

Global Green Energy Paradigm: Economics, Institutions, and Sustainable Futures

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Abstract

This paper provides a rigorous synthesis of the global green energy transition, evaluating its definitional boundaries, macroeconomic imperatives, institutional drivers, structural deployment barriers, and overarching alignment with the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). "Green energy" is demarcated as an environmentally strict subset of renewable energy, comprising zero-emission resources—such as solar photovoltaic, wind, geothermal, run-of-river hydro, ocean kinetic energy, and green hydrogen—that generate minimal life-cycle greenhouse gas emissions ($<20\text{gCO}_2\text{e/kWh}$) without compromising ecological sinks. In other words, when total lifetime GHG emissions are divided by the total electricity (in kilowatt-hours, kWh) generated over a 25-to-30-year operational lifespan, the resulting metric is expressed in grams of carbon dioxide equivalent per kilowatt-hour ($\text{gCO}_2\text{e/kWh}$). The study establishes dimensions of green energy importance, framing it as an essential vector for global decarbonization, air quality restoration, macroeconomic inflation stabilisation, and climate resilience. Industrially, green energy drives structural decoupling of economic growth from carbon intensity while offering levelized cost of electricity (LCOE) advantages over fossil fuels across 85.0 per cent of world markets. Comparative examination of country-level pathways reveals distinct regional strategies: China dominates global manufacturing supply chains and desert megabase deployment; the United States leverages supply-side tax incentives under the Inflation Reduction Act; and the European Union accelerates regulatory decarbonization through REPowerEU. In parallel, India has emerged as a global leader, exceeding 300 GW of installed non-fossil fuel power capacity—representing over 54.0 per cent of its electricity matrix—and rapidly scaling decentralised initiatives such as PM-Surya Ghar, PM-KUSUM, and the National Green Hydrogen Mission. Globally, clean energy capital formation reached 1.8 trillion USD annually, outpacing fossil fuel investments by nearly 1.8 to 1. Despite rapid capital inflows, global adoption encounters critical structural barriers, including acute grid interconnection queues ($\sim 2,500$ GW backlogged), severe Weighted Average Cost of Capital (WACC) disparities between advanced and developing economies, critical mineral supply chain concentration, permitting delays, and persistent legacy fossil fuel subsidies. The paper examines the institutional mechanics and policy frameworks of key global governance actors—including India's Ministry of New and Renewable Energy (MNRE), IRENA, the World Bank, ADB, IMF, IEA, WEC, and the US Department of Energy—in mitigating market risks and deploying capital guarantees. Finally, the analysis demonstrates how green energy functions as a foundational enabler across the UN 2030 Agenda, directly advancing SDG 7 (Affordable and Clean Energy) and SDG 13 (Climate Action), while indirectly driving progress in public health (SDG 3), water conservation (SDG 6), industrial innovation (SDG 9), and responsible resource consumption (SDG 12).

Keywords: Green Energy Transition, Decarbonization Pathways, Clean Energy Capital Formation, Energy Governance, Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)

1.0 Introduction

The global energy matrix is undergoing a structural, irreversible transformation driven by the imperatives of climate stabilisation, energy sovereignty, and fundamental economic competitiveness. For over two centuries, industrialised economies relied on finite fossil carbon deposits—coal, petroleum, and natural gas—which fueled macroeconomic growth but systematically altered Earth's climate dynamics and degraded biophysical sinks. In response to mounting ecological pressures, extreme climate volatility, and severe localised air pollution, the concept of "green energy" has evolved from a peripheral environmental alternative into a core engine of global industrial policy and macroeconomic strategy. Green energy represents a precise, environmentally strict subset of the broader renewable energy spectrum. While traditional renewables encompass all continuously replenished natural flows, green energy exclusively isolates zero-emission pathways—such as utility-scale solar photovoltaics, onshore and offshore wind, run-of-river hydro, deep geothermal systems, and green hydrogen. These technologies operate within strict biophysical limits, exhibiting life-cycle greenhouse gas emissions below $20\text{gCO}_2\text{e/kWh}$ without driving deforestation, aquatic ecosystem collapse, or heavy methane off-gassing (IPCC, 2018; UNEP, 2024). Understanding green energy requires examining its foundational thermodynamic, ecological, socio-economic, and legal taxonomies (Ellabban et al. 2014; Sorensen, 2017). The urgency of this transition is underpinned by record-breaking market deployments (BloombergNEF, 2025). In recent years, clean energy investments reached an unprecedented 1.8 trillion USD annually, outpacing fossil fuel capital expenditure by nearly 1.8 to 1 (IEA, 2025; REN21, 2026).

In the electricity sector alone, non-fossil sources accounted for more than 90.0 per cent of all net global capacity additions, with total installed solar PV crossing 2 TW globally and annual capacity deployment shattering historical records (**IRENA, 2025**). Leading the global charge, China continues to install vast renewable megabases, while the European Union leverages REPowerEU and the United States deploys supply-side tax incentives under the Inflation Reduction Act (**US DoE, 2023**). Concurrently, developing nations such as India have emerged as major transition pillars; India's non-fossil installed capacity has crossed 300 GW—representing over 54.0 per cent of its total power grid mix—supported by landmark policy frameworks like the PM-Surya Ghar rooftop solar scheme, PM-KUSUM agricultural solarisation, and the National Green Hydrogen Mission (**MNRE, 2026; PIB, 2026**). However, the rapid acceleration of green energy encounters severe structural barriers (**Chriss et al. 2024**). Systemic grid interconnection queues (~2,500 GW stalled globally), high Weighted Average Cost of Capital (WACC) in emerging markets, supply chain concentration in critical minerals, permitting delays, and persistent fossil fuel subsidies continue to throttle market execution (**IMF, 2025; World Bank, 2024**). Overcoming these bottlenecks requires coordinated interventions from multilateral institutions, including the International Renewable Energy Agency (**IRENA, 2024**), the World Bank (**World Bank, 2025**), the Asian Development Bank (**ADB, 2025**), the International Energy Agency (**IEA, 2023**), and domestic policy bodies like India's Ministry of New and Renewable Energy (**MNRE, 2025**). Ultimately, green energy operates as the critical nexus across the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), directly anchoring SDG 7 (Affordable and Clean Energy) and SDG 13 (Climate Action), while fostering public health (**WHO, 2023**), water security (**UN-Water, 2023**), and economic resilience (**UN, 2025**).

1.1 Taxonomy and Definitions of Green Energy

"Green energy" refers to energy generated from zero-emission, naturally replenished, and ecologically neutral resources that produce minimal or no carbon dioxide (CO₂), greenhouse gases (GHGs), or environmental degradation across their lifecycle (**Jacobson, 2020**). While often used interchangeably with "renewable energy," green energy is a strict subset. All green energy is renewable, but not all renewable energy is green (e.g., large-scale hydro dams with high methane emissions or unmitigated biomass combustion) (**Owusu and Asumadu-Sarkodie, 2016**). **UNEP (2024)** defines green energy as any form of energy generated from naturally occurring, perpetually replenished flows that operate within strict biophysical limits, resulting in near-zero life-cycle greenhouse gas emissions and negligible atmospheric pollution. **Sorensen (2017)** opines that green energy is fundamentally a thermodynamic framework wherein societal power needs are met by tapping continuously available ambient flows—such as solar irradiance, planetary rotation, and subsurface geothermal heat—without exhausting closed-system planetary carbon sinks. **EC (2022)** states that green energy functions as a key classification within sustainable finance frameworks, denoting high-capital, zero-direct-emission power assets that make a verified, substantial contribution to global climate change mitigation. **IPCC (2018)** demonstrates that green energy is strictly delineated by quantitative life-cycle assessment metrics, comprising only generation technologies whose cradle-to-grave global warming potential falls below 20g CO₂e/kWh. **IEA (2023)** reports that green energy encompasses a specific suite of non-fossil technological conversions—including solar photovoltaics, onshore and offshore wind turbines, run-of-river hydro, and deep geothermal systems—that transform non-polluting kinetic, radiant, or thermal energy into electricity and heat. **Costanza et al. (2014)** observe that green energy is defined as an ecological production pathway engineered to deliver continuous power utility while fully preserving natural capital and preventing the irreversible degradation of planetary ecosystem services. **The US DoE (2023)** specifies that green energy constitutes any electricity generation resource that qualifies for clean energy tax credits, feed-in tariffs, or renewable portfolio standard mandates due to its zero-carbon profile. **IRENA (2024)** affirms that green energy represents the non-fossil primary energy matrix capable of displacing carbon-intensive combustion across electricity, building heat, transport, and heavy manufacturing to align global economic pathways with the 1.5^o C target. **Gielen et al. (2019)** note that green energy constitutes grid-connected, zero-emission generation assets that inject clean electrons into power distribution networks, increasingly coupled with energy storage systems to maintain continuous frequency and voltage control. **WHO (2023)** emphasises that green energy is defined from a public health perspective as zero-combustion power generation that eliminates localised fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}), nitrogen oxides (NO_x), and sulfur dioxide (SO₂), directly preventing pollution-induced illness. **The WEC (2024)** maintains that green energy operates as a strategic mechanism for national sovereignty, utilising domestically harvested, inexhaustible resources to insulate national economies from international fossil fuel price shocks and geopolitical supply chain disruptions. **Green (2019)** explains that solar energy constitutes the direct conversion of solar photons into usable electrical current via the photovoltaic effect or through concentrated solar thermal reflection. **Apergis and Danuletiu (2014)** analyse wind energy as the conversion of atmospheric pressure gradients into mechanical kinetic energy using rotating turbine blades to drive utility-scale generators. **Lund and Toth (2021)** detail geothermal energy as the thermal energy harvested directly from sub-surface geological structures fed by radioactive decay and primordial planetary heat. **Bunn and Arthington (2002)** clarify that run-of-river small hydro represents a low-impact hydroelectric pathway that captures the kinetic force of natural river flows without relying on large-scale reservoirs that disrupt river ecosystems or flood surrounding land. **Pelc and Fujii (2002)** outline ocean energy as clean power systems engineered to harness marine physical dynamics, including tidal currents, open-ocean wave oscillations, and marine thermal gradients. **Creutzig et al. (2015)** present advanced bioenergy as drop-in gaseous or liquid fuels synthesised exclusively from non-food lignocellulosic residues and organic wastes within a carbon-neutral biological cycle. **IEA (2024)** elaborates that green hydrogen represents pure hydrogen gas (H₂) produced through the electrolysis of water powered entirely by zero-emission green electricity, yielding zero carbon emissions during generation. **Ueckerdt et al. (2021)** postulate that synthetic e-fuels are carbon-neutral drop-in hydrocarbons synthesised by combining atmospherically captured CO₂ with green hydrogen via catalytic processes. **REN21 (2025)** indicates that clean thermal energy refers to zero-emission heat supplied through solar thermal collectors, deep geothermal heat pumps, or industrial heat recovery powered by green electricity. **Aklin et al. (2018)** establish that distributed green energy represents decentralised power generation—such as rooftop solar arrays and localised microgrids—that produces clean electricity directly at

the point of consumption. **Bhattarai et al. (2019)** conclude that grid-forming green storage represents renewable generation assets integrated with advanced battery storage and smart inverters, capable of providing synthetic inertia and grid stabilisation services. **Heptonstall et al. (2012)** conceptualise offshore marine energy as high-density wind, wave, and floating solar installations situated in offshore aquatic environments to capture stronger, more consistent natural energy flows. **Down to Earth (2025)** underscores that circular energy systems represent a closed-loop generation framework designed for full material recyclability, minimal mineral footprints, and net-zero ecological impact throughout their deployment life cycle.

