Effect of entropy change of lithium intercalation in cathodes and anodes on Li-ion battery thermal management

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The entropy changes (ΔS) in various cathode and anode materials, as well as in complete Li-ion batteries, were measured using an electrochemical thermodynamic measurement system (ETMS). LiCoO 2 has a much larger entropy change than electrodes based on LiNi x Co y Mn z O 2 and LiFePO 4 , while lithium titanate based anodes have lower entropy change compared to graphite anodes. The reversible heat generation rate was found to be a significant portion of the total heat generation rate. The appropriate combinations of cathode and anode were investigated to minimize reversible heat generation rate across the 0–100% state of charge (SOC) range. In addition to screening for battery electrode materials with low reversible heat, the techniques described in this paper can be a useful engineering tool for battery thermal management in stationary and transportation applications.

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1. Introduction

Li-ion batteries are used in a variety of applications requiring charge–discharge rates in the 8-h (C/8) to 0.5 h (2C rate) range. While hybrid electric vehicle (HEV) batteries have a high power/energy (P/E) ratio, batteries for plug-in hybrid electric vehicles (PHEVs) are typically discharged over a 4-h period (C/4 rate). The power load on HEV/PHEV batteries during acceleration, hill climbing and regenerative braking is quite high, requiring good heat dissipation for peak loads. Electric vehicle batteries are expected to be discharged over an 8-h period (C/8 rate). With increasing market penetration of renewables and HEV/PHEVs, the demand for energy storage devices is expected to increase exponentially. These batteries are expected to provide various ancillary services such as voltage regulation, load leveling and load following, with charge–discharge rates ranging from C/4 to C rates. Unlike typical consumer batteries, these batteries range in size from 4 kWh to 40 kWh, with various P/E ratios. While active cooling is an option for HEV/PHEV/EV batteries, batteries for distributed energy storage at the consumer end are expected to be housed in “transformer boxes”, without active cooling. Thermal management becomes more critical, since the surface area/volume ratio of these batteries decreases with increasing battery size, resulting in lower heat transfer rate per unit rate of heat generation [1]. Our previous work has shown that for a single Li-ion polymer cell, there is a temperature increase of 5–20 °C at 1 C rate, with the temperature increase higher at low SOC [2].

The entropy change ΔS can contribute more than 50% of the total heat generated (in Joules) at the C/1 discharge rate [3]. The relative contribution of reversible heat from ΔS is expected to be higher at lower charge–discharge rates. While it is certainly useful to determine the total reversible heat generated during charge or discharge, in certain SOC ranges, the rate of reversible heat generation can be extremely high. Hence it is also important to quantify the rate of reversible heat generation at various SOCs and determine its fraction of total rate of heat generation at each SOC. This can serve as a tool for the battery management system to control battery load or charge current at various SOCs such that high temperature excursions are effectively prevented. While the internal resistance (and hence the irreversible heat generation rate) can be minimized by suitable electrode and cell design, the reversible heat generation rate can play a significant role especially in cases when internal resistance has been minimized.

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Measurement of individual electrode and full cell entropy change, along with computation of reversible and irreversible heat generation rates at various current densities is expected to contribute significantly to effective thermal management for large batteries. Various researchers have determined entropy change values for LiCoO$_2$ [4], LiCoO$_2$ modified with Ni [5], spinel LiMn$_2$O$_4$ [6], Li$_{1.156}$Mn$_{1.844}$O$_4$ [7], LiFePO$_4$ [8], graphite [9], Li$_{4/3}$Ti$_{5/3}$O$_4$ spinel [7], and LiCoO$_2$–graphite full cells [1]. From these data, it is apparent that certain cathode/anode couples can be conducive to lower rate of reversible heat generation due to cathode and anode entropy changes canceling out each other at a given SOC across the desired SOC range.

The rate of irreversible heat generation can be determined from impedance measurements for 18,650 cells, with impedance normalized by capacity. Reported impedance values for 18,650 cells [10–13] and prismatic cells [14,15] were compiled, from which normalized values of $\Omega$ Ah were calculated.

