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Comprehensive Review On Performance Of Lithium-Ion Batteries Under High-Altitude, Sub-Zero Environmental Conditions

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1. Abstract

This paper presents an in-depth and holistic examination of lithium-ion battery performance, ageing characteristics, thermal response, and safety when operated in high-altitude environments of approximately 14,000 ft (≈4,267 m) under severe sub-zero ambient temperatures reaching −30 °C. The study brings together the interrelated effects of electrochemical reactions, heat generation and dissipation, and reduced atmospheric pressure to understand how these coupled factors influence battery behaviour. At such elevations and low temperatures (−20 °C to −40 °C), battery performance degrades markedly due to sluggish electrochemical kinetics, a sharp rise in internal resistance, limited ion mobility, and growing thermal instability within the cell. Lithium-ion batteries (LIBs) have emerged as a foundational technology in the global transition toward sustainable energy systems. Their importance spans defence and aerospace missions, remote sensing and monitoring platforms, uninterrupted operation of communication and navigation equipment, renewable energy storage, and grid-level applications. This review offers a broad and integrated overview of the present state of LIB technology, highlighting recent progress in electrode materials, advanced electrolytes—including solid-state formulations—and innovations in separator architecture. Alongside these material advances, the paper discusses the fundamental electrochemical principles that govern LIB operation and the engineering strategies developed to improve performance, reliability, and safety. Despite their widespread deployment, LIBs encounter significant challenges when exposed to sub-zero environmental conditions. These include reduced charge acceptance, diminished energy efficiency, lithium plating on electrodes, accelerated ageing, and shortened service life. Rather than viewing these issues solely as limitations, this review interprets them as opportunities for innovation in materials science, system design, and industrial practice.

2. List of abbreviations

LIB : Lithium Ion Battery
LiFePO4/LFP: Lithium Iron Phosphate
Mohms/ mΩ : Mili ohms
BMS : Battery Management system
PCM : Phase change material

3. Introduction

The application batteries at sub-zero environment areas, aerospace, and remote monitoring applications, telecom & remote towers, surveillance, and radar posts, research stations & weather observatories, drones, and high-altitude robotics, emergency medical and rescue equipment, Off-grid solar homes, lodges, and border posts etc,. reliable energy storage is critical to ensure continuous operation of the equipment. However, traditional lithium-ion batteries suffer from reduced capacity, voltage instability, and even failure in extreme cold conditions. This is necessary to maintain battery safety, longevity, and performance to use the batteries at their optimum efficiency.

The extreme low temperatures areas, sometimes dipping below -30°C in winter, temperature, While the power supply traditionally relied on diesel generator sets, therefore there is a requirement of energy storage system. In the present study lithium-ion battery is explored. However the lithium-ion battery has some disadvantages like the polarization becomes larger, and the discharge voltage decreases accordingly, resulting in severe energy loss which cannot meet the requirement in application. Simultaneously, the Li+ (de)intercalation process is restricted in cold conditions, leading to lower coulombic efficiency and the difficulty in charging and discharging, further deteriorating the life span of LIBs. Moreover, the serious Li dendrites that grow on the surface of the anode during low-temperature charging can even cause safety issues such as thermal runaway. These dilemmas severely limit the practicality of LIBs in low temperatures [8,12–19]. Fortunately, external secondary heating strategies and thermal management can effectively raise the local temperature to keep the LIBs operating, and such methods have been employed in many LIB devices, especially large-scale energy storge systems. Nevertheless, approaches relying on external devices inevitably result in additional energy consumption and higher cost [12,20–25]. Therefore, searching for satisfactory LIBs in terms of battery chemistry, particularly those with high energy density and fast charging capability, is urgent. It is also of great significance for the widespread application of LIBs and the field of electrochemical energy storage and conversion. Recently, low-temperature LIBs are of intense interest and have attracted abounding research; various modification methods for electrode, new anode materials, and novel design ideas of electrolytes make it possible solve the problems under low temperature. In light of such advances, it is necessary to perform a critical review for this promising field.

