

# Humidity-Mediated Dual Ionic–Electronic Conductivity Enables High Sensitivity in MOF Chemiresistors

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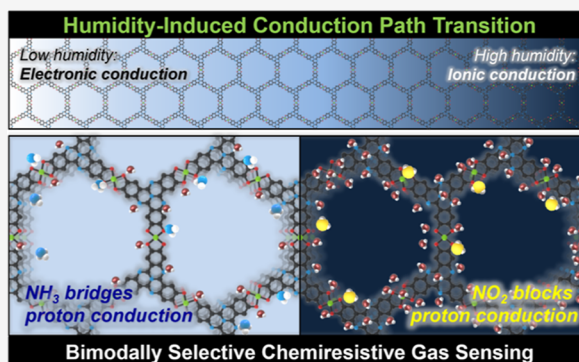


Article Recommendations



Supporting Information

**ABSTRACT:** In the presence of water, the electrically conductive metal–organic framework (MOF)  $\text{Cu}_3\text{HHTT}_2$  ( $\text{H}_6\text{HHTT} = 2,3,7,8,12,13$ -hexahydroxy-4b1,5,10,15-tetraazanaphtho[1,2,3-gh]-tetraphene) provides a conduit for proton transport, thereby becoming a dual ionic–electronic conductor. Owing to its dual conducting nature and its high density of imine and open metal sites, the MOF operates as a particularly sensitive chemiresistor, whose sensing mechanism changes with relative humidity. Thus, the interaction of  $\text{NH}_3$  gas with the MOF under low humidity promotes proton transport, which translates to high sensitivity for ammonia detection. Conversely,  $\text{NO}_2$  gas hinders proton conductivity, even under high relative humidity conditions, leading to large resistance variations in the humid regime. This dual ionic–electronic conduction-based gas sensor provides superior sensitivity compared to other conventional chemiresistors under similar conditions and highlights its potential as a platform for room-temperature gas sensors.



## INTRODUCTION

Chemiresistive gas sensors are necessary for the detection of various airborne chemicals in the environment, factories, laboratories, agricultural locations, and households.<sup>1,2</sup> Although metal oxide gas sensors that operate at high temperatures have been widely used for their outstanding performance, recent advances in the Internet of Things and wireless communication technology have led to an increased demand for low-power gas sensors that operate with minimal energy consumption. To address these demands, room-temperature gas sensors have been explored utilizing carbon nanotubes,<sup>3,4</sup> graphene,<sup>5–7</sup> transition metal dichalcogenides,<sup>6–9</sup> phosphorene,<sup>10</sup> and MXenes.<sup>11,12</sup> However, achieving highly sensitive, selective, and reversible sensing performance at ambient temperature for chemiresistors remains challenging. Developing new chemiresistive materials with numerous gas reaction sites for higher sensitivity and with functional groups or even different mechanisms that discriminate between analytes to increase selectivity is an important goal for the field.

Electrically conducting metal–organic frameworks (cMOFs) have been gaining attention as room-temperature gas sensing materials due to facile preparation, high surface area, tunable catalytic properties, and high conductivity.<sup>13,14</sup> Despite the great variety of cMOFs that have been developed toward sensing applications,<sup>15–22</sup> the sensitivity and response–recovery rates for these materials, especially under humid environments, remain underdeveloped. In general, water molecules displace the gas reaction sites of the chemiresistors,

resulting in a significant reduction in the sensitivity. Intriguingly, some cMOFs utilize the Brønsted acidic properties of adsorbed  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  to use them as gas reaction sites,<sup>22</sup> suggesting that water can contribute to enhancing performance, as shown for instance with  $\text{CO}_2$  sensors made from  $\text{Cu}_3(\text{HIB})_2$  ( $\text{H}_6\text{HAB} = \text{hexaaminobenzene}$ ).<sup>17</sup> Inspired by these studies and by recent demonstrations of the utility of water in further enhancing surface reactivity of other materials including graphene and metal oxides through ionic conduction,<sup>23–25</sup> we sought to explore the possibility of enabling dual ionic–electronic conductivity in cMOFs. Indeed, we show that relative humidity (RH) can enable proton percolation and transport under certain conditions and that the dual ionic–electronic cMOFs serve as a unique platform for chemical sensing with a reporting mechanism that switches with RH.

Herein, we present a new type of cMOF chemiresistors made from  $\text{Cu}_3\text{HHTT}_2$  ( $\text{H}_6\text{HHTT} = 2,3,7,8,12,13$ -hexahydroxy-4b1,5,10,15-tetraazanaphtho[1,2,3-gh]tetraphene). This framework crystallizes into a two-dimensional hexagonal net, where the pyridinic nitrogen and copper biscatechol reaction sites are exposed to the pore.<sup>26</sup> Furthermore, the abundant gas

