



Design of Electric Drive Vehicle Batteries for Long Life and Low Cost

Robustness to Geographic and Consumer-Usage Variation



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Motivation



♦ The fuel-displacement potential of EVs and PHEVs is elusive

- Cost reduction needed for significant market penetration to be achieved
- Batteries are the most expensive component of the vehicle
- Consumers expect >10 years vehicle life
 - Periodic battery replacement (e.g., every 5 years) not warranted

Battery life and cost are intimately related

- Batteries are substantially oversized to meet power and energy performance requirements at the end-of-life
- HEVs: only 10% to 25% of energy is used
 - Toyota Prius HEV: 1.2 kWh total energy, typically < 300 Wh is used
- PHEVs: only 50% of energy is used
 - Chevy Volt PHEV: ~16 kWh total energy, only 8 kWh is used

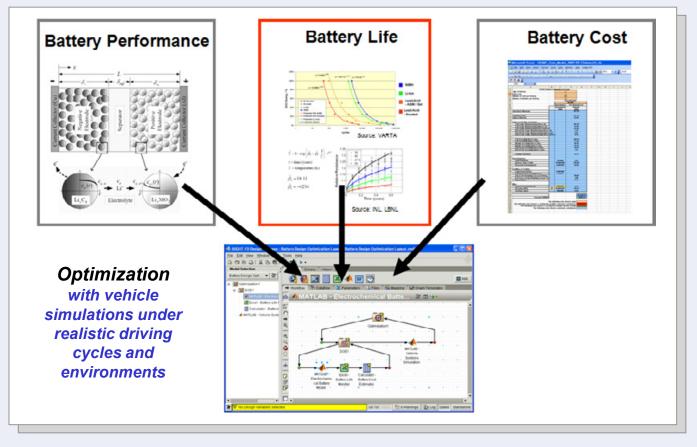
Need to understand worst-case conditions for battery aging

- Worst-case duty cycles and environments drive the need to oversize batteries
- Systems solutions and controls can be added to overcome some of these conditions
- Life-predictive models are preferable to rules-of-thumb



NREL Battery Optimization & Trade-off Analysis





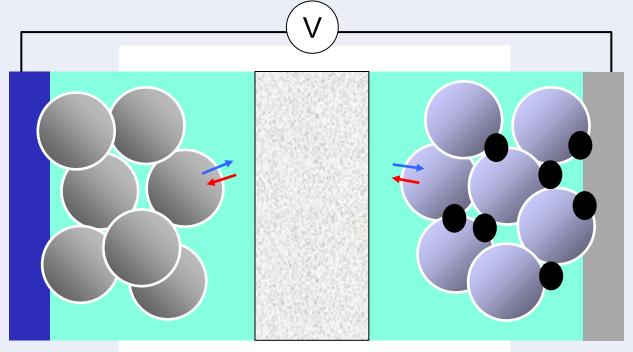
- ◆ Explore strategies to extend life and/or reduce cost
 - Battery sizing, thermal preconditioning and standby cooling, 2nd use, battery ownership, vehicle-to-grid...
- Missing: Life model capable of analyzing arbitrary real-world scenarios