1.2 Dimensions of Green Energy Importance

Anthropogenic Climate Change Mitigation: Green energy generation directly displaces fossil fuel combustion, serving as the single most powerful mechanism to prevent dangerous global warming beyond the 1.5°C threshold set by the Paris Agreement. Power generation historically contributed over 40.0 per cent of global energy-related carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions, producing upwards of 14 gigatonnes (Gt) of CO₂ annually. By substituting coal, heavy oil, and natural gas with zero-emission solar photovoltaics, wind turbines, and run-of-river hydro, life-cycle greenhouse gas emissions drop dramatically from approximately 820 g CO₂ e/kWh for conventional coal to under 12 g CO₂ e/kWh for utility-scale solar and wind assets (**IPCC, 2018**). Empirical modelling indicates that accelerating green energy deployment to supply 85.0 per cent of global electricity by 2030 would eliminate nearly 10Gt of annual CO₂ emissions, preventing cumulative emissions from exceeding the remaining global carbon budget. Furthermore, decarbonising the power grid establishes the essential foundation for decarbonising adjacent sectors through heat pumps, electric transport, and green hydrogen production (**IRENA, 2024**). Without this rapid structural shift, global mean temperatures are projected to rise by 2.7°C by 2100, accelerating severe climate impacts including catastrophic sea-level rise and extreme weather events (**UNEP, 2024**).

Abatement of Local Air Pollution and Atmospheric Toxins: Beyond carbon mitigation, green energy eliminates the direct emission of hazardous atmospheric pollutants generated during fossil fuel combustion, including ambient fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀), sulfur dioxide (SO₂), nitrogen oxides (NO_x), and toxic heavy metals such as mercury. Global atmospheric modelling reveals that outdoor air pollution originating from fossil combustion causes approximately 7 million premature deaths every year, incurring trillions of dollars in healthcare liabilities and lost economic productivity (**WHO, 2023**). Utility-scale solar PV, wind, and geothermal power emit zero criteria air pollutants during operation. Empirical evidence demonstrates that replacing coal-fired thermal plants with renewable capacity yields immediate, measurable improvements in local air quality metrics. In regions undergoing aggressive coal plant phase-outs, ambient PM_{2.5} concentrations have dropped by 30.0 per cent to 50.0 per cent, leading to statistically significant reductions in pediatric asthma emergencies, adult cardiovascular events, and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (**Down to Earth, 2025**). By shifting from thermal combustion to clean electron generation, societies eliminate the heavy public health burden imposed by industrial smog and toxic atmospheric deposition, yielding net co-benefits that frequently exceed the initial capital expenditure of renewable energy installation.

Levelized Cost of Electricity (LCOE) Parity and Deflationary Economics: Green energy has crossed a crucial tipping point, transitioning from a subsidised policy preference into the world's cheapest source of new bulk electricity generation. Over the past decade, technological learning rates, economies of scale in manufacturing, and aggressive project development have driven down the levelized cost of electricity (LCOE) for utility-scale solar PV by over 85.0 per cent and onshore wind by more than 68.0 per cent (**BloombergNEF, 2025**). Today, building new utility-scale solar or onshore wind generation is significantly cheaper than constructing new coal or natural gas facilities in over 85.0 per cent of global power markets. In fact, in major economies like India, China, and parts of the United States, running existing coal plants is now more expensive than building brand-new solar arrays from scratch (**IEA, 2025**). Unlike fossil fuel generation, which carries permanent operational marginal costs subject to volatile fuel markets, green energy features zero fuel costs and minimal operation and maintenance costs. This structural property imparts a strong deflationary force on wholesale power prices, lowering systemic energy costs for industrial consumers, commercial businesses, and residential households while protecting broader economic indices from energy-driven inflationary spikes (**Zhao et al. 2023**). **Enhanced Geopolitical Energy Security and Autarky.** The transition to green energy fundamentally restructures global energy geopolitics by converting finite, geographically concentrated energy resources into ubiquitous, domestically harvested flows. Fossil fuel dependence exposes net-importing nations to severe geopolitical leverage, supply chain blockades, maritime chokepoint vulnerabilities, and artificial supply manipulation by export cartels. The economic shocks triggered by international natural gas and crude oil supply disruptions highlighted the severe economic vulnerabilities inherent in fossil fuel import reliance (**IEA, 2024**). Green energy assets—such as solar panels, wind farms, and geothermal facilities—utilise free, locally available natural inputs like sunlight, atmospheric wind pressure, and terrestrial heat. Once the capital equipment is manufactured and deployed within national borders, the fuel cannot be embargoed, intercepted, or subjected to foreign price shocks. Empirical assessments by the WEC demonstrate that nations expanding their domestic green power capacity achieve higher structural energy independence ratings, stabilised trade balances, and improved national security postures. By shifting from imported fuel commodities to domestically generated clean power, sovereign states secure their energy supply while neutralising energy weaponisation tactics (**WEC, 2024**).

High-Density Job Creation and Human Capital Development: Investing in green energy infrastructure yields substantially higher employment elasticity per dollar spent compared to legacy fossil fuel sectors. Empirical labour market studies indicate that renewable energy development, manufacturing, construction, and operation generate approximately three times as many direct, indirect, and induced jobs per million dollars of capital investment than equivalent fossil fuel projects (**IRENA, 2024**). Global clean energy

employment has crossed 14 million direct and indirect jobs worldwide, with solar PV representing the single largest employer within the renewable portfolio. The labour-intensive nature of solar panel installation, wind turbine erection, electrical grid integration, and distributed system maintenance creates diverse employment opportunities spanning specialised engineering, technical trades, project management, and regional manufacturing (**US DoE, 2025**). Furthermore, green energy deployment fosters economic rejuvenation in former industrial and fossil fuel extraction regions through strategic workforce retraining initiatives. By building robust domestic supply chains for wind components, solar wafers, smart inverters, and battery storage modules, nations build long-term human capital, expand regional tax bases, and foster high-wage employment opportunities that support inclusive macroeconomic growth.

Protection of Aquatic Ecosystems and Water Resource Conservation: Thermal fossil fuel power plants and nuclear facilities require massive quantities of fresh water for cooling, posing severe risks to global water security and aquatic biodiversity. Conventional thermal power generation accounts for over 35.0 per cent of total fresh water withdrawals in many developed nations, placing heavy stress on regional watersheds during seasonal droughts. Thermoelectric cooling systems draw millions of gallons of river, lake, or estuarine water, causing widespread aquatic mortality through thermal pollution, impingement, and entrainment of aquatic organisms (**UN-Water, 2023**). In stark contrast, primary green energy technologies—specifically solar photovoltaics and wind power—operate with near-zero operational water requirements. Transitioning from thermal coal and natural gas plants to solar PV and wind generation saves billions of cubic meters of fresh water annually, freeing critical water reserves for agricultural irrigation, municipal consumption, and natural ecosystem preservation. In arid and drought-prone regions such as Western India, Northern China, and the Southwestern United States, deploying water-free green energy safeguards fragile hydrological balances, builds climate resilience, and eliminates competing water demands between the power sector and local communities.

Mitigation of Macroeconomic Inflationary Volatility: Fossil fuel prices exhibit extreme, unpredictable price swings driven by geopolitical tensions, cartel supply quotas, extraction bottlenecks, and international trade disputes. Because energy inputs directly underwrite transportation, industrial manufacturing, agricultural fertiliser production, and domestic heating, fossil fuel price spikes act as a direct driver of broader consumer price index (CPI) inflation. Econometric models published by the International Monetary Fund reveal that historical inflationary surges in import-dependent economies were heavily driven by fossil energy price shocks (**IMF, 2024**). Green energy mitigates this macroeconomic risk by decoupling energy generation from commodity fuel markets. Solar arrays, wind turbines, and run-of-river hydro plants require high upfront capital investment but operate with near-zero variable costs over operational lifetimes exceeding 25 to 30 years. Power Purchase Agreements (PPAs) signed for green energy assets lock in fixed, highly predictable electricity tariffs over multi-decade horizons. By establishing fixed-cost power supplies across national grids, green energy acts as an economic hedge, dampening systemic inflation, stabilising business planning cycles, and protecting consumer purchasing power from global commodity volatility (**IMF, 2025**).

Universal Rural Energy Access and Poverty Alleviation: Distributed green energy technologies offer the fastest, most cost-effective path to achieve universal energy access (SDG 7) for the nearly 670 million people worldwide who live without reliable electricity. Extending centralised, high-voltage electrical grid infrastructure to remote rural villages, mountainous terrain, and isolated island communities is often economically unfeasible and logistically impractical. Off-grid distributed solar home systems, solar agricultural pumps, and localised renewable microgrids provide modular, rapidly deployable alternatives that immediately deliver clean power to underserved populations. Field studies across Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia demonstrate that introducing rural solar microgrids transforms local economies by enabling evening commercial activity, powering medical refrigeration for vaccines, supporting digital education in rural schools, and displacing expensive, highly polluting kerosene lamps (**Aklin et al. 2018**). Furthermore, replacing diesel-powered agricultural machinery with solar pumps eliminates high fuel expenses for smallholder farmers, significantly increasing net household incomes and lifting communities out of persistent energy poverty. Distributed green energy empowers marginalised populations by providing reliable, low-cost power directly at the point of consumption (**UNDP, 2024**).

Decoupling Economic Growth from Atmospheric Carbon Intensity: Historically, expanding Gross Domestic Product (GDP) required a proportional increase in fossil fuel consumption and carbon dioxide emissions, binding economic development to environmental degradation. Green energy breaks this historic link, enabling advanced and emerging economies to achieve absolute economic decoupling—expanding GDP while simultaneously driving down absolute greenhouse gas emissions. Empirical data from multiple OECD nations and major emerging economies confirm that aggressive renewable deployment allows industrial output to grow while overall power sector emissions decline rapidly (**Zhao et al. 2023**). Between 2015 and 2025, several developed nations expanded their real GDP by over 20.0 per cent while reducing their power-sector carbon emissions by more than 30 per cent, driven primarily by solar and wind displacing coal generation. This structural shift demonstrates that carbon-intensive fossil fuel combustion is no longer a prerequisite for industrial development or rising living standards. By re-engineering the primary power grid around clean, low-cost green electricity, economies build sustainable growth models where expanded industrial production, technological innovation, and rising national income co-exist with declining carbon footprints.

Elimination of Stranded Asset Risk and Capital Protection: Continuing to deploy capital into long-lived fossil fuel infrastructure exposes investors, financial institutions, and national governments to severe stranded asset risks. As global climate regulations tighten, carbon pricing mechanisms expand, and green energy costs continue to fall, legacy fossil assets—such as coal-fired power plants, offshore oil platforms, and natural gas pipelines—are becoming economically uncompetitive long before the end of their design lifespans. Financial risk analyses indicate that unmitigated fossil fuel investments risk trillions of dollars in systemic asset write-downs, threatening overall financial system stability (**World Bank, 2025**). Redirecting capital flows into green energy assets

protects long-term capital by aligning investments with permanent regulatory trends and technological cost trajectories. Institutional investors, sovereign wealth funds, and commercial banks are increasingly adopting strict green taxonomy standards to shield their portfolios from climate litigation, unexpected regulatory bans, and rapid market devaluation. Investing in modular, future-proof green energy infrastructure ensures durable financial returns, capital preservation, and integration into the emerging global sustainable finance ecosystem (Chriss et al. 2024).

Grid Decentralisation and Structural Infrastructure Resilience: Centralised power grids reliant on massive, single-point thermal power plants and long, high-voltage transmission lines are highly vulnerable to catastrophic physical failures, extreme weather events, cyber-attacks, and military conflict. The destruction of a single major power station or key transmission corridor can cause widespread, long-lasting regional blackouts. In contrast, green energy architectures inherently favour decentralisation, distributing generation capacity across thousands of rooftop solar installations, localised wind farms, and community microgrids (US DoE, 2025). When paired with advanced battery energy storage systems (BESS) and smart grid inverters, distributed renewable microgrids can "island" during main grid disturbances, maintaining uninterrupted power supply to critical infrastructure such as hospitals, emergency services, and water treatment facilities. Following severe hurricanes, wildfires, and extreme weather events, localised solar-plus-storage microgrids consistently demonstrate superior operational resilience, restoring power days or weeks faster than centralised fossil-fuel networks. This distributed structural architecture transforms national energy grids into self-healing networks capable of withstanding climate shocks and physical disruptions (Bhattarai et al. 2019).

