

Supporting Information for

A Flexible Integrated Multimodal Hydrogel Based Sensing Patch

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Note S1 How the proximity sensing layer works in non-contact mode

The movement of the human body can induce spatial electrostatic induction with dynamic non-contact sensing characteristics. Initially, the human body and the frictional electronic skin are separated. Once the human body approaches the frictional electronic skin, the potential difference between the electrode layer and the ground induces electron flow, thereby generating a voltage signal. As the human body begins to move away from the frictional electronic skin, electrons flow in the opposite direction from the ground to the electrode layer, completing a full signal generation cycle.

Note S2 Training set, validation set and test set for 1DCNN

In terms of data preparation, we strictly divide the training set, validation set and test set to ensure the generalization ability and reliability of the model. The training set accounts for 70% of the data, which is used for the optimization of model weights; the validation set accounts for 15%, which is used for real-time assessment of the model's performance during the training process to prevent overfitting; and the test set accounts for 15%, which is used for the final assessment of the model's practical application effect. After the data is processed by 1D CNN, five values are finally output, representing the probability of each of the five sleep states, and the state with the highest probability is determined as the current sleep state.

Note S3 Rapid temperature recovery mechanism

In our temperature sensing system, carriers in the hydrogel play a key role in the temperature change process. Specifically, ion transport in hydrogels is a thermally activated process, i.e., as the temperature increases, the ion transport rate increases rapidly, which leads to a rapid decrease in the resistance of the hydrogel. Correspondingly, when the temperature decreases,

the ion transport rate decreases rapidly, resulting in a rapid increase in the resistance of the hydrogel. The increase and decrease in temperature also triggers a microscopic phase transition within the hydrogel. This phase change process helps to improve the response and recovery speed of the temperature sensor. When the temperature changes, the microstructure within the hydrogel adapts to the temperature difference and responds quickly or recovers quickly.

Supplementary Figures and Tables

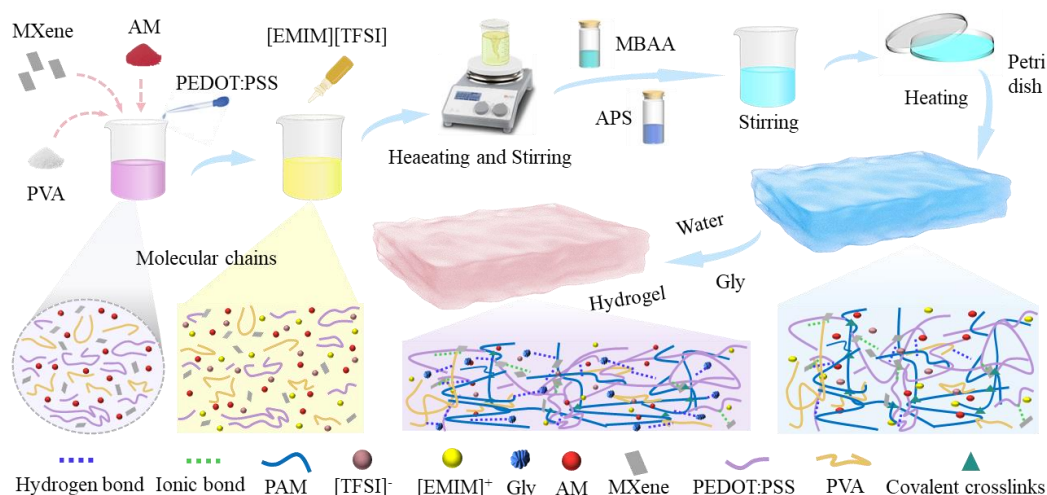


Fig. S1 Flow chart for the preparation of hydrogel-based pressure-temperature sensors

