

# Solar Energy Storage by a Heterostructured $\text{BiVO}_4\text{-PbO}_x$ Photocapacitive Device

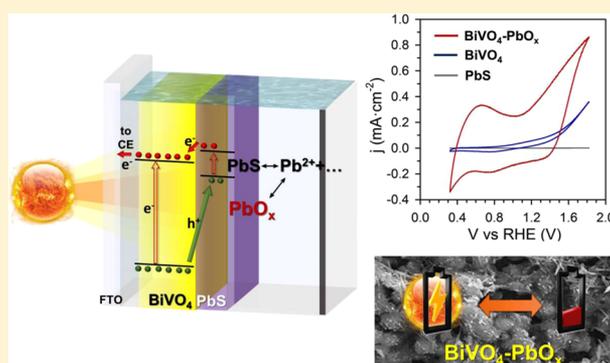
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## S Supporting Information

**ABSTRACT:** The development of solar energy storage strategies is a key step for handling the inherent variability of sunlight within a global solar-based energy model. In the present study, we have developed a photocapacitive device based on the heterostructured  $\text{BiVO}_4\text{-PbO}_x$  system.  $\text{BiVO}_4$  provides the photoactive core of the device, while  $\text{PbO}_x$  nanoparticles (formed by the controlled oxidation of colloidal PbS quantum dots) furnish a capacitive platform by redox pseudocapacitance. The synergistic coupling of these two systems leads to high capacitance under illumination, which can be subsequently released in the dark. This integrated device exhibits excellent behavior in terms of solar light harvesting (band gap in the visible region  $\sim 2.4$  eV), with a specific capacitance of  $6 \text{ mF cm}^{-2}$  ( $4.5 \text{ mF cm}^{-2}$  at discharge current density of  $0.015 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ ), high open-circuit potential ( $1.5 \text{ V}$  vs RHE), and stable charge–discharge cycling during 100 cycles, opening promising research avenues in the development of novel solar energy conversion–storage strategies.



The development of energy schemes in which solar radiation acts as the energy input constitutes the only viable alternative to meet the near-future global demand in a sustainable fashion. The most advanced solar-to-electricity (photovoltaic) schemes available have demonstrated remarkable conversion efficiencies up to 46% and are steadily increasing year by year.<sup>1</sup> However, photovoltaic technologies are limited by the inherent daily and seasonal variability of solar radiation, and reliable energy storage strategies are required to shape a robust and secure solar-based global energy model. In this context, artificial photosynthesis to produce solar fuels ( $\text{H}_2$  from water splitting or complex hydrocarbons from  $\text{CO}_2$  reduction) constitutes an attractive solution to store solar energy in the chemical bonds of added-value chemicals, which can be stored, transported, and used upon demand.<sup>2</sup> Batteries are also at the forefront of mainstream research in energy storage and are steadily increasing their commercial application range from microchips to passenger vehicles.<sup>3,4</sup> Coupling electrical storage devices to renewable sources like sunlight provides a smart solution to store solar energy in an integrated device with potential application in several domains.<sup>5–16</sup>

In the past decade, some interesting approaches have been reported to harvest solar radiation with photocapacitive devices, which is a novel paradigm of energy conversion and storage. In the general scheme, solar radiation charges the photocapacitor and the discharge process takes place in the dark. The first

devices were based on photovoltaic cells coupled to capacitive layers (i.e., dye-sensitized semiconductor, hole-trapping layer, and activated carbon particles in contact with an organic electrolyte solution).<sup>17,18</sup> The high complexity of this device configuration inherently brings cost and reliability issues, which can be partially overcome by integrating both functionalities in a single (capacitive) photoelectrode. As a remarkable example, Xia et al. developed photocapacitive electrodes based on  $\text{TiO}_2$ /nickel hydroxides core–shell nanorods.<sup>19</sup> The photogenerated holes at  $\text{TiO}_2$  are stored by the chemical conversion of  $\text{Ni}(\text{OH})_2$  to  $\text{NiOOH}$ , and the corresponding reductive energy (photoelectrons) can be directly utilized for  $\text{H}_2$  evolution. A multifunctional system based on  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanowire/ $\text{NiO}$  nanoflakes photoanode and  $\text{Si}$  nanowire/ $\text{Pt}$  nanoparticle photocathode has been reported for simultaneous solar energy conversion, energy storage, and chemical sensing.<sup>20</sup> However, the high band gap of  $\text{TiO}_2$  ( $\sim 3.2$  eV) and the low charge–discharge stability of  $\text{Ni}(\text{OH})_2$ / $\text{NiOOH}$  constitute the main drawbacks of these systems. Therefore, further alternatives need to be explored, particularly on lower band gap semiconductors,