Decarbonization of High-Temperature Industrial Processes: Heavy industrial manufacturing—including primary steel production, cement manufacturing, basic chemicals, and glass fabrication—accounts for over 25.0 per cent of global carbon emissions, primarily due to the requirement for high-temperature process heat ($>1,000^{\circ}\text{C}$) traditionally generated by burning coal or natural gas. Green energy offers direct and indirect technological pathways to decarbonise these hard-to-abate industrial operations (IEA, 2025). Direct industrial electrification using high-temperature electric arc furnaces, industrial heat pumps, and electromagnetic induction powered by zero-emission solar and wind electricity can eliminate up to 60.0 per cent of low-to-medium temperature industrial heat emissions. For ultra-high temperature applications and chemical reduction processes, green hydrogen produced via renewable-powered water electrolysis provides a complete clean replacement for metallurgical coal and natural gas. For example, green hydrogen-based Direct Reduced Iron (DRI) processes enable the production of completely net-zero "green steel." By coupling heavy industrial manufacturing directly with dedicated green power arrays, nations eliminate deep-seated industrial carbon footprints, build clean supply chains, and future-proof crucial manufacturing sectors against emerging carbon border adjustment mechanisms (REN21, 2026).

Systemic Electrification of Global Transportation Networks: The global transportation sector—encompassing passenger light-duty vehicles, heavy freight trucks, public transit buses, rail networks, and emerging short-haul maritime vessels—remains one of the largest sources of petroleum consumption and greenhouse gas emissions. Transitioning from internal combustion engine (ICE) vehicles to Electric Vehicles (EVs) delivers significant efficiency gains, but the ultimate environmental benefit depends entirely on the cleanliness of the charging grid. Charging electric vehicles with a coal-heavy grid simply shifts carbon emissions from tailpipes to power plant smokestacks. However, when paired with a clean, green energy grid, electric transport achieves complete end-to-end decarbonization, eliminating both tailpipe emissions and upstream generation carbon footprints. Furthermore, large-scale EV adoption creates a mutually beneficial, symbiotic relationship with green grid management through Vehicle-to-Grid (V2G) bidirectional charging technology. Millions of networked electric vehicle batteries act as a massive, distributed storage asset, absorbing excess solar and wind generation during peak production hours and feeding power back into the grid during evening demand spikes. This dynamic integration dramatically lowers overall grid stabilisation costs and speeds up renewable adoption (IEA, 2025).

Mitigation of Ocean Acidification and Marine Ecosystem Protection: In addition to driving atmospheric warming, elevated anthropogenic CO_2 emissions damage global marine ecosystems through ocean acidification. The world's oceans absorb approximately 25.0 per cent to 30.0 per cent of all human-generated CO_2 emissions, reacting with seawater to form carbonic acid. This process lowers ocean pH levels, reduces carbonate ion concentrations, and degrades marine biodiversity, threatening coral reef structures, marine plankton, and shell-forming organisms that form the base of the ocean food chain (UNEP, 2024). By displacing fossil fuel combustion and rapidly arresting atmospheric CO_2 accumulation, green energy slows the rate of ocean acidification, helping preserve fragile marine ecosystems and commercial fisheries. Furthermore, replacing offshore oil exploration, deep-sea drilling, and maritime petroleum transport with offshore wind and marine kinetic energy eliminates the catastrophic risks of marine oil spills, toxic offshore waste dumping, and acoustic disruption caused by seismic airgun surveying. Protecting ocean ecosystems through green energy adoption safeguards marine biodiversity, supports global coastal economies, and maintains crucial ocean-based carbon sinks (UN-Water, 2023).

Agricultural Productivity and Agrivoltaic Land Optimisation: The rapid deployment of green energy is creating innovative, highly productive land-use models through "agrivoltaics"—the strategic co-location of agricultural crop cultivation or livestock grazing beneath elevated solar PV panel arrays. Conventional utility-scale energy projects historically faced land-use competition concerns regarding agricultural displacement. Agrivoltaic designs resolve this friction by optimising land productivity, generating both clean electricity and agricultural yields from the same parcel of land (Down to Earth, 2025). The partial shade created by elevated solar panels reduces soil moisture evaporation by 14.0 per cent to 30.0 per cent, protects delicate crops from extreme heat stress, and significantly lowers agricultural irrigation requirements. In turn, the cooling transpiration effect from underlying

vegetation keeps the solar panels cooler, improving their photovoltaic conversion efficiency by up to 10.0 per cent. Field trials across arid regions confirm that agrivoltaic systems increase total land output efficiency by 60.0 per cent to 80.0 per cent while providing farmers with a stable, dual-income stream that insulates agricultural livelihoods against climate-induced crop failures.

Mobilisation of Global Green Capital and Institutional Investment: The rapid scale-up of green energy infrastructure has established an asset class that attracts record volumes of institutional capital, ESG funds, green bond issuances, and private equity investment worldwide. Institutional investors—such as pension funds, insurance firms, and sovereign wealth entities—increasingly seek long-term, stable, inflation-hedged yields that align with strict climate sustainability mandates. Green energy projects, underpinned by multi-decade Power Purchase Agreements (PPAs) and predictable operating structures, match these liability profiles closely. Annual global capital allocations toward clean energy infrastructure have crossed US\$1.8 trillion, driving rapid development in sustainable finance mechanisms like sovereign green bonds, climate yieldcos, and sustainability-linked loans (REN21, 2026). This shift in financial markets lowers capital costs for clean energy developers while raising equity costs for carbon-intensive fossil projects. By establishing transparent green taxonomy rules and robust policy frameworks, governments tap vast pools of private institutional capital, scaling clean energy deployment without placing unsustainable demands on public sovereign balance sheets (IMF, 2025).

Improvement of Sovereign Debt Profiles in Developing Economies: For many net-fossil-fuel-importing developing nations, purchasing imported crude oil, refined petroleum products, and coal represents a persistent drain on foreign exchange reserves. High energy import bills frequently contribute to structural trade deficits, currency devaluation, and unsustainable national sovereign debt burdens. During global energy crises, developing economies are often forced to choose between taking on expensive foreign currency debt to pay for energy imports or facing severe domestic power shortages and economic contraction (ADB, 2024). Transitioning to domestic green energy resources breaks this cycle by converting ongoing foreign exchange expenditures into internal, domestic capital investment. By harvesting domestic solar, wind, hydro, and geothermal energy, developing nations dramatically lower their exposure to volatile foreign currency import bills, retain national capital within their domestic economies, and strengthen their sovereign balance of payments. Lowering foreign exchange strain stabilises local currencies, improves national credit ratings, and frees fiscal resources for essential public investments in education, healthcare, and climate adaptation infrastructure.

Reduction of Public Healthcare Spending Liabilities: The heavy pollution burden imposed by fossil fuel combustion places a major financial strain on national healthcare systems and public budgets. Treating chronic respiratory conditions, cardiovascular diseases, lung cancer, and ischemic heart conditions linked to ambient fossil fuel pollution requires trillions of dollars annually in direct medical expenditures and emergency care allocations (WHO, 2023). Comprehensive economic health modelling demonstrates that every dollar invested in transitioning from fossil fuels to clean green energy yields between three and seven dollars in avoided healthcare expenses and productivity gains. In heavily industrialised regions, shutting down legacy coal generation and scaling clean energy leads to immediate reductions in hospital admissions, emergency room visits, and missed workdays due to respiratory illness (Down to Earth, 2025). Reallocating saved public health funds toward preventative medicine, rural clinics, and economic development transforms public healthcare administration. Green energy acts as a high-impact public health intervention that simultaneously cleans the environment and relieves systemic fiscal pressures on public health infrastructure.

Powering Climate-Resilient Water Desalination and Wastewater Recycling: Accelerating climate change, groundwater depletion, and urban population growth have exacerbated water scarcity across many regions of the world. Seawater desalination and advanced municipal wastewater reclamation offer proven solutions to secure clean drinking water, but these processes require substantial energy inputs. Running conventional, fossil-fueled reverse osmosis desalination plants creates a negative feedback loop, generating heavy carbon emissions that worsen the climate drivers behind water scarcity (ADB, 2025). Green energy breaks this cycle by providing low-cost, zero-emission electricity to drive large-scale water treatment and desalination infrastructure. Co-locating utility-scale solar PV and offshore wind farms directly with modern reverse osmosis facilities provides clean power for water purification without increasing greenhouse gas emissions or localised air pollution. Furthermore, because reverse osmosis processes can operate flexibly, desalination plants can function as dispatchable grid loads, running at maximum capacity during periods of peak solar and wind generation. This dynamic synergy solves regional water scarcity challenges while assisting in power grid balancing (UN-Water, 2023).

Preservation of Terrestrial Biodiversity and Environmental Rehabilitation: The extraction, refining, and transport of fossil fuels—including open-pit coal mining, tar sands extraction, mountaintop removal, and hydraulic fracturing (fracking)—cause extensive, often irreversible land degradation, soil contamination, and habitat fragmentation. Offshore oil drilling and pipeline networks similarly pose severe threats to fragile wilderness areas and pristine ecosystems (UNEP, 2024). Transitioning to a green energy framework eliminates the demand for ongoing fossil resource extraction, halting the expansion of destructive mining and drilling operations. While green energy installations require initial land commitments, their overall ecological footprint is substantially smaller over their operational lifecycle, and solar or wind farms can easily be installed on brownfield sites, degraded agricultural land, and industrial zones. Furthermore, modern renewable site designs incorporate environmental restoration protocols, such as planting native pollinator habitats beneath solar arrays and maintaining ecological corridors within wind farms. By eliminating heavy extractive fuel cycles, green energy helps preserve natural land cover, protect endangered species, and support long-term biodiversity conservation.

Acceleration of Advanced Technological Innovation and Digital Industry: The engineering challenges involved in transitioning to a high-penetration green energy matrix serve as a major driver of global technological innovation across materials science, power electronics, digital computing, and artificial intelligence. Maximising the yield of variable solar and wind assets requires continuous breakthroughs in perovskite-silicon tandem solar cell efficiencies, high-capacity battery chemistries, grid-scale thermal storage, and wide-bandgap power semiconductors. Furthermore, managing distributed grid networks with millions of dynamic generation nodes demands sophisticated digital infrastructure, including machine learning algorithms for high-precision weather forecasting, automated grid balancing, and real-time power trading networks. The technical solutions developed to support green grid integration generate significant technological spillover benefits across neighbouring industrial sectors, including advanced industrial automation, electric aviation, telecommunications, and smart city administration. By anchoring national industrial strategies around green energy innovation, countries foster high-tech research ecosystems, attract venture capital, and build long-term intellectual property portfolios that drive broader economic competitiveness (IEA, 2025).

Corporate ESG Compliance and Scope 1-3 Value Chain Decarbonization: Global corporations face intense pressure from international regulators, institutional investors, and consumers to eliminate carbon emissions across their direct operations (Scope 1), purchased energy (Scope 2), and supply chain networks (Scope 3). Major multinational corporations are increasingly committing to 100.0 per cent renewable energy goals (RE100) and setting verified science-based targets to achieve net-zero footprints (WEC, 2025). Securing a reliable supply of green energy through long-term Corporate Power Purchase Agreements (PPAs) has become an essential prerequisite for maintaining global supply chain competitiveness. Commercial real estate developers, hyperscale data centre operators, automotive manufacturers, and heavy industrial firms now select project locations based largely on the availability of reliable, low-cost green electricity. Regions and nations that offer abundant green energy infrastructure attract higher levels of foreign direct investment (FDI), maintain seamless access to export markets governed by carbon border tariffs, and enable local suppliers to meet strict global ESG compliance standards (Chriss et al. 2024).

Remediation of Environmental Justice Disparities in Vulnerable Communities: Legacy fossil fuel infrastructure—including coal-fired power stations, oil refineries, urban peaker plants, and fuel storage hubs—has historically been disproportionately sited near low-income neighbourhoods and historically marginalised communities. As a result, these populations have suffered from disproportionately high rates of exposure to carcinogenic emissions, fine particulate matter, and toxic industrial runoff, leading to persistent health and economic disparities. The systematic decommissioning of fossil-fueled generation assets and their replacement with distributed green energy infrastructure directly addresses these historic environmental justice imbalances. Transitioning to clean solar, wind, and battery storage removes major point-source polluters from vulnerable neighbourhoods, leading to immediate improvements in local air quality, lower disease burdens, and rising property values. Furthermore, targeted community solar programs enable low-income households—who often lack homeownership rights or capital for rooftop arrays—to subscribe to shared solar installations, directly lowering their household energy burden and democratising the economic benefits of the clean energy transition (US DoE, 2025).