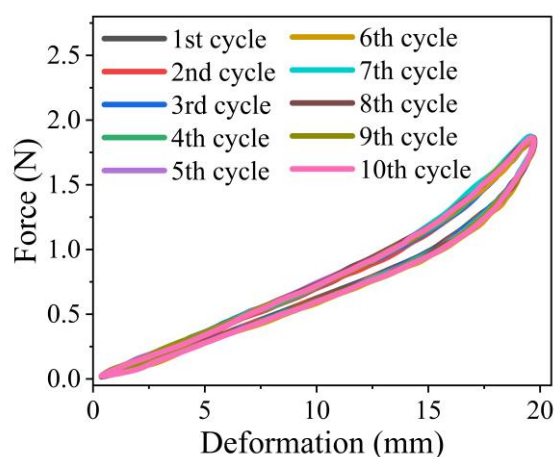


Fig. S2 Stress-strain curves of hydrogels

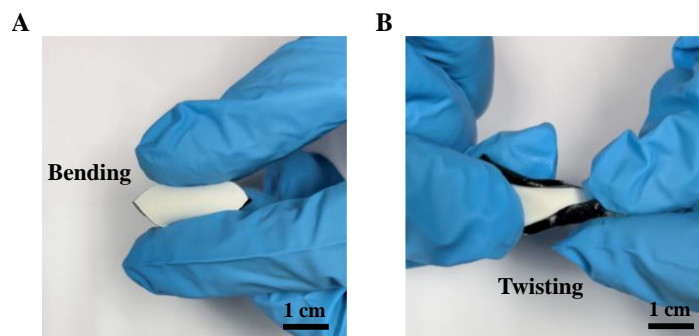


Fig. S3 (A) Bending test for sensing patches. (B) Twisting test on sensing patches

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Fig. S4 Water retention test of hydrogels over eight days

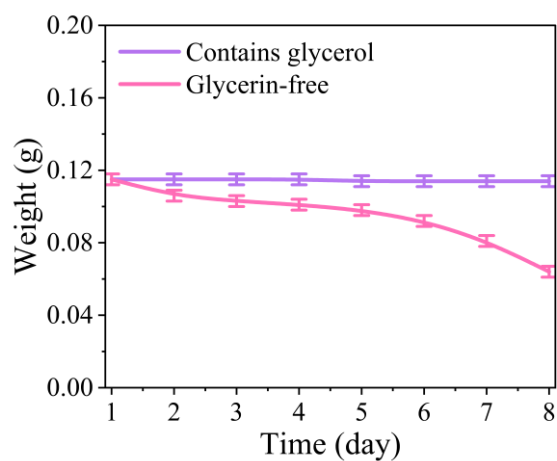


Fig. S5 Weight change over eight days for glycerin-containing and non-glycerin-free hydrogels