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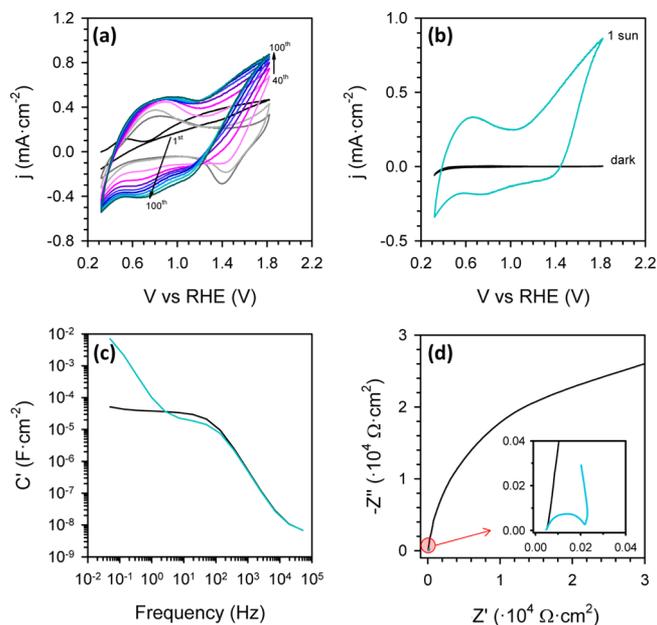
in order to more efficiently harvest solar radiation with competitive stability.

The “defect tolerant” n-type bismuth vanadate, BiVO<sub>4</sub>, with monoclinic (scheelite-type) structure has been identified as a promising photoanode material for different photoelectrochemical applications like water oxidation<sup>21,22</sup> photocatalysis and degradation of pollutants.<sup>21,22</sup> This material can be excited under visible light irradiation (band gap, ~2.4 eV). The electronic properties of this material are hampered by high bulk recombination losses.<sup>23,24</sup> Consequently, different strategies like gradient doping,<sup>25</sup> photocharging,<sup>26</sup> or heterostructuring with larger band gap semiconductors<sup>27–30</sup> have been developed to notably improve the photoelectrochemical performance of this material, circumventing its poor bulk properties. In the present study, BiVO<sub>4</sub> material is employed as the photoactive core of a novel photocapacitive system, absorbing solar radiation to generate electrons and holes. The photogenerated holes are subsequently stored in a capacitive PbO<sub>x</sub> top layer. This storage platform is obtained through controlled photo-oxidation of PbS quantum dots. The combination of both materials provides a singular heterostructured system (BiVO<sub>4</sub>–PbO<sub>x</sub>) capable of converting and storing solar energy within an intrinsically single structure with outstanding stability toward charge–discharge cycling and fast charge rate without applying any electrical bias under only solar illumination.

PbS QDs and uniform film of BiVO<sub>4</sub> were prepared, with some modifications, according to methods previously reported in the literature.<sup>31,32</sup> The as-synthesized BiVO<sub>4</sub>–PbS heterostructures were conditioned by cyclic voltammetry in a phosphate buffer solution (pH ≈ 7) with a sequence of 100 scans between 0.3 and 1.8 V vs RHE (Figure 1a), where the controlled oxidation of PbS to PbO<sub>x</sub> takes place. During the first scan, the pristine BiVO<sub>4</sub>–PbS photoelectrode shows an anodic response, which can be related to the first oxidation step of PbS with low capacitance. As the number of scans increases, the system exhibits enhanced capacitive behavior, as shown by the hysteretic enlargement of the cyclic voltammograms. Indeed, after 40 scans, the pseudocapacitive shape of the cyclic voltammograms is already defined, and further changes are not observed during the subsequent cycles. After 100 scans, because of the complete oxidation of PbS, a stable voltamogram showing high capacity is observed (determined by the width of the anodic and cathodic sweep). In contrast, no photocapacitive response was obtained when the individual components (BiVO<sub>4</sub> and PbS) were tested in the same conditions (see Figure S1 in the Supporting Information), clearly suggesting a synergistic interaction between BiVO<sub>4</sub> and the oxidized product of PbS (PbO<sub>x</sub>) for the observed photocapacitive behavior. In the dark, the conditioned BiVO<sub>4</sub>–PbO<sub>x</sub> heterostructure does not retain any capacitance, as shown in Figure 1b, indicating that the capacitive behavior is related to the photogenerated charges at the BiVO<sub>4</sub> electrode under illumination. In this figure, the footprint-specific photocapacitance of the BiVO<sub>4</sub>–PbO<sub>x</sub> heterostructure was measured as ~6 mF cm<sup>-2</sup> according to the expression