Typical Structure of Li-ion Batteries



Designing Thermodynamics Designing Kinetics





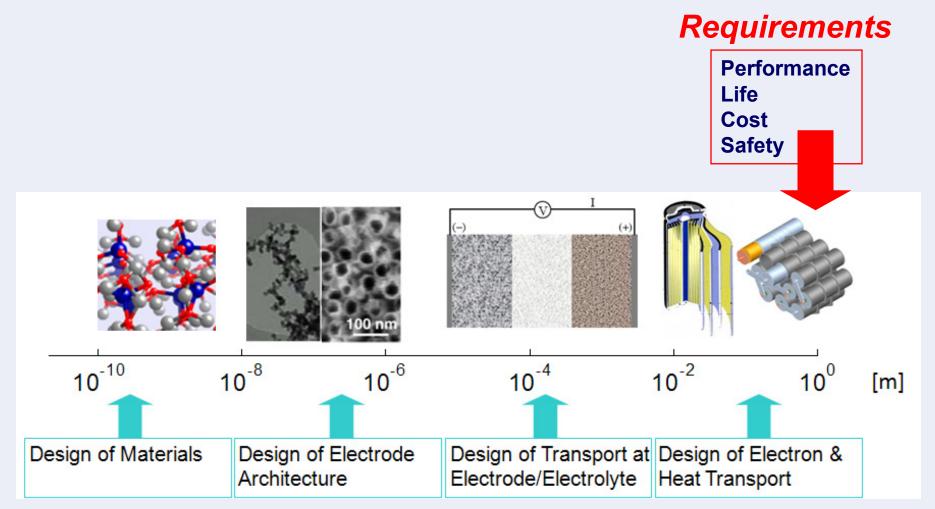






Multi-Scale Physics in Li-ion Battery







Outline



Aging mechanisms in Li-ion batteries

Aging models based on accelerated testing

◆ Robust design for long life, low cost



Outline

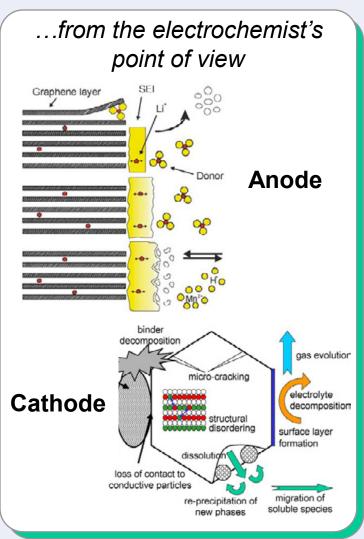


◆ Aging mechanisms in Li-ion batteries

 Aging models based on accelerated testing

Robust design for long life, low cost

> Images: Vetter et al., "Ageing mechanisms in lithiumion batteries," J. Power Sources, 147 (2005) 269-281





Performance Fade



- System-level observations
 - Capacity loss
 - Impedance rise/power fade
 - Potential change
- ◆ Calendar life goal: 10 to 15 years → Effects during storage
 - Self discharge, impedance rise
- ◆ Cycle life goal: 3,000 to 5,000 deep cycles → Effects during use
 - Mechanical degradation, Li metal plating
- Where do changes occur?
 - 1. Electrode/electrolyte interface, affecting both electrode & electrolyte
 - 2. Active materials
 - 3. Composite electrode

Anode: graphitic carbons Li_xC_6

<u>Cathode:</u> metal oxides Li_yCoO₂, Li_y(Ni,Co,Mn,Al)O₂, Li_yMnO₄,



Anode Aging



1. Solid/Electrolyte Interphase (SEI) Layer

- Passive protective layer, product of organic electrolyte decomposition
 SEI formation = f(a_s, formation conditions)
- Mostly formed during first cycle of battery, but continues to grow at slow rate
- May penetrate into electrode & separator pores → a_s & D_e^{eff}
- High temperature effects
 - Exothermic side reactions cause self heating
 - Film breaks down and dissolves, later precipitates
 - More-stable inorganic SEI formed, blocking Li insertion
- Low temperature effects (during charging)
 - Slow diffusion causes Li saturation at Li_xC₆ surface
 - Slow kinetics causes increased overpotential



Anode Aging



2. Changes of Active Material

- ♦ Volume changes during insertion/de-insertion (~10%)
- Solvent intercalation, electrolyte reduction, gas evolution inside Li_xC₆

→ Stress → Cracks

3. Changes of Composite Electrode

- ♦ SEI & volume changes cause:
 - contact loss between Li_xC₆, conductive binder, and current collector
 - reduced electrode porosity



Anode Aging



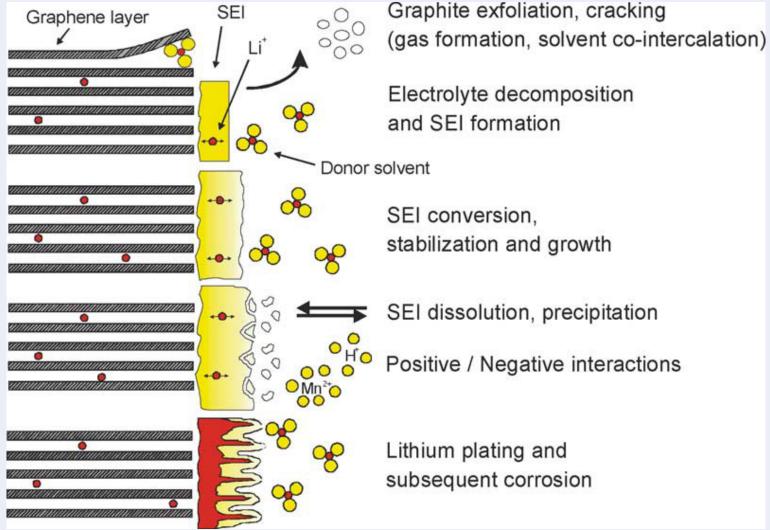


Image: Vetter et al., "Ageing mechanisms in lithium-ion batteries," J. Power Sources, 147 (2005) 269-281