2. Reversible heat generation rate for lithium-ion batteries

2.1. Entropy change data from the literature

The thermodynamic properties (entropy change, $\Delta S$) of cathode and anode materials were compiled in this work. While data on LiCoO$_2$, spinel LiMn$_2$O$_4$ cathodes and graphite anode was readily available [4–7,9], only limited information was available on novel electrodes such as LifePO$_4$ [8] and lithium titanates [7]. The entropy change of the full cell was computed from individual electrode data, while the full cell entropy change for LiCoO$_2$–graphite was obtained from the literature[1]. For some of the literature data, $\Delta S$ was calculated from the $\partial E/\partial T$ values [5].

2.2. Reversible and irreversible heat

The reversible heat generation rate $Q_r$, in watts, generated by an electrode is given by

$$Q_r = T\Delta S \frac{I}{nF} \quad (1)$$

where $I$ is the current density ($Acm^{-2}$), $T$ is temperature (K), $\Delta S$ is entropy change (J mole$^{-1}$ K$^{-1}$), $n$ is the number of electrons per reaction, and $F$ is the Faraday constant ($96,485$ C equiv.$^{-1}$). The ETMS instrument ETMS-1000 (Viaspace Inc. Irvine, CA, USA) calculates entropy change based on one Li$^+$ exchange during charge or discharge, from the equation

$$\Delta S = \frac{nF\Delta E}{RT} \quad (2)$$

where $E$ is the open circuit potential. Hence, for calculation of rate of reversible heat generation, $n$ is taken to be equal to 1.

The entropy change $\Delta S$ typically corresponds to a reduction reaction, which is the discharge reaction for a cathode in a full cell. Depending on convention, the sign for heat generation can be either positive or negative for an exothermic reaction. Assuming heat for an exothermic reaction is negative, discharge current is taken to be positive in sign (and charge current taken as negative) for Eq. (1) to be consistent. (If the heat generation term for exothermic reactions is positive, discharge current has to be negative for consistency.) It should be noted that during discharge of a Li-ion cell, while reduction takes place at the cathode, oxidation takes place at the anode. Hence, the total change in entropy for a cell during discharge is

$$\Delta S = \Delta S_c + \Delta S_a \quad (3)$$

where $\Delta S_c$ corresponds to the entropy change of the cathode material for a reduction reaction, while $\Delta S_a$ corresponds to the entropy change of the anode material for an oxidation reaction. Hence the measured or reported $\Delta S$ values for anode materials are reversed in sign and presented as $\Delta S_a$ in this work in order for Eq. (3) to be consistent.

Since the ETMS instrument does not differentiate between an anode or cathode, the state of charge (SOC) as measured by the instrument increases during oxidation. Since a fully oxidized state for an anode corresponds to 0% SOC in a full cell, the SOC for anode presented in this paper has been adjusted to be equal to the actual SOC for anode in a full cell. Hence, if the instrument SOC for anode is $x\%$, the SOC of the anode, presented in this work, is $(100 - x)\%$.

Combinations of cathodes and anodes with low full cell $\Delta S$ values were determined across the 0–100% SOC range. In some cases, the low full cell $\Delta S$ values were due to low $\Delta S$ values of the cathode and anode, while in other cases, the cathode and anode entropy changes were opposite in sign at each SOC, thus minimizing their sum.

The irreversible heat generation rate, $Q_{irr}$, is always exothermic, and is given by

$$Q_{irr} = -I^2R_i \quad (4)$$

where $R_i$ is internal resistance. Eq. (4) states that the irreversible heat generation rate is the product of current $I$ and cell overpotential $\eta_{cell}$, with the cell overpotential $\eta_{cell}$ being the product of cell current $I$ and cell internal resistance $R_i$, where $R_i$ is the sum of ohmic, activation and diffusion polarization resistances.

The analysis was carried out for a 16 kWh battery (200 V/80 Ah), which is the estimated size for a 40-mile plug-in hybrid electric vehicle (PHEV) battery [16] or estimated size for distributed community energy storage [17]. Using a nominal cell voltage of 3.6 V, the number of cells were calculated, and the total internal resistance of the battery computed from $\Omega$ Ah values obtained from the literature [10–15]. The total heat generation rate $Q$ is given by

$$Q = Q_r + Q_{irr} \quad (5)$$

While $Q_{irr}$ is always negative, $Q_r$ can be either positive or negative at various state of charges (SOCs), with the signs being opposite for charge and discharge.