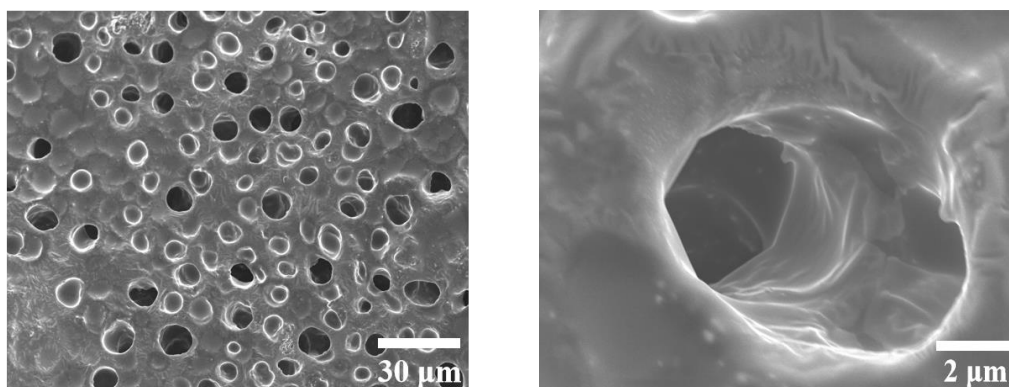


Fig. S6 After freeze-drying, the porous structure inside the hydrogel

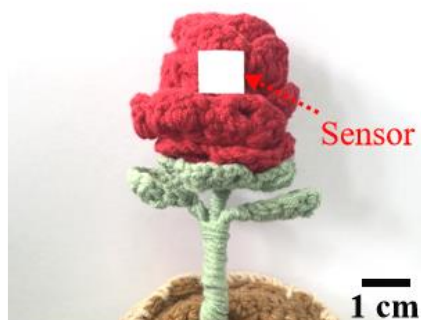


Fig. S7 Preparation of hydrophobic layer TPU film with micro-cone structures

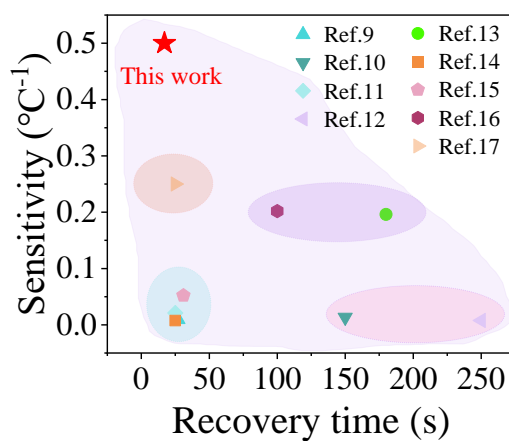


Fig. S8 Performance comparison of the sensor with previously reported works [S9-S17]

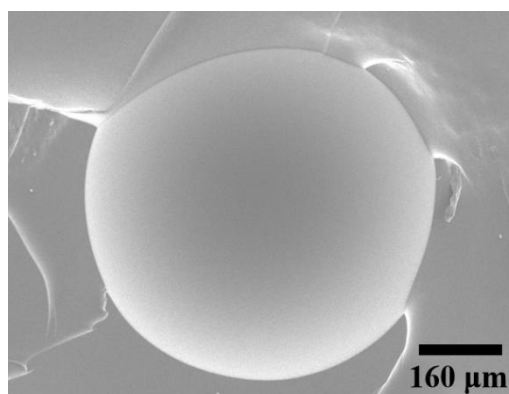


Fig. S9 SEM image characterization of spherical microstructures on the surface of hydrogels

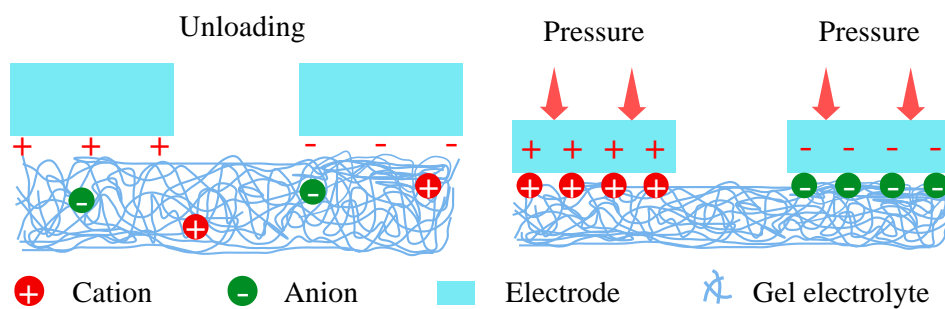


Fig. S10 Schematic diagram of the working principle of a hydrogel-based pressure sensor