4. Literature reviews

4.1 Lithium-Ion Battery

Li-ion batteries are a vital component in pushing toward a more sustainable future. Li-ion batteries are also used to power industrial sensor modules and robots to advance innovative manufacturing as part of the Industry 4.0 implementation across numerous nations worldwide. Li-ion battery packs have been widely used for various applications, including portable electronics like cell phones, iPads, laptops, and television sets. They are essential for storing energy generated from multiple sources, integrating renewable energy from wind, solar, and others to ensure a steady electricity supply to homes, critical facilities like hospitals, and municipal power grid. Lithium-ion batteries have emerged as an appealing option for stationary electrochemical energy storage systems, as well as environmentally friendly automobile power[32]

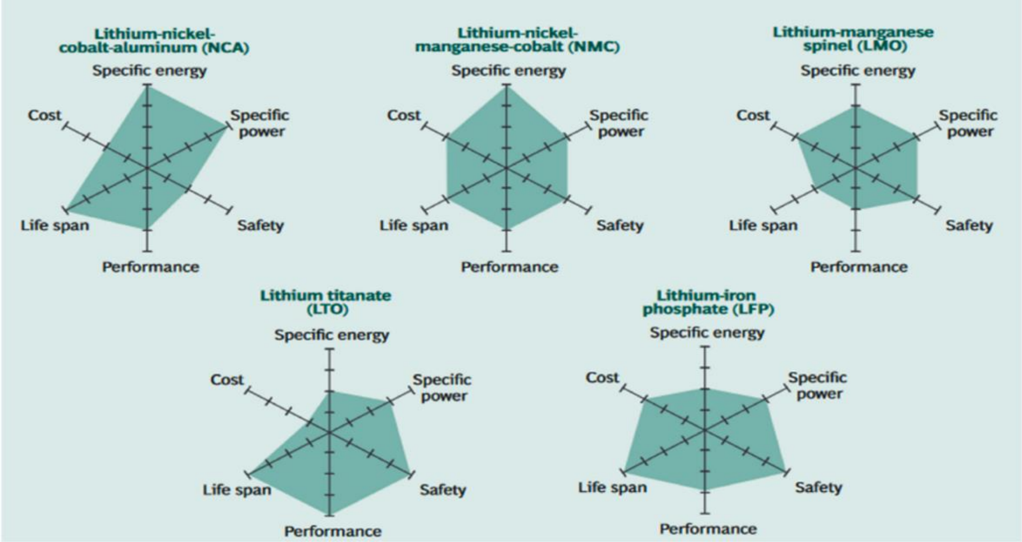

Fig. 1. The five principal Li-ion battery technologies and their trade-offs [32].

4.2 Anode

The anode is the negative electrode of a lithium-ion battery and is typically made of graphite or other carbon-based materials [2]. The anode's ability to efficiently store and release lithium ions directly impacts the battery's capacity, cycling performance, and stability [3]. Over the years, researchers have explored various materials to find the optimal anode for pushing the boundaries of lithium-ion battery technology.

Table 1: Merits and demerits of different anode materials, Highlighting their performance metrics, Practical challenges and suitability for enhancing battery technology [4,5,7-13]

Anode materials	**Theoretical specific capacity (mAh/g)**	**Pros**	**Cons**
Graphite	~372	- Stable cycling performance - Mature and well established technology - Abundant and cost effective	- Relatively low specific capacity - Limited energy density compared to newer materials - Susceptible to lithium plating and dendrite formation
Silicon	~4200	- High theoretical capacity - Potential for significantly higher energy density - Abundance of silicon resources	- Pronounced volume changes - Suspectable to pulverization, leading to capacity fade - Expensive manufacturing processes to mitigate expansion issues.
Tin	~994	- High specific capacity - Low working voltage - Suitable for alloying with other material	- Volume change and capacity fade - Challenges in maintaining structural integrity
Carbonaceous	~744	- Good electrical conductivity	- Limited specific capacity

		- Diverse range of materials and structures - Cost effective and scalable	- Vulnerable to electrode degradation and irreversible capacity loss - - prone to gas evolution during cycling

4.3 Cathode

The cathode serves as the positive electrode of a lithium-ion battery, typically composed of transition metal oxides, including lithium cobalt oxide (LiCoO2), lithium manganese oxide (LiMn2O4), or lithium iron phosphate (LiFePO4) [14]. These cathode materials facilitate the intercalation and deintercalation of lithium ions during the charging and discharging processes [15]. The selection of the cathode material significantly impacts the battery's specific energy, power density, and voltage characteristics. The diverse advantages and drawbacks associated with various cathode materials employed in lithium-ion batteries are presented in Table 2 [25]

Table 2: The merits and demerits of different cathode materials, Highlighting their performance metrics, Practical challenges and suitability for enhancing battery technology [4,5,7-13]

