world applications in wireless devices. Its value is in mapping the field, not presenting new data. It lays out the key problems: low operating frequencies, narrow response bands, material fatigue, integration complexity. It also draws clear lines between current knowledge and where research might head next. Background context is solid. But because it's all summary, depth suffers. Nothing gets tested. No hands-on validation. Broad, not deep.

2. Aluminum nitride resonators with tungsten proof masses ditch the usual silicon for denser metal, boosting response. Built directly on wafers, they deliver 244.8 milliwatts per gram squared per cubic centimeter at just 50 hertz slow vibration. At 553 hertz, they still manage 69.4 of the same units. Quality factor jumps from 250 to 2000 an eightfold increase in resonance sharpness. The design is resilient enough that vacuum sealing isn't needed. Performance sets records, helped enormously by that Q factor jump. Running well at 50 hertz makes them useful where motion is slow. Fabrication fits standard wafer processes, so scaling is plausible. But tungsten is difficult to work with at small scales. They're most efficient only near specific frequencies, limiting flexibility. And you still need a micro-fabrication lab to make them.

3. One study uses a 39-micrometer PVDF film with sprayed-on transparent electrodes made from silver nanowires and conductive polymer. Because the electrodes are clear, light passes through while the material harvests energy from pressure. Pressing it generates about 1 microwatt steady output. Heat or bright light triggers around 0.42 microwatts. Pressure sensitivity measures 3.6 millivolts per pascal. Under illumination, it hits 42 volt square centimeters per watt. Total area is 8 square centimeters enough to run a small wireless sensor without batteries. Transparent layers genuinely beat older metal-film designs. Real numbers back performance claims. But power is still tiny fractions of a watt. The footprint may be too large for compact devices. Long-term durability of those clear electrodes? Still unknown.

### E. Bio-Based Harvesting

Microbes and plants generate electricity as part of normal life processes. Tap into those reactions carefully, and you get power without burning anything. It works in places you wouldn't expect.

1. Wastewater flowing through a setup with *Gluconobacter oxydans* bacteria produces 0.2 milliwatts per square centimeter at half a volt. Power trickles continuously into storage, then feeds a sensor network checking humidity, temperature, and light, transmitting occasionally. Unlike batteries, it runs on slow, steady drip into a capacitor-like holder. The remarkable part: it works fully off-grid in actual sewer conditions. But output is low. It depends entirely on dirty water. And due to built-in timing constraints, it only transmits about 1% of the time one burst per hundred possible moments. Narrow by design, but genuinely self-contained where waste is the fuel.

2. Plant microbial fuel cells team living plants with root-zone bacteria. Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy tunes power draw to keep the biofilm from over-stressing. Long lifespan matters more than peak output here. The system runs on renewable biology, lasts longer under smart loads, adjusts via impedance signals, and can double as an environmental sensor. But it's slow plant growth rates set the pace. Tuning is complex because biological and electrical layers interact. Output is modest next to dense energy sources.

#### F. Hybrid Harvesting

Combining multiple sources smooths out the dips. When light fades or vibration stops, another method takes over. Steady flow comes from diversity, not any single source's strength.

1. Paper 9 presents a device doing two things at once: cooling and RF harvesting. Rather than separate components for heat management and signal capture, one structure does both. It grabs GSM and 3G frequencies, boosting signal strength 3.8 to 5.3 decibels. Integrated cooling fins roughly double heat dissipation in testing. Engineers used simulation tools handling both electromagnetics and thermal flow. Signal output improved about 50% through better shaping. Space savings are real. Gains are quantified. But hybrids like this require tight integration across different physics domains. Missing: how much electricity it actually generates. And thermal harvesting only works well where daily temperatures swing enough.

2. Study 19 integrates a small antenna directly with a thermoelectric generator. The TEG sits above a quarter-wave patch antenna tuned for 2.4 to 2.5 gigahertz. Heat flows through a dedicated path to the ground plane, co-designed with RF performance in mind. Testing shows reflections below -10 dB across the band, peaking at 2.3 dB gain at 2.45 gigahertz. They built it. They picked a common IoT band. They tested real signals. They modeled TEG behavior. But they don't report TEG power output. Temperature difference details are missing. And 2.3 dB gain is modest a slight boost at best.

3. Paper 17 combines piezoelectric and magnetic harvesting on an older MicaZ platform. Instead of fixed timing, it adapts its own duty cycle, hitting 0.17% active time actually better than the previous steady 0.21% design. When stored power drains, effective lifespan increases by nearly two-thirds. A magnetic collector strapped to a moving arm shows how body motion can power small devices. It introduced magnetic capture to this space, compared two methods side-by-side, stretched runtime, and proved wearable. But active time is still

seconds. Low duty cycles limit real-world usefulness. And MicaZ is dated hardware.