The total heat generation rate was computed for various combination of cathodes and anodes across the 0–100% SOC range. For this work, the internal resistance of the cell was assumed to be the same for all chemistries. As seen later, the internal resistance of the cell is assumed to be at the upper end of the values reported in the literature, and is $\sim 4–5$ times that of the lower range of reported internal resistance values. This results in a conservative estimate of the contribution of reversible heat generation rate, since for cells with lower internal resistance, the contribution from reversible heat generation would be higher as a percentage of total heat generation rate.

In a typical LiCoO$_2$/C battery, the overall electrochemical reaction for discharge can be expressed as:

$$2Li_{1-x}CoO_2 + Li_{2x}C_6 \rightarrow 2Li_{1-x}xycO_2 + Li_{2x-2y}C_6 \quad (6)$$

where $x < 0.5$ and $y < x$.

The corresponding entropy change in this battery for the reaction is the sum of the individual electrode entropy change, as written, is:

$$\Delta S_{cell} = \Delta S_{Li_{1-x}ycO_2} + \Delta S_{Li_{2x-2y}C_6} \quad (7)$$

---

$^2$ Please note that all references to heat in this work correspond to heat generation rate in watts.
The rate of reversible heat generation from the LiCoO$_2$ cathode and the graphite anode at each SOC can be calculated from Eq. (1). In this study, since various cathodes and anodes have been studied, the entropy change and heat generation rate is plotted as a function of SOC, since the $x$ values can vary depending on cathode or anode. Also, the sign of entropy change for the anode is reversed from the reported or measured data, since the reported or measured values correspond to reduction reactions for all electrodes, while, as discussed earlier, oxidation occurs at the anode during discharge.

3. Experiment

3.1. Electrode synthesis

Nanosized LiFePO$_4$ was synthesized using LiCoO$_2$$\cdot$2H$_2$O (reagent grade, Sigma), FeCO$_2$$\cdot$2H$_2$O (99%, Aldrich), (NH$_4$)$_2$HPO$_4$ (99.999%, Sigma–Aldrich), oleic acid (FFC, FG) and paraffin wax (ASTM D 87, mp. 53–57°C, Aldrich). (NH$_4$)$_2$HPO$_4$ was ball-milled with oleic acid for 1 h using high energy mechanical mill (HEMM, SPEX 8000M) in a stainless steel vial. After paraffin wax was added and milled for 30 min, iron oxalate was added and milled for 10 min. Finally, Li acetate was added and milled for 10 min. The overall molar ratio was Li:Fe:Poleic acid:paraffin = 1:1:1:1:2. The precursor paste was dried in an oven at 110°C for 30 min followed by heat-treatment in a tube furnace at 500°C for 8 h under UHP-3%H$_2$/97%Ar gas flow with a temperature ramp rate of 5°C min$^{-1}$. After the LiFePO$_4$ was obtained, 10 wt% carbon black was milled in a planetary mill for 4 h (Retsch 100CM) at 400 rpm. TiO$_2$/graphene composite (2.5 wt% graphene) was obtained by a self-assembly approach following our previous work [18]. Microstructures were analyzed by field emission scanning electron microscopy (FE-SEM) (FEl Nova 600) and high resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM).

3.2. Entropy measurement

Entropy data of cathodes, anodes, and complete cells were obtained by monitoring the change in open circuit voltage as a function of temperature using ETMS–1000. Several cathode and anode powders were obtained from LICO Technology Corp. Cathodes and anodes were prepared by mixing 85% active material, 10% poly(vinylidene fluoride) (PVDF) binder (Alfa Aesar), and 5% carbon black (Super P-Li, Timcal) in N-methylpyrrolidone (NMP) (Aldrich), and then cast on Al and Cu foils, respectively. Customer-coated cathode and anode films obtained from Manufacturer A were used as received for entropy measurement. To measure entropy changes in cathodes or anodes, they were assembled in a Type-2325 coin cell in an argon-filled glove box with a 0.75 mm-thick, Li-foil anode (Aldrich) and microporous polypropylene separator (Celgard 2501). The electrolyte used was 1 M LiPF$_6$ in a 1:1 mixture of ethylene carbonate (EC) and dimethyl carbonate (DMC) (EM Industries), using a coin cell crimper (National Research Council, Canada). Complete cells with various cathodes and anodes also were assembled using a similar procedure to that described above by replacing Li metal with the appropriate anode.

