

1 **Aging of dielectric fluids used for direct contact immersion cooling of** 2 **batteries**

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12 **Battery, Cooling, Immersion, Fluid, Aging, Pollution**

13 **1 Abstract**

14 Batteries of electric vehicles require appropriate cooling to allow for increased performances such as
15 high energy density and fast charging capabilities. Immersion of the cells in a dielectric fluid
16 provides substantial benefits in terms of safety and performance, but the selection of a relevant
17 coolant remains a complex task. This paper reviews the fluid properties which are considered most
18 significant for this application, and provides an experimental comparison of the key properties of one
19 fluid candidate under various aging conditions devised to reproduce several years of operation in a
20 vehicle.

21 **2 Introduction**

22 In recent years, as the demand for electric vehicles (EVs) continues to grow, the extension of driving
23 range of EVs implies to develop batteries with higher energy density and propose fast charging options.
24 As a result, heat generation of batteries and safety issues increase. Thus, the need for efficient battery
25 cooling solutions, and more generally thermal management solutions, is becoming increasingly
26 important.

27 A promising approach is battery immersion cooling, in which a dielectric fluid used as a coolant is in
28 direct contact with the cells, the terminals and busbar. The dielectric fluid helps reduce the risk of
29 thermal runaway, can mitigate its propagation, and improve the overall safety and performance of the
30 battery system.

31 In the last decade, developments of dielectric fluids with enhanced thermal properties and low carbon
32 footprint have been carried out. However, selection of the optimal dielectric fluid is a complex task
33 that requires a complete understanding of the fluid properties enabling its effectiveness (J-W Han,
34 2022). Therefore, in this article, we outline some key properties required for dielectric fluids to excel

35 as EVs battery immersion cooling fluids. Measurement methods and analysis are detailed, and
36 experimental results of key properties after aging of the fluid are presented.

37 **3 Materials and methods**

38 **3.1 Key properties of fluid for immersion cooling of EV batteries**

39 Oils' chemical inertness makes them good insulators in electrical applications, notably in transformers,
40 circuit breakers, cables, and capacitors. In addition to electrical properties, good thermal properties
41 such as conductivity and stability are also sought after for electro-technical applications. Indeed, the
42 phenomenon of electrical dissipation causes the oil to heat up, which is particularly the case in
43 transformers.

44 Exoes has developed a full list of specifications for fluids used as coolant in immersion cooling of
45 batteries. More than 50 quantified properties make up this list, along with qualitative requirements.
46 Values or ranges are proposed based on Exoes' extensive experience, and relevant standards have been
47 identified. Some of the key properties are presented and commented below.

48 **3.1.1 Key fluid thermo-physical properties**

49 **3.1.1.1 Thermal conductivity and Volumetric heat capacity**

50 A coolant exhibiting a high thermal conductivity is desired for it allows for a more effective heat
51 removal from the cells, which can help reduce the cooling load and energy consumption. It indicates
52 how much heat can be transferred from the surface of the cells into the fluid, before considering the
53 fluid will itself be moved away due to natural or forced convection. A thermal conductivity above 0.14
54 W/m/K at 40°C is recommended for acceptable performance and can be assessed using the standard
55 ASTM D7882. This property can vary substantially between oils, with typical mineral oils having a
56 thermal conductivity of about 0.13 W/m/K at 40°C, while ester oils reach 0.16 W/m/K and specific
57 transformer oil could exhibit thermal conductivities above 0.35 W/m/K.

58 Volumetric heat capacity is an important thermal property of dielectric fluids when used in immersion
59 cooling. This thermal property refers to the amount of heat that a specific volume of a material can
60 absorb, and it is calculated as the heat capacity of a sample of the substance divided by the volume of
61 the sample. The standards ASTM7896 and ASTMD4052 offer guidance on the measuring method.

62 Common dielectric fluids used for immersion cooling have a volumetric heat capacity more than 1000
63 times higher than that of air. One liter of dielectric fluid will therefore carry more heat than 1m³ of air.
64 At any given time, the power supplied to the dielectric fluid can be viewed as the product between the
65 mean temperature, the fluid's volumetric heat capacity and flow rate. At a given flow rate, the average
66 battery temperature depends on the volumetric heat capacity of the dielectric fluid, making it one of
67 the key characteristics for efficient dielectric fluids for immersion cooling.

68 To achieve high thermal efficiency, dielectric fluids should have volumetric heat capacity values
69 greater than 1.5 kJ/L/K at 40°C (preferably above 1.9 kJ/L/K).

