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Integrating Energy and Water Security: A Case for Colocating Data Centres with Pumped Storage Projects in Maharashtra

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**Issue Brief
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Abbreviations

AI	Artificial Intelligence
BESS	Battery Energy Storage System
CEA	Central Electricity Authority
DC	Data Centre
ESZ	Eco Sensitive Zone
FDRE	Firm and Dispatchable Renewable Energy
GW	Gigawatt
GWh	Gigawatt-hour
IEA	International Energy Agency
IEEFA	Institute for Energy Economics and Financial Analysis
IHA	International Hydropower Association
IRENA	International Renewable Energy Agency
IT	Information Technology
kWh	Kilowatt-hour
LCOS	Levelised Cost of Storage
MW	Megawatt
PPP	Public-Private Partnership
PSP	Pumped Storage Project
RE	Renewable Energy



Rising Demand for Data Centres in India

Currently, a huge digital transformation is taking place in India. The reasons for the massive demand for data processing and storage include large and growing number of internet users, rapid smartphone adoption, expansion of cloud computing, and the growing reliance of individuals and organisations on AI (World Economic Forum, 2024). To cater to this demand, the market for Data Centres (DCs) is rapidly expanding. India's current total operational DC capacity in mid-2025 was around 1.3 GW and is projected to increase to between 5.6 GW and 9 GW by 2031-32 (Angel One, 2025) (Nomura, as cited in Economic Times, 2024).

This projected growth is expected to be driven by some key drivers. First, cloud services and the computationally intensive AI models require the support of necessary IT infrastructure (World Economic Forum, 2024). Second, with the coming of India's Digital Personal Data Protection Act, it would be necessary to store the data concerning Indian citizens within the country's borders. This will increase data localisation. The policy shift is prompting global technology firms to invest heavily in local data infrastructure (Institute for Energy Economics and Financial Analysis, 2024). Third, the diverse digital usage requires the data to have low latency. It means having minimal delay in data transmission for certain applications like online gaming, financial trading, and real-time AI interactions. Hence, DCs need to be near large user populations, which highlights the strategic importance of a state like Maharashtra, which has the Mumbai region, India's financial capital, along with a strong IT presence in the Mumbai-Pune belt.

Maharashtra is leading when it comes to hosting DCs. As of now, it hosts about 60% of the country's total DC footprint (Indian Express, 2024). There are around 58 operational facilities, with significant concentration in the Mumbai-Pune corridor. This corridor is likely to capture at least a third of the national DC growth, which is roughly 2 GW of new capacity by 2030 (Indian Express, 2024; Government of Maharashtra, 2024; Datacenters.com, 2024). Despite this, one cannot deny that its lead is being challenged by competition from states such as Andhra Pradesh, Telangana, and Tamil Nadu. They, too, are developing their own DC hubs, making superior infrastructure planning an urgent priority for Maharashtra.



Resource Needs of DCs: Land, Power, and Water

Even though the digital economy appears non-physical, it depends heavily on physical infrastructure, consuming significant resources. Operationalising a DC requires three main inputs: land, a continuous and reliable power supply, and a significant quantity of water for cooling. Of these, land can be most easily addressable, especially given state policies like Maharashtra's Green Integrated Data Center Park Policy of 2024, which specifically designates zones for such development (Government of Maharashtra, 2024). The more critical factors are energy and water.

The energy demanded by DCs is of a very high magnitude. A single hyperscale DC can consume power comparable to a medium-sized town. A DC campus using 1 GW of power annually is equivalent to the energy consumption of 700,000 homes or a city of 1.8 million people (Mitrade, 2024). The International Energy Agency (IEA) predicts that, globally, DCs' electricity consumption can double by 2026 from 2022 levels. AI workloads will be a significant contributor to this (IEA, 2024). In Maharashtra, the projected 2 GW of DC capacity by 2030 would mean that there will be a substantial baseload demand on the state's grid. This will require not just energy generation but also guaranteed 24/7 reliability. This reliable supply cannot be provided by intermittent renewable sources like solar and wind alone.

In any DC's resource consumption distribution, the cooling systems primarily drive the energy and water consumption. They are required to take away the immense heat generated by the servers, which, if left uncooled, would damage the critical infrastructure. Cooling technologies vary by the type of DC. DCs that house enterprise and colocation facilities generally rely on air-based cooling, but hyperscale facilities increasingly require liquid cooling technologies to be super-efficient. This is because they house thousands of high-density servers (Digital Reality, 2025). Although highly effective, the liquid cooling systems, such as immersion cooling and direct-to-chip liquid loops, require substantial water due to evaporation losses in cooling towers. For example, a 100 MW hyperscale DC that uses evaporative cooling can take up approximately 2 million litres of high-quality freshwater daily, which is about 0.73 billion litres annually, as only makeup water (U.S. Department of Energy, 2021). This is comparable to the annual domestic water needs of a population of around 15,000 people and poses a significant challenge in a state where many regions already face water stress.



