

A Decadal Analysis of Renewable Energy Development in India

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Abstract:

India in the past years has seen rapid economic expansion which has been paired with rapid industrialisation. Propelled by such rapid economic expansion and sustained industrialisation, India's energy demand and consumption have surged by a huge margin, making the nation one of the world's fastest growing energy markets. As a direct consequence of this unprecedented growth and the necessity to secure stable, long term supply, India has strategically prioritised increasing its overall energy generation capacity. A major focus has been placed on diversifying the energy mix, with a significant shift toward renewable sources of energy such as solar energy, biomass, wind energy and hydro energy. This strategy not only aims to meet the enormous power requirements of modernising economy but also to fulfil the nation's commitments to a sustainable, low-carbon future. This paper gives a brief definition of native forms of energy such as solar energy, wind energy, biomass energy and small hydro power and thereby makes an analysis of how these forms of energy have developed in India in the last decade. It glosses over the advantages and disadvantages of each of the aforementioned sources of energy and gives a brief overview of the measures taken by the government to promote each source. This paper also presents a detailed analysis of the growth rates of solar energy, biomass, wind energy and small hydro energy from the FY 2014-15 to the FY 2024-25. Also suggestions for the possible reasons for the growth rates of each of the aforementioned source have been made. It is to be noted that the presented data is all correct as of March 2025.

Keywords: Biomass, Development, Energy, Renewable, Solar, Wind.

An Analysis of Renewable Energy Development in India:

In the last decade, India's power sector has witnessed massive increase in its output to meet the rising demand. As such the electricity generation has increased from 1,168 billion units in the year 2015-16 to an estimated 1,824

billion units in the year 2024-25. Also the total capacity has increased from 305 gigawatts in the year 2015-16 to 475 gigawatts in the year 2024-25.

In its increased electricity output India has put a huge emphasis on providing clean and sustainable energy. Therefore a major focus has been given on different forms of renewable sources of energy, as a result India's power sector is among the most diversified in the world, with power generation from non renewable sources like coal, natural gas, etc. as well as sustainable sources like solar, wind, biomass, small hydro and various other sources. As of the month of March year 2025 India has met a total installed power capacity of estimated 475 gigawatt which is comprised of 240 gigawatt of thermal, 105.6 gigawatt of solar and 50.4 gigawatt of wind power.

What are alternative sources of energy?

Alternative sources of energy are methods of energy production that are used instead of, or as an alternative to, conventional fossil fuels.

While the term "alternative energy" is very broad, it most commonly refers to renewable energy sources which possess the following features:

- **Renewable:** they are naturally replenished, making them virtually inexhaustible over a human timescale.
- **Cleaner:** They typically produce little to no greenhouse gases or other pollutants during operation.

Why the need for alternative sources of energy ?

The necessity for alternative sources of energy is a transition driven by quantifiable environmental urgency, geopolitical risks and compelling economic advantage.

- *Environmental Concern:* The primary need stems from the fact that global energy related carbon dioxide emissions reached a record 38 gigatons in 2024, mainly due to the burning of fossil fuels. To prevent catastrophic climate change, a decisive shift is mandatory: the International Energy Agency (IA) forecasts that to meet climate goals, the share of renewable power generation must rise from 32% in 2024 to 43 % by 2030. Furthermore, pollution from fossil fuels contributes to various health related issues globally each year , a public health crisis that clean alternatives eliminate. The transition is not just about reducing future emissions ; it is about mitigating an existing health and climate catastrophe.

- *Economic competitiveness and market dominance:* The switch to alternative energy is now economically rational, independent of subsidies the cost of utility scale Solar PV has declined by over 90% since 2010 and the cost of battery storage systems has fallen off by 93% over the same period. In 2024, 91% of all newly commissioned utility scaled renewable capacity delivered power at a lower cost than the cheapest new fossil fuel based alternative establishing renewables as the most affordable source of new electricity worldwide. This economic dominance is driving massive investment, with global renewable energy investment hitting \$807 billion in 2024.
- *Energy Security and Employment Growth:* Relying on imported fossil fuels creates massive risk and price volatility, as approximately 80% of the world's population lives in energy importing nations. Deploying domestic alternatives like solar and wind inherently improves energy independence and stability. The sector is also a major job creator: the clean energy sector has demonstrated faster employment growth than the fossil fuel sector with renewable energy creating 2.5 to 5 times more jobs per unit of energy produced compared to conventional fuels. This makes the alternative energy transition a strategic pathway for economic development and industrial diversification.

What are the forms of alternative forms of energy?

1. Biomass energy:

Biomass refers to renewable organic matter derived from plants and animals, containing stored chemical energy from the sun, generated through photosynthesis. It can be directly combusted for heat or transformed into liquid and gaseous fuels through various processes.

1.1. India's biomass scenario:

India's bio-energy sector is a cornerstone of its renewable energy strategy, leveraging the nation's substantial agricultural economy to generate power and fuels. The installed bio-power capacity (including biomass power and biogases/non-biogases co generation) has increased by

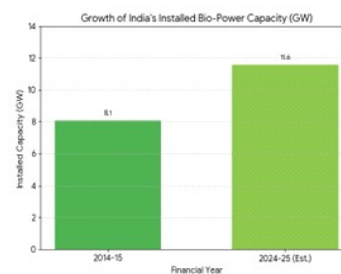


Fig:1(Growth of India's bio-power capacity from 2014-15 to 2024-25)

approximately 42-43% over the last decade, rising from around 8.1 GW in FY 2014-15 to an estimated 11.6 GW by FY 2024-25 as seen represented in Fig:1. While this growth is steady, it pales in comparison to the multifold expansion seen in solar and wind power. Crucially, the non-grid-connected and decentralised segment has witnessed significant policy focus, with the Compressed Biogas (CBG) sector expanding from virtually a single project (around 8 Tonnes per Day (TPD) capacity) in 2014 to approximately 150 projects with a cumulative capacity of over 1,200 TPD in 2024-25, primarily driven by the SATAT scheme. Furthermore, there's a major regulatory shift with the mandate for thermal power plants to co-fire a minimum of 5% biomass pellets with coal by 2026, creating an annual market for millions of tonnes of processed biomass. The gross annual availability of surplus agriculture-based residue remains vast, estimated at around 230 million metric tonnes (MMT), which holds a massive potential for power generation, estimated to be as high as 50,000 MW.

1.2. Advantages:

- **Waste Management & Pollution Reduction:** It utilises agricultural and municipal waste, directly addressing critical issues like open-field burning (stubble burning) and landfill accumulation, promoting a circular economy.
- **Rural Economy and Income Generation:** It creates stable, local supply chains for feedstock, providing supplementary income to farmers for selling their residues and generating decentralised employment opportunities.
- **Dispatchable Renewable Power:** Unlike variable solar or wind, biomass power plants can operate continuously, providing reliable, firm power to support grid stability.

1.3. Disadvantages:

- **High Logistical and Operational Costs:** The low energy density and scattered nature of feedstock lead to high costs for collection, transport, and storage, making it less cost-competitive than other renewables.
- **Air Quality and Emissions:** Combustion, even of clean biomass, releases pollutants like particulate matter (PM) requiring expensive emission control systems, particularly in densely populated areas.