Cathode Aging



Li(Ni,Co,Al)O₂ Materials

- ♦ LiCoO₂ common cathode material
- LiNiO₂ structure unstable unless doped with Co or Al
- Li(Ni,Co,Al)O₂ volume changes are small → good cycle life
- Discharged state stable at high temperatures
- LiCoO₂ charged beyond 4.2 volts,
 Co dissolves and migrates to anode

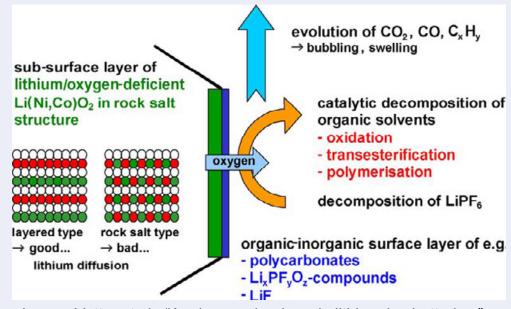


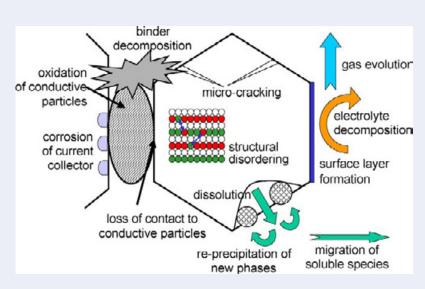
Image: Vetter et al., "Ageing mechanisms in lithium-ion batteries," *J. Power Sources*, 147 (2005) 269-281

- Surface effects
 - SEI film formation accelerated when charged > 4.2 V, high temperatures
 - Electrolyte oxidation and LiPF₆ decomposition
 - Li(Ni,Co,Al)O₂ source O₂ → rock-salt structure with low σ, D₅
 - Gas evolution

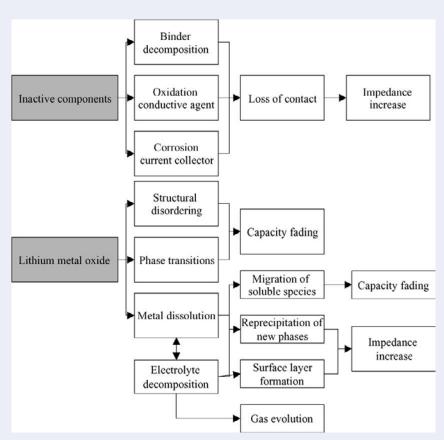


Cathode Aging





Source: Vetter et al., "Ageing mechanisms in lithium-ion batteries," *J. Power Sources*, 147 (2005) 269-281



Source: Wohlfahrt-Mehrens et al., "Aging mechanisms of lithium cathode materials," *J. Power Sources*, 127 (2004) 58-64



Summary of Aging



Aging influenced by:

- ◆ Both <u>high</u> and low SOC
- High temperatures
- Low temperatures during charging
- ◆ Surface chemistry (anode and cathode)
- Phase transitions/structural changes (cathode)



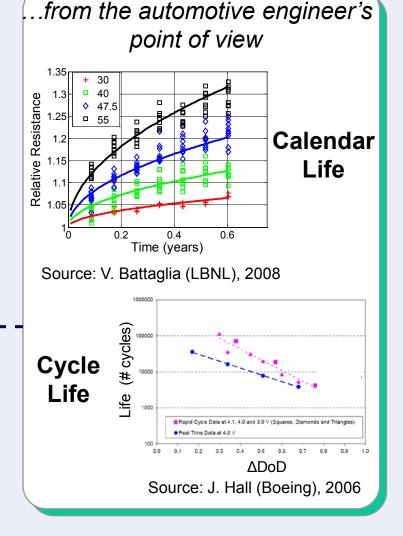
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Robust design for long life, low cost





How Can We Predict Battery Life?