Cathode materials	**Theoretical specific capacity (mAh/g)**	**Pros**	**Cons**
Lithium cobalt oxide (LiCoO2)	~140-220	- High energy density - Good cycling srtability - proven track record in commercial application	- limited thermal stability, safety concerns and high cost. - Dependence on cobalt, which raises sustainability issues
Lithium Maganese Oxide(LiMn2O4)	~148	- Lower cost compared to LiCoO2 - Excellent thermal stability - Suitable for high power application	- Slightly lower energy density - May exhibit lower energy density and reduced capacity retention
Lithium Nickel Manganese Cobalt oxide (NMC)	~150-200	- Balanced performance characteristics - Customizable ratios of nickle, manganese and cobalt - Versatile applications in electronics and vehicles	- Cost may be relatively higher than LiMn2O4 - Limited by the availability of raw materilas
Lithium Iron Phosphate (LiFePO4)	~147	- Excellent thermal stability and safety - Long cycle life - Low cost and environmental friendliness	- Lower energy density compared to other cathode materilas - Limited power density, not ideal for high-power applications.

4.4 Electrolyte:

The electrolyte in a lithium-ion battery serves as a conductive medium for lithium ions to migrate between the anode and cathode. It is crucial for maintaining ionic conductivity, ensuring the efficient transport of lithium ions, and enabling the electrochemical reactions that occur at the electrode-electrolyte interfaces. Traditionally, lithium ion battery electrolytes have been liquid, consisting of lithium salts, such as lithium hexafluorophosphate (LiPF6), dissolved in organic solvents like ethylene carbonate (EC) and dimethyl carbonate (DMC) [32]. Liquid electrolytes offer good ionic conductivity, enabling efficient lithium-ion transport between the cathode and anode. However, they can be flammable and pose safety risks under certain conditions [16,17]. Liquid electrolytes are widely used in commercial lithium-ion batteries due to their proven performance and compatibility with existing manufacturing processes. Lithium-ion batteries also employ polymer based electrolytes, which consist of a polymer matrix that immobilizes a liquid electrolyte. Polymer-based electrolytes offer improved safety and flexibility, as they are less prone to leakage and can accommodate various battery form factors. However, achieving high ionic conductivity in polymer-based electrolytes while maintaining mechanical integrity is a key challenge [18,19].

4.5 Separator

The separator is a pivotal element within lithium-ion batteries, physically segregating the anode and cathode [20]. This critical component acts as a protective barrier, preventing direct contact between the electrodes, a scenario that could otherwise result in short circuits and thermal runaway. Typically composed of thin, porous membranes, often fashioned from materials such as polyethylene or polypropylene, the separator facilitates the passage of lithium ions while effectively impeding the movement of electrons. This dual functionality ensures the prevention of internal short circuits, safeguarding the overall integrity of the battery [21]. Beyond its role in electrical insulation, the separator plays a vital part in facilitating the efficient diffusion of lithium ions across its surface [22]. Modern advancements have led to the utilization of microporous polymeric films and nonwoven fabrics in separator construction for lithium-ion batteries. Notably, batteries employing polymer-based electrolytes may not necessitate a separator. In cases where liquid electrolytes are employed, micro-porous separators, often composed of materials like polyolefin, come into play, offering a well-balanced combination of electrical insulation and efficient ion diffusion [58]. The choice of separator material and design is crucial in ensuring lithium-ion battery systems' optimal performance and safety.

4.6 Low temperature effect on lithium-ion battery

Amid many types of batteries, lithium batteries have attracted great attention owing to their advantages of high energy density, long cycle life, low self-discharge rate and high specific power. They have been widely used in storage energies [7]. However, the performance degradation of battery packs in low temperature environments as well as the imbalance among batteries in a pack restrict the further application of lithium-ion batteries.