- Sustainability and Land Use Risk: Poor management can lead to unsustainable harvesting practices, deforestation, or competition with food production (Food vs. Fuel).

1.4. Governmental measures to promote biomass energy:

The Government of India promotes biomass through targeted programs and financial incentives. The National Bio-energy Programme (2021-2026) offers significant Central Financial Assistance (CFA) for setting up Waste to Energy, Biogas, and non-bagasse co-generation projects, including support for biomass pellet/briquette manufacturing. Crucially, the mandate for 5% biomass co-firing in thermal power plants creates a massive, guaranteed market for processed agricultural residue. Additionally, the Sustainable Alternative Towards Affordable Transportation (SATAT) initiative specifically drives the establishment of Compressed Biogas (CBG) plants, while the Pradhan Mantri JI-VAN Yojana supports commercial-scale Second-Generation (2G) bio-ethanol projects from agricultural waste.

2. Solar Energy:

Solar energy is a form of renewable energy, in which sunlight is turned into electricity, heat, or other forms of energy we can use. It is a “carbon-free” energy source that, once built, produces none of the greenhouse gas emissions that are driving climate change.

2.1. India’s solar energy scenario:

Fig:2(Growth of India’s Solar power Capacity from 2014-15 to 2024-25)

India’s solar energy sector has witnessed phenomenal, unprecedented growth over the last decade, becoming the dominant force in the nation’s renewable energy push. The installed solar power capacity (including grid-

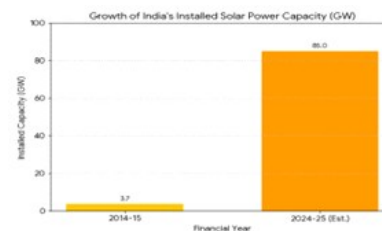


Fig:2(Growth of India’s Solar power Capacity from 2014-15 to 2024-25)

connected utility and rooftop solar) skyrocketed from just 3.7 GW in FY 2014-15 to an estimated over 85 GW by FY 2024-25 as depicted in Fig:2, representing an approximate 23-fold increase. This massive expansion, driven by rapidly falling costs, is a crucial part of India’s commitment to achieve 500 GW of non-fossil fuel capacity by 2030.

2.2. Advantages

- **Abundant, Limitless Fuel:** India receives vast amounts of solar radiation, making it an inexhaustible energy source across the entire country.
- **Rapid Deployment and Scalability:** Projects range from small rooftop units (kW scale) to massive solar parks (GW scale), allowing for quick deployment and decentralised generation.
- **Zero Operational Emissions:** Solar photovoltaic (PV) generation produces zero greenhouse gases or air pollutants during operation, helping meet climate goals.

2.3. Disadvantages:

- **Intermittency and Storage Needs:** Power generation is intermittent (only available during the day), necessitating expensive and complex Battery Energy Storage Systems (BESS) for grid stability.
- **Large Land Footprint:** Utility-scale solar parks require vast tracts of land, which can lead to land acquisition challenges and conflicts over land use.
- **Material and Waste Issues:** The manufacturing of PV panels involves energy-intensive processes, and the eventual disposal of panels creates a growing e-waste management challenge.

2.4. Governmental measures to promote solar energy:

The Government of India promotes solar energy through several focused initiatives backed by significant financial commitments. The PM Surya Ghar: Muft Bijli Yojana is a key residential scheme, providing up to ¹ 78,000 in subsidies to install rooftop solar on 1 crore households. In the agricultural sector, the PM-KUSUM Scheme targets 30 GW of solar capacity by FY 2026, offering 60% subsidies for solar pumps. To boost domestic manufacturing, the Production Linked Incentive (PLI) Scheme is allocated over ¹ 24,000 crore to establish Giga Watt-scale module manufacturing. This is complemented by the Solar Park Scheme, which facilitates the development of 50 parks with a capacity target of 37.9 GW, ensuring the necessary infrastructure for rapid utility-scale deployment.

3. Wind energy:

Wind energy is a form of renewable energy that harnesses the power of the wind to generate electricity. It involves using wind turbines to convert the turning motion of the blades to, pushed by moving air into electrical energy.

3.1. India's wind energy scenario:

India's wind energy sector has seen steady, mature growth, retaining its position as the second-largest renewable source after solar. The installed wind power capacity grew significantly, rising from 22.5 GW in FY 2014-15 to an estimated over 47 GW by FY 2024-25 as depicted in Fig:3, marking an increase of approximately 109%. While annual additions have fluctuated following the shift from the feed-in-tariff (FIT) regime to a competitive Reverse Auction Mechanism (RAM),

wind remains crucial due to its complementary generation profile (strongest during evening/monsoon months, when solar is low). Recent policy focus includes encouraging wind-solar hybrid projects to optimise land and transmission infrastructure, and formulating policies for the nascent offshore wind sector along the Gujarat and Tamil Nadu coasts.

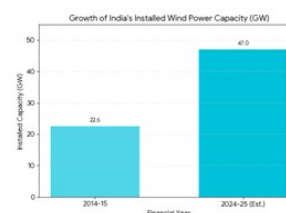


Fig:3 (Growth of India's Installed Wind Power Capacity from 2014-15 to 2024-25.)

3.2. Advantages:

- **Low Operating Costs:** Once installed, wind turbines have minimal operating expenses and a long operational lifespan (over 20 years).
- **Highest Capacity Utilisation Factor (CUF):** Wind projects, especially in high-wind zones (like Tamil Nadu and Gujarat), often achieve better CUF than solar, making them highly efficient.
- **Land Use Efficiency:** Wind farms can be installed on large agricultural lands where the land between turbines can still be used for farming or grazing.

3.3. Disadvantages:

- **Geographic Concentration:** High-potential sites are concentrated primarily in a few southern and western states, leading to challenges in grid integration and inter-state transmission.
- **Visual and Noise Pollution:** Wind farms can be visually intrusive and generate significant noise, leading to public opposition in certain areas.
- **Impact on Wildlife:** Rotating blades pose a threat to birds and bats, requiring careful environmental impact assessments and mitigation strategies.

3.4. Governmental measures to promote wind energy:

The government shifted to a Competitive Bidding Framework (Reverse Auction) to drive down tariffs. The introduction of the National Offshore Wind Energy Policy is aimed at unlocking the immense potential along the coastline. Most importantly, the government actively promotes Wind-Solar Hybrid Power Projects through specific policies to stabilise power output, optimise land use, and better utilise the existing transmission infrastructure by combining two distinct, complementary generation patterns.

4. Small Hydro-Energy:

In India hydro power plants with a capacity of 25 MW or below are known as Small Hydro.