The LiFePO$_4$ cathode cells were cycled at C/10 rate between 2.5 V and 4.1 V. The voltage range for TiO$_2$ anode cells was 1–3 V. After three cycles, the cells were brought to a fully discharged state prior to the start of entropy determination. Charge stabilization was done at 35°C for 2 h, followed by returning the cell temperature to the initial desired value. The initial temperature was set to be equal to the charge stabilization temperature. After 15 min at this initial temperature, the cell voltage was measured, and then the cell temperature was changed to the next value (e.g., 25°C). After temperature equalization at that temperature, the cell voltage was measured at the end of the period, and then the temperature was changed to the next level (e.g., 15°C). The cell temperature was then brought to the initial value (35°C) to determine drift from the initial voltage reading. Entropy changes were calculated from the slope of the voltage–time curve using Eq. (2). The ETMS software has an auto-correct feature that adjusts for drift in cell open circuit voltage due to self-discharge by adjusting the slope of voltage vs. temperature to account for the self-discharge.

It should be noted that the $\Delta S$ values include entropy change for the reference Li/Li$^+$ electrode. Since reported values in the literature for other half cells are also against the same reference, various cathode and anode combinations can be simulated, since the contribution from the Li/Li$^+$ reference electrode will cancel out. Moreover, since the reference electrode is lithium metal, there is negligible change in the electrode entropy as lithium is added to or subtracted from that electrode during charge or discharge.

The experiments were repeated for LiFePO$_4$/TiO$_2$ cells, using voltage limits of 0.25 V and 3 V. While $\Delta H$ and $\Delta S$ values were computed from the ETMS software from the voltage vs. temperature data, only $\Delta S$ values are reported in this work, since only these values are relevant to reversible heat generation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chemistry</th>
<th>Label</th>
<th>Literature reference/source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cathodes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LiCoO$_2$</td>
<td>LCO-LICO</td>
<td>Procured from LICO Corp.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LiCo$_2$</td>
<td>LCO-A</td>
<td>Procured from manufacturer A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LiCoO$_2$</td>
<td>LCO-L</td>
<td>Reynier et al. [4]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LiNi$<em>{0.7}$Co$</em>{0.3}$O$_2$</td>
<td>LiNi$<em>{0.7}$Co$</em>{0.3}$O$_2$-L</td>
<td>Funahashi et al. [5]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LiNi$<em>{0.7}$Co$</em>{0.3}$O$_2$</td>
<td>LiNi$<em>{0.7}$Co$</em>{0.3}$O$_2$-LICO</td>
<td>Procured from LICO Corp.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LiFePO$_4$</td>
<td>LFP-NEI</td>
<td>Obtained from NEI Corp.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LiFePO$_4$</td>
<td>LFP-PN</td>
<td>Synthesized at PN LN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LiFePO$_4$</td>
<td>LFP-L</td>
<td>Yamada et al. [8]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LiMn$_2$O$_4$</td>
<td>LMO-L</td>
<td>Lu et al. [7]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Li$<em>{13}$Mn$</em>{124}$O$_4$</td>
<td>Li$<em>{13}$Mn$</em>{124}$O$_4$-L</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anodes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graphite</td>
<td>G-L</td>
<td>Reynier et al. [9]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graphite</td>
<td>G-A</td>
<td>Procured from manufacturer A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anatase TiO$_2$/graphene</td>
<td>Anatase TiO$_2$-PN LN</td>
<td>Synthesized at PN LN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Li$_4$Ti$<em>5$O$</em>{12}$</td>
<td>LTO-L</td>
<td>Lu et al. [7]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Li titanate</td>
<td>LTO-NE</td>
<td>Procured from NEI Corp.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full cell</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LiCoO$_2$-graphite</td>
<td>FC LCO-G-L</td>
<td>Onda et al. [1]. FC: full cell</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LiFePO$_4$-titanate</td>
<td>FC LFP-LTO-NE</td>
<td>Procured from NEI Corp. FC: full cell</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4. Experimental and simulation results

The entropies of the cathodes and anodes were obtained from the literature. Some measurements for LiCoO\(_2\) and modified LiCoO\(_2\), such as Li\(_{1.156}\)Mn\(_{1.844}\)O\(_4\), obtained from LICO Corp., and LiCoO\(_2\) obtained from Manufacturer A were conducted using the ETMS. Commercial LiFePO\(_4\) and lithium titanate (LTO) from NEI Corp. along with LiFePO\(_4\) cathode and anatase TiO\(_2\)–graphene anode synthesized at PNNL were also tested in the ETMS. Fully assembled cells of LiFePO\(_4\) and LTO from NEI Corp. were also tested. A list of electrodes and fully assembled cells referred to in this work are given in Table 1.