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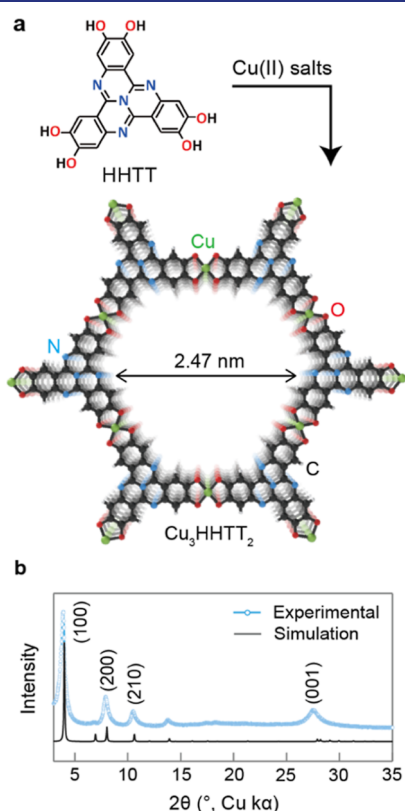
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reaction sites promote water adsorption with strong hydrogen bonding, causing a transition of the conduction mechanism from electronic to proton upon water sorption. This humidity-mediated proton conduction causes the unique sensing performance to depend on the RH level.  $\text{NH}_3$  gas, which acts as a hydrogen bond donor and acceptor, enhances responses by significantly increasing proton conductivity at  $\text{RH} < 25\%$ . Conversely,  $\text{NO}_2$  interrupts proton conduction and leads to a dramatic increase in resistance at high RH.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

**Synthesis and Humidity-Dependent Characterization of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{HHTT}_2$ .** The honeycomb layer-structured  $\text{Cu}_3\text{HHTT}_2$  was synthesized according to a reported procedure (see the Supporting Information).<sup>26</sup>  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$  ions bind to oxygen atoms pertaining to catechol units to form planar, stacked 2D sheets (Figure 1a). Powder X-ray diffraction (PXRD) patterns

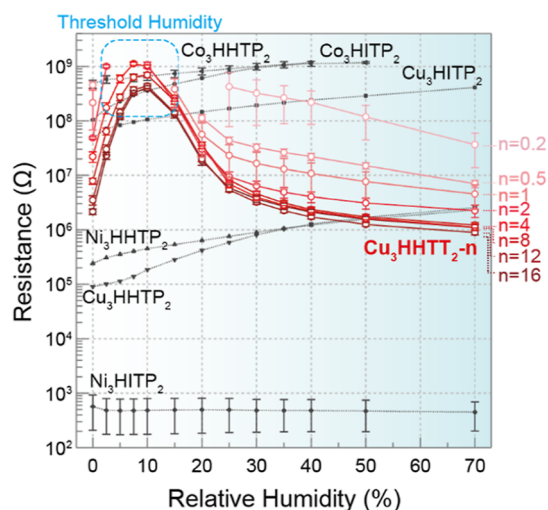


**Figure 1.** (a) Part of the structure of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{HHTT}_2$  and (b) PXRD pattern of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{HHTT}_2$ .

confirmed the formation of crystalline structures with strong peaks at  $3.91$  and  $7.93^\circ$  attributed to the (100) and (200) planes, respectively (Figure 1b). The existence of Cu, C, O, and N atoms was confirmed by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) (Figure S1). As is often the case with other cMOFs, Cu exists as mixed valence states of  $\text{Cu}^+$  and  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$ , confirmed by high-resolution XPS in the vicinity of the Cu 2p peaks. In the O 1s spectrum, a peak corresponding to adsorbed  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  is prominently observed in comparison with that from lattice oxygen. In addition, both pyridinic and graphitic N of HHTT ligands are found by deconvolution of N 1s peaks. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images revealed hexagonal nanorods, consistent with the morphology of other 2D cMOFs (Figure S2). Fitting an  $\text{N}_2$  adsorption

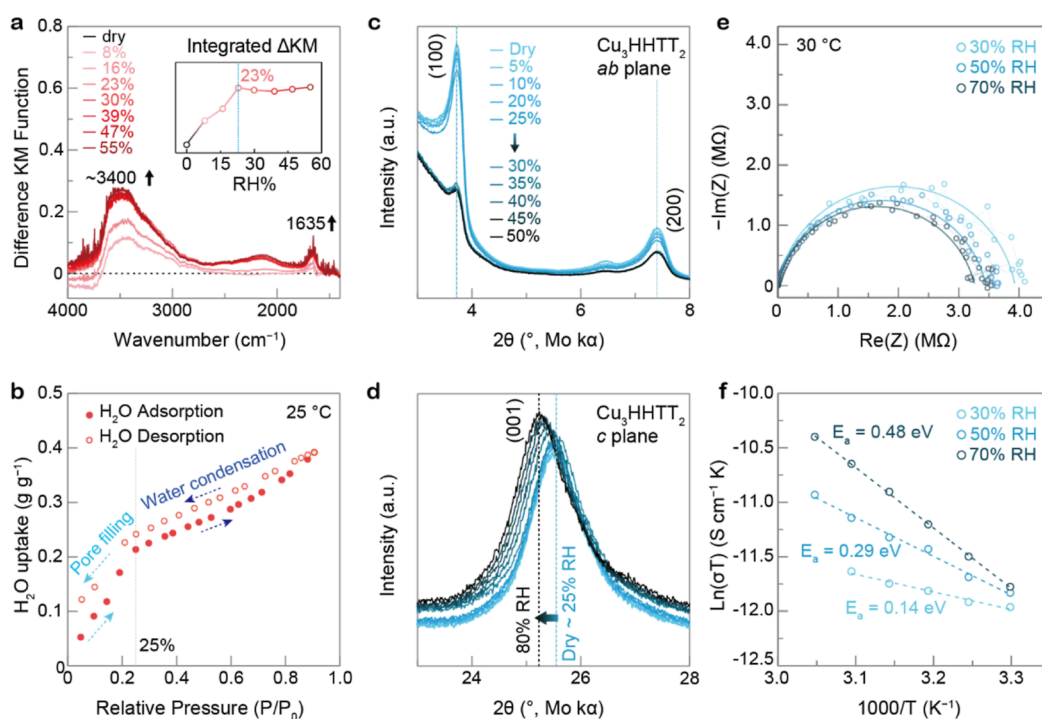
isotherm measured at 77 K to the Brunauer–Emmett–Teller model gave a specific surface area of  $672 \pm 12 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$  (Figure S3). As control groups for comparing the gas-sensing response of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{HHTT}_2$ , various triphenylene-based cMOFs were also synthesized and characterized according to the reported procedures:  $\text{M}_3\text{HHTP}_2$  ( $\text{M} = \text{Cu}, \text{Ni}, \text{Co}$ ; HHTP = 2,3,6,7,10,11-hexahydroxytriphenylene) and  $\text{M}_3\text{HITP}_2$  ( $\text{M} = \text{Cu}, \text{Ni}, \text{Co}$ ; HITP = 2,3,6,7,10,11-hexaiminotriphenylene) (Figures S4 and S5).