4.1. India's small hydro scenario:

Small Hydro Power (SHP), defined as projects with a capacity of up to 25 MW, is one of the oldest renewable technologies in India and provides reliable, decentralised power, often in remote mountainous regions. The installed SHP capacity showed slow but steady growth, increasing from approximately 4.0 GW in FY 2014-15 to an estimated 4.9 GW by FY 2024-25 as depicted in Fig:4, representing about 22-23% growth. Unlike solar and wind, SHP growth is fundamentally limited by the

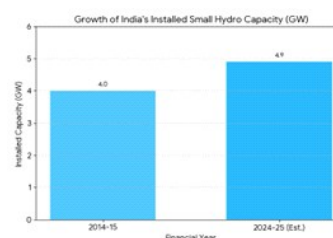


Fig:4(Growth of India's Installed Small Hydro Capacity from 2014-15 to 2024-25)

availability of suitable sites with perennial water flow. Its value lies in its firm and continuous power generation capability, making it highly valuable for local grid stability in remote areas, particularly in the Himalayan and sub-Himalayan regions where electricity access can be challenging.

4.2. Advantages:

- **Predictable and Firm Power:** SHP is a mature, established technology that offers reliable, non-intermittent power generation driven by water flow.
- **Decentralised Power Source:** Ideal for providing electricity to remote or isolated communities where transmission costs from the main grid are prohibitive.

- **Minimal Environmental Impact:** Unlike large hydropower dams, SHP projects typically involve run-of-the-river schemes that require minimal reservoir creation, significantly reducing social and ecological displacement.

4.3. Disadvantages:

- **Site and Water Flow Dependency:** Growth is strictly limited by the availability of sites with specific hydrological conditions and reliable, perennial water flow.
- **Vulnerability to Climate:** Generation is highly vulnerable to climate change factors, such as reduced or erratic rainfall and changing snowfall patterns.
- **High Initial Capital Cost:** The initial investment required for civil works (dams, canals, weirs, powerhouse construction) is substantially higher than for solar or wind projects.

4.4. Governmental Measures to promote Small hydro energy:

The SHP sector is supported by specific government policies under the Ministry of New and Renewable Energy (MNRE), which provides Central Financial Assistance (CFA) for both the development of new projects and the renovation and modernisation of old ones. A significant focus is placed on streamlining the clearance process and conducting resource assessments to identify potential sites, particularly in the Northeast and Himalayan states. The government also mandates the purchase of SHP power through Renewable Purchase Obligations (RPOs) for distribution utilities to ensure market demand.

Overall scenario of India's renewable energy sources:

The transition of India's renewable energy sector between FY 2014-15 and FY 2024-25 represents a strategic repositioning driven predominantly by Solar Energy. The combined installed capacity of the four key sources (Solar, Wind, Biomass, Small Hydro) expanded substantially, growing from 38.3 GW to approximately 172.37 GW (a 350% increase). This growth fundamentally altered the energy mix: in 2014-15, Wind Energy was the largest contributor at nearly 59% (22.5 GW), while Solar held a minor share at 9.7% (3.7 GW). By 2024-25, Solar Energy had become the dominant source, commanding 61.3% (105.65 GW) of the total renewable capacity, underscoring the success of national policy initiatives and the maturity of solar photovoltaic technology in driving India's energy transition.

A detailed analysis of the growth rates:

The table:1 below displays the installed capacity for each of the sources in gigawatts for the respective years. While the table:2 displays the growth factor for each of the sources of energy from the FY 2014-15 to 2024-25. The fig:7 provides the same info as in table:1 but graphically.

Financial Year	Solar Power (GW)	Wind Power (GW)	Bio Power (GW)	Small Hydro Power (GW)
FY 2014-15	3.99	23.35	8.55	4.06
FY 2015-16	7.12	26.78	8.92	4.27
FY 2016-17	12.78	32.28	9.12	4.38
FY 2017-18	22.35	34.15	9.67	4.49
FY 2018-19	29.10	35.63	10.10	4.59
FY 2019-20	35.61	37.74	10.22	4.68
FY 2020-21	41.24	39.25	10.53	4.79
FY 2021-22	54.00	40.36	10.68	4.85
FY 2022-23	66.78	42.63	10.80	4.94
FY 2023-24	81.81	45.89	10.94	5.00
FY 2024-25	105.65	50.04	11.58	5.10

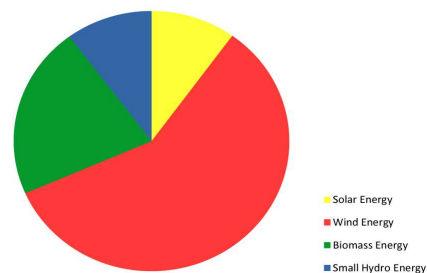


Fig:5(India's Installed power capacity mix as of March 2015)

Table:1(Growth of the Installed power capacities for each year

Energy Source	FY 2014-15 Capacity (GW)	FY 2024-25 Capacity (GW)	Growth Factor (Approx.)	Growth Rate Type
Solar Power *	3.99	105.65	26.5x	Exponential
Wind Power	23.35	50.04	2.1x	Steady/Linear
Bio Power	8.55	11.58	1.35x	Slow/Sustained
Small Hydro Power	4.06	5.10	1.25x	Near Stagnation

Table:2(Overall Growth from 2014-15 to 2024-25)

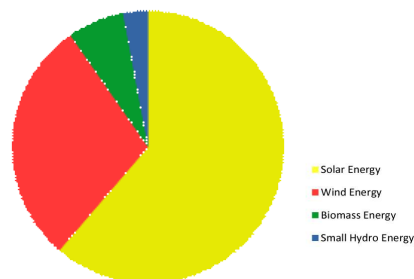


Fig:6(India's installed power capacity mix as of March 2025)

1.Solar Power: Exponential Growth:

Solar power experienced the most dramatic growth, moving from a niche source to the foundation of the country's renewable energy strategy.

The growth rate is exponential, averaging a 35% to 45% Compound Annual Growth Rate (CAGR) over the decade. This aggressive acceleration is evident as annual additions consistently increased, peaking well over 12 GW in recent years.

1.1.Possible Reasons for High Growth:

- *Cost Collapse and Grid Parity:* This is the single biggest driver. The Levelized Cost of Electricity (LCOE) for solar modules dropped by over 80% globally during this period. Competitive reverse auctions in India drove tariffs to record lows, making solar power the cheapest new power source on the grid.
- *Aggressive Policy & Targets:* The government's ambitious goal of 100 GW of solar by 2022 (part of the larger 175 GW target) provided immense market certainty and accelerated land allocation for large solar parks.
- *Ease of Deployment:* Compared to wind farms or thermal plants, utility-scale solar projects have a shorter gestation period, fewer logistical hurdles, and a lower reliance on complex supply chain infrastructure, enabling faster project commissioning.

2.Wind Power: Steady Growth with a Mid-Decade Dip:

Wind power maintained a high initial base but exhibited a slower, more volatile growth trajectory than solar. The overall growth is steady and linear (about 2.1 times total increase). However, the annual addition rate was volatile, peaking at 5.5 GW in FY 2016-17 before sharply dropping to under 2 GW in the following years.