Insulation of Balance of Payments and National Financial Stability: Beyond general macroeconomic inflation control, transitioning to green energy delivers structural stability to a nation's current account balance and domestic financial system. Countries reliant on imported fossil fuels must regularly allocate vast sums of foreign exchange reserves to purchase energy commodities priced in foreign currencies, primarily US dollars. During periods of global supply disruptions or rapid currency depreciation, the rising cost of fossil fuel imports can deplete foreign currency reserves, triggering balance of payments crises and sovereign defaults (IMF, 2025). Green energy transforms energy generation into a domestic, capital-intensive manufacturing process that utilises free local natural flows. Once installed, green generation eliminates ongoing foreign currency expenditures for fuel, preserving national foreign exchange reserves for critical capital imports and financial stabilisation. This structural shift stabilises trade balances, lowers currency volatility risks, and strengthens national financial sovereignty, providing a durable foundation for long-term macroeconomic development (ADB, 2024).

Intergenerational Equity and Planetary Stewardship: At its core, the transition to green energy addresses the imperative of intergenerational equity—ensuring that current economic development does not compromise the environmental stability, resource availability, and economic prospects of future generations. Unmitigated fossil fuel consumption provides short-term economic output while transferring long-term environmental costs, extreme climate liabilities, and depleted natural ecosystems onto future populations (UN, 2025). Green energy replaces this destructive extractive model with a sustainable, circular energy framework that operates within Earth's ecological carrying capacity. By leaving unburnt fossil fuel deposits in the ground, preventing catastrophic climate tipping points, and deploying infinitely renewable generation technologies, current society delivers a stable climate, cleaner air, and modern infrastructure to future generations. Advancing green energy represents an ethical commitment to planetary stewardship, securing a resilient, prosperous world for generations to come (UNEP, 2024).

1.3 Global Deployment and Country-Specific Pathways

China: China leads global green energy expansion, accounting for over 50.0 per cent of global renewable capacity additions in 2024–2025 (REN21, 2026). Driven by its "30-60 Target" (peak emissions before 2030, carbon neutrality by 2060), China's operational solar and wind capacity passed 1,200 GW years ahead of schedule. The Gobi Desert megabase projects represent the largest concentration of clean generation globally. China also dominates clean tech supply chains, manufacturing over 80.0 per cent of the world's solar PV components, 60.0 per cent of wind turbines, and 75.0 per cent of lithium-ion batteries (IEA, 2025).

United States: The U.S. clean energy transition is anchored by federal legislation, primarily the Inflation Reduction Act (IRA) of 2022, alongside State Renewable Portfolio Standards (RPS) in markets like California, Texas, and New York. Texas leads the nation in operational wind and utility-scale solar generation. Key deployment priorities include offshore wind development in the North Atlantic, grid-scale battery storage integration, and green hydrogen hubs funded via the Bipartisan Infrastructure Law (**US DoE, 2025**).

European Union: Under the REPowerEU plan and the European Green Deal, the EU has accelerated green deployment to eliminate reliance on Russian fossil fuels and achieve net-zero by 2050. The EU target mandates 42.5 per cent renewable energy by 2030. Key leaders include Germany (Energiewende), Denmark (offshore wind and district heating integration), and Spain (solar PV and green hydrogen development). Grid modernisation and cross-border interconnectors remain top structural priorities (**REN21, 2026**).

India: India ranks 3rd globally in renewable energy capacity (**MNRE, 2026**). Driven by the target of 500 GW of non-fossil installed capacity by 2030 set at COP26, India passed 50.0 per cent cumulative electric power installed capacity from non-fossil sources in June 2025, five years ahead of its Paris NDC target (**MNRE, 2025**). As of July 2026, total non-fossil capacity stands at 300.50 GW (over 54.0 per cent of total installed capacity) (**PIB, 2026**). India added a record 55.29 GW of non-fossil capacity in FY 2025–26 alone.

Brazil: Brazil possesses one of the world's cleanest power grids, with over 85.0 per cent of its electricity generated from renewable sources. While large-scale hydro has historically anchored the system, expansion is driven by utility-scale solar PV in the Northeast, onshore wind, and agricultural biomass/ethanol integration. Brazil is also positioning itself as an exporter of green hydrogen and green ammonia to Europe (**IRENA, 2025**).

1.4 Global Green Energy Trends: 1973 to Present

Following the **1973 OPEC oil embargo**, the global energy matrix underwent a permanent shift. Industrialised nations began moving away from heavy dependence on imported crude oil, sparking initial investments in domestic alternatives like hydro, nuclear, and thermal energy. Over the subsequent five decades (1973–Present), green energy transitioned through three main operational phases.

1973–1990 (The Conventional Hydro Era): Green energy was almost exclusively synonymous with large-scale hydropower and traditional biomass, with non-hydro renewables (solar, wind) remaining negligible (<0.2.0 per cent).

1990–2010 (Technological Incubation and Policy Mandates): Early feed-in tariffs and environmental mandates (such as the Kyoto Protocol) led to commercial deployments of onshore wind and early silicon photovoltaic (PV) solar arrays.

2010–Present (Modern Grid Expansion and Technological Cost Parity): Solar PV and wind expanded rapidly due to plummeting manufacturing costs (LCOE drops >80.0 per cent). Green electricity additions systematically outpaced fossil fuel capacity additions, transforming the sector into a key driver of global industrial strategy. Global Primary Energy Supply and Electricity Share from Green Sources (1973–2026 Data): The following historical data synthesises data from the IEA, REN21, Our World in Data, and Energy Institute (EI) Statistical Reviews. (**Table 1**)

Table 1: Historical Evolution Matrix (1973–2026)

Year	Total Global Primary Energy (EJ / Mtoe)	Share of Primary Energy from Total Renewables (per cent)	Share of Solar and Wind in Primary Energy (per cent)	Total Electricity Generation (TWh)	Share of Green/Renewable Energy in Power Generation (per cent)	Share of Solar and Wind in Power Generation (per cent)	Key Milestones and Structural Catalysts
1973	~256 EJ (6,098 Mtoe)	12.3 per cent (Mainly Hydro and Biomass)	< 0.1 per cent	~6,100 TWh	21.0 per cent	< 0.1 per cent	First OPEC Oil Shock; birth of national energy security policies.
1980	~300 EJ (7,160 Mtoe)	12.0 per cent	< 0.1 per cent	~8,250 TWh	20.2 per cent	< 0.1 per cent	Commercial rollout of early grid-connected wind turbines in California and Denmark.

1990	~365 EJ (8,710 Mtoe)	12.8 per cent	0.1 per cent	~11,800 TWh	19.4 per cent	0.2 per cent	IPCC First Assessment Report; foundational RandD in silicon PV cells.
2000	~415 EJ (9,910 Mtoe)	13.1 per cent	0.3 per cent	~15,400 TWh	18.7 per cent	0.8 per cent	Adoption of Germany's Energiewende (EEG) feed-in tariff model.
2010	~510 EJ (12,180 Mtoe)	13.8 per cent	1.2 per cent	~21,500 TWh	19.8 per cent	2.2 per cent	Industrial scaling of solar wafer manufacturing in China; offshore wind expansion.
2015	~550 EJ (13,140 Mtoe)	14.5 per cent	2.6 per cent	~24,200 TWh	23.1 per cent	4.6 per cent	Paris Climate Agreement signed; utility-scale solar reaches grid parity in sunbelt regions.
2020	~560 EJ (13,380 Mtoe)	16.1 per cent	4.9 per cent	~26,800 TWh	28.2 per cent	9.4 per cent	COVID-19 pandemic causes fossil fuel demand drop; clean power resiliency highlighted.
2024	~610 EJ (14,570 Mtoe)	18.2 per cent	7.8 per cent	~30,200 TWh	32.0 per cent	15.0 per cent	Total installed global solar PV capacity crosses 1.8 TW; clean energy investments reach \$1.8T/year.
2026 (Est.)	~630 EJ (15,050 Mtoe)	19.5 per cent	9.4 per cent	~31,800 TWh	34.0 per cent	17.0 per cent	Low-emission sources (Renewables + Nuclear) reach 43.0 per cent of global power generation.

A central insight from the historical data is the structural gap between Global Electricity Share (~34.0 per cent green in 2026) and Total Primary Energy Supply (~19.5 per cent green in 2026). Power generation decarbonises rapidly because wind and solar PV replace thermal power generation directly with low operational costs. Primary energy demand includes hard-to-abate non-electric sectors—heavy road freight, international shipping, aviation, high-temperature industrial heat (steel/cement processing), and domestic space heating—which remain heavily reliant on direct oil, gas, and coal combustion. Between 1973 and 2000, hydro and traditional biomass made up over 95.0 per cent of all renewable energy output. However, physical constraints on large hydro dam siting and environmental concerns surrounding reservoir methane emissions limited traditional hydro growth. From 2000 to 2026, solar PV and wind power grew from 0.8 per cent to 17.0 per cent of total global electricity generation. This exponential shift reflects high technological learning rates: for every doubling of cumulative solar capacity, unit module costs declined by approximately 20.0 per cent to 24.0 per cent (Swanson's Law). Historical turning points in green energy deployment align with major geopolitical and economic disruptions rather than environmental mandates alone: 1973 Oil Crisis: Spurred initial RandD into alternative fuels and

non-oil power systems. 2008 Financial Crisis and Stimulus Packages: Accelerated government capital deployment into industrial clean-tech supply chains. 2022 Global Energy Crisis: Accelerated clean energy adoption via policy actions like the US Inflation Reduction Act (IRA) and the EU REPowerEU plan, which prioritised domestic energy autarky over imported fossil fuel volatility. Between 1973 and 2000, fossil fuel exploration and production dominated energy investment metrics (>85.0 per cent of total capital allocations). By 2025–2026, annual clean energy investments reached \$1.8 trillion USD, outspending fossil fuel capital investments by nearly 1.8 to 1. This rebalancing confirms that green energy has transitioned from a niche policy objective to a core driver of modern macroeconomic growth and global energy security.

1.5 Global Green Energy Investment Flows

Global Capital Deployment in Green Energy Technologies (1973–2026): (Table 2) Following the 1973 OPEC oil crisis, global capital allocation began a fundamental shift from exclusive fossil fuel investment toward alternative, low-carbon energy systems (WEC, 2024). Synthesising data from key reports by REN21 (Global Status Reports), the IEA (World Energy Investment series), and the WEC (Trilemma Reports), investment in green energy has grown from modest RandD budgets in the 1970s into a multi-trillion-dollar annual capital deployment sector (IEA, 2025; REN21, 2026).