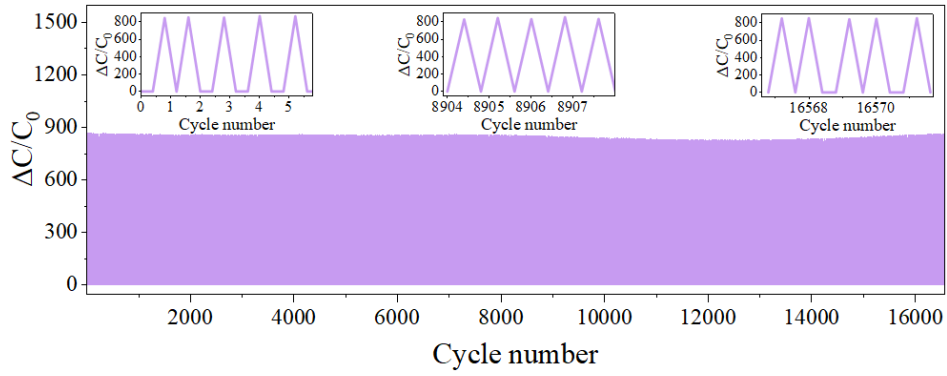


Fig. S11 Hydrogel-based pressure sensor ~16500 cycles stability test

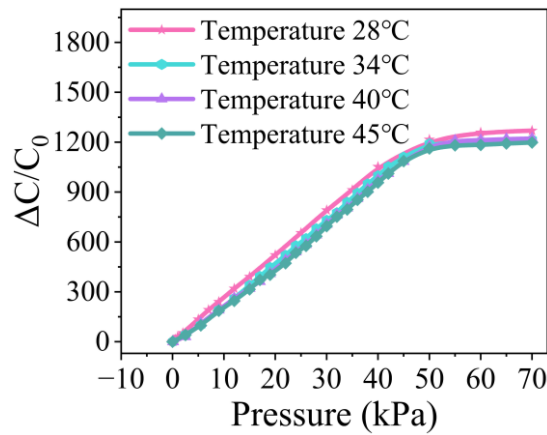


Fig. S12 Stable performance of the pressure sensor at different temperatures

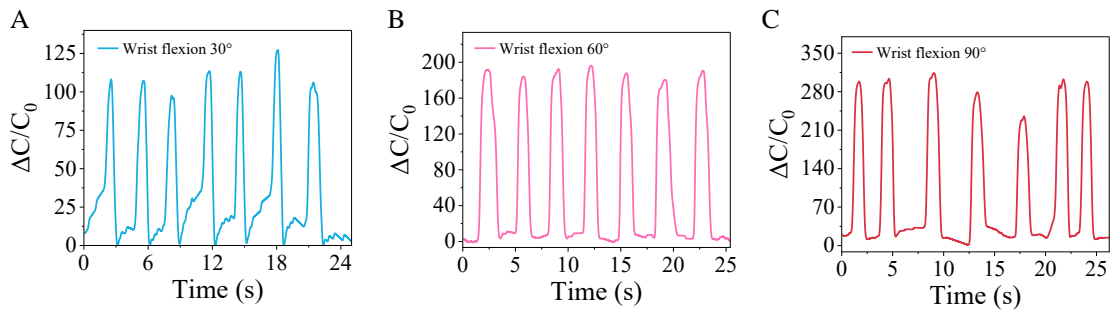


Fig. S13 Hydrogel-based pressure sensors are used to detect pressure changes at different angles of bending of the wrist. (A) Signal change at 30° wrist flexion. (B) Signal change at 60° wrist flexion. (C) Signal change at 90° wrist flexion

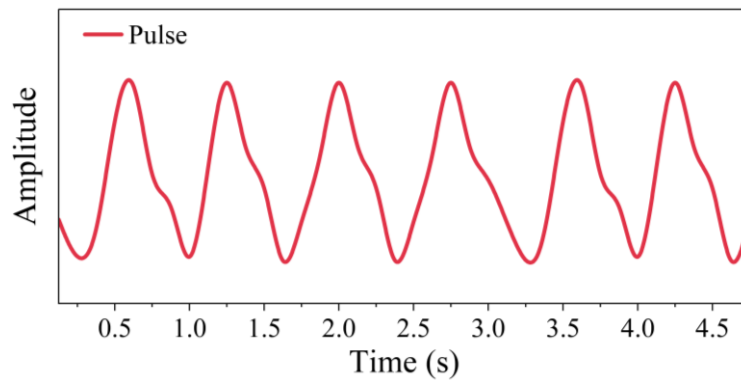


Fig. S14 The process of downward transfer when a 0.5 ml drop of water falls on the hydrophobic side

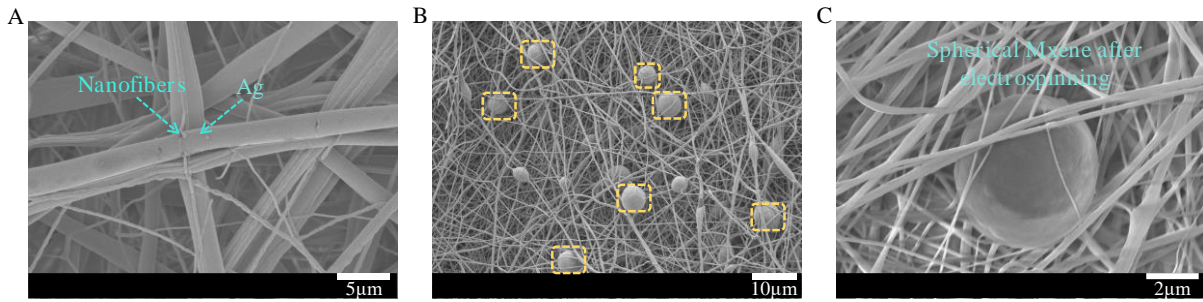


Fig. S15 SEM characterization of the microstructure of the prepared proximity sensing layer. (A) SEM image of the Ag/nanofiber electrode layer. (B-C) SEM images of the spherical MXene on the surface of the proximity sensing layer