Lithium-ion power batteries have poor performance in cold climate conditions, with serious degradation of their energy and power characteristics. At −10 °C, there is a significant reduction in the capacity and operating voltage, and the performance will be worse at −20 °C, resulting in a sharp drop in its available discharge capacity, which can only maintain about 30 % of the specific capacity at room temperature [26,27]. In terms of low temperature charging characteristics of power batteries, with the decrease of temperature, power batteries' constant current charging power is reduced, mainly relying on constant voltage charging. Long-term constant voltage charging will lead to the extension of power batteries' overall charging time, which will reduce the charging efficiency. Long-term low temperature constant voltage charging is also a cause of power batteries' side reaction performance degradation. In addition, when charging at low temperature, negative electrode surface is prone to lithium metal accumulation. Lithium dendrite growth will pierce the battery separator and cause internal short circuit of the battery, which not only causes permanent damage to the battery, but also induces thermal runaway of the battery, resulting in greatly reduced safety

[28]. Regarding the low-temperature discharge characteristics of power batteries, as the ambient temperature decreases, power battery impedance increases, discharge voltage platform decreases, and battery terminal voltage drops rapidly, resulting in a significant attenuation of the available capacity and power of the battery [29,31]. To solve battery packs' performance degradation problem in low temperature environments, many researchers have studied battery packs' low temperature preheating technology. At present, batteries' low temperature preheating technology can be classified into two categories: internal heating technology and external heating technology [32].

4.7 Effect of low temperature and high altitude at 14000 ft

The batteries at high altitude of about 14,000 ft combined with an ambient temperature near −30 °C, a lithium-ion battery operates in one of the harshest environments it can face because both the electrochemical and thermal assumptions built into normal battery design are disturbed at the same time. High altitude means significantly reduced air pressure and density—roughly 60% of sea-level conditions—which weakens natural convective heat transfer. In simple terms, the surrounding air can neither remove heat efficiently when the battery warms up nor help the battery gain heat when it is extremely cold. The battery pack becomes thermally sluggish: it stays cold for a long time after startup, and any internally generated heat tends to remain trapped and unevenly distributed.

Simultaneously, the very low temperature drastically slows down the internal electrochemical processes that allow the battery to function. The electrolyte becomes more viscous, reducing lithium-ion mobility; the charge-transfer reactions at the electrode–electrolyte interface becomes sluggish; and the diffusion of lithium ions into the porous structure of the electrodes is severely hindered. These effects collectively cause a sharp increase in internal resistance. As resistance rises, any current drawn from the battery produces a large voltage drop and significant internal heat generation according to Joule’s law. Externally, this appears as reduced usable capacity, early voltage cutoff during discharge, and poor power delivery. Although the internally generated heat may slightly warm parts of the cell, the thin air at high altitude cannot distribute this heat evenly, leading to temperature gradients and localized stress inside the battery.

Charging under these conditions is even more critical than discharging. At −30 °C, the graphite anode cannot accept lithium ions at a normal rate. Instead of intercalating into the graphite layers, lithium begins to deposit as metallic lithium on the anode surface—a phenomenon known as lithium plating. This process is irreversible, reduces battery life, and can create dendritic structures that compromise safety. Because the surrounding air at high altitude removes heat poorly, any localized heating associated with plating persists longer, accelerating degradation. For this reason, preheating the battery before charging is essential in such environments.

In addition to electrochemical effects, mechanical and material stresses also increase. Low temperatures cause contraction of electrode materials and separators, making polymer components more brittle and creating stress at current collector joints and welds. Repeated exposure to such thermal extremes can produce micro-cracks in electrode coatings and accelerate long-term aging, even if the battery is not heavily cycled.

The combined effect of low temperature and high altitude therefore creates a feedback loop: the battery starts cold, develops high internal resistance, generates uneven internal heat during operation, and cannot rely on the surrounding air to stabilize its temperature. Performance drops to nearly half of the nominal capacity, charge acceptance becomes poor and risky, and aging accelerates. In practical high-altitude applications such as telecom stations, defence equipment, and solar installations, lithium-ion batteries can function reliably only when supported by strong thermal management measures, including insulated enclosures, active pre-heating before charging, temperature-aware battery management systems, and minimization of air gaps within the pack. Without these provisions, the battery’s performance, safety margin, and service life are significantly compromised in this extreme environment.

5. Methodology

The lithium-ion batteries play a very important role in the energy storage for a wide range of applications. But these batteries show adverse effect at subzero temperature and higher altitude areas. Numerous research are being carried out to heat the Lithium-ion batteries. In this study we are analysing the lithium-ion batteries, heat generation, internal resistance and temperature of the battery. The heat generated in the batteries can be evaluate by the following equation.

The Bernardi heat generation equation (1985) is a standard thermodynamic model used to calculate the rate of heat generation (Q) in electrochemical cells, such as lithium-ion batteries, by considering both irreversible (Joule heating) and reversible (entropic) heat sources.