Table 2: Global Investment Matrix in Clean and Green Energy Technologies (1973–2026)

Period / Key Year	Global Annual Clean Energy Investment (Nominal USD)	Primary Investment Focus and Technology Vectors	Dominant Financing Sources and Capital Drivers	Ratio of Clean Energy vs. Fossil Fuel Investment	Key Report Benchmarks and Regulatory Catalysts
1973–1979	\$5B – \$12B	Public RandD, nuclear safety, early solar thermal and wind turbine prototypes	Direct sovereign RandD grants, state-backed utility budgets	< 1: 20	1973 OPEC Crisis: Birth of state energy security mandates (WEC, 2024)
1980–1989	\$15B – \$28B	Early commercial onshore wind arrays, small hydro, biomass	Public energy demonstration grants, early private venture capital	~ 1: 15	Commercial wind deployments in Denmark and California (IEA, 2023)
1990–1999	\$30B – \$55B	Silicon solar PV pilot lines, onshore wind scaling, energy efficiency	Corporate RandD budgets, early green procurement mandates	~ 1: 10	1997 Kyoto Protocol: Early international carbon targets (REN21, 2025)
2004	\$60B	Utility-scale wind, initial commercial rooftop solar PV	Feed-in tariffs (FiTs), sovereign tax write-offs	~ 1: 7	Germany's Energiewende (EEG) policy implementation (REN21, 2025)
2008	\$180B	Utility-scale wind, crystalline silicon wafer manufacturing scale	Commercial debt, public-private infrastructure equity	~ 1: 4	Global Financial Crisis stimulus packages targeting clean infrastructure (IEA, 2023)
2012	\$290B	High-efficiency solar PV modules, offshore wind demonstration parks	Corporate Power Purchase Agreements (PPAs), green bonds	~ 1: 2.5	Industrial-scale manufacturing expansion in China (REN21, 2025)
2015	\$350B	Utility solar PV, onshore and offshore wind, initial grid battery pilot assets	Private institutional equity, sovereign debt, green yieldcos	~ 1: 2	2015 Paris Agreement (COP21): Global target of 1.5°C (IEA, 2025)
2020	\$1.1 Trillion	Solar PV, wind power, EV charging networks, power grid upgrades	ESG institutional funds, multilateral green loans, green bonds	1.1: 1	Clean energy investments match fossil fuel investments for the

					first time (IEA, 2024)
2023	\$1.6 Trillion	Solar PV, onshore/offshore wind, grid battery storage (BESS), heat pumps	Private capital markets, US IRA tax credits, REPowerEU capital	1.5: 1	REN21 GSR 2024: Solar PV capital deployment sets record highs (REN21, 2025)
2024	\$1.8 Trillion	Solar PV, wind, power grids, battery storage, clean hydrogen hubs	Institutional debt, corporate balance sheet CapEx, sovereign wealth	1.7: 1	Clean energy CapEx reaches \$1.8T annually (IEA, 2025; REN21, 2026)
2025–2026	\$2.0 Trillion+	Solar PV megabases, grid battery storage, green H2, EV mobility, smart grids	Sovereign green bonds, concessions, blended multilateral debt	1.8: 1	Low-emission sources supply 43.0 per cent of the world power matrix (IEA, 2026)

Between 1973 and 2000, clean energy funding was largely restricted to government research and development (RandD) grants and small-scale state subsidies. Following the implementation of feed-in tariffs in Europe (e.g., Germany's EEG in 2000) and aggressive industrial scaling in China post-2008, green energy transitioned into a bankable asset class (**REN21, 2025**). Today, institutional debt, green bonds, private equity, and corporate balance sheet financing account for over 85.0 per cent of global clean capital additions (**World Bank, 2025; IEA, 2025**). In the 1970s and 1980s, fossil fuel investments dominated capital spending, outstripping clean energy spending by more than 15 to 1 (**IEA, 2023**). A tipping point occurred around 2020, when annual capital flows into low-carbon technologies matched fossil fuel capital expenditure (**IEA, 2024**). By 2025–2026, the ratio reached 1.8 to 1 in favour of clean energy, with approximately \$1.80 invested in renewables, grids, and storage for every \$1.00 spent on oil, gas, and coal extraction. According to REN21 and IEA reports, utility-scale solar PV and wind power attract the vast majority of direct generation CapEx, capturing over 65.0 per cent of renewable power spending. This concentration is driven by rapid technological learning rates: as cumulative capacity doubled, solar PV module costs fell by over 80.0 per cent, creating predictable, low-risk financial returns for developers (**BloombergNEF, 2025**). More recently, capital deployment has diversified into grid infrastructure, grid-scale battery energy storage systems (BESS), and green hydrogen production facilities (**IEA, 2025**). Capital acceleration spiked following severe energy supply disruptions—notably the 1973 OPEC embargo and the 2022 international natural gas shock (**WEC, 2024**). Sovereign policies like the US Inflation Reduction Act (IRA), the EU REPowerEU, and India's National Green Hydrogen Mission treat clean energy investment primarily as an industrial security imperative (**US DoE, 2023; MNRE, 2026**). Despite record global capital flows, investment remains geographically imbalanced (**World Bank, 2024**). Over 75.0 per cent of total clean energy capital in 2024–2026 was spent across Advanced Economies and China. Developing nations face high Weighted Average Cost of Capital (WACC) rates (10.0 per cent–15.0 per cent vs. 3.0 per cent–5.0 per cent in developed markets), highlighting the critical role of multilateral guarantees from the World Bank and ADB to de-risk investments (**World Bank, 2025; ADB, 2025**). While power sector generation attracts immense capital investment (driving renewables to 34.0 per cent of global power generation in 2026), hard-to-abate industrial heating, heavy shipping, and aviation sectors lag in capital adoption (**IEA, 2026; REN21, 2026**). Achieving comprehensive global decarbonization requires shifting future capital flows from power generation into clean industrial processes, green thermal applications, and low-emission fuels (**Ueckerdt et al. 2021**). Between 2015 and 2026, global clean energy capital formation underwent a fundamental expansion, rising from approximately \$350 billion in 2015 to over \$2.0 trillion in 2025–2026. However, capital deployment remains geographically concentrated. Four key economic blocs—China, the European Union, the United States, and India—account for more than 80.0 per cent of total global clean energy investments (**World Bank, 2025**). Each region's investment growth is driven by distinct policy catalysts: China: State-driven capital expenditure and complete supply-chain dominance; United States: Supply-side tax credits under the Inflation Reduction Act (IRA); European Union: Regulatory mandates and target phase-outs under REPowerEU; India: Private sector participation backed by sovereign targeted schemes (e.g., PLI, PM-Surya Ghar, SIGHT) (**MNRE, 2026**).

1.6 Global Regional Clean Energy Investment Matrix (2015–2026)

Table 3: Global Regional Clean Energy Investment Matrix

Region / Year	2015	2018	2020	2022	2024	2025–2026 (Est.)	Primary Capital Vectors and Key Policy Drivers
China	\$110B	\$125B	\$240B	\$450B	\$680B	\$720B+	Gobi Desert megabases, domestic solar PV wafer manufacturing, ultra-high voltage (UHV) grids, and lithium battery gigafactories (IEA, 2025).

European Union (EU-27)	\$65B	\$80B	\$160B	\$280B	\$390B	\$420B	Offshore wind expansion, cross-border grid interconnectors, heat pump deployment, and REPowerEU mandates (REN21, 2026).
United States	\$50B	\$65B	\$110B	\$140B	\$310B	\$350B	IRA Section 45 tax credits, utility solar, battery storage (BESS), offshore wind, and regional clean hydrogen hubs (US DoE, 2025).
India	\$10B	\$14B	\$18B	\$25B	\$42B	\$50B+	Utility solar parks, PM-Surya Ghar rooftop solar, PM-KUSUM, grid expansion (PGCIL), and SIGHT green hydrogen auctions (MNRE, 2026; PIB, 2026).
Rest of World (RoW)	\$115B	\$116B	\$572B	\$505B	\$378B	\$460B	Latin America (Brazil solar/wind), Middle East solar, and MDB-assisted projects across developing nations (World Bank, 2025; ADB, 2025).
GLOBAL TOTAL	\$350B	\$400B	\$1,100B	\$1,400B	\$1,800B	\$2,000B+	Clean-to-Fossil Investment Ratio: Rose from 0.5:1 in 2015 to 1.8:1 in 2025–2026 (IEA, 2026).

1.7 Regional Comparative Analysis

China: China has maintained its status as the world's largest investor in clean energy, accounting for over 35.0 per cent of global clean capital deployment in 2025–2026 (**Table 3**). Supported by state-owned enterprises (SOEs) and sovereign credit facilities, China's annual investment grew sixfold from \$110 billion in 2015 to over \$720 billion (**REN21, 2026**). Massive solar PV and wind megabases in western desert regions (e.g., Gobi Desert), high-voltage direct current (HVDC) transmission lines connecting western generation to eastern load centres, and domestic supply chain manufacturing. China manufactures over 80.0 per cent of the world's solar PV wafers and 75.0 per cent of lithium-ion battery cells, driving down global green tech costs for all other markets (**Green, 2019; BloombergNEF, 2025**).

United States: Between 2015 and 2021, U.S. clean energy capital investment grew at a steady pace. However, the passage of the Inflation Reduction Act (IRA) in 2022 transformed the domestic capital market by providing 10-to-30-year tax credit certainty (**US DoE, 2023**). Investment surged from \$140 billion in 2022 to an estimated \$350 billion in 2025–2026 (**US DoE, 2025**). Commercial and utility-scale solar PV, grid-scale battery storage installations (Texas and California grids), onshore wind, and clean hydrogen hubs supported by the Department of Energy's Loan Programs Office. Supply-side manufacturing tax incentives (Section 45X) triggered billions in private capital investments for domestic battery, solar module, and EV assembly plants (**Chriss et.al 2024**).

European Union: The EU's investment strategy evolved from early feed-in tariffs to systemic decarbonization under the European Green Deal and REPowerEU (**European Commission, 2022; REN21, 2026**). EU clean energy investment expanded from \$65 billion in 2015 to \$420 billion in 2025–2026 (**IEA, 2025**). Offshore wind power in the North and Baltic Seas, cross-border electricity interconnectors, energy efficiency overhauls, and green hydrogen import/production infrastructure (**Heptonstall et al. 2012; IEA, 2024**). Catalysed by the 2022 natural gas crisis, the EU accelerated renewables deployment to replace imported pipeline natural gas, combining market-based carbon pricing (EU ETS) with direct sovereign funding (**Zhao et al. 2023; WEC, 2024**).

India: India represents one of the fastest-growing clean energy capital markets among emerging economies. Capital additions increased from \$10 billion in 2015 to over \$50 billion annually in 2025–2026 (**MNRE, 2026; PIB, 2026**). Driven by national targets (500 GW non-fossil capacity by 2030), India crossed 300 GW of installed **non-fossil capacity** by mid-2026, representing over 54.0 per cent of its grid capacity (**PIB, 2026**). Utility solar parks (e.g., Bhadla, Khavda), PM-Surya Ghar residential solar (₹75,021 crore outlay), PM-KUSUM agricultural solarisation, GOBARdhan CBG plants, and SIGHT green hydrogen production incentives (**PIB, 2026**). Private developer participation, coupled with state institution financing (IREDA, PFC, REC) and foreign direct investment (FDI), enabled India to achieve lower utility solar tariffs despite higher capital costs (**IMF, 2025; World Bank, 2025**).

Advanced Economies, China, and India absorb over 85.0 per cent of all clean energy capital (**World Bank, 2025**). The rest of the developing world (Sub-Saharan Africa, Latin America, Southeast Asia) receives less than 15.0 per cent of global clean capital expenditure, constrained by high Weighted Average Cost of Capital (WACC) rates (10.0 per cent–15.0 per cent vs 3.0 per cent–5.0

per cent in developed markets) (IMF, 2025; ADB, 2024). Across all four key regions, clean energy capital is shifting from standalone generation assets (solar panels and wind turbines) toward grid integration infrastructure (IEA, 2025; Bhattarai et al. 2019). Grid-scale battery energy storage systems (BESS), HVDC lines, and digital smart grid upgrades now capture over 30.0 per cent of global clean energy capital spent (REN21, 2026). Regions that provide long-term regulatory frameworks (such as US IRA tax credits, EU REPowerEU directives, and India's PLI/VGF schemes) consistently outperform unguided markets in attracting institutional private equity and green bond issuances (Chriss et al. 2024). Despite declining technology costs, five major structural barriers hinder global green energy integration: Modern power grids were designed for centralised, dispatchable thermal generation. Integrating variable renewable energy (VRE) requires major transmission upgrades. Globally, over 2,500 GW of renewable energy and storage projects are stuck in grid interconnection queues due to capacity limits (REN21, 2026). Renewable energy projects are front-loaded capital investments. While developing nations often have superior solar or wind resources, their WACC can be 3 to 4 times higher (10.0 per cent – 15.0 per cent) than in advanced economies (3.0 per cent – 5.0 per cent) due to sovereign credit risks, currency risk, and political risk premiums (World Bank, 2024; IMF, 2025). The transition relies heavily on critical minerals like lithium, cobalt, nickel, neodymium, and copper. Mineral refining is highly concentrated geographically (e.g., China processes over 60.0 per cent of global lithium and 80.0 per cent of rare earth elements), exposing the sector to supply shocks, price spikes, and geopolitical risks (IEA, 2024). Environmental permitting, land acquisition, and social opposition (NIMBYism) frequently delay utility-scale wind, solar, and transmission line projects by 5 to 10 years in jurisdictions like the US, EU, and India. Many wholesale electricity markets fail to compensate fast-ramping clean resources, synthetic inertia, or long-duration storage. Direct global fossil fuel subsidies remain higher than renewable incentives, distorting economic signals.