2.1.Possible Reasons for Volatility and Moderate Growth:

- *Policy Transition Shock (Post-2017):* The shift from a high, guaranteed price Feed-in Tariff (FIT) system to a competitive reverse auction model in 2017 created massive market uncertainty. This caused many developers to delay or cancel projects as they adjusted to razor-thin margins and lower returns, resulting in the sharp drop in new capacity additions.
- *Resource and Land Constraints:* Prime wind sites with high Capacity Utilisation Factors (CUF) are geographically limited (primarily concentrated in states like Gujarat, Tamil Nadu, and Maharashtra). Land acquisition and securing transmission corridors for these specialised sites became a major bottleneck.
- *Grid and Infrastructure Limitations:* Wind power's high intermittency and frequent location in remote areas often lead to curtailment (grid operators forcibly restricting output) to maintain grid stability. This reduces the profitability of wind farms and slows down new investment.

3. Bio Power : Limited Growth Due to Operational Risks:

Bio power has witnessed very Low, Sustained. The 3.08% CAGR is marginal. The growth is primarily driven by incremental additions, often in captive sugar mill co-generation facilities (biogases-based), rather than large-scale independent power projects.

3.1. Possible Reasons for Low Growth:

- *Supply Chain and Logistical Risk:* This is the critical barrier. Bio Power requires a continuous, year-round supply of biomass fuel (agricultural residues, plant matter). Creating a reliable biomass supply chain—including collection, storage, and transportation—is complex, costly, and vulnerable to weather and local market conditions.
- *High Variable Cost:* Unlike solar and wind (which have zero fuel cost), biomass plants incur high variable costs for fuel procurement and handling. For many plants, fuel costs account for 60-70% of operating expenses, making them uncompetitive against low-LCOE solar.
- *Technology and Waste Challenges:* Projects based on municipal Waste-to-Energy face challenges due to poor waste segregation, high moisture content, and the heterogeneous nature of Indian waste, limiting efficiency and scalability.

4. Small Hydro Power (SHP) : Stagnation Due to Site and Regulatory Barrier::

With the lowest CAGR of 2.30%, the SHP sector has effectively reached a standstill. Annual capacity additions are minimal, reflecting a lack of viable new projects.

4.1. Possible Reasons for Stagnation:

- *Geographic Saturation:* The most significant limiting factor is the finite number of feasible sites. Most readily accessible and economically viable locations (based on factors like stream flow and head availability) for SHP projects (under 25 MW) have already been exploited.
- *Complex Regulatory & Environmental Hurdles:* New SHP projects are located in increasingly sensitive or remote areas. They face prolonged and complex environmental clearance, forest department approvals, and issues related to local ecology and water rights, significantly increasing project development time and regulatory risk.

- *External Policy Focus:* Government attention and capital investment have overwhelmingly shifted to high-growth, cost-effective sectors like solar, leaving SHP without the necessary policy incentives to overcome its inherent site and regulatory challenges.

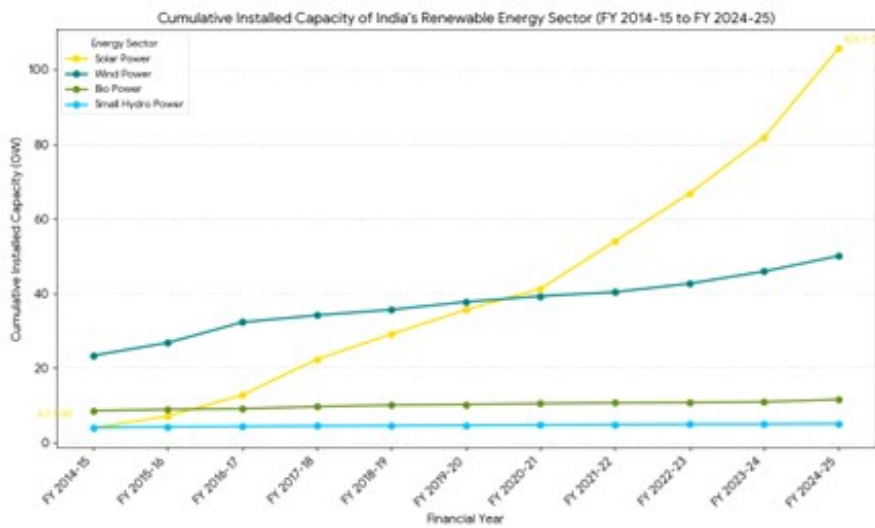


Fig:7(A graphical depiction of the growth rates of the biomass, solar, small hydro and wind energy sector)

Conclusion:

As we have seen based on our analysis the growth rates of each of the energy sectors has a huge variation over the different types, this may be attributed to different factors such as collateral damage due to development or energy harvesting, potential risks, low ROI and technological challenges etc. Energy sectors which do not have the aforementioned issues have seen prominent growth while those with the issues have not seen much development.

Future prospects of Indian fuel energy scenario:

Building on the foundation of the last decade, where solar and wind capacity saw unprecedented Compound Annual Growth Rates (CAGR), the future of India’s energy sector is overwhelmingly anchored by the national

goal of achieving 500 GW of non-fossil fuel capacity by 2030. This imperative dictates a critical dual trajectory for the renewable sector. The core of this expansion will be Solar and Wind, driven primarily by their sustained low Levelized Cost of Electricity (LCOE) and rapid scalability. Solar is slated to achieve approximately 280 GW by 2030, with growth heavily supported by the INR 19,500 crore Production Linked Incentive (PLI) scheme for high-efficiency solar PV module manufacturing, ensuring domestic supply chain resilience. Wind energy, crucial for its complementary generation profile (often peaking in the evening and night), will contribute significantly, with future capacity expansions expected through competitive auctions and the eventual opening of Offshore Wind projects, leveraging vast coastal resources. Critically, the long-term viability and dominance of these intermittent resources are linked to the successful deployment of Energy Storage Systems and Pumped Hydro Storage . Current plans target up to 50t GW / 200 GW capacity by 2030, which is the technical prerequisite for transforming intermittent supply into reliable, firm power for grid stability.

In sharp contrast to these core generation sectors, the capacity additions for Bio Power and Small Hydro (SHP)—which have been marginal due to logistical and physical constraints—are projected to continue slowing, thereby forcing them into highly specialised, strategic niche roles. Bio Power’s economic viability is shifting away from bulk power generation durable fuel logistics and high operational costs. Instead, its growth is being strategically redirected toward waste management and transportation fuel diversification, underpinned by the SATAT (Sustainable Alternative Towards Affordable Transportation) scheme, which promotes the development of over 5,000 decentralised Compressed Biogas (CBG) plants. This capacity is invaluable as it provides dis-patchable, localised base-load capacity which can stabilise the grid during solar/wind dips, while simultaneously solving local waste challenges. Similarly, the Small Hydro (SHP) sector (projects 25 MW) is constrained by the saturation of readily available sites and increasing environmental regulations. Its primary role is shifting entirely to the modernisation, rehabilitation, and updating of existing facilities. The measurable utility of SHP in the future will be to provide predictable, non-intermittent peaking support for micro-grids and localised grids in remote, often hilly regions, ensuring regional energy security rather than influencing the national energy mix targets dominated by solar and wind.