70 **3.1.1.2 Viscosity**

71 The dynamic viscosity is a measure of a fluid's internal friction, or, in other terms, a measure of a
72 fluid's resistance to flow. In immersion cooling, dynamic viscosity is an important property because it
73 affects the convection coefficient and the pumping requirement. A coolant with high viscosity will

74 flow more slowly over a hot surface, resulting in a lower convection coefficient and a slower rate of
75 heat transfer.

76 It's important to note that the relationship between viscosity and convection coefficient is not a simple
77 one-to-one correlation. Other factors, such as the velocity and turbulence of the fluid, also affect the
78 convection coefficient. However, in general, a coolant with lower viscosity will have a higher
79 convection coefficient and will be able to transfer heat more effectively than a coolant with higher
80 viscosity.

81 Kinematic viscosity is defined as the ratio of a fluid's dynamic viscosity to its density.

82 In immersion cooling, the fluid needs to be able to flow around the cells, busbars and electric
83 components in order to effectively remove heat away from them. In some configurations, the electronic
84 control circuits supporting the Battery Management System (BMS) can also be immersed and is in
85 contact with the fluid. If the kinematic viscosity of the liquid is too high, it will not flow easily and
86 may not be able to effectively remove heat from the components.

87 In addition to its impact on heat transfer efficiency, the kinematic viscosity of immersion cooling liquid
88 also has a significant effect on the performance and lifespan of the pumps used in the cooling system.

89 Indeed, for a given flow rate the pumping losses is given by the division of the dynamic viscosity by
90 the square product of the density and the specific heat. Therefore, it is important to select an immersion
91 cooling liquid with a kinematic viscosity that is suitable for the specific cooling application, as the
92 pumping losses depend on it.

93
$$\dot{W}_{pump} = cst \cdot \frac{\mu}{(\rho \cdot C_p)^2}$$

94 Finally, the viscosity also impacts how easily the pump will be able to operate in cold start situations.
95 Based on typical viscosity-temperature relationships, the following specifications can be considered
96 relevant for this application, and can be evaluated using the standards ISO3104, ASTM D7042 or
97 D445/446:

- 98 - $\nu_{25^\circ C} < 5 \text{ cSt}$
- 99 - $\nu_{40^\circ C} < 3.5 \text{ cSt}$

100

101 **3.1.1.3 Mouromtseff number**

102 Exoes has found that using the Mouromtseff number (Mouromtseff, 1942) is a valuable tool for ranking
103 the performance of dielectric fluids in immersion cooling. With reference to a flow inside a fixed
104 geometry at a given velocity, the highest heat transfer rate is achieved by the liquid coolant with the
105 highest Mouromtseff number. This indicator encapsulates in one number most of the properties
106 discussed previously.

107 For single phase forced convection, Mouromtseff found this figure of merit, Mo , to follow the form:

108

$$Mo = \frac{\rho^a \cdot k^b \cdot C_p^d}{\mu^e}$$

109 where ρ , k , C_p , and μ represent the density, thermal conductivity, specific heat (at constant pressure)
110 and dynamic viscosity of the fluid. The exponents a , b , d , and e take on values appropriate to the heat
111 transfer mode of interest and the corresponding heat transfer correlation.

112 Exoes has developed a definition of the Mouromtseff number based on a Nusselt correlation built from
113 experimental results conducted at their facilities on full immersion modules.

114 The standard shape correlation for the Nusselt number

$$115 \quad Nu = C \cdot Re^\alpha \cdot Pr^{0.33}, \text{ with } Re \text{ the Reynold's number and } Pr \text{ the Prandtl number}$$

116 was used in a 50 nodes analytical GTsuite model of the module. The model was fitted to
117 experimental results with one fluid on the following criteria:

- 118 - Module pressure drop,
- 119 - Module inertia,
- 120 - Heat generation of the cells and busbars,
- 121 - Average heat transfer coefficient between hot surfaces and fluid.

122 C and α parameters were chosen to minimize the average surface temperature error between the tests
123 and the model. Five steady state tests at different flowrates and C-rates were taken into account.

124 The following fitted correlation is then proposed:

$$125 \quad Nu = 0.175 \cdot Re^{0.65} \cdot Pr^{1/3}$$

126 The following correlation is used by Exoes to define the Mouromtseff number:

$$127 \quad Mo = \frac{\rho^{0.65} \cdot k^{0.67} \cdot C_p^{0.33}}{\mu^{0.32}}$$

128 However, in addition to a fluid's heat transfer capability, the fluid's ability to store and move heat away
129 from a heat source and the fluid's hydraulic performance should also be considered for optimum system
130 performance. It is desirable to maximize the caloric and heat transfer capability while at the same time
131 minimizing the hydraulic behavior, which is characterized by system pressure drop and required
132 pumping power, as introduced in 2.1.2.