Total heat generated inside a lithium-ion cell during charge/discharge is:

$$Q_{gen} = (I\,(V-E_{ocv})) - (IT\,(dE_{ocv}/dT))$$

This is the Bernardi heat generation equation

Table 3: Description of terms in Bernardi heat generation equation

Term	Meaning	Heat Type
$(I\,(V-E_{ocv}))$	Over potential x current	Irreversible Heat
$-(IT\,(dE_{ocv}/dT))$	Entropic Heat	Reversible (can heat or cool)

I: is the current.
E_{oc}: is the open-circuit voltage (OCV).
V: is the operating voltage.
$I\,(E_{oc}-V)$: represents the irreversible heat (polarization/Joule heating)
$-IT(d\,E_{oc}/dT)$: represents the reversible heat (entropic heating)
T: is the temperature

During Discharge – entropic term often heats
During charge – entropic term often cools
At -30ºC, internal resistance is high - irreversible heat domains
Considering the battery capacity
The equation divides total heat into two primary physical mechanisms:

5.1 Irreversible Heat (Joule Heating & Overpotentials): Represented by the term $I(Eoc-E)$. This heat is generated due to internal resistance and the sudden drop in voltage when a load is applied. It is always positive (exothermic) during both charging and discharging.

5.2 Reversible Entropic Heat: Represented by the term $-I(TdEocdT)$. This heat is caused by entropy changes during electrochemical reactions. Depending on the state of charge (SoC) and the sign of the entropic coefficient, this term can be either exothermic (releasing heat) or endothermic (absorbing heat).

The following data area assumed:

Battery capacity: 200 AH, 24 Volt

Calls are in series: 6 cells

Assume chemistry: LFP batteries

Ambient temperature: -30 degrees = 243 K

Assume Ic current for clear understanding

I=200A

Typical per cell data at -30ºC

Internal resistance per cell $R_{int} = 2.5$ mohms

For cells in series

$R_{peak} = 6*2.5 = 15$ mohms

- Entropic coefficient (typical)

$\frac{dE}{dT} = 0.0004 V/K$ per cell

for 6 Cells : $\frac{dE}{dT_{peak}} = 0.0024$ mohms

- IRREVERSIBLE HEAT (Dominant at -30oC

$Q_{irr} = I^2R$

$Q_{irr} = 200^2 \times 0.015$

$Q_{irr} = 40000 \times 0.015 = 600$ w

This heating is due to high resistance at low temperature

- REVERSIBLE (ENTROPIC):

$Q_{rev} = - IT (dE/dT)$

$Q_{rev} = - 200 x243x0.0024$

$Q_{rev} = -116.6$ w

Negative sign shows cooling during charging and heating during discharging

- Total heat during discharge

$Q_{gen} = Q_{irr} + Q_{rev}$

$= 600+116.6$ w $= 716.6$ w

Battery self heats by 717 watt at 1oC discharge at -30° degree
This is why discharging helps warms the battery

- Total Heat during charging

$Q_{gen} = Q_{irr} - Q_{rev}$

$= 600 - 116.6$ w $= 483.4$ w

Still heating, but less than discharge.

5.3 Self heating of 200 AH lithium ion battery at -30 degree celcius for different c-rates.

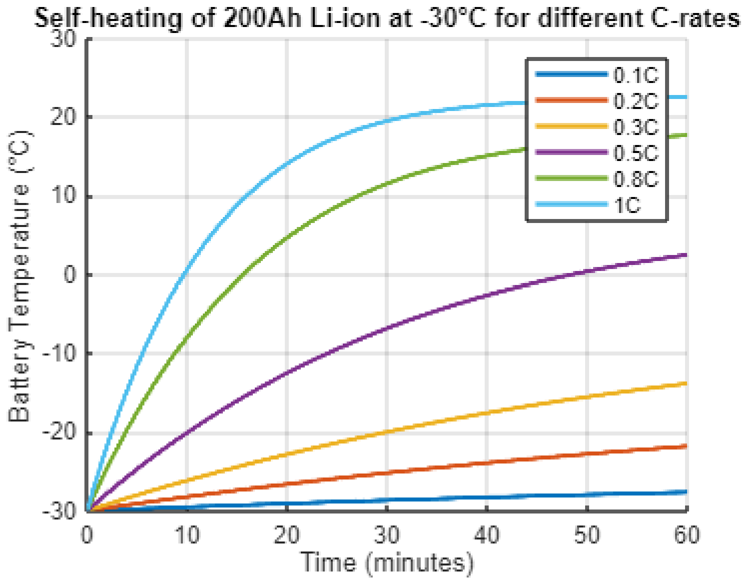

Figure 2: Self-heating of 200 Ah Li-ion at -30° C for different C rates

This figure illustrates the self-heating behaviour of a 200 Ah lithium-ion (LFP-type) battery starting at −30 °C when it is discharged at different C-rates. Current level directly controls how fast and how far the battery can warm itself, because internal heat generation scales.