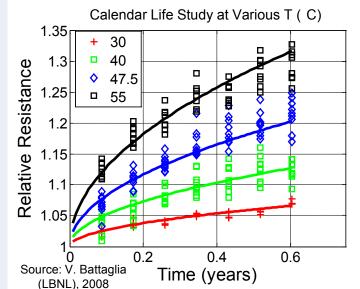
Accelerated storage tests

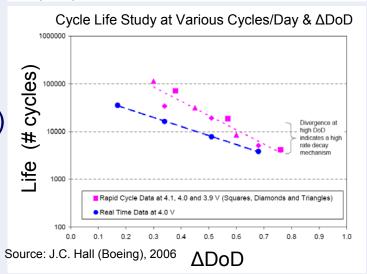
- Relatively well understood
- Mechanism: SEI growth, Li loss
- Model:
 - t^{1/2} time dependency
 - Arrhenius T dependency



Accelerated cycling tests

- Poorly understood
- Mechanism: Mechanical stress & fracture
 (may be coupled with SEI fracture+regrowth)
- Model:
 - Typical t or N dependency
 - Often correlated log(# cycles) with ΔDOD



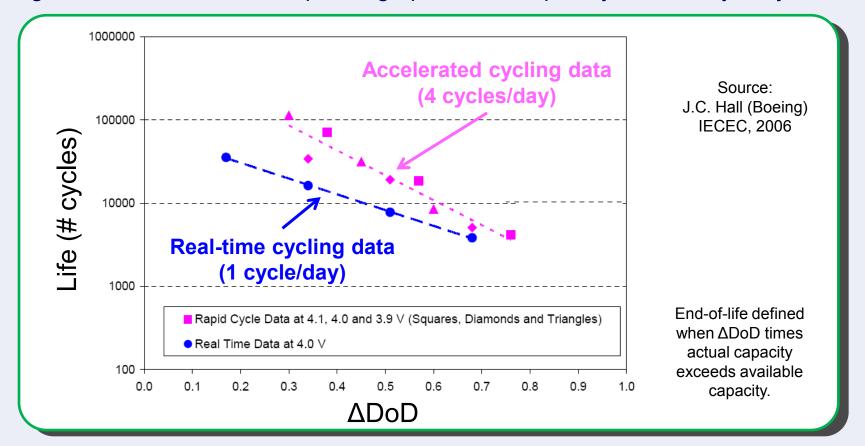




Accelerated Tests May Not Predict Correct Real-Time Result



 Cycle-life study for geosynchronous satellite battery shows possible change in degradation mechanisms depending upon how frequently the battery is cycled



Important for a life-predictive model to accurately capture both cycling conditions. Prediction based on accelerated cycling results would over-estimate life!



How Can We Predict Battery Life?



Accelerated storage tests

- Relatively well understood
- Mechanism: SEI growth, Li loss
- Model: (e.g., DOE TLVT)
 - t¹/₂ time dependency
 - Arrhenius T dependency

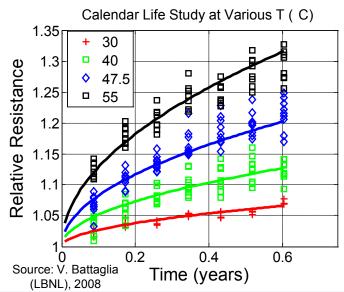
Accelerated cycling tests

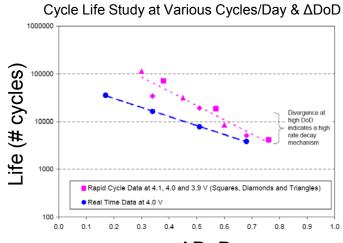
- Poorly understood
- Mechanism: Mechanical stress & fracture
 (may be coupled with SEI fracture + regrowth)
- ♦ Model: (e.g., VARTA)
 - Typical t or N dependency
 - Often correlated log(# cycles) with ΔDOD

Real-world cycling & storage

- Poorly understood
- NREL model extends previous work by enabling extrapolation beyond tested conditions







Source: J.C. Hall (Boeing), 2006 ΔDoD



Life Modeling Approach



NCA datasets fit with empirical, yet physically justifiable formulas

*K. Smith, T. Markel, A. Pesaran, "PHEV Battery Trade-off Study and Standby Thermal Control," 26th International Battery Seminar & Exhibit, Fort Lauderdale, FL, March, 2009.