Fig. 1 shows the \(\Delta S\) entropy for all cathodes, while Fig. 2 shows \(\Delta S\) for all anodes. The \(\Delta S\) values for LiCoO\(_2\) were significantly higher than other cathodes, while modification with Ni and Mn resulted in much lower \(\Delta S\) for LiNi\(_x\)Co\(_y\)Mn\(_z\)O\(_2\). However, LiCoO\(_2\) modification without Mn presence showed higher \(\Delta S\) values as seen for Li\(_{1.156}\)Mn\(_{1.844}\)O\(_4\) and its modification such as Li\(_{1.156}\)Mn\(_{1.844}\)O\(_4\) have low \(\Delta S\), while LiFePO\(_4\) procured from NEI Corp. and synthesized at PNNL, along with the literature reported value (LFP-L), have extremely low \(\Delta S\) values across 0–95% SOC. Among anodes, graphite has higher \(\Delta S\) values, while the Li\(_{4/3}\)Ti\(_{5/3}\)O\(_4\) lithium titanates (LTOs) have the lowest \(\Delta S\) values, mixing and matching other cathode–anode pairs provided \(\Delta S\) values for full cells, that are competitive with those of LiFePO\(_4\)/LTO full cells. This was due to the complementary effects of the electrodes, such that entropy values for each electrode were approximately equal in magnitude while being opposite in sign to each other at a fixed SOC in the 0–100% SOC range. Fig. 5 shows some promising catho-
ode/anode combinations that have such a complementary effect. Among electrodes that have low $\Delta S$ values, LiFePO$_4$–LTO (Fig. 5a), Li$_{1.156}$Mn$_{1.844}$O$_4$–LTO (Fig. 5b) and LiNi$_x$Co$_{1-x}$Mn$_2$O$_4$–LTO (Fig. 5c) have cathode and anode entropies that are opposite in sign at a fixed SOC across the 0–100% SOC range. For LiCoO$_2$–graphite, where both cathode and anode $\Delta S$ values are high, the opposing signs of cathode and anode $\Delta S$ have a slight beneficial effect (Fig. 5d).

Full cell entropies calculated for various electrode combinations are shown in Fig. 6. As expected, LiCoO$_2$ based cells have a high change in entropy, while full cell $\Delta S$ values were low in magnitude for the following combinations:

- LiFePO$_4$/LTO
- LiFePO$_4$–graphite
- LiNi$_x$Mn$_{1-x}$O$_2$/LTO
- Li$_{1.156}$Mn$_{1.844}$O$_4$/LTO
- LiNi$_x$Mn$_{1-x}$Co$_{1-x}$O$_2$/graphite
- Li$_{1.156}$Mn$_{1.844}$O$_4$/LTO

Fig. 7 shows the average $\Delta S$ values for all electrodes, with $\Delta S$ being the average of absolute $\Delta S$ values across the 0–100% SOC range. This figure provides a snapshot of $\Delta S$ values for all leading cathode–anode combinations, and can serve as a screening tool for various cathode and anode combinations. LiCoO$_2$ based cathodes with both graphite and LTO anodes have high $\Delta S$ values, while values for LiFePO$_4$ cathodes have very low entropy change, especially in combination with LTO anodes. Modification of LiCoO$_2$ with nickel and manganese (LiNi$_x$Mn$_{1-x}$Co$_{1-x}$O$_2$), and non-stoichiometric LiMn$_2$O$_4$ (Li$_{1.156}$Mn$_{1.844}$O$_4$) decreased the $\Delta S$ for the cell, especially in combination with LTO anode. While most of the data in this figure are calculated from individual electrode val-
Fig. 8. Comparison of full cell and computed values of $\Delta S$. (a) LiCoO$_2$/graphite; (b and c) LiFePO$_4$/Li titanate; (b) 38% excess LiFePO$_4$; (c) stoichiometric and (d) 38% excess Li titanate.

ues, the last two samples correspond to full cell values, with FC LFP/LTO-NEI measured at PNNL for the LiFePO$_4$–LTO full cell, while the FC LCO/G-L was reported values for LiCoO$_2$--graphite full cell [1].