At 0.1C, the discharge current is very small, so Joule heating inside the cell is minimal. Even though the internal resistance at −30 °C is very high, the product remains small. As a result, the battery temperature rises only slightly over one hour, remaining close to −30 °C. Practically, the cell stays "cold-soaked," reaction kinetics remain sluggish, and usable power is very limited.

At 0.2C, the current doubles, and heat generation increases by roughly four times. A slow but noticeable temperature rise occurs, yet the cell still remains well below 0 °C after 60minutes. The battery is still dominated by cold-temperature limitations, and self-heating alone is insufficient to bring it into an efficient operating range.

At 0.3C, self-heating becomes more meaningful. The internal temperature climbs steadily from −30 °C toward approximately −15 °C over an hour. As the temperature increases, internal resistance begins to drop (Arrhenius behaviour), which slightly improves reaction kinetics. However, the battery is still operating in a sub-optimal regime, and performance remains constrained.

At 0.5C, the battery enters a critical transition regime. Heat generation is now strong enough to overcome thermal losses, and the temperature rises from −30 °C to around 0°C within the one-hour window. This demonstrates a positive feedback effect: higher current generates more heat, rising temperature reduces internal resistance, and reduced resistance further increases effective heating. In this region, the battery becomes practically usable without external heating.

At 0.8C, self-heating is rapid and pronounced. The battery temperature increases quickly, crossing 0 °C within a short time and reaching roughly 15 °C by the end of the hour. Internal resistance drops sharply as temperature increases, and the cell transitions into an efficient operating zone. However, such high discharge rates at very low initial temperatures can impose significant mechanical and electrochemical stress.

At 1C, self-heating is extremely aggressive. The battery warms from −30 °C to above 20 °Cin less than an hour. Initially, very high internal resistance causes intense Joule heating, but as the temperature rises, resistance decreases and the temperature curve gradually saturates. While this approach rapidly brings the battery into an optimal temperature range, it is also the most stressful condition for the cell and can accelerate aging if used repeatedly.

The figure clearly shows that self-heating at low temperature is not linear with current. Low C-rates are ineffective for warming the battery, medium C-rates (around 0.5C) provide controlled and useful self-heating, and high C-rates (0.8C–1C) produce rapid warm-up but at the cost of higher stress and potential degradation. For cold, high-altitude operation, this explains why a combination of moderate self-heating and external pre-heating is often the safest and most reliable strategy.

5.4 Internal resistance vs temperature

Arrhenius law: Lithium-ion internal resistance rises at low temperature because ionic diffusion and charge-transfer reactions slow down. This follows an Arrhenius law:

$$R(T) = R_{ref} \exp\left[\frac{E_a}{R_g}\left(\frac{1}{T} - \frac{1}{T_{ref}}\right)\right]$$