Calendar fade

- SEI growth (partially suppressed by cycling)
- Loss of cyclable lithium
- a₁(∆DOD,T,V)

Cycling fade

- Active material structure degradation and mechanical fracture
- a₂(∆DOD,T,V)

Resistance Growth

$$R = a_1 t^{\frac{1}{2}} + a_2 N$$

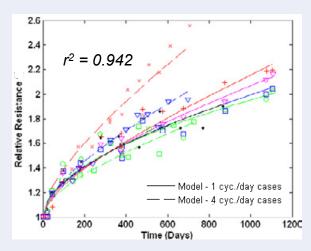
Relative Capacity

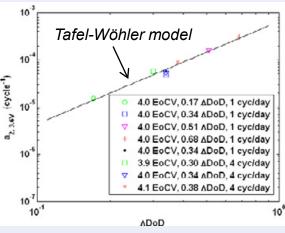
$$Q = min(Q_{Li}, Q_{Li})$$

$$Q_{Li} = d_0 + d_1 \times (a_1 t^{1/2})$$

$$Q_{\text{active}} = e_0 + e_1 \times (a_2 \text{ N})$$

Predictive model that considers effects of real-world storage and cycling scenarios





Data: J.C. Hall, IECEC, 2006.



Fitting of NCA/Graphite Baseline Life Model to Lab Data



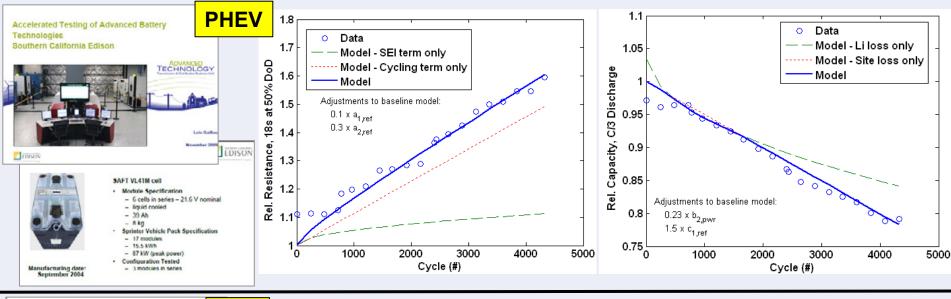
- 1. Resistance growth during storage
 - Broussely (Saft), 2007:
 - T = 20°C, 40°C, 60°C
 - SOC = 50%, 100%
- Resistance growth during cycling
 - ♦ Hall (Boeing), 2005-2006:
 - DoD = 20%, 40%, 60%, 80%
 - End-of-charge voltage = 3.9, 4.0, 4.1 V
 - Cycles/day = 1, 4
- 3. Capacity fade during storage
 - ♦ Smart (NASA-JPL), 2009
 - T = 0°C, 10°C, 23°C, 40°C, 55°C
 - Broussely (Saft), 2001
 - V = 3.6V, 4.1V
- 4. Capacity fade during cycling
 - ♦ Hall/Boeing, 2005-2006: (same as # 2 above)

- 30 different tests
- >\$1M in test equipment
- 1-4 years duration
- → Expensive!!

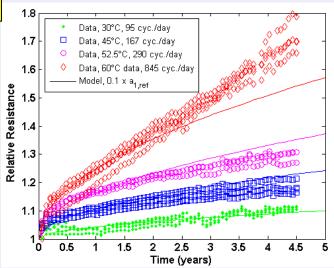


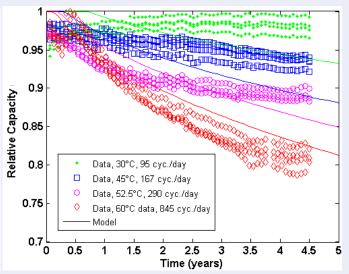
Model Comparison with Vehicle Battery Laboratory Data