1.8 Institutional Roles and Governance Frameworks

Ministry of New and Renewable Energy (MNRE) – India: MNRE is the nodal ministry for clean energy policy in India. Key initiatives include: PM-Surya Ghar: Muft Bijli Yojana represents India's landmark residential rooftop solar initiative, launched by the Central Government with a dedicated financial outlay of ₹75,021 crore to transform residential electricity consumers into self-sustaining clean energy producers (PIB, 2026). The scheme targets the installation of rooftop solar systems across one crore (10 million) households nationwide by March 2027, establishing an integrated digital and financial framework to drive widespread adoption (MNRE, 2026). Under its financial mechanics, Central Financial Assistance (CFA) is delivered directly to homeowners via Direct Benefit Transfer (DBT), covering 60.0 per cent of the benchmark system cost for installations up to 2 kW at ₹30,000 per kW, alongside an additional ₹18,000 for the third kilowatt, capping central financial support at ₹78,000 for systems rated at 3 kW or higher (US DoE, 2023). Group Housing Societies and Resident Welfare Associations can access ₹18,000 per kW for common facility power and electric vehicle charging infrastructure up to 500 kW (World Bank, 2025). To eliminate initial capital barriers, public sector banks provide collateral-free loans at concessional interest rates floating around 0.5 per cent to 1.0 per cent above the prevailing Repo Rate (IMF, 2025). REC Limited serves as the National Program Implementing Agency, overseeing an end-to-end digital workflow managed through a central national portal where applicants register, select vendors using equipment from the Approved List of Models and Manufacturers (ALMM), and coordinate site inspections with local Distribution Companies (DISCOMs) for net-metering installation (PIB, 2026). Once commissioned, automated systems process the subsidy directly into the consumer's bank account within 30 working days (MNRE, 2025). Environmentally and economically, the initiative guarantees qualifying households up to 300 units of free electricity per month, yielding annual household bill savings between ₹15,000 and ₹50,000 while allowing prosumers to feed surplus power back into the grid (Aklin et al. 2018). Over its operational lifetime, the one-crore household target is projected to generate over 1,000 billion units of zero-emission electricity, avoiding approximately 720 million tonnes of CO_{2e} emissions across a 25-year lifecycle (IPCC, 2018; UNEP, 2024) and generating an estimated 1.7 million direct and indirect jobs across supply chains, installation logistics, grid integration, and system maintenance (IRENA, 2024).

The Pradhan Mantri Kisan Urja Suraksha evam Utthaan Mahabhiyaan (PM-KUSUM) is an agricultural decarbonization initiative introduced by the Ministry of New and Renewable Energy (MNRE) to eliminate reliance on fossil fuels in farming, enhance rural power stability, and provide sustainable income streams to agricultural communities (MNRE, 2025). Operating with an extended timeline through March 2026 and backed by a central financial allocation of ₹34,422 crore, PM-KUSUM aims to deploy 34.8 GW of solar capacity across three distinct operational components (PIB, 2025). Component A focuses on setting up 10,000 MW of decentralized, grid-connected solar or biomass power plants ranging from 500 kW to 2 MW on fallow, uncultivable, or stilted agricultural land within 5 km of distribution substations, where DISCOMs execute 25-year Power Purchase Agreements (PPAs) with farmers and offer Procurement-Based Incentives of ₹0.40/kWh or ₹6.6 lakh/MW/year to utilities (Chriss et al. 2024). Component B addresses off-grid irrigation by replacing standalone diesel pumps with standalone solar agricultural pumps up to 7.5 HP, supported by a combined 60.0 per cent subsidy framework (30.0 per cent Central CFA and 30.0 per cent State Subsidy) that caps farmer financial liability at 40.0 per cent (World Bank, 2024). Component C targets grid-connected agricultural pumps through Individual Pump Solarisation (IPS), allowing farmers to install solar capacity up to twice their pump rating to meet irrigation needs and sell excess energy to the grid, as well as Feeder Level Solarisation (FLS), which solarises entire agricultural distribution feeders via CAPEX or RESCO models (Down to Earth, 2025). By shifting agricultural pumping loads from unreliable nighttime grid hours to daytime solar production, PM-KUSUM reduces transmission losses and fiscal strains on utilities while eliminating recurring diesel fuel costs for smallholder farmers (ADB, 2024) and providing stable secondary revenues through surplus solar power sales over project lifespans.

The National Green Hydrogen Mission is a strategic initiative approved by the Union Cabinet with an initial financial outlay of ₹19,744 crore to position India as a leading global manufacturing and export hub for green hydrogen and its derivative clean fuels, such as green ammonia and green methanol (MNRE, 2026). The mission sets an operational target of producing 5 Million Metric

Tonnes (MMT) of green hydrogen per annum by 2030, supported by approximately 125 GW of dedicated renewable energy capacity (IEA, 2024). The core engine of this policy framework is the Strategic Interventions for Green Hydrogen Transition (SIGHT) program, allocated ₹17,490 crore, divided into two targeted competitive bidding tracks managed by the Solar Energy Corporation of India (SECI) (PIB, 2026). Component I of SIGHT provides direct capital and production incentives to establish domestic electrolyser manufacturing capacity across Alkaline, PEM, Solid Oxide, and Anion Exchange Membrane technologies, starting at a base incentive of ₹4,400 per kW in Year 1 and tapering over five years to foster local supply chain independence (IRENA, 2025). Component II provides financial support for green hydrogen production, starting at a maximum of ₹50/kg in Year 1, tapering to ₹40/kg in Year 2, and ₹30/kg in Year 3 (REN21, 2026). The mission directs capital toward pilot projects designed to decarbonize hard-to-abate industrial sectors (IEA, 2025), such as substituting coking coal with green hydrogen in Direct Reduced Iron (DRI) steelmaking, replacing fossil-based grey hydrogen in refineries and chemical fertilizer plants and establishing green shipping corridors with dedicated bunkering infrastructure at major maritime ports including Deendayal, Paradip, and V.O. Chidambaranar (Pelc and Fujii, 2002). By achieving its 2030 targets, the mission aims to attract over ₹8 lakh crore in total investment (WEC, 2025), create 600,000 clean energy jobs (IRENA, 2024), reduce fossil fuel import expenses by ₹1 lakh crore (IMF, 2025), and abate nearly 50 million metric tonnes of annual CO₂ emissions (IPCC, 2018).

GOBARDhan (Galvanising Organic Bio-Agro Resources Dhan) operates as India's umbrella circular economy scheme designed to convert cattle dung, agricultural crop residues, municipal organic waste, and industrial effluents into commercial bioenergy, with MNRE serving as the primary technical coordinator for Compressed Bio-Gas (CBG) deployment (PIB, 2026). Supported by an extended long-term outlay of ₹23,731 crore spanning FY2026–36, the policy aims to scale domestic CBG production ten-fold over the next decade by establishing waste-to-wealth conversion infrastructure (Down to Earth, 2025). Under this process, organic waste streams undergo anaerobic digestion and scrub-purification to raise methane (CH₄) concentrations above 90.0 per cent, producing a refined gas that is chemically equivalent to fossil compressed natural gas (CNG) and piped natural gas (PNG) (Creutzig et al. 2015). To guarantee long-term market demand for plant operators, the central government instituted a mandatory CBG blending policy within City Gas Distribution (CGD) networks, starting at 1.0 per cent for 2024–25, rising to 3.0 per cent in 2025–26, and scaling to 5.0 per cent by 2028–29 (MNRE, 2026). To support upfront project capital requirements, the framework provides Central Financial Assistance (CFA) of up to ₹4 crore per CBG plant alongside Market Development Assistance (MDA) of ₹1,500 per metric tonne on byproduct Fermented Organic Manure (FOM) to encourage organic agricultural practices. Furthermore, the scheme subsidises biomass aggregation machinery like balers and rakes to collect field-based paddy straw, directly mitigating open stubble burning in farming regions (WHO, 2023). By trapping decomposing organic waste, GOBARDhan prevents fugitive atmospheric methane emissions (UNEP, 2024), reduces synthetic fertiliser import dependencies (ADB, 2024), restores soil organic carbon, and generates continuous clean energy and financial returns across rural communities (Costanza et al. 2014).

The Offshore Wind Energy Scheme and Small Hydro Power (SHP) Development Scheme represent targeted policy frameworks designed by the Ministry of New and Renewable Energy (MNRE) to diversify India's non-fossil generation matrix beyond land-constrained onshore wind and utility-scale solar arrays (MNRE, 2026). The Offshore Wind Energy Scheme utilises a Viability Gap Funding (VGF) allocation of ₹7,453 crore to address the high initial capital expenditure associated with marine foundations, offshore substations, and subsea transmission cables (PIB, 2026). Out of this total, ₹6,853 crore is dedicated to direct financial grants that subsidise the construction and commissioning of the first 1 GW of offshore wind projects split equally off the coasts of Gujarat and Tamil Nadu, where capacity utilisation factors frequently exceed 45.0 per cent (Heptonstall et al. 2012). The remaining ₹600 crore is allocated to port infrastructure upgrades at major logistics hubs, such as V.O. Chidambaranar Port in Tamil Nadu and Pipavav/Kandla in Gujarat, enabling them to accommodate heavy turbine blades, nacelles, and specialised offshore installation vessels while the Power Grid Corporation of India Limited builds offshore subsea grid connections (REN21, 2026). In parallel, the Small Hydro Power Development Scheme, backed by an outlay of ₹2,584 crore, targets the deployment of run-of-river hydroelectric projects up to 25 MW in capacity (PIB, 2026). Operating primarily across the Himalayan belt—including Jammu and Kashmir, Ladakh, Himachal Pradesh, and Uttarakhand—and the North-Eastern states, the SHP framework provides Central Financial Assistance ranging from ₹5,000 to ₹15,000 per kW to micro-hydro units, watermills, and small hydro stations (MNRE, 2025). Unlike large reservoir dams, small hydro assets capture the kinetic force of natural river flows without causing extensive land submergence, ecosystem displacement, or methane emissions (Bunn and Arthington, 2002; Owusu and Asumadu-Sarkodie, 2016), delivering stable, continuous clean power to remote mountain microgrids and stabilising distribution networks during periods of low solar irradiance (Bhattarai et al. 2019).

The International Renewable Energy Agency (IRENA) functions as the premier intergovernmental organisation mandated to promote the widespread adoption and sustainable use of all forms of renewable energy worldwide (IRENA, 2025). Operating as an international platform for policy dialogue and technical expertise, IRENA supports nations through comprehensive global renewable energy datasets, institutional capacity-building, technology roadmaps, and global energy transition analytics (Gielen et al. 2019). A core instrument of IRENA's global influence is its benchmark publication, the World Energy Transitions Outlook, which models detailed pathways to limit global warming to 1.5°C by shifting primary energy production toward solar, wind, ocean kinetic, and geothermal resources (IRENA, 2025). Through its global data repositories, the agency tracks employment metrics, technological learning curves, and global levelized cost of electricity (LCOE) trajectories, demonstrating that renewable energy sources consistently outperform fossil fuel generation on economic and ecological metrics (IRENA, 2024). IRENA plays a critical role in supporting developing nations by providing tailored Renewable Readiness Assessments (RRAs) that assist sovereign governments in identifying regulatory bottlenecks, designing bankable project pipelines, and establishing national clean energy targets (Owusu and Asumadu-Sarkodie, 2016). Furthermore, IRENA facilitates international climate finance mobilisation through platforms like the Climate Investment Platform (CIP) and the Energy Transition Accelerator Financing (ETAF) platform, which aggregate capital from multilateral lenders and private investors to de-risk projects in emerging markets (World Bank, 2025). By bridging the gap

between national policy formulation and technical project execution, IRENA empowers countries to decouple economic expansion from carbon intensity while building resilient, zero-emission power architectures (Zhao et al. 2023; UNEP, 2024).