While most full cell $\Delta S$ values reported in this work have been calculated from individual electrode values from the literature and/or measured at PNNL, some limited full cell measurements were conducted at PNNL on LiFePO$_4$–titanate cells with stoichiometric electrode composition, 38% LiFePO$_4$ excess and 38% lithium titanate excess. Reported full cell $\Delta S$ values for LiFePO$_4$–graphite were also used to compare results with computed values from individual cell data. The agreement between reported/measured full cell values and computed values was good.

Based on these results, various electrode combinations were selected for calculation of reversible and total heat generation rate during charge and discharge. For this work, it was assumed that irreversible heat was the same for all cell chemistries and SOCs. The internal resistance of various Li-ion cells was obtained from the literature and summarized in Table 2. The internal resistance, as discussed earlier, included ohmic, activation and diffusion polarization resistances. The internal resistance values were multiplied by the capacity of the cell to get capacity normalized resistance values. The capacity normalized values were about the same for the 18,650 and prismatic cells with various cathodes. While most cells had a normalized impedance of 0.16–0.23 Ω·Ah, some high power cells had impedance of 0.04–0.06 Ω·Ah. The cells with high impedance had LiCoO$_2$ based cathodes, while cells with ~0.16–0.19 Ω·Ah correspond to layered cathodes containing various combinations of materials.

### Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IR (ohms)</th>
<th>Capacity (Ah)</th>
<th>Normalized IR (Ω·Ah)</th>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Cathode</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Notes</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>Current interrupt</td>
<td>Doped LiNiO$_2$</td>
<td>[13]</td>
<td>6A pulse discharge (5 s on 25 off) 18,650 cells</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.114</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>Current interrupt</td>
<td>LiCoO$_2$</td>
<td>[10]</td>
<td>18,650 cells provided by Argonne National Laboratory Electrodes from Quallion, cell fabricated at Sandia 18,650 cells</td>
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<tr>
<td>0.182</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.164</td>
<td>a.c. Impedance</td>
<td>LiNi$<em>{0.4}$Co$</em>{0.15}$Al$_{0.05}$O$_2$</td>
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<td>18,650 cells</td>
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<tr>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>Current interrupt</td>
<td>LiCoO$_2$</td>
<td>[3]</td>
<td>18,650 cells measured at 35 °C 18,650 cell-resistance includes PTC</td>
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<tr>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>0.176</td>
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<td>Not provided</td>
<td>[15]</td>
<td>18,650 cells</td>
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<tr>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>a.c. Impedance</td>
<td>Li(Ni$<em>{0.17}$Co$</em>{0.15}$Mn$_{0.15}$)</td>
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<td>High power 18,650 cells</td>
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<td>Not provided</td>
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<td>Not provided</td>
<td>[15]</td>
<td>Valence U1-12XP</td>
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</table>

* Impedance data for individual cells from various manufacturers for conversion of Prius to Prius + PHEV.
Fig. 9. Sum of irreversible and reversible heat generation rates for C rate charge–discharge. (a and b) Li titanate (LTO-NEI) based anodes; (a) discharge; (b) charge; (c and d) graphite (G-L) based anodes; (c) discharge; (d) charge. Irreversible heat, LFP-NEI, LCO-L, LMO-L, +Li1.156Mn1.844O4-L, LiNi0.7Co0.3O2-L, LiNiCoMnO2-LICO, FC (LFP/LTO-NEI for LTO anodes and LCO/G-L for graphite based anodes).

Fig. 10. Sum of irreversible and reversible heat generation rates for C/4 rate charge–discharge. (a and b) Li titanate (LTO-NEI) based anodes; (a) discharge; (b) charge; (c and d) graphite (G-L) based anodes; (c) discharge; (d) charge. Irreversible heat, LFP-NEI, LCO-L, LMO-L, +Li1.156Mn1.844O4-L, LiNi0.7Co0.3O2-L, LiNiCoMnO2-LICO, FC (LFP/LTO-NEI for LTO anodes and LCO/G-L for graphite based anodes).
For charge, the total heat generation rate is obtained by adding the irreversible heat (negative sign) and the reversible heat generation rate. For discharge, the total heat generation rate is calculated from Eq. (5) by adding the irreversible heat to the reversible heat generation rate for charge, which is opposite in sign to that for discharge. In each of these figures, the irreversible heat generation rate has been plotted as a solid line, in order to indicate the range of deviation of total heat generation rate from irreversible heat generation rate across the 0–100% SOC range.