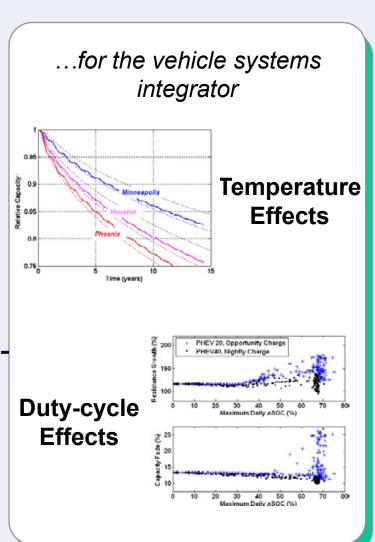
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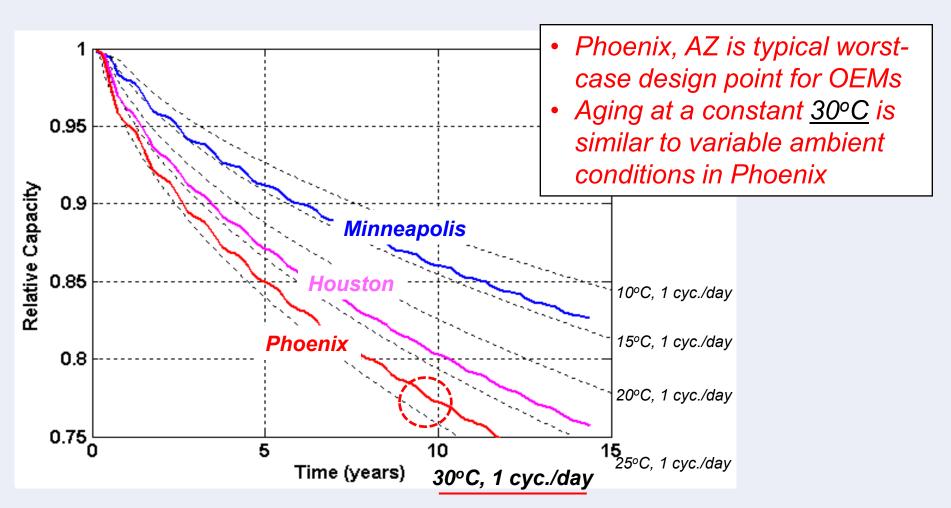




Impact of Geographic Region



- Example: PHEV20 battery, 1 cycle/day, △DoD=0.54, various climates
 - NREL Typical Meteorological Year data used to simulate ambient conditions for each city





Impact of Thermal Management in Phoenix



Cooling strategies investigated:

1. No cooling

2. Air cooling

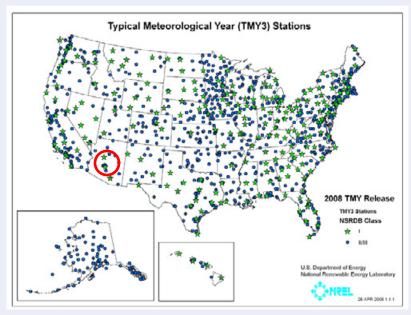
- $h = 15 W/m^2 K$
- T_{inf} = 30°C (passenger cabin air)

3. Liquid cooling

- $h = 80 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K}$
- T_{inf} = 20°C (refrigerated ethylene glycol)

4. Air cooling, with low impedance cell

- $h = 15 W/m^2 K$
- T_{inf} = 30°C (passenger cabin air)
- Use of a high power/low impedance cell reduces heat generation rates by 50%



Other assumptions used to generate temperature profiles for the various cases:

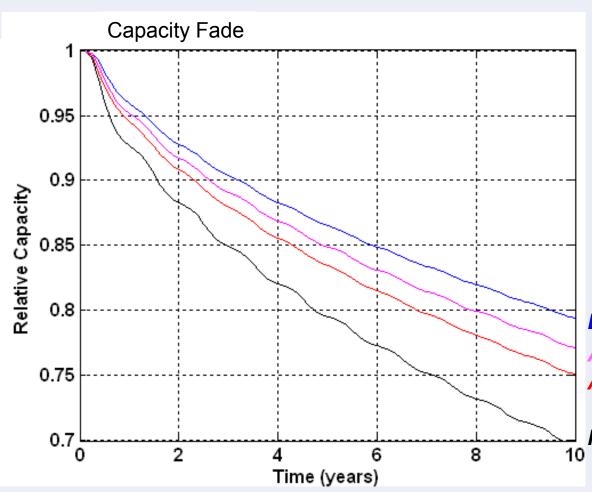
- CD and CS heat generation rates chosen to represent average driving (between US06 and city driving measurements taken in the NREL lab)
- Two trips per day
 - 8:00-8:30 a.m. morning commute
 - 5:00-5:30 p.m. evening commute
- 34 mph average speed