133 A figure of merit (FoM) representing the relationship among key thermophysical properties for
134 comparative purposes has been suggested by Yeh and Chu (L-T Yeh, 2002) for single phase forced
135 convection cooling that captures this desire:

$$136 \quad FoM = \frac{C_p \cdot h}{W_{pump}}, \text{ with } h \text{ the heat transfer coefficient}$$

137 **3.1.1.4 Flash Point**

138 The safety of electric vehicles is a critical concern for manufacturers, particularly with regards to the
139 potential for battery thermal runaway. To minimize this risk, non-flammable fluids or high flash points

140 fluids are used for safe operation. The flash point of a fluid is the lowest temperature at which its vapors
141 will ignite when given an ignition source. While high flash point fluids could increase the safety of
142 EVs, currently, there is no consensus among EV manufacturers on the requirements and limits for flash
143 point, leaving a gap in both academic and industrial understanding.

144 Moreover, common dielectric fluids with viscosities in the ranges described in 2.1.2 have extremely
145 low volatility and high flash points and more research is needed to understand their behavior under
146 thermal runaway conditions. It is then worth noting that the flash point does not necessarily reflect a
147 material's flammability behavior in the context of immersion cooling. To address this, companies such
148 as Lanxess use a hot plate droplet ignition test to assess the risk of ignition.

149 **3.1.2 Key dielectric properties**

150 **3.1.2.1 Volume electric resistivity**

151 The volume electric resistivity, measured in Gohm.m, can be defined as the resistance of a cube with
152 a unit length between two opposite faces on which metallic electrodes are applied. It indicates the
153 ability of the fluid to conduct current. The electrical resistivity of insulating mineral oils, which can
154 exceed 10^3 Gohm.m, generally decreases during use due to chemical alteration. Indeed, the oxidation
155 products of the oil, which are favored by the presence of metals, exposure to air, operation at high
156 temperature, and the presence of polar pollutants such as water or solid particles, strongly increase
157 conductivity. Water can indirectly contribute to the increase in oil conductivity by promoting the
158 miscibility of contaminants in the oil.

159 The ISO-6469 regulation requires that for an 800V battery in electric vehicles, there must be a
160 500Ohm/V insulation resistance to the chassis, which results in a required electric insulation resistance
161 greater of 400kOhm for a complete powertrain, including a 800V battery.

162 Assuming that:

- 163 - the typical distance between live parts and the chassis is 1mm,
- 164 - the surface area of the live parts is around 1m^2 with a voltage spread between 800V and 0V,
165 half of the surface area (0.5m^2) is taken into consideration.

166 A minimum fluid threshold resistivity of 0.2 Gohm.m would typically be required, with a polluted fluid
167 or at its end-of-life.

168 **3.1.2.2 Dissipation factor**

169 The electrical dissipation factor of an insulating material is defined as the tangent of the loss angle
170 (δ). The loss angle δ is the complementary angle of the phase shift between the applied voltage
171 and the current. For dielectric materials, δ is often small and therefore can be approximated by its
172 tangent. In the case of a perfect dielectric material, the phase shift between current and voltage is 90° .
173 The electrical dissipation factor thus reflects energy losses due to Joule heating. The dissipation factor
174 is an important consideration for transformer oils, but in the case of DC batteries, it is used as a sensitive
175 indicator to assess the quality of the fluid with inexpensive and readily available testing methods.

176 **3.1.2.3 Permittivity of the fluid**

177 The electric permittivity is defined as the quotient of the electric induction by the electric field, and is
178 expressed in farads per meter (F/m). It represents the ability of the fluid to form a capacitor under an
179 electric field and tells how much the molecules oppose an external electric field. For mineral oils, the

180 permittivity is typically between 2 and 2.5 F/m, but it strongly depends on the nature of the oil. For
181 instance, the permittivity of aliphatic hydrocarbons is around 2 F/m, while that of aromatic
182 hydrocarbons is around 2.3 F/m. The permittivity of oils increases with the presence of polar
183 compounds such as impurities. This effect is even more pronounced in alternating current, where
184 dielectric losses occur due to a phase shift between current and voltage. In insulating transformer oils,
185 the permittivity is often considered complex. With the real part being related to the stored energy within
186 the material. The imaginary part relates to the loss of energy in the material.