For LiCoO2 based cathodes during charge, there is a cooling effect, with total heat generation rate at C rate as low as −150 W for TiO2 based anodes in the 10–40% SOC range (Fig. 9b), while during discharge, the total heat generation rate is as high as 1500–2200 W in the 5–40% SOC range (Fig. 9a), with the irreversible heat calculated from the literature 0.5 Ah values equal to −890 W. Such a wide variation in total heat generation rate during charge–discharge leads to significant challenges for battery thermal management for multi-cell batteries. On the other hand, for LiFePO4 based cathodes, the variation in total heat generation rate is very small (10–20 W), especially for titanate based anodes in the 5–95% SOC range. At 100% SOC, the total heat generation rate during charge increases to −1400 W for LiFePO4–titanate cells (Fig. 9b). For LiFePO4–graphite cells, the heat generation rate was 1200–1800 W during discharge in the 0–5% SOC range (Fig. 9c), while it was 1200–1300 W in the 95–100% SOC range during charge (Fig. 9d). Hence, cycling in the 5–95% appears to be highly beneficial for good thermal management in LiFePO4 based cells with either titanate or graphite anodes. While best results were obtained for LiFePO4–titanate full cells, low reversible heat generation rate (and hence low total heat generation rate) was also obtained for Ni–Mn modified LiCoO2 electrodes, and modified spinel Li1.35Mn1.84O4 based cathodes at C rate.

Similar results were obtained at C/4 (Fig. 10) and C/8 (Fig. 11) rates, with the reversible heat generation rate being a higher percentage of irreversible heat generation rate as the charge–discharge rate is decreased. The irreversible heat generation rate at C/4 rate was −56 W, while for LiCoO2 cathodes, the total rate of heat genera-

It has been reported that total reversible heat generated from electrodes can be as high as 50% of the irreversible heat [3]. In order to determine the relative effect of reversible heat on thermal management, Figs. 9–11 show the total heat generation rate for full cells with LTO and graphite based anodes during charge and discharge at various rates. Fig. 9 shows results for C rate, while Figs. 10 and 11 show results for C/4 and C/8 rates respectively. The total rate of heat generation during discharge is calculated from Eq. (5) by adding the irreversible heat (negative sign) and the reversible heat generation rates corresponding to ΔS values for the full cell, where Eq. (3) was used to calculate ΔS for the full cell from individual electrode data. For charge, the total heat generation rate is obtained by adding the irreversible heat to the reversible heat generation rate for charge.

For LiNi0.7Co0.3O2–titanate full cells, the normalized impedance which includes resistance for interconnections, was used in this work.
Fig. 12. Contribution of reversible heat generation rate as % of irreversible heat generation rate in the 0–100% SOC range at various rates (a) C, (b) C/4 and (c) C/8.

Fig. 13. Contribution of reversible heat generation rate as % of irreversible heat generation rate at various rates—values at each rate averaged over the 0–100% SOC range.

The contribution was as high as $-300 \text{ W}$ during discharge in the 0–30% SOC range (Fig. 10a and c), with a net cooling effect of 140 W during charge in the same SOC range (Fig. 10b and d). At C/8 rate, the irreversible heating effect was $-14 \text{ W}$, while the total rate of heat generation during discharge for cells with LiCoO$_2$ cathodes was $-100 \text{ W}$ in the 0–40% SOC range (Fig. 11a and c) with a net cooling effect of 80 W during charge (Fig. 11b and d). LiFePO$_4$–titanate full cells, Ni–Mn modified LiCoO$_2$ cathodes have a very low reversible contribution to total heat generation rate at all charge–discharge rates.

For all charge–discharge rates, LiCoO$_2$ based cathodes have a very high reversible contribution to the total heat generation rate. In the 0–40% SOC range, the reversible heat generation rate for LiCoO$_2$ based cathodes was $-100 \text{ W}$ in the 0–40% SOC range, while it was $-0.8x$ of irreversible heat generation rate at C rate.