Slurries of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{HHTT}_2$  were prepared at a concentration of  $2 \text{ mg mL}^{-1}$  and drop-cast onto Au-interdigitated electrodes to make individual chemiresistive sensing devices. The thicknesses of the cMOF films were adjusted by the number of droplets ( $n = 1, 2, 4, 8, 12,$  and  $16$ ) or the volume of a single droplet ( $n = 0.2$  and  $0.5$ ) (Table S1 and Figure S6). For example, the maximum thickness of convex  $\text{Cu}_3\text{HHTT}_2$  coatings for  $n = 4$  and  $n = 16$  was approximately  $\sim 113$  and  $\sim 385 \mu\text{m}$ , respectively. In addition, a control group of other cMOF sensors was prepared with optimized film conditions for each sensing material (Table S2). The gas sensing tests were conducted using a homemade gas flow system (Figure S7). The resistance in air ( $R_a$ ) of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{HHTT}_2$ - $n$  ( $n = 0.2, 0.5, 1, 2, 4, 8, 12,$  and  $16$ ), MHHTP, and MHITP ( $\text{M} = \text{Cu}, \text{Ni}, \text{Co}$ ) sensors was measured under different RH levels from dry to 70% RH using at least 3 sensors for reliable results (Figure 2).



**Figure 2.** Humidity-dependent resistance variation of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{HHTT}_2$  and other triphenylene-based MOF sensors.

Intriguingly, even though the overall resistance measured for each  $\text{Cu}_3\text{HHTT}_2$ - $n$  sensor consistently increased with decreasing cMOF thickness at any RH value, each individual sensor exhibited prominent variations in resistance as a function of RH regardless of cMOF thickness:  $R_a$  fluctuated significantly. This behavior is unusual and is initially likely due to water molecules decreasing the charge carrier density with the MOF, thereby increasing the resistance.<sup>27</sup> We attribute the subsequent decrease in resistance above 10% RH to the formation of a continuous hydrogen bonding lattice made from adsorbed water molecules, which provides an efficient proton conduction pathway that compensates for the diminishing electronic conduction at high RH. This behavior is unique to  $\text{Cu}_3\text{HHTT}_2$ ; the other cMOF devices show only slight changes in resistance across all RH ranges.



**Figure 3.** (a) Difference Kubelka–Munk-transformed DRIFTS spectra of Cu<sub>3</sub>HHTT<sub>2</sub> as a function of RH. (b) H<sub>2</sub>O adsorption isotherms of Cu<sub>3</sub>HHTT<sub>2</sub> at 25 °C. (c,d) Humidity-dependent XRD patterns of Cu<sub>3</sub>HHTT<sub>2</sub>. (e) Electrochemical impedance spectra of Cu<sub>3</sub>HHTT<sub>2</sub> under 30, 50, and 70% RH at 30 °C. (f) Temperature-dependent conductivity plots.