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**An Ecocritical Reading of Kalidasa's *Abhijnana
Shakuntalam***

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Abstract: In Indian classical literature, the recognition of nature's sacredness and interconnectedness is deeply embedded in cultural philosophy. Kalidasa's *Abhijnana Shakuntalam*, translated by Chandra Rajan in *The Loom of Time* (1989), vividly captures this ecological wisdom. In this play, nature is not passive or ornamental—it is lively, emotional, and divine. The forest, the river, the trees, and even the tiniest living creature participate in the story's emotional flow, creating a poetic world where humans and non-humans coexist in profound harmony. Nature influences the characters' lives at every point in the play, and love, separation, and reunion are driven by its forces. The paper explores how Kalidasa's work can serve as a model for world literature in shifting from an anthropocentric to a nature-centric perspective, and how Kalidasa can be seen as a romantic poet with idealized views of nature, characterized by its beautiful, biologically diverse landscape.

Keywords: Ecocriticism, nature, culture, classical literature

Introduction:

Eco-criticism is one of the most significant and evolving approaches in contemporary literary studies. It seeks to understand how literature represents the relationship between human beings and the natural world, and how this relationship shapes one's ethical, emotional, and cultural lives. In simple terms, eco-criticism views nature not merely as a backdrop for human activity but as a vital character. The origins of Ecocritical theory can be traced back to William Rueckert, who coined the term 'ecocriticism' in 1978 in his essay "Literature and Ecology: An Experiment in Ecocriticism." Cheryl Glotfelty thereafter revived it in 1996, when she co-edited a book with Harold Fromm entitled *The Eco-Criticism Reader: Landmarks in Literary Ecology*. Back in 1992, Glotfelty had also founded the ASLE, the Association for the Study of Literature and Environment, and had its own journal, ISLE,

Interdisciplinary Studies in Literature and Environment. Glotfelty defines it as “the study of the relationship between literature and the physical environment. In Indian classical literature, this awareness of nature’s sacredness and interdependence is deeply rooted in cultural philosophy. Kalidasa’s *Abhijnana Shakuntalam*, translated by Chandra Rajan in *The Loom of Time* (1989), beautifully expresses this ecological wisdom. In this play, nature is not passive or decorative—it is vibrant, emotional, and divine. The forest, the river, the trees, and even the smallest living being participate in the story’s emotional rhythm, creating a poetic world where the human and non-human exist in profound harmony. Nature intervenes in the characters’ lives at every stage of the play, and love, separation, and reunion are brought about by its forces. The paper examines how Kalidasa’s work can serve as a model for world literature in transitioning from a human-centered to a nature-centered system, and how Kalidasa can be considered a romantic poet with romantic notions of nature, characterized by its beautiful, biologically diverse landscape.

Discussion:

Nature comes alive in the text, and the spectator and the reader can never escape the ravishing beauty of the dense forest with wild bucks, mango trees, jasmine flowers, birds, and brooks. The different seasons play a significant part in the play. The prologue praises summer as the season of love. The play begins in summer and ends in spring. Kalidasa describes the sensuous beauty of the forest and the seasons with meticulous care, taking the spectator directly into the enchanting wilderness. Kalidasa’s subtle portrayal of the invasion of culture into nature through the picturesque description of an antelope with its “haunches folded into its chest” and the “open mouth dropping half-chewed grass” on the path not only gives a visual image of the fast-running, terrified animal but also knowledge about the encroachment of King Dushyanta into the forest. The antelope stops at the side of Shakuntala only to get protection from Dushyanta. Though Dushyanta invades the forest as an outsider, he cannot be alienated from the story, for it is he who protects the sacred grove from the attack of the demons. The fact that the deer requires thick vegetation for its sustenance gives a picture of the dense forest. A look into Sage Kanva’s ashram reveals the beauty and uniqueness of nature. Kalidasa describes the forest path to the ashram as a

path strewn with “wild grain under the trees” where the “parrots nest in hollow trunks”. The stones on the path are “stained by the dark oil of crushed ingudi nuts,” and the deer that trust the human voices “do not break their gait”. It is only the presence of Dushyanta, who is a perfect stranger to the forest, that makes the deer run for its life. The natural environment remains undisturbed, with fallen grains and nuts lying untouched under the plants and trees. The deer continues its movement undeterred by the presence of humans. The reader can only marvel at the play’s unpolluted environment.

Nature as a Living Entity:

A key feature of *Abhijnana Shakuntalam* is Kalidasa’s deep respect for nature. His depiction of Sage Kanva’s hermitage creates a poetic image of ecological harmony, where trees, flowers, rivers, and animals coexist peacefully with the ascetics and their disciples. The forest exudes calmness and purity; even silence feels meaningful here. Shakuntala is often likened to a delicate jasmine flower, spreading her fragrance and caring for the plants and animals in the woods. Jasmine blooms mainly in spring and summer and is used to make garlands for deities and rituals. This highlights Shakuntala as the forest goddess—she is entrusted with Kanva’s ashram when he’s away, making her a god to be worshipped in his sacred space. Her close connection to nature enhances her ethereal beauty, with natural adornments like flowers and leaves, and her bark clothing adds to her charm. She seamlessly blends with her environment, sensing even the smallest movements, and the plants and trees seem to call her with their swaying branches. Growing up in this tranquil setting, Shakuntala embodies the true spirit of a child of nature. Her gentle, compassionate, and sensitive demeanor reflects her surroundings. She lovingly waters the plants and cares for her deer friends, prompting the forest to respond kindly in return. When she prepares to leave for her husband’s palace, Kanva’s deep emotion is evident— “Every plant she tended seems to droop in sorrow at her departure.” — Kalidasa, trans Chandra Rajan, p. 214 This scene is not just poetic; it highlights the profound emotional connection between humans and the natural world. Kalidasa’s vision foreshadows today’s understanding of the environment as a living being capable of emotion, response, and empathy.

The Hermitage as an Ecological Ideal:

The hermitage in Kalidasa's play functions as a perfect ecological model—a place where human life exists in complete balance with nature. The ascetics live simple lives guided by the principles of restraint, compassion, and harmony. They consume only what they need, avoiding all forms of excess and waste. Every action within this sacred space reflects respect for life in all its forms. This ideal world of the forest contrasts powerfully with the materialistic world of the royal court, where desires and ambitions dominate. Dushyanta, the king, represents a civilization that is gradually losing touch with its natural roots. The hermitage, by contrast, becomes a metaphor for the ecological and spiritual order that sustains the universe. Through this contrast, Kalidasa offers a subtle critique of human arrogance and materialism, reminding readers that civilization, if separated from its natural context, loses its moral and spiritual foundation. The forest thus becomes not just a setting but a moral teacher, urging humanity to rediscover humility and balance.

