Info Sheet

Understanding Basics of Electric Vehicle Batteries

What are electric vehicle batteries?

The electric vehicle (EV) battery, also called a “traction battery”, is a rechargeable energy storage device that supplies power for electric mobility, from passenger vehicles to buses, two-wheelers, and even small-utility vehicles. Most EVs today rely on lithium-ion batteries (LIBs), preferred for their high power-to-weight ratio, impressive energy efficiency, and minimal self-discharge.¹

What are EV batteries made of?

While EV battery systems vary in weight and dimensions, a typical passenger EV battery weighs around 1,000lbs (~450kg) and is positioned under the vehicle's chassis for stability and optimal space utilization. An EV battery is made of thousands of lithium-ion cells. The lithium-ion cells are the most fundamental element of the battery, responsible for producing the electric current needed to power the vehicle.

The most commonly used cells are a cylindrical shape resembling AA batteries used in consumer electronic devices, although very different in composition. Approximately 12 or more cells are grouped together, covered with polyethylene foam and enclosed in an aluminum-alloy or steel casing to form a module. Dozens of modules are encased plastic or metal to form a battery pack. The battery packs are then configured with a Battery Management System (BMS) and a temperature control device to complete the EV battery.

By weight, the majority of a medium-sized EV battery pack is the battery pack and module casing, electrolyte, binder and separator; these components are made of copper, aluminum, steel, and polymers. Aluminum for the casing makes up about 20 to 30% of the total battery cell mass. The remaining weight, about 185 kg, is the cathode active materials and the anode, made up of metals and minerals including graphite (115 lbs or 52kg), aluminum (77 lbs or 35 kg), nickel (64 lbs or 29 kg), copper (44 lbs or 20 kg), steel (44 lbs or 20 kg), manganese (22 lbs or 10 kg), cobalt (18 lbs or 8 kg), lithium (13 lbs or 6 kg), iron (11 lbs or 5 kg).

FIGURE 1: EV battery cell, module, pack

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The components of a lithium-ion battery cell

Each lithium-ion cell is made up of four major components: cathode (positive electrode with high-value minerals), electrolyte (made of lithium salt), separator (a polymer-based membrane), and anode (negative electrode, usually mostly graphite). An LIB generates electricity through chemical reactions of lithium, which is inserted into the cathode.

In addition, each electrode has an integral polymeric glue (1-8%) – known as a ‘binder’, and this is typically used to coat the electrodes (cathode, anode) and the separator. This glue is a fluorinated polymer such as polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) or polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE), which are manufactured with Per- and Polyfluorinated Substances (PFAS), commonly referred to as “forever chemicals”.

The separator is a thin sheet of material that is often composed of a single- or multilayer plastic (polypropylene) or ceramic based material. It functions as a physical barrier keeping the cathode and anode apart to prevent a short circuit.

Electrolyte is a mixture of chemicals in a solvent, which serves as the medium that enables the movement of lithium ions between the cathode and anode. It commonly includes lithium hexafluorophosphate (LiPF6) and other additives required to improve SEI formation, give flame retardance, improve conductivity, and reduce gas build-up.

![Figure 2: Main components of a lithium-ion cell](image-url)
EV battery construction: cells, modules, and packs

Battery components are folded or wrapped around multiple times into different types of battery cells (see Figure 3), known colloquially as ‘pouch’ (soft encasement), ‘cylinder’ (aka. ‘jelly roll’ or ‘Swiss roll’) and ‘prismatic’ (rectangular folds). 

While cell-module-pack construction seems most prevalent, innovation continues. Vehicle manufacturers often use fewer modules to make the battery lighter and place the cells directly into packs (cell-to-pack) to avoid additional material use. Some manufacturers have taken this approach further to put cells directly into the vehicle body (cell-to-chassis) with an aim to increase integration and reduce overall weight. However, such cell-to-pack or cell-to-chassis design makes it harder to dismantle and take apart the battery from the vehicle, which might not be suitable for future regulations and targets for recovery of critical materials.