$$C = [(I_a + I_c)/2]/dV dt^{-1} \quad (1)$$

where  $I_a$  and  $I_c$  are related to the anodic and cathodic peak photocurrents. This value of ~6 mF cm<sup>-2</sup> nicely matches that obtained by impedance spectroscopy (IS), as shown in the Bode plot of the capacitance (real part of the capacitance vs frequency) in Figure 1c, of about 7 mF cm<sup>-2</sup> in the low-frequency region. The presence of a second plateau in the Bode



**Figure 1.** (a) Successive cyclic voltammetry scans between 0.3 and 1.9 V vs RHE at 100 mV s<sup>-1</sup> (100 cycles) under illumination at 100 mW cm<sup>-2</sup> in phosphate buffer solution (pH ≈ 7) for the BiVO<sub>4</sub>–PbS heterostructure. (b) Response of the BiVO<sub>4</sub>–PbO<sub>x</sub> photocapacitor in the dark and under illumination at 50 mV s<sup>-1</sup>. (c) Real part of the capacitance ( $C'$ ) versus frequency (Bode plot) in the dark and under illumination. (d) Nyquist plot ( $-Z''$  vs  $Z'$ ) obtained from impedance measurements for the photocapacitor in the dark and under illumination obtained at a constant potential of 0.62 V vs RHE.

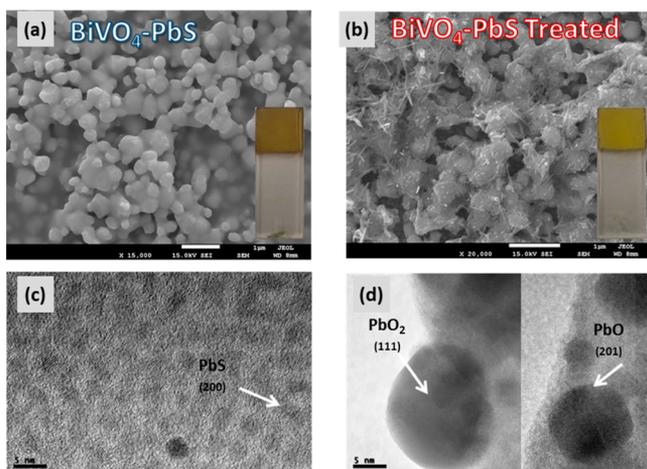
representation also supports the idea of a chemical capacitance under illumination, while the electrochemical double-layer (EDL) capacitance is observed at 10–100 Hz with the typical value of ca. 10<sup>-5</sup> F cm<sup>-2</sup>.<sup>33</sup> In the dark, this EDL capacitance corresponds to the only plateau observed in Figure 1c with a value around 8 × 10<sup>-5</sup> F cm<sup>-2</sup>. Figure 1d shows the Nyquist plots ( $-Z''$  vs  $Z'$ ) in the dark and under illumination. A high resistance of the BiVO<sub>4</sub>–PbO<sub>x</sub> system is observed in the dark, while it is reduced to ca. 200 Ω cm<sup>2</sup> under illumination. This resistance is in parallel to the EDL capacitance and it is ascribed to the charge-transfer resistance, indicating the appearance of faradaic phenomena. The charge transfer in the system under illumination produces a high increase of the capacitance (imaginary part of the Nyquist plot), providing evidence that the charge is stored in the BiVO<sub>4</sub>–PbO<sub>x</sub> electrode.