Shakuntala as the Spirit of Nature:

Shakuntala stands as one of the most beautiful and symbolic figures in Indian literature. Through her, Kalidasa gives form to nature as feminine and spiritual. She symbolizes purity, tenderness, and fertility—the nurturing qualities that sustain life. Her character is deeply connected to her natural environment; she blends in so seamlessly with the forest that she appears to be a part of it. Her love for Dushyanta, an outsider, signifies the union between nature and civilization. Nevertheless, her curse and separation highlight a more profound ecological message: when humans forget or neglect their bond with nature, harmony breaks down. Dushyanta's forgetfulness mirrors the modern human condition—being disconnected from the environment, blinded by ego and ambition. Shakuntala's suffering thus becomes a symbol of the pain inflicted on nature when it is ignored or abandoned. Recovery occurs when Dushyanta remembers her—and, by extension, reconnects with nature—restoring order and happiness. This renewal suggests that reuniting with nature is also a moral and emotional rebirth for humanity.

The Sacredness of Nature in Indian Thought:

Kalidasa's vision of the environment is deeply informed by ancient Indian philosophy, which perceives the world as an interconnected web of

life. In Vedic and Upanishadic thought, nature is considered divine—rivers are revered as goddesses, mountains are regarded as sacred, and trees are viewed as living spirits. This belief that all elements of the universe are filled with prana, or life force, is beautifully reflected throughout *Abhijnana Shakuntalam*. The forest is described as “adorned with new blossoms and humming bees,” a space filled with the music of life. Every part of this setting is active and aware. The ascetics perform rituals that honor trees and animals, acknowledging their role in maintaining the balance of the cosmos. This is what eco-critics today refer to as a biocentric or eco-spiritual worldview—one that does not place humans above other creatures but views them as equal participants in the sacred dance of life. Kalidasa’s poetic imagination transforms this belief into art, making *Abhijnana Shakuntalam* a timeless celebration of ecological unity.

The Symbolism of Seasons and Flora:

One of the most delicate and artistic features of Kalidasa’s writing is his use of nature’s cycles to reflect human emotions. In *AbhijnanaShakuntalam*, the passing of seasons mirrors the transformation in Shakuntala’s life. The springtime of the play’s beginning, filled with blossoms, bees, and birds, corresponds to the freshness of her love. Later, when separation and sorrow enter her life, the natural imagery darkens—the forest seems subdued, the flowers lose their glow, and the breeze carries a note of melancholy. The poet describes how “The forest seemed to share her sorrow; even the vines she loved had lost their luster.” — Kalidasa, trans Chandra Rajan, p.213.

Through such symbolism, Kalidasa gives the environment an emotional consciousness. Plants and seasons do not merely exist—they communicate, grieve, and rejoice. This close identification of the human and the natural world highlights Kalidasa’s deep ecological sensitivity and his understanding that the rhythms of nature and the rhythms of the heart are intertwined.

Human Emotion Mirrored in Nature:

Throughout the play, nature serves as an emotional mirror, reflecting and intensifying human feelings. When Shakuntala pines for Dushyanta, the rustling leaves and the birds’ songs echo her loneliness, as if the entire forest mourns with her. Kalidasa’s imagery fuses the outer landscape with the inner

landscape of the heart. Even silence in the play is expressive—the quiet of the hermitage, the stillness of the river, or the hush of twilight all correspond to emotional states of longing, reflection, and devotion. By giving nature a shared emotional capacity, Kalidasa breaks down the barrier between human and non-human life. Interconnected emotional universe anticipates what modern eco-critics call ecological empathy—a recognition that one’s feelings and actions ripple through the entire web of life. In this sense, *Abhijnana Shakuntalam* is not only a play about love and destiny but also about emotional coexistence between humans and the natural world.

Eco-Spiritual Restoration:

The conclusion of *Abhijnana Shakuntalam* offers a profound message of spiritual and ecological healing. When Dushyanta finally regains his memory and reunites with Shakuntala in the celestial grove, the play’s atmosphere shifts from one of loss to one of renewal. This reunion symbolizes the restoration of harmony between humanity and the natural world. Dushyanta’s rediscovery of Shakuntala also represents his rediscovery of conscience, humility, and connectedness. The image of their son playing fearlessly with wild creatures captures the innocence and balance that characterize a life in tune with nature. Dushyanta exclaims, “This boy is the true son of the forest!” — Kalidasa, trans. Chandra Rajan, p. 198

—a line that beautifully expresses his awakening to the natural bond he had once forgotten. Kalidasa closes the play with a sense of peace and completeness, reminding us that love, morality, and ecology are all aspects of the same universal order. When one is restored, so too are the others.

Conclusion:

Kalidasa’s *Abhijnana Shakuntalam* remains one of the most ecologically sensitive works in the entire tradition of world literature. Through its graceful blending of romance, spirituality, and environmental consciousness, the play offers a timeless reflection on the human relationship with nature. Kalidasa does not preach ecological values—he embodies them poetically. His forest is alive with emotion, his characters are bound to the elements, and his moral vision sees no separation between the spiritual and the ecological. In an age when the natural world faces crisis and exploitation, Kalidasa’s work continues to speak with quiet urgency. It reminds us that our

identity as human beings is inseparable from the environment that sustains us. To forget nature, as Dushyanta once did, is to lose a part of our own soul. And to remember it, as he finally does, is to rediscover harmony, compassion, and peace. In this way, *Abhijnana Shakuntalam* is not only a classical drama of love and fate but also a prophetic text of ecological wisdom, as relevant today as it was more than two thousand years ago.

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Microplastic Contamination in Agricultural Soils: Sources, Ecological Impacts, and Implications for Plant and Human Health

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Abstract

Plastic pollution which was primarily associated with oceans, is now a growing concern to the agricultural soils. The global plastic production of microplastics is about 516 million which is expected to exceed 1.2 billion tons by 2060 which will lead to pervasive microplastic (MP) accumulation in farmlands (UNEP, 2025). Microplastics is defined as synthetic particles between the range of 1 μ m to 5 mm in size, which originate from both primary and secondary sources. Primary sources are those which are intentionally manufactured, and secondary sources are derived from the fragmentation of larger plastics. Agricultural soils receive microplastics through fertilizers, plastic mulch, atmospheric deposition, sludge application, surface runoff, and landfill leachate. For example, plastic mulch uses in China contributed over 1.5 million tons of plastic annually, of which over 40% was not recycled (Hoang *et al.*, 2024). Microplastics alter key soil features and affect plant growth, reducing yields and hampering crop productivity. It also reduces food quality, which ultimately affects human health and metabolism via food chain. Policy recommendations for measures to reduce microplastic pollution encompass short-term measures like bans or taxes, mid-term measures like enforcing Extended Producer Responsibility, and long-term transitions to bio-based plastics (Prata *et al.*, 2019). In conclusion, microplastics in agriculture create multifaceted challenges to soil health, food safety, and environmental resilience. An urgent, holistic, and interdisciplinary effort is needed to transition towards sustainable soil management and effective Microplastic pollution governance.