The scale and configuration of these cells in battery packs vary according to different vehicles’ unique requirements and capacities. The configuration in buses and two-wheelers will differ. As for the number of battery cells used in a vehicle, Tesla Model S and X use battery packs that contain about 7,104 battery cells, and Rivian’s RT1 contains 7,777 cells.

FIGURE 3: Types of EV battery cells

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Understanding battery chemistries

There are many types of LIB chemistries, which are generally classified by the active materials used in the cathode. While the anode is commonly composed of graphite, the cathode contains some combination of minerals including lithium. LiBs require the critical minerals lithium, cobalt and nickel. Battery chemistries requiring lithium, nickel and cobalt include Nickel-Manganese-Cobalt (NMC) batteries and Nickel-Cobalt-Aluminium Oxide (NCA) batteries.

An alternative battery chemistry that in 2022 reached 30 percent of EV battery market share is Lithium-Iron-Phosphate (LFP) batteries. These still require the critical mineral lithium, but no cobalt or nickel, reducing their reliance on critical minerals. While LFP batteries have a shorter range than LiBs, they do not degrade as fast in the long-term. Another emerging viable alternative battery chemistry is Sodium-Ion (Na-ion) batteries, which require no critical minerals: no lithium, cobalt or nickel. This battery chemistry is estimated to cost less to produce, but also comes with lower energy density than even the least energy-dense LiBs.

Solid-state batteries (SSBs) have also been emerging with much hype as they have a higher capacity and energy density and are quick-charging. However, they require 35 percent more lithium compared to lithium-ion chemistries. Moreover, while SSBs perform better than LiBs, they have a fault whereby they branch out (known as dendritic structures) into the liquid electrolyte during charging which makes the battery unsafe.

12 The capture of metals from what is termed the ‘cathode active material’ (CAM) provides the economic incentive for LIB recycling.


Fire risks of lithium-ion batteries

Lithium-ion cells carry a very high risk of fire due to thermal runaway. This occurs when heat builds up in the battery faster than it can be dissipated, causing the battery to off-gas or even explode. Worse still, a lithium-ion battery stored near or next to another battery or batteries can set off a chain reaction, making an already tough fire to fight even worse. When they reach thermal runaway, lithium-ion battery fires can burn for hours or even days, and it may take up to 40,000 gallons (152 metric tons) of water to extinguish. Lithium-ion batteries cause dozens of fires in recycling centers every year.

What happens when an EV battery has reached its end-of-life in a vehicle?

EV batteries are typically retired when their capacity drops to 70 to 80 percent of their original state or experience hardware failure, after operating in a vehicle for approximately 10 to 20 years. While automakers consider battery health under 70 percent capacity not up to standards for powering a vehicle (and eligible for return under warranty), the remaining capacity can be repurposed and used for an additional 5 to 13 years in second-life applications such as microgrids, grid storage-backup, and car charging, portable power generators, e-bikes, etc. These applications require relatively simple operating conditions and low battery performance requirements. Such battery repurposing practices provide great environmental advantages superior to recycling, as current LIB recycling technologies have yet to be proven technically or economically viable at scale, largely due to the lack of considerations for end-of-life disassembly and material recovery in battery design.

Once the vehicle fails or is deemed no longer serviceable, it should be determined – in line with a zero waste management hierarchy – whether a battery life can be extended through repair and continued to be used in a vehicle before it is removed for a second life application or discarded and recycled. Recognizing this, the manufacturers’ emphasis must shift towards designing for a zero waste management system, alongside other design decisions such as cost, functionality, production, aesthetics, and liability.

Acknowledgements

- Author(s): Erica Jung and Lien De Brouckere
- Editor(s): Lien De Brouckere, Erica Jung, and Doun Moon
- Design: Doun Moon
- Reviewer(s): Claire Arkin and Sheila Davis

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21 (U.S. Department of Energy).