In order to evaluate when water oxidation (oxygen evolution reaction, OER) competes with the accumulation of holes within the PbO<sub>x</sub> layer, chronoamperometric and impedance spectroscopy measurements were carried out at different applied voltages under illumination (Figure S2). At voltages higher than 1.6 V vs RHE, the low-frequency impedance starts to evolve from a purely capacitive behavior (vertical line) to a resistive one (semicircle), indicating the appearance of faradaic phenomena. At higher voltages, the faradaic phenomena are more important, and at 2 V vs RHE, a second arc at low frequency is observed, indicating a low charge-transfer resistance. From this potential on, the dominant phenomenon is OER. This behavior is consistent with chronoamperometric measurements. Applied voltages higher than 1.5 V vs RHE lead to a steady-state photocurrent, which increases with voltage. Conversely, identical cathodic response is systematically

obtained, supporting the idea that the steady-state photocurrent is related to the OER process.

The (photo)electrochemical behavior of the  $\text{BiVO}_4\text{-PbO}_x$  photocapacitors was also characterized by cyclic voltammetry for different scan rates. In the dark (Figure S3a), very small anodic and cathodic currents were obtained with a well-defined redox peak. The peak current is first-order with scan rate as shown by the inset of Figure S3a, indicating a surface-confined redox process, and consequently it was assigned to the  $\text{V}^{4+}/\text{V}^{5+}$  redox couple.<sup>34,35</sup> On the other hand, the high anodic and cathodic currents under illumination increasing with scan rate (Figure S3b) are consistent with the photocapacitive behavior shown in Figure 1a.

To understand the origin of this synergistic photocapacitive behavior, a detailed structural and surface characterization was carried out. The morphology of different electrodes was investigated with scanning electron microscopy (SEM). The structure of the  $\text{BiVO}_4$  film (Figure S4), shows some submicrometric pores and cavities between the particles, reducing the pathway of photogenerated holes to reach the surface of  $\text{BiVO}_4$ , in good agreement with previous studies.<sup>32</sup> Upon spin coating PbS quantum dots, the surface of  $\text{BiVO}_4$  particles was covered with a layer of oleic acid capped PbS, as described in the Supporting Information and illustrated in Figure 2a. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) examina-



**Figure 2.** SEM images of  $\text{BiVO}_4\text{-PbS}$  before (a) and after (b) cyclic voltammetry in phosphate buffer. TEM images of the  $\text{BiVO}_4\text{-PbS}$  system before (c) and after (d) undergoing cyclic voltammetry in phosphate buffer. The arrow in panel c shows a PbS quantum dot, 3 nm diameter with interplanar distance of 3 Å, which corresponds to the (200) planes of PbS. The arrows in panel d show nanocrystals with interplanar distance of 2.60 Å, which corresponds to the (111) planes of orthorhombic  $\text{PbO}_2$ , and a nanocrystal with interplanar distance of 2.38 Å, which corresponds to the (201) planes of orthorhombic PbO.

tion of the pristine  $\text{BiVO}_4\text{-PbS}$  photoelectrodes shows the presence of a nearly monodispersed distribution of spherical nanoparticles with diameter around 3 nm (Figure 2c). The chemical composition of these nanoparticles evaluated by both Energy Dispersive Spectroscopy (EDS) and X-ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy (XPS) agrees well with that of PbS (see below). The arrow in Figure 2c shows a crystalline nanoparticle with interplanar distance of 3 Å, which corresponds to the (200) planes of rock salt PbS. After 100 cyclic voltammetry scans under illumination in phosphate buffer, the development