Keywords: Human health, Plant yield, Microplastic

Introduction

Plastics have revolutionized modern life but at a great ecological cost. The plastic production has reached 516 million tons this year (UNEP, 2025),

and it is forecasted to exceed 1.2 billion tons by 2060(Le *et al.*, 2024). The persistent nature of plastic, its widespread distribution, and its detrimental impact on ecosystems signifies the urgency of addressing this issue. While ocean plastic pollution has always stolen the spotlight, soils are quietly becoming the largest plastic pollution sinks(Okeke *et al.*, 2022). Agricultural soils receive plastic from various sources including plastic mulching films, polyethylene irrigation pipes, greenhouse coverings, wastewater reuse, biosolids, and plastic-coated fertilizers (Hoang *et al.*,2024). Around 11 million tons enter aquatic ecosystems every year, and about 13 million tons are accumulating annually in soils(Ky *et al.*, 2023). Through natural breakdown like sunlight and mechanical stress, plastics form microplasticswhich are pervasive across all environments. Microplastics block root pores, impair nutrient uptake, and reduce crop yields. Recycling is not solving this. Only 9% of plastic is recycled, and most is not even economically viable (UNEP, 2025).A global shift to a circular economy is essential—not just for oceans, but for soils, food security, and public health.

Definition and Classification of Microplastics

Microplastics are defined as synthetic solid particles or polymeric matrices ranging in size from 1 micrometer (im) to 5 millimeters (mm). These particles may have regular or irregular shapes and originate from either primary sources (manufactured at small size) or secondary sources (fragmented from larger plastics). Importantly, microplastics are insoluble in water and persist in the environment due to their resistance to degradation.(Frias & Nash, 2018).

Microplastics are classified into two main types based on how they are formed.

Primary microplastics are those that are intentionally manufactured in small sizes. These are often added to personal care products like face scrubs or toothpaste, used in industrial processes, or come from synthetic fibers in clothes. They enter the environment directly in their micro-sized form.(Jing *et al.*,2024)

On the other hand, **secondary microplastics** come from the breakdown of larger plastic waste — like bottles, bags, or packaging — when they are exposed to sunlight, wind, and water over time. These fragments are found both in oceans and in soil.(Jing *et al.*,2024)

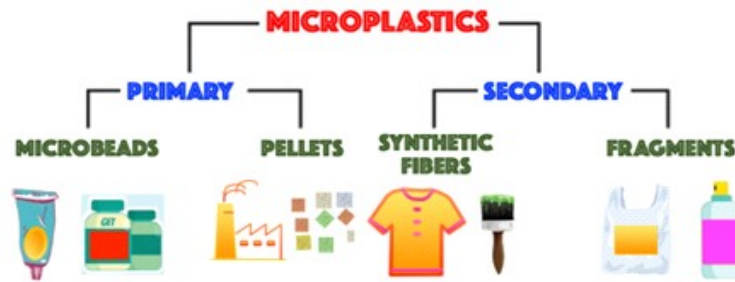


Figure 1: Types of microplastics, Source: Milan Polymer Days (n.d.).

Sources of Microplastics in Agricultural soils

Microplastics enter farmland through a variety of direct and indirect pathways, many of which are linked to modern agricultural practices. These include the use of plastic materials for crop production, contaminated inputs like compost and sludge, and atmospheric deposition. Unlike aquatic systems where plastics may drift or degrade more quickly, in soils, these particles accumulate and persist for years, posing long-term risks to soil health and crop productivity.

1. Use of Agricultural Plastic Films and Microplastic Contamination in Soils: Plastic films are widely used in modern agriculture, particularly for mulching, greenhouse covers, and irrigation. In 2018, over 425 million tons of plastic products were produced globally, with 30% originating from China. However, less than 60% of agricultural plastic films are recovered after use, and the residual plastic becomes a significant source of microplastic pollution in soils. Several studies confirm that soils under plastic film mulch contain significantly higher concentrations of microplastics compared to uncovered soils. The duration of film use influences contamination levels. Given the global variability and increasing accumulation, there is an urgent need to develop a comprehensive database of agricultural film usage and related microplastic contamination, which will serve as a critical foundation for future risk assessments (Hoang *et al.*, 2024).

2. Fertilizers as a Source of Microplastics in Soils: Organic fertilizers, commonly produced by composting animal and plant waste, are widely promoted as environmentally friendly soil amendments. However, recent studies have shown that these fertilizers can be significant carriers of

5. Atmospheric deposition: Microplastic debris can also be transported through the air, and wind patterns significantly influence their distribution. Indoor environments tend to have higher microplastic concentrations-ranging from 1.00 to 60.0 particles per cubic meter, compared to outdoor air, where levels are generally lower. In urban areas, microplastics are found in atmospheric fallout, with concentrations reaching hundreds of particles per square meter per day. Microplastics can travel long distances through the atmosphere up to 95 km in just five months and have even been found in remote areas such as Arctic ice and snow. This highlights atmospheric deposition as a major source of soil microplastics. However, research in this area is still in its early stages and mainly focused on detection. Two main challenges hinder the study of atmospheric microplastics: first, the high variability of environmental conditions makes detection uncertain; second, other airborne particles like carbon-based or silica-containing pollutants can interfere with microplastic identification. (Fan *et al.*, 2023)

6. Landfill leachate: Another major source of microplastics in soil is untreated landfill sites. When plastic waste remains in the soil for long periods, it undergoes weathering and breaks down into microplastics. During this process, harmful additives such as phthalates can be released into the environment. In various landfill sites, especially in urban areas, landfill leachate has been found to contain microplastic concentrations ranging from less than 1 to over 20 particles per liter. Common types of plastics found include polypropylene (PP) and polyethylene (PE). Landfills are complex environments with high concentrations of organic matter, making it difficult for conventional treatment methods to fully remove pollutants. To minimize soil contamination from landfill leachate, it is essential to improve landfill management practices and prevent leachate from leaking into the surrounding environment (Fan *et al.*, 2023).

Effects of Microplastics on plant growth and human beings:

With microplastics entering agricultural soils through various sources such as sludge application, wastewater irrigation, atmospheric deposition, and polymer-coated fertilizers, their presence is no longer uncommon in farming systems. Once in the soil, microplastics interact with its physical structure, chemical composition, and biological communities, leading to harmful plant growth and ultimately affecting human health

Decreased Crop Growth and Yield: Due to impaired nutrient cycling, water retention, and root development, microplastic-contaminated soils often show reduced vegetative growth and lower crop yields.

Triggered Oxidative Stress in Plants: Microplastics can cause the buildup of reactive oxygen species (ROS) in plants, leading to oxidative damage, cellular stress, and weakened physiological responses.

Act as Vectors for Pollutants: Microplastics can adsorb and transport heavy metals, pesticides, and other harmful chemicals. These pollutants may be taken up by plant roots, increasing the risk of contamination in edible plant parts.