187 **3.1.2.4 Breakdown Voltage**

188 The breakdown voltage, which measures the minimum voltage at which an arc appears between two
189 electrodes, typically separated by 2.5mm (0.1 inch) according to the standards, is crucial for safety
190 considerations in EV batteries. A minimum breakdown voltage of 2.5kV or 1000V/mm is typically
191 required for 800V batteries. Impurities and moisture usually result in a decrease of the breakdown
192 voltage in transformer oils (M.S.M. Abeyrathna, 2021).

193 These classic dielectric properties play a vital role in ensuring the optimal performance and safety of
194 the immersion cooling fluids used in EV battery applications.

195 **3.2 Fluid evaluated**

196 As part of Exoes' investigations on immersion cooling, we here report the assessment of the fitness of
197 a fluid for this application. The objective of the testing campaign we carried out was to evaluate the
198 possibility of having a "filled-for-life" fluid, with a targeted life-expectancy of about 10 years in the
199 car. The main properties of the fresh fluid, a mineral oil with additives, are reproduced in Table 1
200 below.

201 **3.3 Test protocol**

202 The fluid was submitted to aging conditions in a sealed chamber (autoclaves) at high temperature to
203 achieve acceleration of the aging process. According to Arrhenius law, which generally relates the rate
204 of thermal decomposition to temperature (Lansdown, 1994), the process simulated 2.5 years of service
205 in 240h by setting the temperature at 80°C. About 25% of the real life expectancy was therefore
206 simulated, which was considered sufficient to identify any onset of degradation. The experimental set-
207 up is described in Figure 1(A) while Figure 1(B) shows a picture of a closed autoclave.

208 Two aging conditions were defined:

- 209 - First test: 240h at 80°C in presence of material samples and with water contamination.
- 210 - Second test: 240h at 80°C in presence of material samples and with renewal of dried air (no
211 water contamination).

212 When material samples were added, the selected samples were based on structural materials found in
213 battery modules (plastics such as PET, PPE, PA, elastomers such as NBR, and metals such as aluminum
214 and copper). The wet surfaces and aspect ratios have been defined to match the typical conditions of a
215 battery pack cooled by immersion.

216 Air renewal flow rate has been calculated based on a severe daily air ingress due to the thermal
217 expansion and contraction of the fluid during charging, and scaled according to the volume of fluid in
218 the autoclave relative to a typical battery, i.e. 1L/h.

219 Water contamination was simulated by mixing ~1.000 ppm of water to the fluid, which far above its
220 saturation limit. Droplets of water are littering the floor of the autoclave.

221 The aging process as defined above, allowed us to perform comparisons of key properties of the fluid
222 under 3 conditions: fresh, aged, and aged with moisture.

223 The influence of the condition of the fluid on its thermo-physical properties (specific heat, thermal
224 conductivity, viscosity and density) as well as on its dielectric properties (resistivity, breakdown
225 voltage, permittivity and dissipation factor) was then evaluated and the results are presented in the next
226 sections.

227 **4 Results**

228 **4.1 Experimental results: thermo-physical properties**

229 The kinematic viscosity, density, thermal conductivity and specific heat of the fluid, between the fresh
230 condition and the aged condition wherein water contamination was present, were measured and
231 compared. No change at all in those properties could be detected.

232 **4.2 Experimental results: dielectric properties**

233 The resistivity in all 3 conditions was assessed according to IEC60247 and the results are shown in
234 Table 2 for two temperature levels, 23°C and 90°C. The presence of water in the fresh sample decreased
235 the resistivity, and the aging process including air renewal had a similar, though reduced, effect which
236 might be attributed to oxidation processes taking place. While both outcomes were expected (cf. 2.2.1),
237 we can observe that the aging condition in the presence of water actually improved the resistivity
238 substantially. No explanation for this observation could be proposed. In any case, fresh or aged, the
239 fluid remains above the threshold we consider acceptable in the relevant temperature range.

240 The breakdown voltage according to IEC60156 (2.5mm) in the 3 conditions is shown in Table 3.
241 Surprisingly, this property was most of the time higher for aged fluids compared to fresh ones,
242 regardless of the chemistry. This tends to indicate that aging, especially involving aeration, improves
243 the insulating property of the fluids. Conversely, the presence of moisture in the fresh fluid always
244 decreases the breakdown voltage, which is expected.