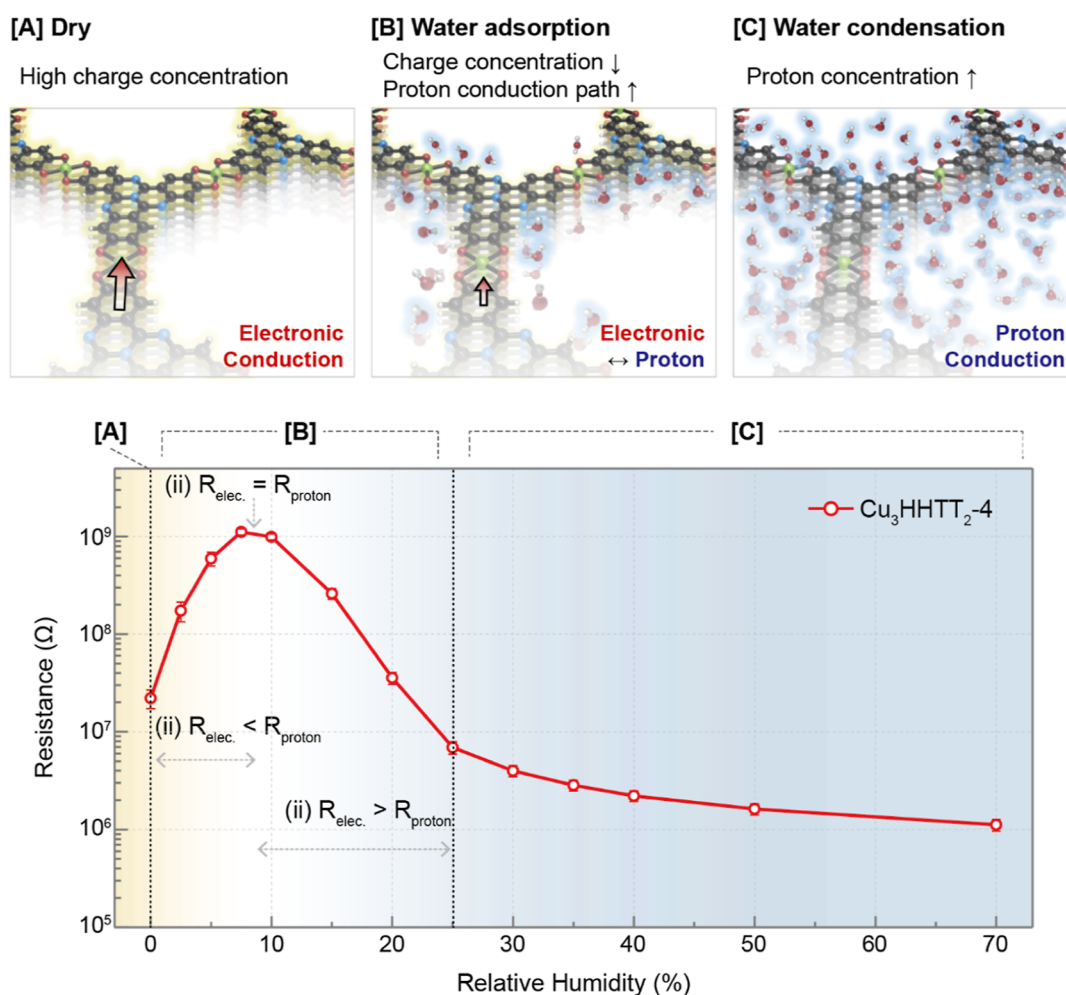
Diffuse reflectance infrared spectroscopy (DRIFTS) analysis provided a partial understanding of the mechanism governing the interaction of water molecules with Cu<sub>3</sub>HHTT<sub>2</sub> (Figure 3a). As the RH increases, two intense water-related bands appear: a broad, asymmetric O–H stretching band centered around 3400 cm<sup>-1</sup> and an HOH scissoring mode at 1635 cm<sup>-1</sup>.<sup>28</sup> The intensity of both of these bands is maximized at approximately 23% RH, suggesting that water saturates the strongly adsorbing sites of Cu<sub>3</sub>HHTT<sub>2</sub> below this humidity level (Figure 3a, inset). Indeed, a water adsorption isotherm conducted on Cu<sub>3</sub>HHTT<sub>2</sub> activated at 120 °C exhibits a steep slope below 25% RH, with a much shallower uptake corresponding to pore condensation above this humidity level (Figure 3b).

Humidity-dependent PXRD analysis provided additional insights into the behavior and integrity of Cu<sub>3</sub>HHTT<sub>2</sub> under humid conditions (Figure S8). Relevant changes pertain to shifts in the (100) and (200) peaks, corresponding to structural changes in the (*ab*) crystallographic plane (Figure 3c), and the (001) peak, reflecting changes in the stacking direction, *c*, normal to the 2D planes (Figure 3d). The intensity of the (100) and (200) peaks notably decreases upon hydration, especially above 25%, and is regained upon dehydration, but their positions remain constant at 3.72 and 7.40°, respectively (Figure 3c). In contrast, the (001) peak does not lose intensity but instead gradually shifts from 25.52° at low humidity (1–25% RH) toward lower 2θ angles as the humidity increases from 30 to 80% RH (Figure 3d). Altogether, the PXRD data suggest that water associating with the pyridinic nitrogen atoms and/or the Cu atoms in Cu<sub>3</sub>HHTT<sub>2</sub> introduces distortions or corrugations that reversibly disrupt the long-range translational symmetry in the (*ab*) plane without changing the *a* or *b* unit cell parameters

while also swelling the MOF in the *c* direction so as to increase the *d* spacing between layers.

Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) provided initial evidence that proton conduction plays a pivotal role in the humidity-dependent resistance fluctuation of the Cu<sub>3</sub>HHTT<sub>2</sub> devices. EIS spectra of Cu<sub>3</sub>HHTT<sub>2</sub> above 30% RH exhibit characteristic semicircles that give conductivity values of 2.10 × 10<sup>-8</sup> S cm<sup>-1</sup> at 30% RH, 2.40 × 10<sup>-8</sup> S cm<sup>-1</sup> at 50% RH, and 2.54 × 10<sup>-8</sup> S cm<sup>-1</sup> at 70% RH (Figure 3e), proving the ionic conduction changes with RH. Measuring EIS spectra at temperatures ranging from 25 to 55 °C under varying RH conditions further provided values for the activation energy (*E*<sub>a</sub>) for proton transport (Figure 3f). At 30% RH, in the early stage of water condensation, the *E*<sub>a</sub> is 0.14 eV, a relatively low value suggestive of a Grotthuss mechanism.<sup>29</sup> With increasing humidity, the *E*<sub>a</sub> for proton transport in Cu<sub>3</sub>HHTT<sub>2</sub> rises to 0.29 eV at 50% RH and further to 0.48 eV at 70% RH. This trend is contrary to other MOFs, where increasing water content within a material generally decreases the *E*<sub>a</sub> as the establishment of a continuous hydrogen bond network switches transport from a vehicular mechanism with *E*<sub>a</sub> > 0.4 eV to a Grotthuss hopping mechanism with *E*<sub>a</sub> < 0.4 eV.<sup>28</sup> The inverse phenomenon observed with Cu<sub>3</sub>HHTT<sub>2</sub> is sometimes seen with hydrophilic 2D materials that suffer structural distortions upon water sorption.<sup>30</sup> Here, the distortions associated with the increase in the interlayer *d*-spacing and decrease in in-plane crystallinity are likely responsible for a disruption of the hydrogen-bonded network initially available at approximately 25–30% RH (Figure 3c,d) and the subsequent increase in *E*<sub>a</sub> at higher RH (Figure 3f).

**Gas-Sensing Characteristics.** Given the data discussed above, the humidity response of Cu<sub>3</sub>HHTT<sub>2</sub> can be divided into three distinct regions (Figure 4): the dry region where the



**Figure 4.** Conduction mechanism of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{HHTT}_2$  sensors depending on the three different humidity regions: (a) dry condition, (b) water adsorption region, and (c) water condensation region.

analyte binding sites are fully exposed to the environment (region A); the threshold humidity region ( $\text{RH} < 25\%$ , region B) where the analyte binding sites are partially occupied but not saturated with water molecules; and the water condensation region ( $\text{RH} > 25\%$ , region C), where strong analyte binding sites are saturated with water, and where water molecules continue to accumulate within the MOF. Taken together, these unique humidity-dependent changes in the electrical and chemical properties of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{HHTT}_2$  suggest the potential for new chemiresistive gas-sensing mechanisms.

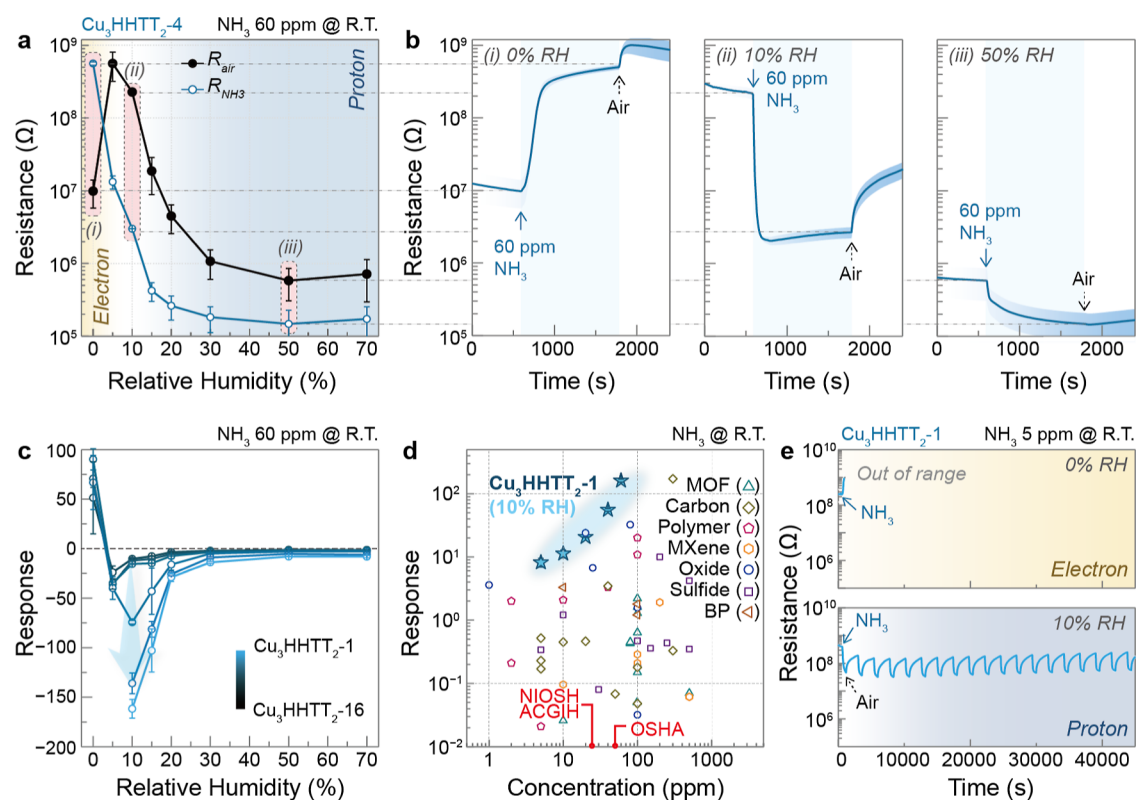
To test the gas-sensing properties of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{HHTT}_2$ , we exposed  $\text{Cu}_3\text{HHTT}_2$ - $n$  ( $n = 1, 2, 4, 8, 12, \text{ and } 16$ ) sensors to  $\text{NH}_3$  (60 ppm),  $\text{NO}_2$  (3 ppm), and various interference gases including  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  (3 ppm), ethanol (158 ppm), acetone (823 ppm), methanol (390 ppm), benzene (269 ppm), and toluene (143 ppm) under varying humidity conditions (0–70% RH) at room temperature ( $\sim 25^\circ\text{C}$ ). The response ( $S$ ) was calculated as  $(R_g - R_a)/R_a$  or  $(R_g - R_a)/R_g$ , where  $R_g$  is resistance in gas, depending on positive or negative resistance variation, respectively.