of needle-like features related to the  $\text{PbO}_x$  species produced by the controlled oxidation treatment can be seen from the top view in Figure 2b and the TEM images in Figure 2d. After the controlled oxidation process by cyclic voltammetry in phosphate buffer, the spherical PbS quantum dots are not detected, and larger features with characteristic dimension >10 nm are present, which suggest the transformation of PbS into  $\text{PbO}_x$ . One of the arrows in Figure 2d shows a 15 nm diameter nanocrystal with interplanar distance of 2.60 Å, which corresponds to the (111) planes of orthorhombic  $\text{PbO}_2$ . Most of the identified nanoparticles showed this interplanar distance, although few particles (see Figure 2d) exhibited an interplanar distance of 2.38 Å, which corresponds to the (201) planes of orthorhombic PbO. Magnified views of Figure 2c,d are included in Figure S5, in which the lattice fringes can be visualized together with the graphical process for the determination of the lattice spacing. These  $\text{PbO}_x$  nanoparticles appear embedded in needle-shaped structures, and the energy-dispersive spectrometry analysis from SEM measurements shows the presence of Pb and O, as shown in Figure S6. The assignment carried out by TEM is further corroborated by XPS experiments. Figure 3a shows the XPS spectra corresponding to the S 2s signal from  $\text{BiVO}_4\text{-PbS}$  surface before and after the controlled oxidation process by cyclic voltammetry. In the pristine electrode, this signal appears at binding energy of 225.1 eV, agreeing well with the presence of PbS. After the controlled oxidation process, this peak is no longer visible, indicating that sulfur is totally depleted from the surface. On the other hand, the intensity of the O KLL Auger peak (Figure 3b) is significantly increased after cyclic voltammetry, clearly suggesting the increase of O at the surface, as  $\text{PbO}$  or  $\text{PbO}_2$ . Finally, the Pb  $4f_{7/2}$  signal for both pristine and treated specimens is shown as Figure 3c. The interval of binding energies for the Pb  $4f_{7/2}$  signal when Pb is present as  $\text{PbO}$  is 137.6–138.2 eV. On the other hand, when Pb is present as  $\text{PbO}_2$ , the binding energy for the Pb  $4f_{7/2}$  signal is 136.8–138.2 eV. Consequently, both compounds would be possible from our analyses. In any case, both TEM and XPS provide clear evidence for the transformation of PbS into  $\text{PbO}_x$ . Because both  $\text{PbO}_2$  and PbO phases were identified in the oxidized specimens, we will refer to  $\text{PbO}_x$  (where  $x = 1, 3/2, 2$ ), although the major contribution in the analyzed specimens comes from  $\text{PbO}_2$ . The presence of interfacial trap states at the  $\text{BiVO}_4/\text{PbX}$  interface cannot be ruled out. Further insights into this issue would require the use of experimental techniques such as admittance spectroscopy as well as deep level spectroscopy<sup>36</sup> or theoretical tools as density functional theory calculations<sup>37</sup> to provide a detailed mapping of the electronic states at the  $\text{BiVO}_4/\text{PbX}$  interface.

At this point, it is important to highlight the importance of the preparation method for the obtained  $\text{BiVO}_4\text{-PbO}_x$  structures. The electrochemical oxidation of the PbS precursor provides a gradual and controlled evolution of PbS to  $\text{PbO}_x$ . On the other hand, alternative methods like thermal oxidation were also tested (details are provided in Figure S7), leading to a different morphology and structure of the obtained material, with no photocapacitive behavior. This suggests that electrochemical oxidation is the optimum route for the preparation of the photocapacitive  $\text{BiVO}_4\text{-PbO}_x$  system.

On the other hand, the optical properties of the  $\text{BiVO}_4\text{-PbS}$  heterostructure were also evaluated by ultraviolet–visible spectrophotometry (Figure S8). The excellent light-harvesting capabilities of the photocapacitor can be inferred from an

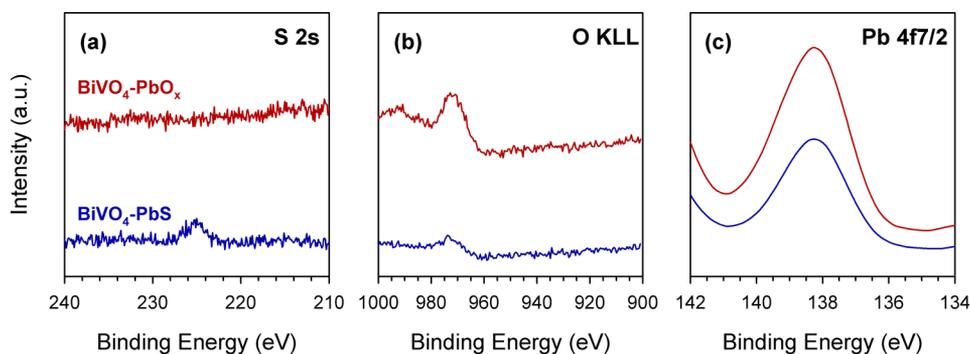


Figure 3. (a) S 2s, (b) O KLL, and (c) Pb 4f<sub>7/2</sub> levels extracted from XPS for BiVO<sub>4</sub>-PbS heterostructures before and after 100 cyclic voltammetry scans.