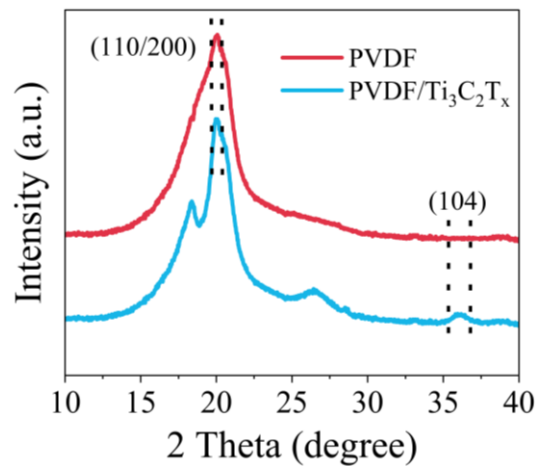


Fig. S16 XRD analysis of proximity sensing layers

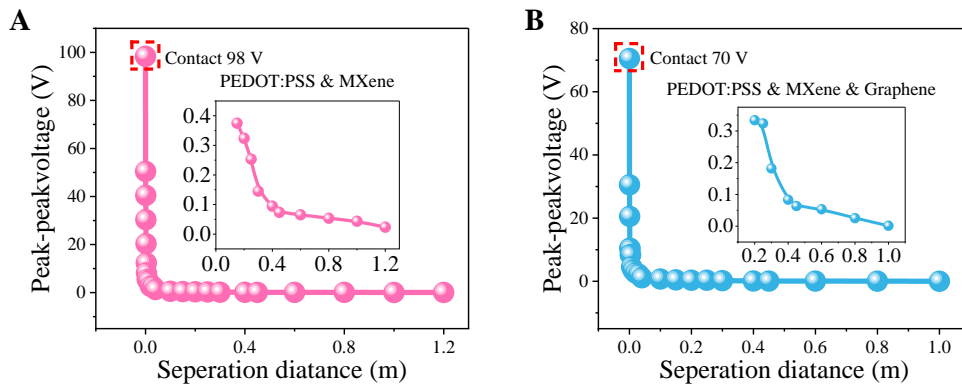


Fig. S17 (A) PEDOT:PSS mixed with MXene non-contact detection distance of 1.2m. (B) PEDOT:PSS mixed with MXene and Graphene with a non-contact detection distance of 1 m

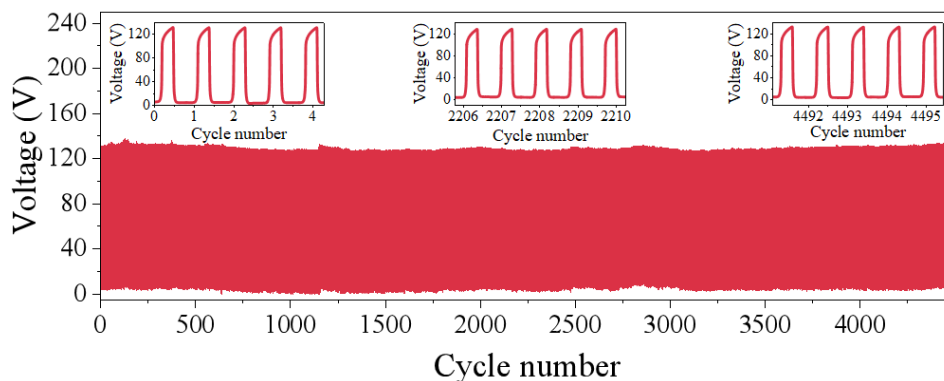


Fig. S18 Cyclic stability of the proximity sensing layer after 4000 crash-separation friction tests