**$\text{NH}_3$  Sensing.** The sensing transients of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{HHTT}_2$ - $n$  sensors exposed to 60 ppm of  $\text{NH}_3$  were dynamically changed depending on the RH level (Figure S9). To clarify the  $\text{NH}_3$  sensing behavior,  $R_a$  and  $R_g$  values of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{HHTT}_2$ - $n$  sensors were selected from transients in Figure S9 and plotted vs RH (Figure S10). An illustrative case is shown for the  $\text{Cu}_3\text{HHTT}_2$ -

4 sensors in Figure 5. These exhibit a positive response variation to  $\text{NH}_3$  under dry conditions (Figure 5b). Such a response with  $\text{NH}_3$  is generally associated with  $p$ -type materials, as  $\text{NH}_3$  is said to be extracting holes from the sensing material, thereby decreasing the number of charge carriers,<sup>31</sup> formally:



When the humidity increases to 10% RH, the response of  $S$  to ammonia becomes negative and gains magnitude ( $S = -74.4$ ) (Figure 5b,c). The shift in absolute response to ammonia, indicative of a decrease in resistance, comes despite the depletion of charge carriers by ammonia (vide supra). It must therefore indicate a significant contribution from proton conduction even at this intermediate RH where water does not yet saturate the MOF and thus cannot provide a full proton conduction pathway on its own. Instead, ammonia, as a good hydrogen-bond donor and acceptor, likely itself contributes to the formation of interconnections between short-range hydrogen-bonded adsorbed water molecules, thereby enhancing proton conduction and an overall decrease in resistance (Figure 4, region B). Therefore, although exposure of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{HHTT}_2$  to  $\text{NH}_3$  does decrease the intrinsic charge carrier density of the MOF and reduces its electronic conductivity, it simultaneously drastically increased the proton



**Figure 5.** (a) Resistance in air ( $R_{air}$ ) and in  $NH_3$  ( $R_{NH_3}$ ) of  $Cu_3HHTT_2-4$  sensors under different RH %. (b) Dynamic gas-sensing transients of  $Cu_3HHTT_2-4$  sensors to 60 ppm of  $NH_3$  at room temperature under (i) dry, (ii) 10% RH, and (iii) 50% RH. (c) Gas responses of  $Cu_3HHTT_2-n$  ( $n = 1, 2, 4, 8, 12,$  and  $16$ ) sensors to 60 ppm of  $NH_3$  under different RH %. (d) Benchmark of reported  $NH_3$  sensors. (e) Cyclic tests of  $Cu_3HHTT_2-1$  sensors to 5 ppm of  $NH_3$  under dry and 10% RH for 19 cycles.

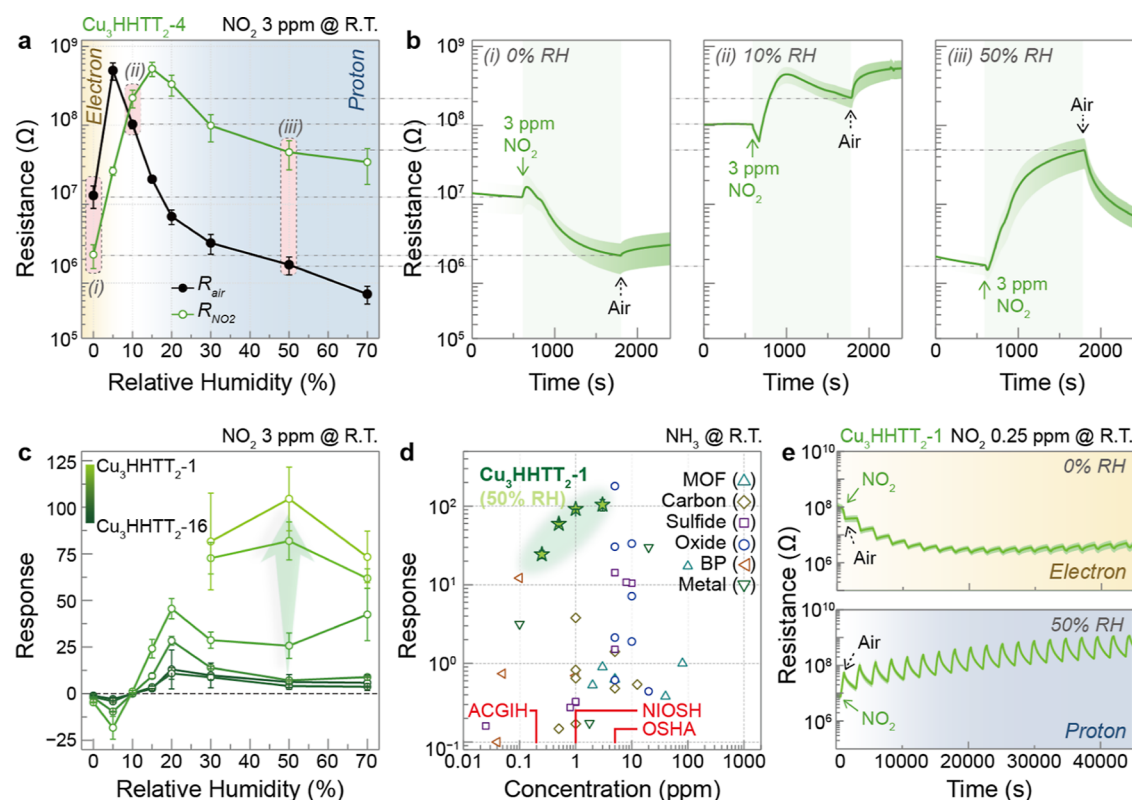
conductivity, which compensates for the loss in electronic transport. In addition, the recovery rate of  $Cu_3HHTT_2-4$  sensors to  $NH_3$  is much more rapid at 10% RH than in dry conditions (Figure 5b). This can be attributed to the fact that the hydrogen bonding of  $NH_3$  with water in humid conditions is weaker and more reversible than the direct binding of  $NH_3$  with  $Cu_3HHTT_2$  in dry conditions.<sup>32</sup> Finally, as the ambient humidity further increases above >25% RH, the response of  $Cu_3HHTT_2-4$  sensors to  $NH_3$  decreases precipitously (Figure 5b), presumably because the saturated water network is now self-sufficient with respect to proton transport and responds only minimally to extraneous  $NH_3$ .