enhancement in absorbance below 500 nm, which is consistent with the transformation of PbS into PbO<sub>x</sub>.<sup>38,39</sup>

In summary, SEM, TEM, and XPS demonstrate that after 100 cycles the species formed on top of the BiVO<sub>4</sub> electrode is PbO<sub>x</sub>, while no trace of S is detected in the electrode. Consequently, the suggested mechanism for the formation of the BiVO<sub>4</sub>-PbO<sub>x</sub> heterostructure is illustrated in Figure 4a.

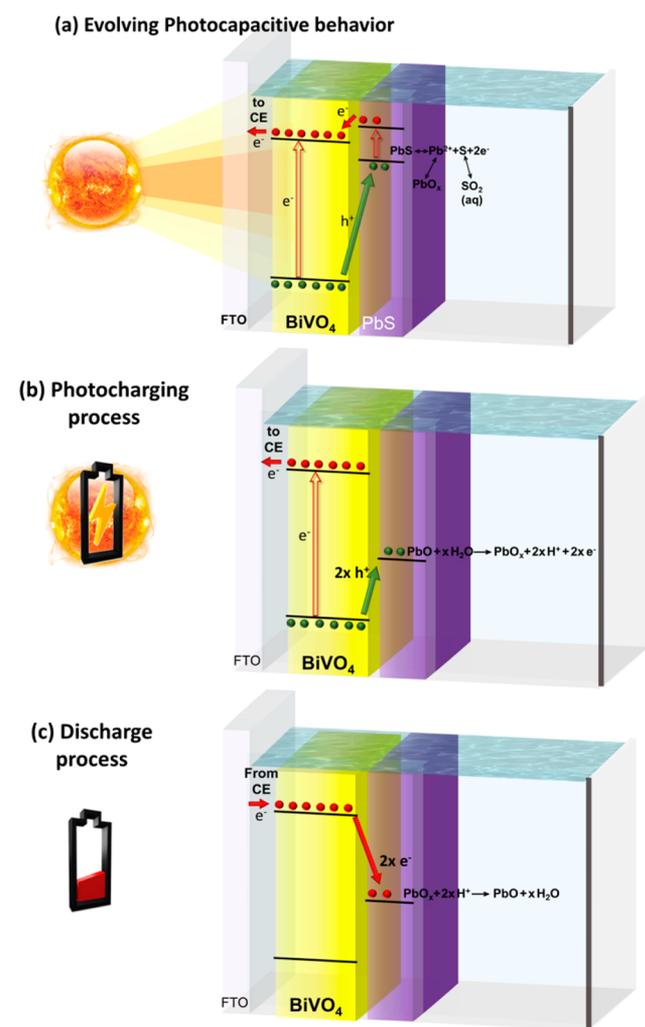
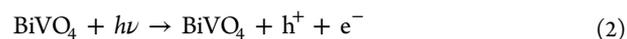


Figure 4. (a) Proposed mechanism for the evolution of BiVO<sub>4</sub>-PbO<sub>x</sub> photocapacitor system and both (b) photocharge and (c) discharge processes.

Under illumination, the photogenerated carriers at the BiVO<sub>4</sub> layer are separated (reaction 2) because of the electric field developed at the heterojunction.



Then, photo-oxidation of the PbS quantum dots into Pb<sup>2+</sup> and S takes place:

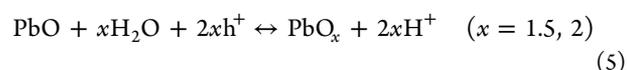
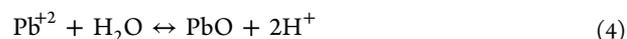


This reaction occurs at ca. 0.35 V vs RHE,<sup>40–42</sup> where the oxidation peak during the first CV scan is observed.