#### Energy saving methods and Power management

Effective energy harvesting requires not only efficient transducers but also sophisticated power management strategies. This section analyzes key energy saving methods across reviewed implementations.

#### A. Circuit-Level Techniques

##### 1. High-Efficiency Conversion

A new design in Paper 2 hits 93.24% PCE by fine-tuning the rectifier setup along with transistor dimensions [4]. Instead of fixed circuits, Paper 16 uses a flexible charge pump paired with 3-D MPPT to reach 64% end-to-end performance [11]. With a different path, Paper 20 lands at 61.6% using an oscillator-driven method for tracking power peaks [12]. When parts are shaped right, the whole system runs much better.

##### 2. Impedance Matching with Maximum Power Point Tracking

Getting the most power possible happens even when things change around it. Instead of fixed settings, one approach lines up resistance from 1 ohm to 5 thousand ohms. Another method uses voltage-controlled timing, built for tiny energy sources that run at very low levels. A different study picks smart load adjustments using electrical signals, focusing on lasting performance more than maximum output.

##### 3. Optimize Area and Components

A tiny 35.22  $\mu\text{m}^2$  footprint appears in Paper 2, thanks to capacitors built on MOSFET models [4]. Over in Paper 16, a larger 0.835  $\text{mm}^2$  space is taken up, crafted in 130 nm CMOS tech [11]. What stands out in Paper 9 is a clever layout pulling double duty while saving room [8]. Efficiency like that trims both size and price for small-scale IoT systems stuck on space.

#### C. Environmental Adaptation

##### 1. Multi-Source Harvesting

When surroundings change, hybrid setups adjust. Instead of just one function, number nine links radio frequency with heat capture using a shared framework. Nineteen merges thermoelectric generators into an antenna design. From a sole piece of PVDF, fifteen shows both pressure and heat responsiveness together.

##### 2. Indoor/Outdoor Adaptation

Indoor settings push solar cells to nearly a thousand microwatts - much higher than dim areas, where they manage only about two hundred [10]. Outdoors, far from cities, changes everything though - efficiency goals shift entirely [6].

comparative and analysis discussion

#### A. Figures and Tables

Table I show the comparison of energy harvesting technique based on power output and efficiency. (Next page)

#### B. Strengths and Limitation by Modality

##### RF Harvesting

Strengths: Can be found anywhere in a urban place, compatible with communication, high efficiency possible.  
Limitations: Low power density ( $\mu\text{W}$  range), distance-dependent, requires network proximity.

##### Solar Harvesting

Strengths: Highest power density (mW range), mature technology, indoor/outdoor options.  
Limitations: Lighting-dependent, large area required, nocturnal interruption.

##### Thermal Harvesting

Strengths: Continuous (24/7) with constant  $\Delta T$ , suitable for wearables (body heat) and industrial waste heat.  
Limitations: Requires temperature gradient, modest power ( $\mu\text{W}$ -mW), rigid TEGs limiting wearables (flexible emerging).

##### Piezoelectric Harvesting

Strengths: Converts ambient vibration, high power density possible, MEMS-scalable.  
Limitations: Frequency-specific, intermittent (requires motion), durability concerns.

##### Bio-chemical Harvesting

Strengths: Sustainable, works in unique environments (sewage, soil), self-regenerating.

Limitations: Very low power, slow dynamics, environmental dependencies.

##### Hybrid Harvesting

Strengths: Improved reliability, complementary source characteristics, space-efficient integration.

Limitations: Complex design, higher cost, co-optimization challenges.

##### Design Consideration

Based on reviewed implementations, key design considerations include:

Environment Assessment: Before choosing a harvesting modality, describe the ambient energy sources that are available, such as RF coverage, sunlight hours, temperature gradients, and vibration frequencies.

Power Budgeting: Use energy buffering and duty cycling to match harvesting capacity to load requirements. The energy-neutral strategy presented in Paper 17 offers a methodical approach.

Form Factor Constraints: Consider size limitations. Paper 5 ( $63 \times 63$  mm) needs more space, but Paper 2 ( $35.22 \mu\text{m}^2$ ) and Paper 16 ( $0.835 \text{mm}^2$ ) show ultra-compact CMOS solutions.

Storage Selection: Ultra-compact CMOS solutions are shown in Paper 2 ( $35.22 \mu\text{m}^2$ ) and Paper 16 ( $0.835 \text{mm}^2$ ), whereas Paper 5 ( $63 \times 63$  mm) needs more space.