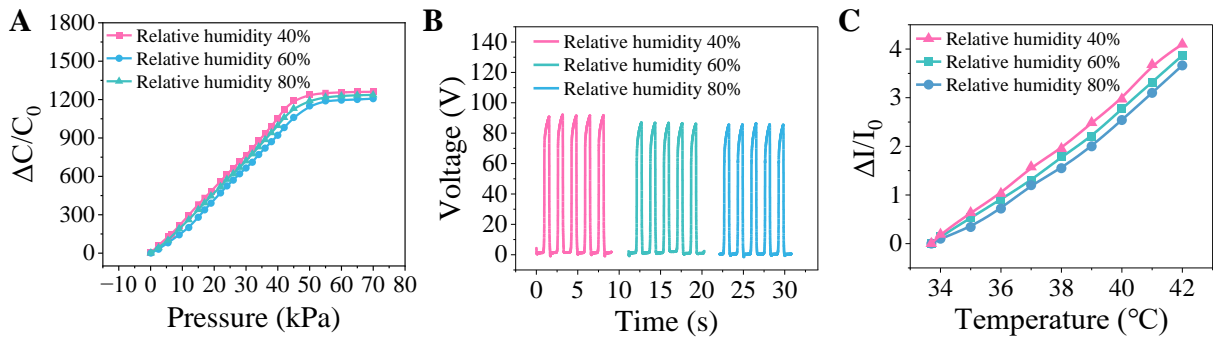


Fig. S19 (A) Effect of humidity on the sensitivity of pressure sensors. (B) Effect of humidity on the voltage signal of the proximity sensing layer. (C) Effect of humidity on the sensitivity of the temperature sensing layer

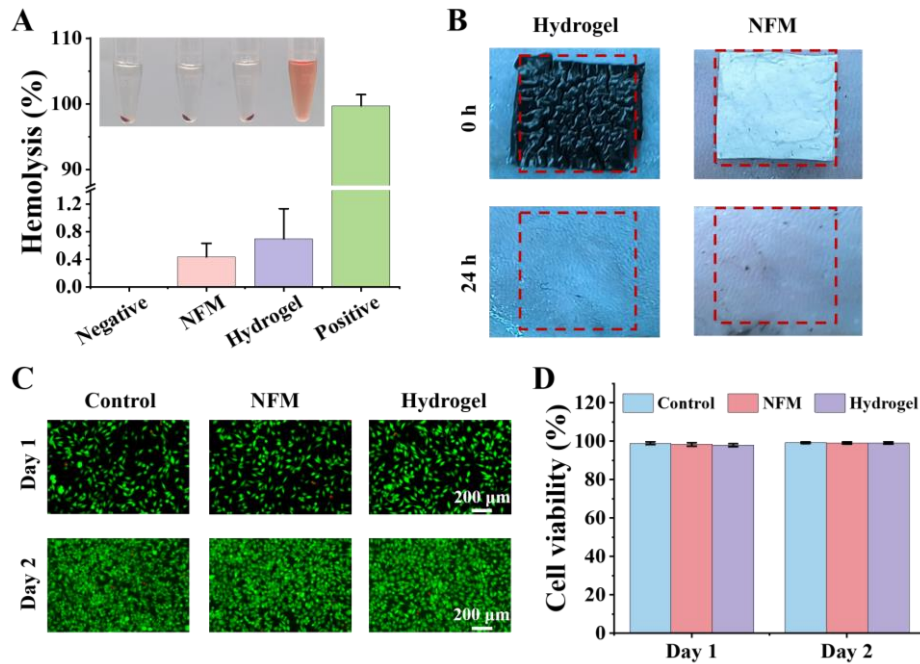


Fig. S20 (A) Hemolysis rate test. (B) Mouse skin red and swollen test. (C) Cytotoxicity test. (D) Cell viability test