245 The permittivity in all conditions was measured according to IEC60247 for two temperature levels,
246 23°C and 90°C. Contrary to what is often reported in the literature, moisture nor aging seem to be
247 altering this property for the tested chemistry.

248 Finally, the dissipation factor of all samples was measured according to IEC60247 and the results are
249 shown in Table 4. Here too, no major differences between the values measured on fresh and aged
250 samples can be identified.

251 **5 Discussion**

252 The tests performed tend to demonstrate that the fluid would actually behave very well as an immersion
253 cooling fluid for batteries, over many years. Polluted and aged samples exhibit sufficient properties
254 after the tests, which should guarantee that the properties would remain satisfactory for at least 2.5
255 years of use, given the severity of the conditions tested. Many of the results seem to be at odds with
256 what the literature on insulating oils typically reported. One explanation could be that previous
257 investigations mostly focused on transformer oils, operating in AC, which could exacerbate deviations

258 of properties. In any case, more research, particularly involving chemical analysis, would be necessary
259 to understand the mechanistic processes at stake behind some of the observations reported here.

260 **6 References**

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262 Lithium-Ion Battery. *Symmetry*.

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269 **7 Funding and Conflict of Interest**

270 This study has been ordered and financed by an automotive OEM as part of a work package to assess
271 the relevance of battery immersion cooling for passenger cars. The manufacturers of the fluid tested
272 is also a customer of EXOES on other projects.

273 **8 Author Contributions**

274 R.D. designed and directed the study, worked out the technical details and supervised the
275 experiments. He defined the list of properties to be considered and investigated. A.B. and T.K. wrote
276 the manuscript in consultation with R.D.. All authors provided critical feedback and put the results of
277 the analysis into perspective.

278 Table 1: Main properties of the tested fluid

Flash point [°C]	$\nu(40^\circ\text{C})$ [cSt]	$\nu(20^\circ\text{C})$ [cSt]	Thermal conductivity at 20°C [W/m/K]	Density at 20°C [kg/m ³]	Specific heat capacity at 20°C [kJ/kg/K]
150	5	60	0.14	0.8	2.2

279

280 Table 2: Evolution of the fluid resistivity under various conditions

	Fresh Fluid	Fresh Fluid + 1,000ppm water	Aged Fluid + 1,000ppm water	Aged Fluid + air renewal

Fluid resistivity at 23°C [GOhm.m]	6,900	3,700	13,000	5,300
Fluid resistivity at 90°C [GOhm.m]	1,200	400	1,500	800

281

282 Table 3: Breakdown voltage of the fluid under various conditions

	Fresh Fluid	Fresh Fluid + 1,000ppm water	Aged Fluid + 1,000ppm water	Aged Fluid + air renewal
Breakdown voltage [kV]	46	20	46	80

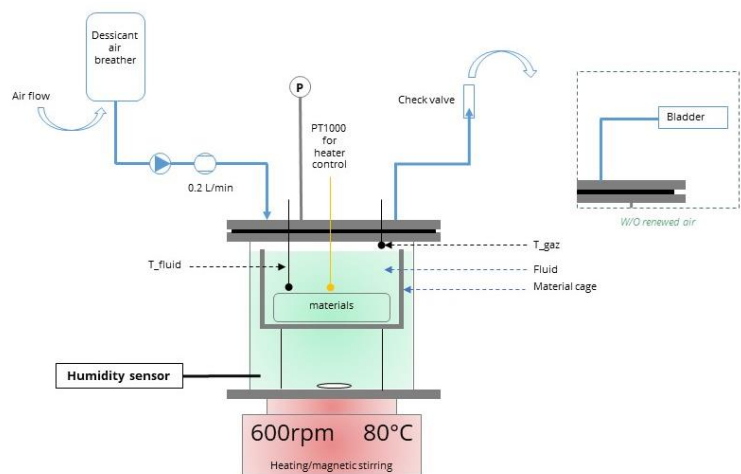
283

284 Table 4: Dissipation factor of the fluid under various conditions

	Fresh Fluid	Fresh Fluid + 1,000ppm water	Aged Fluid + 1,000ppm water	Aged Fluid + air renewal
Dissipation factor (60Hz) 23°C	0.0011	0.0014	0.0002	0.0015
Dissipation factor (60Hz) 90°C	0.0046	0.0074	0.0021	0.0102

285

286 Figure 1(A): Setup used for the aging process - Figure 1(B): Picture of the sealed and insulated
287 autoclave



288