Impact of Thermal Management in Phoenix



- Battery life differs depending on how the battery is cooled
 - Example below: PHEV20, 1 cycle/day at ∆DoD=0.54



Liquid cooling is very effective at reducing peak temperatures as well as lowering the average daily temperature during the summer. It is uncertain whether the extra expense is warranted.

Use of a **low impedance cell** reduces heat generation rates while driving, but does not lower temperature due to ambient exposure. This higher power cell costs more upfront, but does appear to have longer life.

Liquid cooling

Air cooling, low impedance cell Air cooling

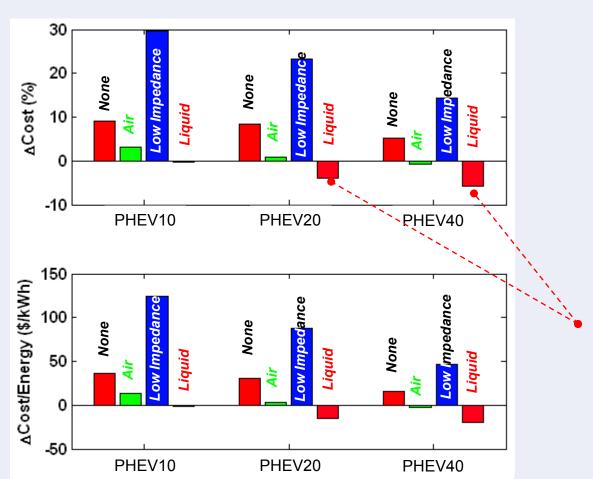
No cooling



\$\$ Value of Thermal Management inPhoenix



- Slower degradation saves battery cost by allowing smaller battery to meet end-of-life performance requirements
 - All values below are compared to a baseline battery pack designed for 1 cycle/day at 30°C.



No thermal management increases baseline battery cost by 5% to 10%.

Slower fade rate of low impedance cell does not justify the upfront cost of extra power in this design.

Effective thermal management decreases baseline pack costs by 5%.

 PHEV40 shows most benefit from liquid-cooled system that lowers daily average temperatures during the summer.

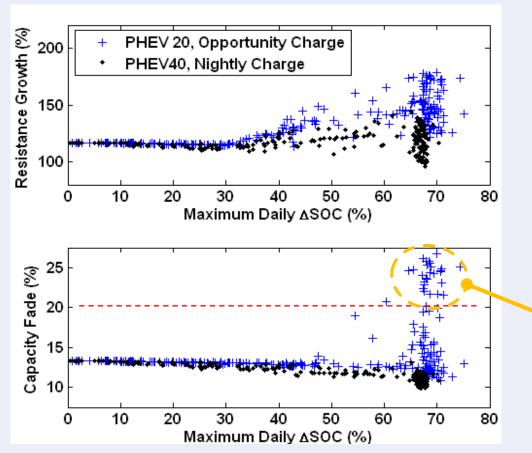


Impact of Duty-Cycle



Two scenarios with similar petroleum displacement

- 1. PHEV 20, opportunity charge
- 2. PHEV 40, nightly charge



227 GPS-measured speed traces



Vehicle Simulation• PHEVxx

• Charging frequency

Battery duty-cycle



15 years, 30°C



Battery wear outcome

Frequent deep cycling can lead to early failure.



Conclusions



- Battery degradation is complex
 - Stressors: Chemical, electrochemical, thermal, and mechanical
 - Physics-based models do not yet capture all relevant mechanisms
- Aging tests are expensive and time consuming
 - Accelerated tests do not always reveal real-time fade rates!
 - Models useful for proper interpretation and extrapolation
 - Present: Semi-empirical, requires large test matrix
 - Future: Physics-based, requires fewer tests + useful as battery design tool
- Robust design tools require accurate battery life prediction under multiple scenarios
 - Knowledge must be efficiently passed from electrochemists to vehicle systems engineers
- Significant cost savings may be achieved through streamlined battery life verification methods and robust design



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