Pumped Storage Project and DC Colocation Model

The dual challenge of energy and water security can be solved by a potentially promising integrated solution that involves strategic colocation of hyperscale DCs with Pumped Storage Projects (PSPs). PSPs are the most established form of large-scale energy storage in the world. They operate by moving water between two reservoirs situated at different elevations. In scenarios of low electricity demand or high renewable generation, when power is cheap, water is pumped to the upper reservoir. During times of peak demand, the water is released through turbines, generating electricity. This way, PSPs act like a giant battery. Maharashtra is also a national leader in developing PSPs. As of 2025, it has a pipeline of 18 projects totalling 29.55 GW in various stages of development (Prayas Energy, 2025).

In the proposed colocation model, a symbiotic relationship between the PSP and the DC is envisioned. They can be developed in proximity, ideally within the same topographical basin. The energy flow is direct: the PSP provides the DC with firm, dispatchable, and renewable-aligned power. This ensures grid stability and uninterrupted operation. The water flow, although complex, offers significant synergies. A closed-loop PSP is generally considered a non-consumptive water user. After the initial fill, the same water is cycled repeatedly, with losses primarily through evaporation. The evaporation losses can vary based on the PSP location because the evaporation rate is determined by factors such as solar radiation, temperature, humidity, and wind speed (Reshma et al., 2025). A closed-loop PSP with a 5 GWh storage capacity, for instance, might have an initial fill requirement of 5 billion litres and an annual makeup water requirement of around 0.55 million cubic metres, considering an annual evaporation rate of 0.3 m, seepage rate of 0.25 m, and an approximate surface area of around 1 million square metres (Reshma et al., 2025; IHA, 2023; Adani Renewables, 2022).

As per the colocation model, PSPs' lower reservoir can act as a heat sink for the DC's cooling system. The warm circulating water from the DC, after it absorbs the heat from the servers, can be piped to the PSP reservoir in a day. The large surface area of the reservoir should facilitate heat dissipation. Cold water from the lower reservoir can be treated and recirculated back to the DC. This exchange can fulfil the DC's entire daily cooling water demand. It will nullify the operational freshwater footprint of the DC because of the substitution of potable water with treated reservoir water. Water treatment is necessary to meet the purity standards for precision



cooling, but the integrated approach transforms the PSP into a shared resource for both energy storage and thermal management.

The model cannot be just technically feasible but also needs to be economically competitive. Current trends reveal that the Levelised Cost of Storage (LCOS)—the average cost per kWh of energy stored and delivered—for PSPs in Maharashtra is highly attractive. If a reduction of 15% in the capex due to state subsidies and a long project life of 50 years is assumed, PSPs can achieve the LCOS between ₹5.25–9.80 per kWh (CEA, 2023; IRENA, 2024). The same cost for a 4-hour Battery Energy Storage System (BESS) is between ₹1.80–22.10 per kWh (CEA, 2023). The lowest bound in the range is due to states such as Rajasthan achieving tariffs as low as ₹1.77 lakh per MW for BESS storage (Times of India, 2025). When combined with low-cost solar power (averaging ₹2.8 per kWh in Maharashtra), the Firm and Dispatchable Renewable Energy (FDRE) cost for a "Solar + PSP" system powering a DC can be competitive with a "Solar + BESS" system, at approximately ₹7.00 per kWh versus ₹7.25 per kWh, respectively (CEA, 2023; Down To Earth, 2024). The long-duration power support and non-reliance on the critical mineral value chain, unlike battery storage, make PSPs a vital option to consider. PSPs' advantage also lies in the longer lifespan of around 50 years compared to 20 years for grid-scale batteries. This makes it a more durable and sustainable investment (Down To Earth, 2024). Furthermore, this comparison does not include the future end-of-life recycling costs for battery systems. It is a significant and uncertain liability that further strengthens the case for PSPs' long-term sustainability.

The Konkan region and the Sahyadri range in Maharashtra are particularly suited for this model. The region's hilly topography provides the necessary elevation difference for PSPs. Proximity to the Mumbai-Pune corridor, the heart of India's digital economy, ensures low latency for DCs located there. Furthermore, the Maharashtra government's proactive push for pumped-storage projects, totalling several thousand megawatts, presents a timely opportunity for integrated planning that leverages the investments already underway (Prayas Energy, 2025).