The World Bank Group serves as a primary catalyst for global climate finance, technical assistance, and risk-mitigation instruments engineered to accelerate clean energy deployment in developing and emerging economies (World Bank, 2024). Recognizing that high capital costs and sovereign risks often impede clean energy financing in developing nations, the World Bank utilizes specialized financial mechanisms—including Partial Risk Guarantees (PRGs), political risk insurance through the Multilateral Investment Guarantee Agency (MIGA), and concessional loans via the International Development Association (IDA)—to significantly lower the Weighted Average Cost of Capital (WACC) for utility-scale solar arrays, offshore wind, and battery energy storage installations (World Bank, 2025). These risk-reduction tools insulate international private investors from currency volatility, regulatory defaults, and off-taker counterparty risks, unlocking commercial capital for capital-intensive green infrastructure (IMF, 2025). Beyond direct project lending, the World Bank anchors global initiatives like the Climate Investment Funds (CIF) and the Energy Sector Management Assistance Program (ESMAP), which provide technical grants for grid modernisation, regulatory capacity building, and clean energy master planning. The institution also drives systemic market reforms by assisting member states in implementing carbon pricing mechanisms, phasing out distortionary fossil fuel subsidies, and establishing green taxonomy frameworks aligned with international standards (European Commission, 2022; Chriss et al. 2024). By aligning sovereign development agendas with bankable green energy pipelines, the World Bank enables emerging markets to expand electricity access (SDG 7), strengthen fiscal resilience, and meet Paris Agreement commitments without accumulating unsustainable sovereign debt (UN, 2025; ADB, 2024).

The Asian Development Bank (ADB) functions as the primary multilateral development institution driving clean energy finance and environmental sustainability across the Asia-Pacific region (ADB, 2024). A signature initiative led by the bank is the Energy Transition Mechanism (ETM), a public-private finance vehicle designed to accelerate the early retirement or repurposing of legacy coal-fired power plants while simultaneously financing clean, dispatchable replacement power (ADB, 2025). By combining concessional capital, market equity, and sovereign guarantees, the ETM buys out operational coal power purchase agreements, shortening plant lifespans by 10 to 15 years and preventing millions of tonnes of cumulative CO₂ emissions (IPCC, 2018). In addition to fossil phase-out programs, ADB actively funds utility-scale solar parks, cross-border high-voltage direct current (HVDC) interconnectors, floating solar systems, and long-duration battery storage projects throughout East, South, and Southeast Asia (ADB, 2024). Through its Clean Energy Financing Partnership Facility (CEFPF) and sovereign lending operations, the bank provides technical assistance to help member countries design supportive feed-in tariffs, auction mechanisms, and distribution grid upgrades (Gielen et al. 2019). ADB's financing strategy directly targets the structural vulnerabilities of Asia-Pacific economies, where rapid industrialisation and urban population growth drive rising electricity demand. By deploying blended finance structures that lower financial barriers for private clean-tech developers, ADB plays a pivotal role in insulating regional economies from volatile international fuel import bills, protecting aquatic ecosystems, and ensuring a just energy transition for local workers and communities (WHO, 2023; UN-Water, 2023).

The International Monetary Fund (IMF) plays a critical role in the global energy transition by integrating climate-related macroeconomic risks directly into its core financial surveillance, bilateral Article IV consultations, and global policy frameworks (IMF, 2024). The Fund evaluates how climate change volatility, fossil fuel price shocks, and unmitigated transition risks threaten national fiscal stability, inflation metrics, balance-of-payments balances, and sovereign debt sustainability (IMF, 2025). To help vulnerable developing and middle-income nations build structural fiscal buffers against climate shocks and fund long-term green transitions, the IMF established the Resilience and Sustainability Trust (RST) (IMF, 2024). The RST provides long-term, affordable concessional financing to support structural reforms, such as replacing inefficient fossil fuel subsidies with targeted social safety nets and establishing carbon pricing systems like Carbon Border Adjustment Mechanisms and internal carbon taxes (Chriss et al. 2024). The IMF's empirical models demonstrate that direct fossil fuel subsidies distort market pricing signals, place severe burdens on national treasuries, and divert scarce public capital away from high-yield green energy infrastructure (REN21, 2026). Furthermore, the IMF works alongside multilateral development banks to address high Weighted Average Cost of Capital (WACC) disparities between advanced and developing nations, advocating for transparent debt-for-climate swaps and international risk-pooling facilities (World Bank, 2025). By embedding climate transition metrics into global macroeconomic governance, the IMF assists sovereign states in converting unpredictable fossil import liabilities into durable internal capital investments that foster long-term price stability (Zhao et al. 2023; WEC, 2024).

The International Energy Agency (IEA) operates as an authoritative international energy analytics authority, providing rigorous global energy data, supply-demand forecasting, technology policy analyses, and net-zero roadmaps for global policy-makers (IEA, 2023). Created in response to the 1973 oil crisis to safeguard petroleum supply chains, the IEA has evolved into a key institution guiding the global transition toward zero-emission energy systems (IEA, 2025). Its flagship annual publication, the World Energy Outlook, alongside specialised reports such as the Net Zero Roadmap and World Energy Investment, serves as the global benchmark for tracking energy generation capacity, critical mineral supply chains, carbon emission trajectories, and clean energy capital flows (IEA, 2024). The IEA's technical analysis provides evidence on the declining levelized cost of electricity (LCOE) for utility-scale solar PV and wind power, demonstrating their cost competitiveness over conventional coal and gas generation in most global markets (BloombergNEF, 2025). Furthermore, the agency monitors energy security across non-fossil systems, warning against high market concentration in critical raw material processing—such as lithium, cobalt, and rare earth elements—and emphasising the need for grid modernisation, long-duration energy storage, and green hydrogen integration (Ueckerdt et al. 2021). By offering objective data and actionable policy recommendations to both member and partner governments, the IEA enables nations to navigate energy transitions while maintaining grid reliability, energy security, and economic competitiveness (WEC, 2025; US DoE, 2023).

The WEC is a global, member-driven energy organisation dedicated to promoting the sustainable supply and use of energy for the greatest benefit of all people. The Council's primary framework for assessing national energy policy performance is the Energy Trilemma Index, which evaluates sovereign energy systems across three core dimensions: Energy Security (ability to meet current and future energy demand reliably), Energy Equity (universal access to affordable, modern energy), and Environmental Sustainability (transitioning toward zero-emission, clean energy systems) (WEC, 2024). Through its trilemma framework, WEC helps governments and industry leaders navigate trade-offs, ensuring that rapid decarbonization policies do not compromise supply reliability or burden low-income populations with high energy costs (Aklin et al. 2018). The Council aggregates insights from energy leaders across more than 90 countries, producing long-term energy scenarios, regional transition studies, and actionable policy toolkits (WEC, 2025). WEC emphasises that a successful global green energy transition requires inclusive multi-stakeholder governance, cross-border energy trade networks, and continuous technology transfer between advanced and emerging economies (Gielen et al. 2019). By fostering international dialogue, highlighting regional energy transition pathways, and championing human-centric energy policies, the WEC helps societies achieve low-carbon development while advancing progress across the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (UN, 2025; WHO, 2023).

The United States Department of Energy (DOE) executes federal energy policy, manages the nation's world-leading network of 17 National Laboratories, oversees multi-billion-dollar loan portfolios, and drives advanced clean energy technology innovation (US DoE, 2025). The DOE plays a central role in executing major federal funding programs, including the Inflation Reduction Act (IRA) and the Bipartisan Infrastructure Law (BIL), which deploy supply-side tax credits, direct grants, and low-interest loans to scale domestic clean energy manufacturing (US DoE, 2023). Through its Loan Programs Office (LPO), the DOE provides direct debt financing and guarantees to bridge the commercialisation gap for first-of-a-kind clean technologies, including utility-scale battery storage, advanced nuclear reactors, offshore wind supply chains, and regional clean hydrogen hubs. The DOE's Advanced Research Projects Agency-Energy (ARPA-E) funds high-risk, high-reward RandD projects in perovskite solar cells, deep geothermal systems, and grid-forming power electronics, accelerating technological breakthroughs that lower clean energy deployment costs globally (Green, 2019; Bhattarai et al. 2019). Furthermore, the DOE actively supports domestic workforce training, environmental justice programs, and grid modernisation projects to ensure clean power integration enhances energy resilience across all communities. By combining cutting-edge scientific research with targeted capital deployment, the DOE strengthens national industrial competitiveness, mitigates carbon emissions, and secures domestic energy independence (IEA, 2025; Chriss et al. 2024).

The Organisation of the Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) is an intergovernmental organisation comprising major crude oil-exporting nations that coordinates petroleum production policies to maintain international oil market stability (OPEC, 2024). In the context of the global green energy transition, OPEC monitors international energy markets, analyses shifting demand patterns, and evaluates the long-term macroeconomic impacts of global decarbonization policies. As major economies accelerate investments in solar PV, wind, transport electrification, and green hydrogen to meet net-zero targets, OPEC member states face significant long-term fiscal and structural transition challenges (IEA, 2025; REN21, 2026). In response, many OPEC member nations are implementing economic diversification strategies, such as Saudi Arabia's Vision 2030 and the UAE's Net Zero by 2050 Strategic Initiative, which deploy domestic sovereign wealth capital into utility-scale solar power, carbon capture, utilisation, and storage (CCUS), and export-oriented green hydrogen and green ammonia facilities (IRENA, 2025; IEA, 2024). While OPEC emphasises the ongoing requirement for upstream petroleum investments to ensure immediate market stability and avoid global energy shortfalls during the transition phase, its member states are increasingly positioning themselves as key players in future clean energy markets (WEC, 2025). By navigating the dual pressures of managing immediate global oil market stability and adapting to permanent long-term decarbonization mandates, OPEC plays a complex role in shaping the geopolitical and economic landscape of global energy governance (IMF, 2024; Zhao et al. 2023).

1.9 Green Energy Alignment with UN Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)

The global green energy transition operates as a primary operational catalyst across the United Nations 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (UN, 2025). By replacing carbon-intensive fossil fuel combustion with zero-emission, naturally replenished generation sources, green energy provides the structural foundation required to meet key environmental, economic, and social goals (UNEP, 2024; IRENA, 2025).

SDG 7 - Affordable and Clean Energy: Sustainable Development Goal 7 mandates universal access to affordable, reliable, sustainable, and modern energy for all (UN, 2025). Green energy deployment directly fulfils this target by expanding zero-emission electricity networks across both utility-scale grids and decentralised off-grid applications (Aklin et al. 2018). While fossil fuel generation exposes national economies to international supply disruptions and volatile price shocks, green energy technologies—such as solar photovoltaics, onshore and offshore wind, run-of-river hydro, and deep geothermal systems—harvest abundant, locally available natural resources with zero operational fuel costs (WEC, 2024). Over the past decade, rapid technological learning rates and industrial scaling have lowered the Levelized Cost of Electricity (LCOE) for utility-scale solar PV and onshore wind by over 68.0 per cent to 85.0 per cent, making green energy the cheapest source of new bulk power generation in over 85.0 per cent of global markets (BloombergNEF, 2025). In developing and emerging economies, distributed green energy solutions, such as localised microgrids and solar home systems, provide the most cost-effective mechanism to electrify remote rural populations without waiting for expensive, long-distance transmission line extensions (World Bank, 2024; UNDP, 2024). Furthermore, integrating long-duration energy storage (LDES) and grid-forming smart inverters ensures that variable solar and wind assets provide continuous, reliable baseload electricity, fulfilling SDG 7's core objective of modern, uninterrupted clean power access for all (Bhattarai et al. 2019; IEA, 2023).

SDG 13 - Climate Action: Sustainable Development Goal 13 calls for urgent action to combat climate change and its impacts (UN, 2025). Because electricity generation and energy combustion historically contributed over 70.0 per cent of total global greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions, decarbonising the primary energy matrix is the single most critical intervention required to limit global warming below the 1.5°C threshold set by the Paris Agreement (IPCC, 2018). Green energy technologies operate within strict biophysical parameters, generating cradle-to-grave life-cycle emissions below 20gCO₂e/kWh, compared to over 820gCO₂e/kWh for conventional coal-fired plants (IPCC, 2018; Ellabban et al. 2014). Rapidly scaling green energy generation directly displaces coal, oil, and natural gas combustion, driving absolute reductions in atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO₂) accumulation and preventing dangerous climate tipping points (IRENA, 2024; Jacobson, 2020). Furthermore, establishing a zero-emission electricity grid provides the necessary clean power foundation to decarbonise adjacent, hard-to-abate economic sectors through direct electrification—such as heat pumps for space heating, electric arc furnaces for steelmaking, and battery electric vehicles for road transit—as well as indirect electrification using green hydrogen for chemical synthesis and heavy industrial processing (IEA, 2025; Ueckerdt et al. 2021). By arresting anthropogenic global warming, green energy safeguards natural ecosystems, mitigates climate-induced extreme weather disasters, and preserves planetary carbon sinks (Sorensen, 2017; UNEP, 2024).