Power Management: Use adaptive duty cycling (Paper 17), MPPT (Papers 16, 20), or EIS-based optimization (Paper 10) according to source characteristics.

Paper	Harvesting Type	Power Output	Efficiency	Key Metric
1	Bio-chemical (bacteria)	0.2 mW·cm <sup>-2</sup>	Not specified	Continuous generation
2	RF (rectifier)	Not specified	93.24% at -17.5 dBm	35.22 μm <sup>2</sup> area
4	RF (rectenna)	30.91 μW (field)	69.83% at -5 dBm	1.39 V output
5	Solar (remote)	Not specified	Not specified	1-year lifetime, 1.8 km
7	Solar (indoor)	941 μW (indoor)	Not specified	278-day lifetime
8	Piezo (survey)	N/A (survey)	N/A	Comprehensive review
9	Hybrid (RF+thermal)	Not specified	200% thermal gain	3.8-5.3 dB gain
10	Bio-chemical (plant)	Not specified	Durability focus	EIS optimization
11	Piezo (AlN MEMS)	244.8 mW·g <sup>-2</sup> ·cm <sup>-3</sup>	Q:250→2000	50 Hz operation
15	Piezo+Pyro (PVDF)	1 μW (piezo), 0.42 μW (pyro)	Not specified	3.6 mV/Pa, 42 V·cm <sup>2</sup> /W
16	Thermal (CMOS)	500 μW	64%	0.835 mm <sup>2</sup> area
17	Electro+Piezo	Not specified	64% lifetime improvement	Adaptive duty cycle
19	Hybrid (RF+thermal)	Not specified	S11<-10 dB	2.3 dB gain at 2.45 GHz
20	Thermal (VCO MPPT)	180 μW	61.6%	0.25V→3V boost
23	Thermal (wearable)	3.55 W (peak)	Not specified	3.55 V, 1 A at 8.5°C ΔT

#### IV. CONCLUSION

This deep look at 15 ways to gather energy shows how today's tools already run self-sufficient IoT setups in many real-world cases. Among the results stands a clear trend - systems now operate without external power where it once seemed impossible

Depending on where it is used, what powers it needs, and how big it can be, one size does not fit all. Where light reaches, solar works best because it delivers strong output. In city settings, radio frequency fits well due to signal availability. When there's a difference in heat across surfaces, thermal systems keep running without pause. Vibration turns into energy through piezoelectric materials. For special long-term uses that rely on natural processes, bio-chemical methods open possibilities.

Achieving 93.24% PCE, modern RF rectifiers show strong results [4]. Compact CMOS designs now host piezoelectric systems producing up to 244.8 mW·g<sup>-2</sup>·cm<sup>-3</sup> [5]. Thermal versions offer 64% efficiency alongside 500 μW output in tight layouts [11].

When power runs low, smart systems last longer. By using tech like MPPT and adjusting activity on the fly, devices stretch out their runtime. One study showed a boost of 64 percent when energy was scarce. Staying balanced with available power helps avoid early shutdowns.

Now showing up: pulling energy from more than one source - like radio waves with heat [8,17], or pressure plus temperature shifts [14] - tends to work better across changing surroundings while staying steady, yet things get trickier under the hood.

A handful of studies show full setups - sensors that gather data, handle it internally, then transmit results without external power sources [6,9,10,14,15]. These working models prove the idea can function in real conditions.

## FUTURE DIRECTIONS

Flexible and Wearable Harvesters: Development of flexible TEGs [13], transparent electrodes [14], and fabric-compatible harvesters for wearable IoT applications.

Advanced Hybrid Integration: innovative co-design techniques that expand on Paper 9's dual-purpose strategy by integrating several harvesting modalities with little overhead.

AI-Enhanced Power Management: Machine learning for energy-neutral optimization, load prediction, and adaptive MPPT in a range of environmental circumstances.

Standardized Performance Metrics: Establishment of benchmark standards for fair comparison across harvesting modalities, including standardized test conditions and reporting protocols.

Long-Term Reliability Studies: Extended field deployments (like Paper 7's 2.5-day test [10]) to validate durability, biofilm health [16], and long-term performance.

Commercialization Pathways: Translation from research prototypes to commercial products, addressing cost, manufacturability, and regulatory compliance as discussed in Paper 23 [13].

Energy harvesting made it possible to create self-powered IoT devices that lessen their reliance on batteries and their environmental impact. As technology and materials continue to advance, we will be able to expand their capabilities and create much more autonomous, sustainable IoT ecosystems.

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