Comparing PSP model with BESS

Feature	Pumped Storage Project (PSP) + DC Colocation	Grid Supply/BESS + Renewable Energy (RE)
Core Function	Long-duration (10+ hours), large-scale energy storage and generation.	Grid: Energy delivery. BESS+RE: Short-duration (2-4 hours) storage + intermittent generation.
Energy Reliability & Duration	High. Provides 10+ hours of storage, capable of meeting 24/7 baseload demand. Can "firm" intermittent RE.	Moderate to Low. Grid can be unstable. BESS typically provides only 4 hours of storage, insufficient for overnight or low-RE periods.
Technical Lifespan	~50 years. A long-term infrastructure asset.	Grid: Ongoing. BESS: ~20 years , after which full replacement is needed.
Levelised Cost of Storage (LCOS)	₹5.25 – ₹9.80/kWh. Cost-effective over the long term due to long lifespan.	₹1.80 - 22.10/kWh Includes capital recovery, O&M, charging losses, and replacement cost. CRF=0.1175, 350 cycles/yr, 92% eff.
Firm and Dispatchable Renewable Energy (FDRE) Cost	₹3.50-10.40/kWh (mid ~₹7.00/kWh). Solar ₹2.8/kWh, CF 20-25% (Prayas Energy, 2025; CEA, 2023)	₹3.00-11.50/kWh (mid ~₹7.25/kWh). Solar ₹2.8/kWh (Maharashtra avg), CF 25% (Times of India, 2025)
Water Synergy Potential	High. PSP reservoirs can be integrated as a heat sink for DC cooling, potentially reducing the DC's freshwater footprint.	None. No inherent water synergy. DCs rely entirely on external freshwater sources or independent water-saving tech.



Feature	Pumped Storage Project (PSP) + DC Colocation	Grid Supply/BESS + Renewable Energy (RE)
Deployment Timeline	Long (5-8 years). Major challenge due to complex approvals and construction.	Grid: Immediate but unreliable. BESS+RE: Short (1-3 years). Much faster to deploy.
Scalability	High but Site-Specific. Capacity is large (500MW+) per project but depends on suitable topography.	Modular. BESS can be scaled incrementally, but cost and space requirements increase for long-duration needs.
Environmental Footprint	Managed Impact. Requires land and initial water fill but operates on closed-loop water use and enables greener DCs.	BESS: Supply chain concerns (mining for lithium, cobalt) of critical minerals, recycling challenges, and footprint of large solar/wind farms.
Suitability for Hyperscale DCs	Ideal. Matches the scale, reliability, and cooling water needs of 100MW+ facilities.	Challenging. Requires complex arrangements with the grid and massive, costly BESS for true 24/7 renewable power.



Challenges to Implementation

While seemingly promising, the PSP-DC colocation model can face hurdles that must be taken into consideration. One of the most critical challenges is the long timeline for PSP operationalisation. From environmental clearances to commissioning, it can take five to eight years. Approvals alone can consume up to 30 months (CareEdge Ratings, 2024). This contrasts sharply with the fast DC deployment, requiring advanced planning.

Financing is another concern. While the LCOS of PSPs is competitive, the upfront capital expenditure is higher, approximately ₹2.36 crore per MW for a 500 MW project (CEA, 2023). If the policies remain supportive, the financing costs can be reduced but only certainty in revenue streams can help mobilise this level of investment. It can be facilitated through long-term power purchase agreements with anchor clients like DC parks. Suitable incentives or private-public partnership (PPP) models could attract investments in colocated DCs. Open access and wheeling of renewable energy could also offset the additional cost of colocation of DCs with PSPs to some extent.

The water integration component also has its own set of challenges and will need to be accounted for. If the DC is not immediately adjacent to the PSP reservoir, constructing pipelines over long distances would add significant cost. They can be estimated at ₹5 to ₹10 crore per kilometre for large-diameter transmission mains and engineering complexity. Water quality is another constraint. PSP reservoirs hold raw water that requires advanced treatment (filtration, demineralisation) before it can be used in sensitive cooling systems. Not that it is not factored in the cost calculations, but it can add an operational cost estimated at ₹0.75 per kWh of DC energy consumption (CEA, 2023). Finally, many proposed PSP sites, such as those at Varasgaon and Pawana, are currently designated for drinking water supply to urban areas. Diverting water for industrial cooling, even if non-consumptive, would require careful negotiation. It will also require a clear demonstration of no net impact on potable water allocations.



Policy Recommendations

To overcome these challenges and harness the full potential of this integrated model, a forward-looking policy framework is essential for Maharashtra. The Maharashtra government and authorities should consider the following actions.