Health and Food Safety Risks: The accumulation of microplastics and associated toxins in crops poses potential risks to human and animal health through the food chain, raising concerns over long-term food safety.(Hoang *et al.*,2024)

POLYMERS	CROP	POTENTIAL EFFECTS	REMARKS	REFERENCES
Microplastics	<i>Lactuca sativa</i> L.(Lettuce)	High microplastic levels	Microplastic contamination of vegetables	(Canha <i>et al.</i> , 2023)
Polypropylene	<i>Solanum lycopersicum</i> (Tomato)	Impacts on nutrient uptake Affected root & shoot elongation	Decreased the translocation of macronutrients from root to shoot	(Shorobiet <i>al.</i> , 2023)
Polystyrene, Polyvinyl chloride	<i>Oryza sativa</i> (Rice)	Effects on growth & metabolism Oxidative stress and reduced photosynthetic rate	Needed strategies to reduce impacts Can influence food safety	(Ma <i>et al.</i> , 2022)
Plastic film residues	<i>Gossypium</i> (Cotton)	Affects the root system	Decreased cotton production	(Hegan <i>et al.</i> , 2015)
Polyethylene microplastic residue	<i>Triticum aestivum</i> (Wheat)	Affects reproductive and vegetative stage	Decreased production	(Qi <i>et al.</i> , 2018)
Microplastic residue	<i>Cucurbita pepo</i> (Zucchini, pumpkin etc.)	Reduction in leaf lamina & photosynthesis	Potential yield loss Risk of MPs entering food chain	(Colziet <i>al.</i> , 2022)

Table: Effect of microplastics on plant growth and development, source: Hoang *et al.*,2024

Human Health Risks and Food Chain Implications

Microplastics in agricultural soils do not just affect the environment—they pose a direct threat to human health through multiple exposure pathways:

Detected in Human Organs and Blood Vessels: Recent studies have confirmed the presence of microplastic particles in human lungs, bloodstream, and even vital organs, indicating systemic exposure.

Carriers of Toxic Chemicals: Microplastics can adsorb and transport hazardous substances such as bisphenol A (BPA), phthalates, heavy metals, and other endocrine-disrupting or carcinogenic compounds.

Disruption of Metabolism and Physiology: Microplastics can enter the human body through ingestion (via contaminated food or water), inhalation (airborne particles), and even placental transfer, affecting internal metabolic and hormonal processes.

Cardiovascular and Reproductive Risks: Microplastic exposure has been linked to inflammation, oxidative stress, hormonal imbalance, and reproductive toxicity—raising serious concerns for long-term health outcomes.

Trophic Transfer Through the Food Chain: Microplastics taken up by crops or accumulated in livestock tissues can transfer up the food chain, ultimately reaching human consumers.

Intergenerational Health Concerns: The detection of microplastics in human placenta suggests a risk of exposure to developing foetuses, with potential implications for foetal development, growth, and future health.(Hoang *et al.* ,2024)

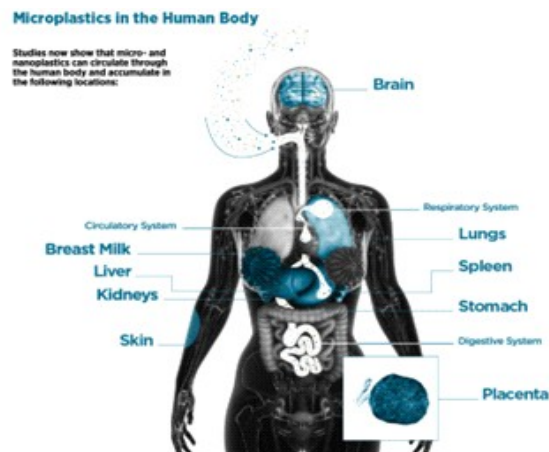


Figure 3: Microplastics in human body, **Source:** Center for International Environmental Law (CIEL, 2023).

Recommendations to reduce microplastics:

To effectively tackle plastic and microplastic pollution, we need a multi-phase strategy — starting from immediate actions to long-term structural changes.

1. Short-Term Recommendations:

- In the short term, governments can introduce regulations like bans or taxes on environmentally harmful plastic products — especially where safer alternatives exist.
- Efforts should also go into eliminating unnecessary packaging, like double-packaged products, and replacing them with eco-friendly options.
- Public awareness campaigns and better labelling can help consumers make informed choices. To shift industry behavior, incentives should be provided for using recycled plastics, and virgin plastic should face stricter penalties.(Prata *et al.*, 2019)

2. Mid-Term Recommendations:

- Over the medium term, we must change how we handle waste. Systems like “pay-as-you-throw” can encourage people to reduce waste.
- Alongside this, recycling should be prioritized, followed by feedstock recovery and waste-to-energy options.
- Landfills should be the last resort. Producers should also be made responsible through EPR (Extended Producer Responsibility), ensuring they manage the waste their products create.(Prata *et al.*, 2019)

3. Long-Term Recommendations:

- Long-term solutions involve transitioning to renewable energy sources for waste management.
- Products should be designed using Life Cycle Assessment (LCA) to ensure they can be reused, repaired, or recycled.
- We should also shift to bio-based plastics to reduce reliance on fossil fuels. However, we must avoid degradable plastics that break down into harmful microplastics.
- Biodegradable plastics should be used only where composting infrastructure is available (e.g., in agriculture).

- Lastly, e-waste recycling must be improved, and until then, waste-to-energy can be a transitional solution. (Prata *et al.*, 2019)

Future needs:

- **Understanding Multi-Pollutant Effects:** Microplastics often co-exist with fertilizers and pesticides. These interactions can either worsen toxicity or reduce pesticide effectiveness. New studies must explore these combined effects using system modeling.
- **Protecting Soil Health & Nutrient Cycling:** Microplastics may disrupt soil porosity, water holding, and nutrient mobility, especially for carbon and nitrogen. Integrative models linking Microplastics to microbial and biogeochemical processes are needed.
- **Ensuring Food Safety & Crop Resilience:** Microplastics can accumulate in crop tissues, especially leafy vegetables. They are hard to remove and may lower chlorophyll and nutrient uptake. We need threshold limits and crop screening to ensure food safety.
- **Global Change & System-Level Impacts:** Microplastics spread through air, water, and soil—crossing ecosystems. They can reduce pollinator and decomposer function and affect climate feedbacks. We need Microplastic tracking across media and climate resilience studies.
- **Strengthening Policy & Governance:** The UN and EU are recognizing Microplastic threats, but there are still no specific standards for agriculture. Future policies must regulate plastic use across the life cycle and include Microplastics in food risk systems. (Chen *et al.*, 2025)

Conclusion:

As we conclude, microplastics have silently become a persistent threat in our agricultural soils. These tiny particles may be invisible to the naked eye, but their impact is far-reaching and long-lasting.

They alter soil structure, disrupt microbial balance, and influence plant health and nutrient uptake—ultimately affecting the quality of the food we grow. More alarmingly, there is a potential risk to human health, as these particles move through the soil–plant–animal–human continuum.

Yet, when we look at the current efforts to manage microplastics, the response is scattered and reactive. There is no unified framework or coordinated policy in place, and what exists often fails to address the scale of the problem.

What we truly need is a holistic, interdisciplinary approach—one that combines innovative research, sustainable farming practices, and strong policy support. Only through such integration of science, technology, and governance, can we safeguard our soils, our food systems, and our future from the silent spread of microplastics.

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