The response of  $Cu_3HHTT_2-4$  sensors is qualitatively similar in all  $Cu_3HHTT_2-n$  sensors, but the magnitude of the response to  $NH_3$  was much greater for devices with thinner MOF coatings (Figure 5c). For instance, the response of  $Cu_3HHTT_2-1$  sensors to 60 ppm of  $NH_3$  was exceptionally high ( $S = -161.6$ ) at 10% RH, approximately 15.7 times higher than those of  $Cu_3HHTT_2-16$  sensors ( $S = -10.3$ ). In addition,  $Cu_3HHTT_2-1$  sensors exhibit high  $NH_3$  selectivity over potential interfering gases including  $H_2S$ , ethanol, methanol, acetone, benzene, and toluene at 10% RH (Figure S11). For example, the response of  $Cu_3HHTT_2-1$  sensors to  $NH_3$  was 20-fold higher than its response to  $H_2S$  ( $S = -8.0$ ) and 64 times higher than its response to 823 ppm of acetone ( $S = 2.5$ ). This differential response and sensitivity outperform recently reported room-temperature  $NH_3$  gas sensors comprising various chemiresistive material including MOFs, carbon-based materials, polymers, MXenes, oxides, sulfides, and black phosphorus (Figures 5d, S12, and Table S3). Moreover, the  $Cu_3HHTT_2-1$  sensors exhibit high responses even at low

$NH_3$  concentrations, enabling reliable and rapid detection below the permissible exposure limits of 25 and 50 ppm for up to 8 h, as stipulated by the American Conference of Governmental Industrial Hygienists (ACGIH), National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH), and the Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA) (Figure 5d).

Importantly,  $Cu_3HHTT_2-n$  ( $n = 1, 2, 4, 8,$  and  $16$ ) sensors exhibit an irreversible behavior in dry environments, but they are stable and reversible at 10% RH (Figures 5e and S13), which is a more realistic scenario. Although the response of pristine  $Cu_3HHTT_2$  sensors decreases at higher RH, we note that the threshold humidity can be shifted from 10 to 70% RH by adjusting the operating temperature of the sensor to 80 °C (Figure S14). We assume that the elevated temperature increases electronic conductivity and decreases proton conductivity by accelerating water desorption, thus shifting the threshold humidity level. Other common modifications, such as overlayer coatings<sup>33,34</sup> or grafting of hydrophobic chains,<sup>35</sup> may further tune the operational humidity threshold of  $Cu_3HHTT_2$  sensors.

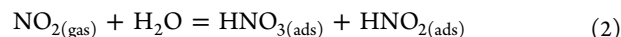
**$NO_2$  Sensing.**  $Cu_3HHTT_2-n$  sensors were also exposed to 3 ppm of  $NO_2$  under varying humidity conditions (Figures S15 and S16). Under dry conditions, where the intrinsic electronic conduction path is dominant,  $Cu_3HHTT_2-4$  sensors exhibit negative responses, expected for  $p$ -type materials in the presence of strong oxidizing analytes such as  $NO_2$ , which increase the charge carrier density (Figure 6b), which exhibit irreversible reaction due to high desorption energy of  $NO_2$  with MOF.<sup>36</sup> At threshold humidity (i.e., RH < 25%), the responses of  $Cu_3HHTT_2-4$  sensors to  $NO_2$  were negligibly