First, there should be a policy mandate to encourage, and eventually require, new large-scale DC parks to be in proximity to identified PSP sites or nearby industrial areas. The state's planning authorities can create a 'Preferred Development Zone' map that depicts PSP project locations with areas suitable for DC construction. This will streamline the allocation process. It should be made mandatory for new DCs to be either linked to hydropower infrastructures retrofitted to PSPs combined with wheeling, or to be colocated with new PSPs and industrial regions surrounding them.

The proposal to collocate data centres within the districts hosting Pumped Storage Projects, many of which are in the vicinity of the Western Ghats, rightly raises questions regarding land use and ecological impact. Acknowledging these concerns is essential for sustainable planning. The land required to build modern hyperscale data centres has grown tremendously over the years. While historical averages were lower, AI and large-scale computing have significantly increased the land requirement. In 2024, the average land transaction for a data centre campus is 224 acres, with AI-specific facilities often requiring a minimum of 200 acres (Cushman & Wakefield, 2024). This should need a strategic approach to site selection.

In case of collocation, however, this challenge can be well addressed. The identified districts for PSP development, such as Pune, Raigad, Kolhapur, and Satara, contain significant tracts of land designated for industrial use that lie outside the legally defined Eco-Sensitive Zones (ESZs) of the Western Ghats. The policy imperative is to mandate that new DC parks are directed towards these existing industrial zones. This will concentrate infrastructure, minimize the conversion of new ecologically valuable land, and leverage the synergy with PSPs without encroaching on protected areas.

Second, retrofitting existing hydropower infrastructure to include pumped storage should also provide substantial reduction in the cost as well as time required to support DCs. Third, the government should incentivise and promote the use of treated wastewater for the PSP-DC water



loop to minimise freshwater extraction. Fiscal incentives, such as additional subsidies for PSPs that incorporate water treatment plants for DC cooling, could make the integrated model more financially attractive.

Fourth, it is necessary to articulate the fundamental nature of the DC industry. Unlike traditional manufacturing or heavy industry, DCs are a non-polluting activity in the conventional sense; they produce no direct air emissions, hazardous effluent, or significant solid waste. Their primary environmental interaction is the extraction of energy and water resources. If this is met through a sustainable model like PSP collocation which provides renewable power and recycles non-potable water for cooling, their operational footprint can be highly reduced.

Doing so presents a strategic trade-off. It removes the immense pressure that DCs would otherwise place on the strained energy grids and water resources of urban centres like Mumbai and Pune. Any potential localized impact in the collocation districts can and should be proactively managed and compensated through rigorous enforcement of India's robust environmental legislations, such as the Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) notification and mandatory Compensatory Afforestation. The goal should be to make use of the degraded or wasteland wherever possible, so DCs act as a catalyst for regional development with opportunities without compromising the ecology of one of India's most critical biodiversity hotspots.



Conclusion

With the DC boom, Maharashtra is well-positioned to become India's digital capital. However, this must not come at the expense of energy insecurity and water scarcity. The collocation model of DCs with PSPs thus provides a strong case to try and solve this dual challenge. PSPs' ability to provide long-duration, renewable-energy-enabled power, along with the reservoir as the thermal management resource for cooling, can thus be leveraged to minimise environmental footprint. In this way, the state can create a sustainable ecosystem for its digital economy. While challenges such as timelines, capital, and water management exist, they can be overcome by proactive policy, planning and collaborative investment. To secure its technological future while also safeguarding natural resources, Maharashtra should act now to integrate its energy and digital infrastructure plans. This should set a global benchmark for sustainable growth.

Such collocation can subsequently be thought of in the emerging DC states like Andhra Pradesh, Telangana, and Karnataka after considering their topography and demand. Andhra Pradesh, like Maharashtra, is a frontrunner in the pumped storage development. It also leads the states for the number of PSP projects, including both operational and planned facilities. Karnataka, like Maharashtra, is blessed with the Western Ghats, and is seeing a potential growth in PSPs too. PSP locations such as Sharavati and Varahi can be candidates for the new DC collocation sites in Karnataka. Hence, India, too, like Maharashtra, can make significant and timely progress to meet the emerging resource needs from DCs.

International Energy Agency, in its report, has predicted that DC growth, no matter how alarming it sounds, will stay limited within 3% of total electricity consumption in 2030 in its Base Case scenario (IEA, 2024). Even this 3% increase in baseload is enough for straining the grid during peak demand. Hence, by acting proactively, Maharashtra can avoid such situations. In this way, the state can set a pioneering example of digital growth that is sustainable.



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