Fig. 12a–c shows the reversible heat generation rate as a percentage of irreversible heat generation rate at C, C/4 and C/8 rates respectively. At 1C rate, the reversible heat generation rate is about 5% for LFP–TiO$_2$ cells, and around 5–20% for nickel and manganese LiCoO$_2$ and spinel LiMn$_2$O$_4$ along with its modified form in the 5–95% SOC range (Fig. 12a). However, for LiCoO$_2$ based cathodes, in the 5–40% SOC range, the reversible heat is as high as 80% of irreversible heat, or $-700 \text{ W}$. For the same SOC range, at C/4 rate, LiCoO$_2$ based cathodes have a reversible heat generation rate equal to 350% of the irreversible heat, or $-250 \text{ W}$, while the LiFePO$_4$ based and Ni–Mn modified LiCoO$_2$ cathodes have a net contribution of 10–40% for reversible heat in the 5–95% SOC range, with LiFePO$_4$ based cathodes and TiO$_2$ based anodes having lower heat generation rates (Fig. 12b). At C/8 rate, the heat generation rate for LiCoO$_2$ based cathodes is 70% of the irreversible heat generation rate, or $112 \text{ W}$ in the 5–40% SOC (Fig. 12c). Again, the LiFePO$_4$ based and Ni–Mn modified LiCoO$_2$ based cells have a much lower reversible heat generation rate contribution of $15–60\%$, with LiFePO$_4$–LTO based cells at the lower end of this range.

Fig. 13 shows the average across all SOC of rate of reversible heat generation as a percent of irreversible heat. Sample labels starting with FC (full cell) correspond to full cell values (measured for LFP/LTO and obtained from the literature for LCO/G as seen in Table 1). The rest of the values are computed from individual electrode values as indicated in Table 1. While the LiFePO$_4$–LTO combination corresponds to lowest reversible heat generation rate contribution, LTO based cells correspond to lower reversible heat generation rates compared to graphite based cells. The importance of cathode and anode selection is clearly evident from this figure.

For utility based applications, the storage requirements are 3–4 h [16]. This is expected to rise to as high as 8 h storage as renewables market penetration increases. Hence the contribution of reversible heat generation is considered to be a key design parameter across the C/8–C rate of charge–discharge. This is especially true for distributed energy storage, where active cooling using fans is not an option. The batteries will be designed to fit in a box which may not be extremely conducive to thermal management. For PHEV, the charge–discharge rate is expected to be in the C/4–C rate. While thermal management options such as active cooling is expected to be available, the significant differences in reversible heat generation rates among various cathode–anode combinations (as high as 1.5 kW) at C rate and 0.7 kW at C/4 rate indicate that cathode and anode selection to minimize reversible heat generation rate is crucial for thermal management, affecting safety, performance and battery life. The results of this work can be implemented as a tool in battery management systems (BMS).
with the BMS able to estimate total heat generation rate in the battery at a fixed SOC based on the direction of current flow. The BMS can then pro-actively limit charge–discharge currents to prevent a temperature excursion beyond a preset value, rather than react to the temperature rise after the event.

5. Conclusions

A comprehensive database of entropy for various cathodes and anodes was generated. The entropies changes for various cathode and anode materials, as well as complete Li-ion cells, were investigated using the ETMS. LiCoO$_2$ has a much larger entropy change compared to other cathodes investigated. Graphite has higher entropy change compared to lithium titanate anodes. Some electrode combinations have good synergy, with the entropy of the cathode and anode being mirror images of each other, thus canceling each other out. The reversible heat generation rate comprises ~70% of irreversible heat for LiCoO$_2$ based cells at C/8 rate in the 5–40% SOC range, while the contribution from LiFePO$_4$–LTO cells is ~30% of irreversible heat. At C rates, the high reversible heat contribution from LiCoO$_2$ based cathodes leads to a wide swing in heat generation rate of 1.4 kW between discharge and charge at a fixed SOC in the 5–40% SOC range, compared to a swing of ~50 W for in the 5–95% SOC range for LiFePO$_4$–LTO cells. Hence, a suitable choice of cathode and anode is expected to mitigate thermal management issues for HEV/PH EV/EV and utility based applications. The results of this analysis will enable prediction of battery temperature excursions during charge/discharge, thus providing a pro-active battery management tool.

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