Once S is formed, the dissolution and oxidation to SO<sub>2</sub>(aq) at the same voltage takes place, consistent with the absence of detected S by any of the experimental techniques used. On the other hand, Pb<sup>2+</sup> can be subsequently photo-oxidized to PbO<sub>x</sub> at the BiVO<sub>4</sub> surface as evidenced by TEM and XPS and consistent with a recent report.<sup>43</sup> Some authors have also reported the formation of PbBiVO<sub>5</sub><sup>44</sup> at high temperatures. In this case, XRD measurements (Figure S9) clearly indicate that this phase is not formed, in good agreement with the formation of a BiVO<sub>4</sub>-PbO<sub>x</sub> interfacial layer. The persistence of the monoclinic BiVO<sub>4</sub> crystalline structure after partial reduction during photocharging is consistent with previous reported studies.<sup>35</sup>

**Photocapacitive Mechanism.** The photocapacitive device is based on the BiVO<sub>4</sub>-PbO<sub>x</sub> system, while SO<sub>2</sub>(aq) species are present in the electrolyte. To rule out that the possible capacitive mechanism was related to the redox chemistry of sulfide species, BiVO<sub>4</sub> was cycled in two different polysulfide redox solutions. The results (Figure S10) clearly show no photocapacitive response, demonstrating that the polysulfide chemistry does not control the capacitive response. Consequently, the photocapacitive mechanism is entirely ascribed to the BiVO<sub>4</sub>-PbO<sub>x</sub> heterostructure.

However, it is worth noting that the chemistry of lead (hydr)oxides is a subject of considerable complexity, and it can evolve in several mono- and polynuclear species.<sup>45</sup> Hence, we propose the following simplified reactions to show the evolution of the photocapacitive mechanism and the subsequent charge and discharge processes.

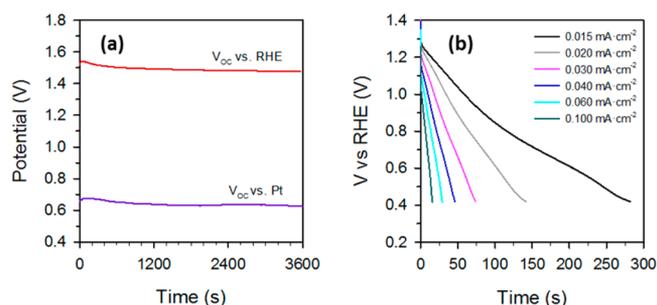


This proposed mechanism is fully consistent with our results from TEM and XPS characterization. Furthermore, at

intermediate CV scans (cycles 5–10), the peak at ca. 1.45 V can be ascribed to the reduction of  $\text{PbO}_2$  to  $\text{Pb}^{2+}$ . As shown in Figure 1a, this peak is not visible after 40 cycles, because the stabilized voltammograms with photocapacitive behavior is believed to be related to the  $\text{PbO}_x/\text{PbO}$  redox couple. In fact, a photoassisted oxidation of  $\text{PbO}$  (reaction 5) during the forward scan and a reduction reaction during the reverse scan will lead to a typical capacitive behavior.

Accordingly, Figure 4 shows a schematic representation for the proposed mechanism.

To fully assess the photocapacitive behavior and the stability of the developed photocapacitor, different key parameters were evaluated, as shown in Figure 5. First, the open-circuit potential



**Figure 5.** (a) Stability of open-circuit potential (OCV) of photocapacitor after charging for 30 s illumination under short-circuit conditions. In this plot,  $V_{oc}$  vs RHE refers to a three-electrode measurement, while  $V_{oc}$  vs Pt refers to a two-electrode measurement. (b) Galvanostatic discharge curves after a full charging of photocapacitor under light illumination for 30 s under short-circuit conditions.