**Figure 6.** (a) Resistance in air ( $R_{\text{air}}$ ) and in  $\text{NO}_2$  ( $R_{\text{NO}_2}$ ) of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{HHTT}_2\text{-4}$  sensors under different RH. (b) Dynamic gas-sensing transients of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{HHTT}_2\text{-4}$  sensors to 3 ppm of  $\text{NO}_2$  at room temperature under (i) dry, (ii) 10% RH, and (iii) 50% RH. (c) Gas responses of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{HHTT}_2\text{-}n$  ( $n = 1, 2, 4, 8, 12,$  and  $16$ ) sensors to 3 ppm of  $\text{NO}_2$  under different RH %. (d) Benchmark of reported  $\text{NH}_3$  sensors. (e) Cyclic tests of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{HHTT}_2\text{-1}$  sensors to 0.25 ppm of  $\text{NO}_2$  under dry and 10% RH for 19 cycles.

low. This apparent lack of response may be attributed to two competing  $\text{NO}_2$  interactions. On one hand,  $\text{NO}_2$  increases electronic conductivity, as explained above. On the other hand, it reduces proton conductivity in this intermediate humidity because it does not complete a hydrogen bonding network in the way that  $\text{NH}_3$  does; in fact, it likely reacts with water, further disrupting the incipient hydrogen-bonded network. These competitive phenomena offset each other with respect to a chemiresistive response and can appear in sensing transients as fluctuations during  $\text{NO}_2$  sensing and recovery (Figure 6b). Interestingly, the sensitivity of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{HHTT}_2\text{-4}$  sensors toward  $\text{NO}_2$  increases dramatically above 25% RH. We assign this response to a disruption of the robust hydrogen-bonded network and water saturation conditions: even trace amounts of  $\text{NO}_2$  react with  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ,<sup>37</sup> drastically increasing overall resistance. Importantly, the response to  $\text{NO}_2$  is reversible: in the absence of  $\text{NO}_2$ , high humidity immediately replenishes the water network and re-establishes proton conduction and lowering the resistance of the  $\text{Cu}_3\text{HHTT}_2$  devices (Figure 6e).

Ex situ XPS analysis of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{HHTT}_2$  sensors before and after injection with  $\text{NO}_2$  provided important insights into the mechanisms for the  $\text{NO}_2$  sensing. First, the Cu 2p peaks clearly showed that  $\text{NO}_2$  is adsorbed and oxidizes the Cu sites, as indicated by a decrease of the  $\text{Cu}^+/\text{Cu}^{2+}$  integrated peak ratio from 0.72 to 0.20 after  $\text{NO}_2$  injection (Figure S17). Additionally, the N 1s region of the spectrum exhibits peaks corresponding to  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NO}_2^-$  at 405.0 and 402.4 eV, respectively (Figure S18), as would be expected through the reaction of  $\text{NO}_2$  with water



As was the case with  $\text{NH}_3$ , the magnitude of the response to  $\text{NO}_2$  was much greater for devices with thinner MOF coatings, with the response of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{HHTT}_2\text{-1}$  sensors to 3 ppm of  $\text{NO}_2$  being the highest ( $S = 104.5$ ) (Figure 6c). Notably,  $\text{Cu}_3\text{HHTT}_2\text{-1}$  sensors exhibit extremely high selectivity over potential interference gases including  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ , ethanol, methanol, acetone, benzene, and toluene at 50% RH (Figure S19). These stand out among leading room-temperature chemiresistors and meet the minimum exposure threshold of various institutions including ACGIH, NIOSH, and OSHA (Figures 6d, S20, and Table S4). Again, even though  $\text{Cu}_3\text{HHTT}_2\text{-}n$  ( $n = 1, 2, 4, 8,$  and  $16$ ) sensors exhibited irreversible  $\text{NO}_2$  binding under dry conditions, their reversibility and response magnitude increase dramatically at 50% RH (Figures 6e and S21), a more realistic scenario. This highlights the feasibility of  $\text{Cu}_3\text{HHTT}_2$  sensors in real-world environments, where humidity is present.

## CONCLUSIONS

The results here highlight the controlled fashion in which humidity generates ion–proton conduction pathways in conjunction with the electronic conduction pathways that are inherent to 2D cMOFs. This dual mechanism of charge transport enables the elaboration of sensitive and selective room-temperature chemiresistors from  $\text{Cu}_3(\text{hexahydroxytetra-azanaphthotetraphene})_2$ . The devices stand out in that they have a humidity-mediated response that discriminates between different gaseous molecules with extreme sensitivity.  $\text{NH}_3$ , serving as a mediator for proton transport, enables proton conduction at low humidity (10% RH). Conversely,  $\text{NO}_2$

blocks established water-based hydrogen-bonding networks, impeding proton conduction at higher humidity (30–70% RH). The differentiated sensing mechanism for NH<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> is responsible for state-of-the-art sensitivity relative to other chemiresistors and high selectivity over various interference gases (H<sub>2</sub>S, ethanol, methanol, acetone, benzene, and toluene). Notably, the sensors are reversible and have a reliable response even in high humidity environments. Fundamentally, we conclude that these results offer a blueprint for other sensor applications that make use of cMOFs and their uniquely tunable nature.

## ■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

### SI Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/jacs.4c05343>.

Additional experimental details, materials, methods, and characterization data, XPS, SEM, N<sub>2</sub> isotherms, PXRD, and photographs (PDF)

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### Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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