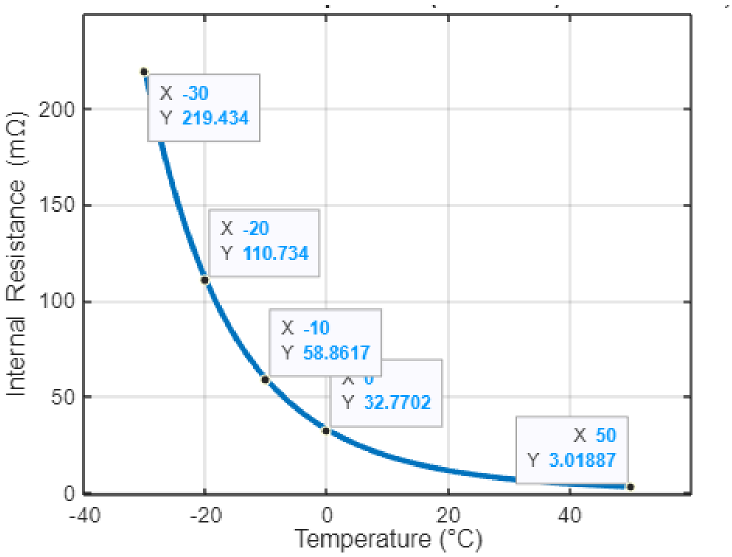

Figure 3: Internal Resistance Vs Temperature (Arrhenius) – 200 AH LFP

In Figure 3 The graph shows how the internal resistance of a 200 Ah, 6-cell $LiFePO_4$ battery varies strongly with temperature, following an Arrhenius-type exponential relationship. At very low temperatures, the resistance rises sharply: around 219.43 mΩ at −30 °C, dropping to ~110.73 mΩ at −20 °C and ~58.86 mΩ at −10 °C. Even at 0 °C, the resistance is still relatively high at ~32.77 mΩ. As temperature increases further, the resistance falls rapidly, reaching only ~3 mΩ at 50 °C. The steep, curved nature of the plot confirms that this is not a linear change but an exponential reduction governed by temperature-dependent electrochemical kinetics.

This behaviour originates from the fundamental processes occurring inside the cell. At low temperatures, the ionic conductivity of the electrolyte decreases because the electrolyte becomes more viscous and lithium-ion mobility is reduced. Simultaneously, the charge transfer reaction at the electrode–electrolyte interface slows down due to reduced reaction rate constants. Lithium-ion diffusion into the porous graphite anode and LFP cathode also becomes sluggish. These three phenomena—poor ionic conduction, slow interfacial kinetics, and limited solid-state diffusion—combine to increase the overall internal impedance of the battery. In simple terms, the battery struggles to move lithium ions and electrons efficiently when it is cold, which shows as high resistance.

The graph's trend follows the Arrhenius equation, which describes how reaction rates depend on temperature: where E_a is activation energy, R is the universal gas constant, and T is absolute temperature. As temperature decreases, the exponential term grows rapidly, causing resistance to rise dramatically. This is why the resistance at −30 °C is nearly 70 times higher than at 50 °C.

Practically, this sharp rise in resistance at sub-zero temperatures has serious implications. High internal resistance causes a larger voltage drop during charging and discharging (V=IRV = IRV=IR), which reduces the effective terminal voltage available to the load. It also results in significant internal heat generation according to Joule's law:

$$Q = I^2R$$

Thus, at −30 °C, even moderate current flow can produce considerable heat inside the cell. While this heat can slightly warm the battery, it also leads to energy loss, reduced efficiency, and stress on cell components. Moreover, high resistance limits the allowable charge/discharge current, reduces usable capacity, and can lead to lithium plating during charging.

As the temperature increases toward room temperature and above, ion mobility improves, the electrolyte becomes less viscous, reaction kinetics accelerate, and diffusion becomes easier. Consequently, the internal pathways for current flow become highly conductive, and resistance falls to only a few milliohms. This is why LFP batteries perform optimally around 25–40 °C, where both efficiency and capacity utilization are highest.

6. Conclusion:

Lithium-ion batteries are widely adopted for energy storage due to their high energy density, long cycle life, low self-discharge rate, and high specific power capability. This study investigates the relationship between temperature and internal resistance by Matlab/simulink, and quantifies the resulting heat generation mechanisms, namely reversible (entropic) heat and irreversible (Joule) heat during both charging and discharging processes. analytical results indicate that at a 1C discharge rate and an ambient temperature of −30 °C, the battery undergoes significant self-heating, producing approximately 717 W of internal heat due to elevated resistance and electrochemical polarization. With the implementation of an advanced and AI integrated (BMS) to monitor and maintain the individual cell temperature and voltage, lithium-ion batteries can be reliably operated under high-altitude and sub-zero temperature conditions. The heat generated internally within the battery during charging and discharging cycles can be strategically utilized to maintain the cell temperature within its optimal operating range. At high-altitude locations where ambient temperatures may drop to −30 °C, thermal insulation with low thermal conductivity and high cold-resistance properties should be incorporated to minimize heat loss and sustain internal thermal stability. Additionally, the integration of a Phase Change Material (PCM) within the enclosure is recommended. The PCM absorbs excess thermal energy generated by the battery during operation by undergoing a phase transition (latent heat storage). This stored thermal energy is subsequently released during periods of low ambient temperature, particularly during nighttime conditions when temperatures fall below −30 °C. Such a thermal management approach enhances temperature regulation, improves electrochemical performance, increases energy efficiency, and ensures safe and reliable battery operation under extreme environmental conditions.

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