of the fully charged photocapacitor was determined. For this purpose, the electrodes were illuminated at  $100 \text{ mW cm}^{-2}$  under short-circuit conditions (by wiring the  $\text{BiVO}_4\text{-PbO}_x$  electrode to the Pt counterelectrode) for 30 s. Subsequently, the cell was open-circuited to stop the electron flow, and the open-circuit potential ( $V_{OC}$ ) of the fully charged photocapacitor was obtained using a three-electrode system in the dark. A remarkable value of  $V_{OC}$  around 1.5 V vs RHE was obtained (Figure 5a), significantly higher than that of other recently reported photocapacitors using  $\text{TiO}_2$  and nickel.<sup>12</sup> This high  $V_{OC}$  is provided by the difference between the electron quasi-Fermi level (around 0 V vs RHE) and the hole quasi-Fermi level at the  $\text{PbO}_x$  interfacial layer electrode, because the reduction of  $\text{PbO}_2$  takes place at 1.45 V vs RHE. Figure 5a also shows the high stability of the open-circuit voltage, which demonstrates the remarkably low current leakage of the photocapacitor after 1 h. It is worth noting that the device can also be electrochemically charged by applying high potentials to drive the electrochemical oxidation of lead oxide in the dark (Figure S11). On the other hand, the galvanostatic discharge curves after a full charging of the photocapacitor were obtained at a constant discharge current by monitoring the cell voltage as a function of time. The results for different currents normalized to the geometric surface area of the electrode, with the constant current densities from 0.015 to  $0.1 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ , are shown in Figure 5b. The capacitance of the system is  $4.5 \text{ mF cm}^{-2}$  at  $0.015 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ , a value close to the quasi-equilibrium stored energy calculated by impedance spectroscopy, but drops to  $2.2 \text{ mF cm}^{-2}$  at  $0.1 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ . The high novelty of this integrated system makes difficult the comparison with

other reported photocapacitive systems. Compared to a recent system based on  $\text{TiO}_2$  ( $1.1 \text{ mF cm}^{-2}$  at  $1 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ ),<sup>6</sup> the present system shows higher capacitance with the additional advantage of visible light absorption. Finally, we have evaluated its stability during cycling. Figure S12a shows the charge–discharge behavior. Here, the charge–discharge process was performed under on–off illumination cycles using an automatic chopped system, maintaining the system at 0.62 V vs RHE. At this voltage, no faradaic phenomena related to OER are competing with the accumulation of the holes at the  $\text{PbO}_x$  layer, and the measured current is purely related to the capacitive mechanism. As mentioned before, under illumination, photogenerated holes at  $\text{BiVO}_4$  oxidize the synergistic storage system  $\text{BiVO}_4\text{-PbO}_x$  and an anodic current is recorded by the potentiostat. During this process, the surface of the photocapacitor is positively charged, and the initial photocharging current of  $0.42 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$  exponentially decreases to near zero (fully charged photocapacitor). This behavior is similar to the charging behavior of standard capacitors under constant-voltage conditions. In the dark, the discharging process takes place, the electrons are driven from the oxidized  $\text{BiVO}_4\text{-PbO}_2$  to their reduced form  $\text{BiVO}_4\text{-PbO}_x$ , and a reverse cathodic reaction takes place to neutralize the electrode. The charge stored and delivered by the system is of  $1.35 \text{ mC cm}^{-2}$ . As can be seen from Figure S12b, there is no apparent decrease of the storage ability of the system during 100 charge–discharge cycles, highlighting the outstanding stability of this heterostructured system.

In summary, we have developed a novel photocapacitive system based on the  $\text{BiVO}_4/\text{PbS}$  type II heterostructure, which after controlled oxidation evolves to  $\text{BiVO}_4/\text{PbO}_x$ . The photocapacitive mechanism stems from the conversion of  $\text{PbS}$  into  $\text{PbO}_x$  as demonstrated by TEM and XPS measurements. To the best of the authors' knowledge, the photocapacitive behavior of this system outperforms the most advanced devices reported in the literature, showing a specific capacitance of  $6 \text{ mF cm}^{-2}$  ( $4.5 \text{ mF cm}^{-2}$  at discharge current density of  $0.015 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ ), high open-circuit potential (1.5 V vs RHE), and stable charge–discharge cycling during 100 cycles. Moreover, solar fuels in the form of  $\text{H}_2$  gas could be generated during the charging step if the system is coupled to a water reduction photocathode. These results open promising research avenues in the development of novel solar energy conversion–storage strategies.

## ■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

### Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website at DOI: 10.1021/acsenerylett.6b00728.

Description of the materials and characterization methods employed and extensive information on the structural and photoelectrochemical characterization of the employed materials (PDF)

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### Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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