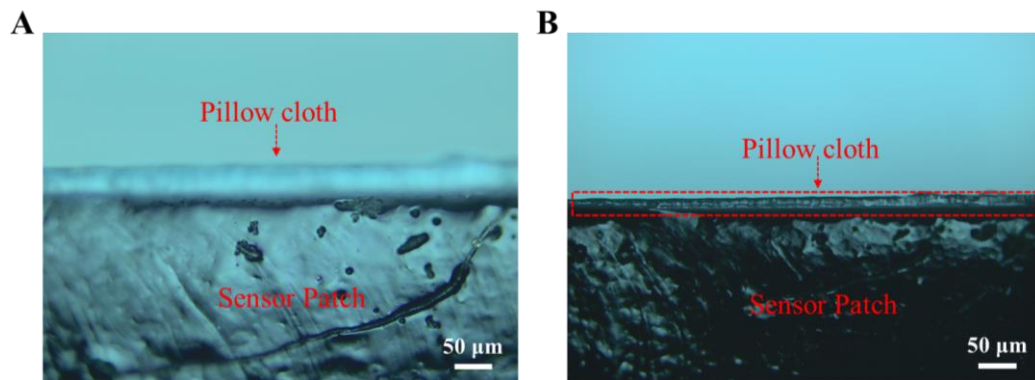


Fig. S21 Optical microscopy image of the “seamless” interface between the sensing patch and the pillow cloth

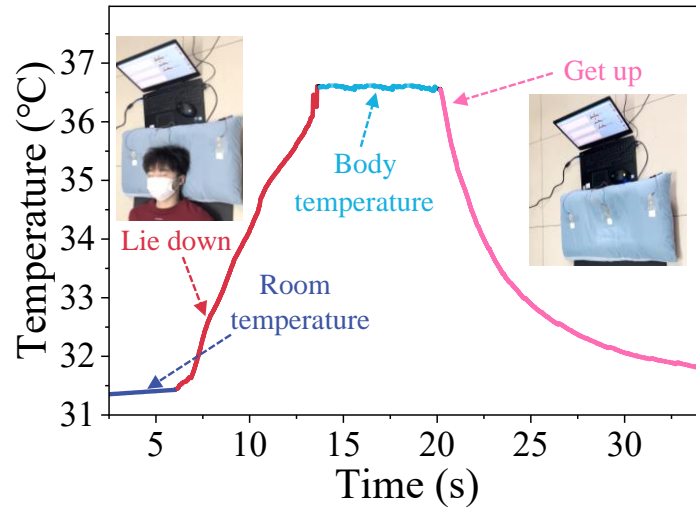


Fig. S22 The human sleep monitoring system detects the temperature of the human body in different states of lying down and getting up

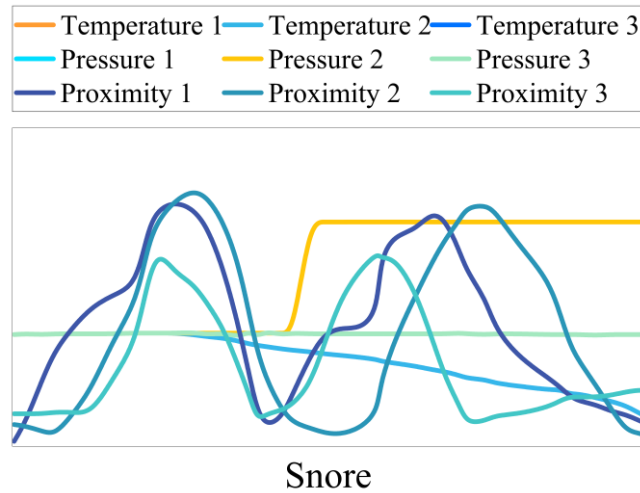


Fig. S23 The human sleep monitoring system is able to accurately capture and record changes in signals when snoring

Table S1 Comparison of performance of capacitive sensors based on different nanomaterials

Sensing material	Sensitivity (kPa ⁻¹)	Maximum detection pressure (kPa)	Response time (ms)	Stability	Refs.
CNTs/Pure ethanol/Ecoflex	2.13	3	100	100	[S1]
AgNWs/PDMS	0.831	10	30	10000	[S2]
PVA/PDMS/Salt	0.18	50	52	1000	[S3]
PDMS/PVDF/BaTiO ₃	5	50	25	10000	[S4]
AgNWs/graphene	1.9	20	100	1000	[S5]
Ecoflex/PEN/ITO	1.277	0.4	100	10000	[S6]
PVA/KOH/KI/GL	0.3199	65	80	1400	[S7]
PVA/H ₃ PO ₄	20.98	37.5	30	6000	[S8]
AM/MXene/PEDOT: PSS/PVA/[EMIM][TFSI]	30.6	70	5.6	16500	This work

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