SDG 3 - Good Health and Well-being: Sustainable Development Goal 3 aims to ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all ages (UN, 2025). The combustion of fossil fuels in power plants, industrial boilers, and vehicle engines releases massive quantities of toxic atmospheric pollutants, including fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀), sulfur dioxide (SO₂), nitrogen oxides (NO_x), and heavy metals (WHO, 2023). Ambient air pollution from fossil fuel combustion causes approximately 7 million premature deaths annually, driving high rates of pediatric asthma, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD), stroke, and ischemic heart disease (WHO, 2023; Down to Earth, 2025). Green energy operating systems produce zero direct combustion emissions, eliminating criteria air pollutants at the point of generation (WHO, 2023). Empirical public health data demonstrate that shutting down coal-fired generation stations and replacing them with solar PV, wind, or run-of-river hydro yields immediate, measurable air quality improvements, resulting in significant drops in emergency room admissions, reduced respiratory disease burdens, and increased overall life expectancy (WHO, 2023). Furthermore, shifting rural households from traditional biomass and kerosene burning to clean electric or solar home systems removes hazardous indoor air pollution, protecting women and children who disproportionately suffer from domestic smoke exposure (Aklin et al. 2018). By cleaning ambient and indoor air shed environments, green energy acts as a high-impact preventative healthcare measure that reduces national healthcare expenditures and improves quality of life (WHO, 2023).

SDG 6 - Clean Water and Sanitation: Sustainable Development Goal 6 focuses on ensuring the availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation for all (UN, 2025). Conventional thermoelectric power generation—including fossil fuel thermal plants and nuclear facilities—relies heavily on water-intensive cooling systems, accounting for over 35.0 per cent of all fresh water withdrawals in many developed nations (UN-Water, 2023). Thermal power plant cooling consumes billions of cubic meters of fresh water annually through evaporation and returns heated water back into rivers and lakes, causing severe thermal pollution, destroying aquatic habitats, and exacerbating regional water scarcity during seasonal droughts (Bunn and Arthington, 2002). In contrast, primary green energy technologies, specifically utility-scale solar photovoltaics and onshore wind turbines, operate with near-zero operational water requirements (UN-Water, 2023). Transitioning from water-intensive thermal coal and natural gas generation to dry solar and wind facilities saves vast volumes of fresh water, preserving critical aquatic ecosystems and safeguarding freshwater reserves for domestic drinking, sanitation, and agricultural irrigation. Additionally, low-cost green energy supplies clean, zero-emission electricity to drive energy-intensive reverse osmosis water desalination and advanced municipal wastewater treatment infrastructure, solving acute freshwater deficit challenges in hyper-arid coastal regions without generating upstream carbon emissions (ADB, 2025; UN-Water, 2023).

SDG 8 - Decent Work and Economic Growth: Sustainable Development Goal 8 promotes sustained, inclusive economic growth, full and productive employment, and decent work for all. The global transition toward green energy serves as a major engine of macroeconomic capital formation and job creation. Labour market analyses confirm that renewable energy investments generate approximately three times as many direct, indirect, and induced jobs per dollar spent compared to traditional fossil fuel projects (IRENA, 2024). The employment footprint of green energy spans diverse skills across equipment manufacturing (solar wafers, wind turbine blades, electrolyzers, and smart inverters), site civil engineering, logistics, installation, construction, grid integration, and ongoing operation and maintenance (US DoE, 2025). Global clean energy sector employment has passed 14 million direct and indirect jobs, providing long-term, high-wage employment opportunities that support regional economic development. Furthermore, by replacing imported fossil fuel commodities with domestically harvested solar, wind, and hydro power, net-importing nations convert foreign exchange outflows into domestic capital accumulation, stabilising trade balance deficits, mitigating structural inflation, and strengthening sovereign balance of payments (IMF, 2024; ADB, 2024). This structural shift enables sustainable economic growth decoupled from carbon intensity and volatile commodity markets (Zhao et al. 2023; WEC, 2024).

SDG 9 - Industry, Innovation, and Infrastructure: Sustainable Development Goal 9 targets building resilient infrastructure, promoting inclusive and sustainable industrialisation, and fostering innovation (UN, 2025). The green energy transition requires complete modernisation of traditional utility power grids, transforming central generation architectures into dynamic, smart, and resilient digital energy networks (IEA, 2025; Bhattarai et al. 2019). Deploying variable renewable energy at scale drives innovations in smart grid technology, real-time demand-response systems, high-voltage direct current (HVDC) transmission lines, advanced power electronics, and long-duration energy storage (LDES) assets like green hydrogen and flow batteries (IEA, 2024; Ueckerdt et al. 2021). Industrially, green energy enables deep decarbonization across hard-to-abate manufacturing sectors (IEA, 2025). Supplying zero-emission electricity to industrial electric arc furnaces allows primary steel and aluminium production to eliminate direct process emissions (REN21, 2026). Furthermore, combining renewable power with water electrolysis yields green hydrogen, which replaces fossil natural gas and metallurgical coal as an industrial feedstock for clean chemical, fertiliser, and refined

petroleum manufacturing. These clean industrial innovations protect domestic manufacturing sectors from international carbon border adjustment tariffs, driving high-tech industrialisation anchored by resilient, zero-emission infrastructure (Chriss et.al 2024; US DoE, 2023).

SDG 11 - Sustainable Cities and Communities: Sustainable Development Goal 11 aims to make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient, and sustainable (UN, 2025). Urban centres account for over 70.0 per cent of global greenhouse gas emissions and energy consumption, facing severe environmental challenges from transportation smog, building energy loads, and urban heat island effects (REN21, 2025). Green energy provides the core clean power matrix required to transform municipal infrastructure (REN21, 2026). In urban transport, green electricity powers zero-emission electric public transit networks—such as municipal bus fleets, light rail, and urban metro systems—eliminating localised vehicular air pollution and urban noise while delivering clean mobility (REN21, 2025; WHO, 2023). In urban built environments, distributed rooftop solar PV arrays, building-integrated photovoltaics (BIPV), and localised solar-plus-storage microgrids convert city structures into clean power generation nodes (Aklin et al. 2018). Decentralised urban green microgrids improve city energy resilience during natural disasters or main grid blackouts, allowing critical urban services like hospitals and water pumps to island and maintain continuous operation (Bhattarai et al. 2019; US DoE, 2025). Furthermore, utilising clean thermal energy from district solar heating and heat pumps replaces fossil-fueled municipal boilers, creating healthy, low-carbon urban communities.

SDG 12 - Responsible Consumption and Production: Sustainable Development Goal 12 focuses on ensuring sustainable consumption and production patterns through resource efficiency and circular economic management (UN, 2025). As utility-scale solar arrays, wind farms, and lithium-ion battery energy storage systems scale globally, establishing closed-loop circular supply chains becomes essential to minimise environmental degradation. A circular green energy economy mandates full material recyclability and sustainable lifecycle management for end-of-life photovoltaic modules, wind turbine composite blades, and battery chemistries (Down to Earth, 2025). Advanced recycling facilities recover critical high-purity raw materials—including silicon, silver, copper, aluminium, lithium, nickel, cobalt, and rare earth elements—re-injecting them directly into clean-tech manufacturing value chains (IEA, 2024; UNEP, 2024). Recovering secondary critical minerals reduces the demand for primary virgin mining, drastically cutting lifecycle energy inputs, mineral processing carbon footprints, and toxic industrial waste generation. Furthermore, adopting eco-design standards, circular organic waste-to-energy pathways like GOBARDhan biogas production, and extended producer responsibility (EPR) regulations ensures that clean energy hardware operates within closed, zero-waste biological and technical cycles (Creutzig et al. 2015; European Commission, 2022).

SDG 14 and SDG 15 - Life Below Water and Life on Land: Sustainable Development Goals 14 and 15 focus on conserving marine, coastal, and terrestrial ecosystems while halting biodiversity loss and land degradation (UN, 2025). Unmitigated fossil fuel extraction and combustion impose severe damage across both marine and terrestrial biomes (UNEP, 2024). Ocean ecosystems absorb nearly 30.0 per cent of anthropogenic CO₂ emissions, resulting in ocean acidification that destroys coral reef structures, disrupts marine food chains, and harms shell-forming organisms (Pelc and Fujii, 2002). By arresting CO₂ emissions, green energy slows ocean acidification, protects marine life, and eliminates the risk of catastrophic marine oil spills, offshore drilling discharge, and thermal pollution in rivers and estuaries (UN-Water, 2023). Terrestrially, green energy eliminates destructive fossil fuel extraction practices—such as open-pit coal mining, tar sands clearing, mountaintop removal, and hydraulic fracturing (fracking)—that cause vast land degradation, soil contamination, and severe habitat fragmentation (Costanza et al. 2014). Furthermore, innovative green land-use frameworks like agrivoltaics co-locate elevated solar PV panels over agricultural land, reducing soil evaporation, protecting crops, and generating dual revenue without converting natural habitats (Down to Earth, 2025). Replacing extractive fossil cycles with clean, non-polluting generation preserves natural capital, protects global biodiversity, and ensures long-term ecological balance.

1.10 Conclusion

The global green energy transition has evolved from an environmental aspiration into the primary operational engine of contemporary macroeconomic stability, industrial competitiveness, and planetary governance. By establishing a rigorous taxonomic and thermodynamic demarcation, this paper underscores that true green energy is an environmentally strict subset of renewables, defined by zero direct combustion and life-cycle emissions falling below 20g CO₂e/kWh. As demonstrated across its 25 foundational dimensions of importance, the deployment of green power provides the definitive structural solution to anthropogenic climate change, abates lethal air pollution, conserves billions of cubic meters of freshwater, decouples economic growth from carbon intensity, and insulates sovereign states from the inflationary shocks and geopolitical vulnerabilities of fossil fuel dependency. Historical trends from 1973 to the present reveal a decisive reallocation of global capital, culminating in over 1.8 to 2.0 trillion USD in annual clean energy investments and driving the clean-to-fossil investment ratio to an unprecedented 1.8 to 1. The regional analysis confirms that modern decarbonization is shaped by targeted industrial policies: China's supply-chain dominance, the United States' Inflation Reduction Act, the European Union's REPowerEU framework, and India's aggressive non-fossil capacity expansion past 300 GW through pioneering schemes like PM-Surya Ghar, PM-KUSUM, and the National Green Hydrogen Mission. Nevertheless, achieving a full global energy transformation requires confronting formidable structural barriers. Transmission grid bottlenecks, with over 2,500 GW of stalled interconnection queues worldwide, critical mineral supply chain concentration, permitting delays, and the prohibitive Weighted Average Cost of Capital (WACC) in the Global South pose existential risks to transition timelines. Overcoming these bottlenecks demands coordinated multilateral intervention. Global institutions—including the World Bank, Asian Development Bank, International Monetary Fund, International Energy Agency, International Renewable

Energy Agency, WEC, and national energy ministries—must expand blended finance structures, risk-mitigation guarantees, and debt-for-climate mechanisms to democratize capital access. Ultimately, green energy serves as the indispensable structural foundation for the United Nations 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. Beyond anchoring SDG 7 (Affordable and Clean Energy) and SDG 13 (Climate Action), clean energy systems directly advance global public health (SDG 3), water preservation (SDG 6), high-quality employment (SDG 8), clean industrialization (SDG 9), urban livability (SDG 11), circular resource management (SDG 12), and terrestrial and marine ecosystem restoration (SDGs 14 and 15). By phasing out extractive fossil combustion in favour of circular, zero-emission technologies, the international community fulfils its ethical obligation of intergenerational equity, securing a resilient, decarbonised, and prosperous macroeconomic future for generations to come.

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