

REVIEW ARTICLE

Vertical Farming: Innovations, Challenges, and the Future of Sustainable Urban Agriculture

Gokulakrishnan G¹, Navaneetha Krishnan T¹, Tamilselvan D¹, Sanjeevkumar S¹,
Devaganesh A¹, Janani N^{2*}, Arunadevi K² and Balaji Kannan²

¹Agricultural Engineering College & Research Institute, Tamil Nadu Agricultural University, Coimbatore – 03

²Department of Soil and Water Conservation Engineering, Agricultural Engineering College & Research Institute, Tamil Nadu Agricultural University, Coimbatore – 03

ABSTRACT

Vertical farming represents a transformative approach to food production, offering sustainable solutions to the mounting challenges of urbanization, climate change, and global food insecurity. By cultivating crops in vertically stacked layers within controlled environments, this method decouples agriculture from traditional land and climate constraints. The integration of advanced technologies—such as hydroponics, aeroponics, LED lighting, automation, and artificial intelligence—enables year-round crop production with significantly reduced water, land, and pesticide use. This review explores the core principles and technological innovations underpinning vertical farming, assesses its environmental and economic advantages, and critically examines its limitations, including high energy demands and limited crop diversity. Furthermore, it highlights global adoption trends and evaluates the role of policy, research, and renewable energy in shaping the future trajectory of vertical agriculture. As the world moves toward more resilient and localized food systems, vertical farming emerges as a promising component of next-generation sustainable agriculture.

Keywords: *Vertical farming, Sustainable agriculture, Controlled environment agriculture (CEA), Technological innovation*

INTRODUCTION

Feeding a rapidly growing global population—expected to exceed 9.7 billion by 2050—poses a formidable challenge to traditional agricultural systems, particularly in the face of urbanization, climate change, and land degradation (FAO, 2017). Conventional agriculture, responsible for over 70% of global freshwater use and a significant contributor to deforestation and greenhouse gas emissions, is becoming increasingly unsustainable (Rockström et al., 2009; IPCC, 2019). Additionally, more than 55% of the global population now resides in urban areas,

a figure projected to reach 68% by 2050, further exacerbating the pressure on peri-urban and rural agricultural zones (UN DESA, 2018).

In response to these challenges, vertical farming (VF) has emerged as an innovative and potentially disruptive solution. Vertical farming refers to the cultivation of crops in stacked layers or integrated structures, often within climate-controlled environments, using soilless systems such as hydroponics, aeroponics, and aquaponics (Despommier, 2010; Kalantari et al., 2017). This approach decouples food

*Corresponding author mail: jana2692@gmail.com



Copyright: © The Author(s), 2025. Published by Madras Agricultural Students' Union in Madras Agricultural Journal (MAJ). This is an Open Access article, distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>), which permits unrestricted use, distribution and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited by the user.

production from traditional environmental constraints, enabling year-round cultivation and proximity to urban consumers, thus reducing “food miles” and associated carbon emissions (Beacham *et al.*, 2019).

Key technological enablers of vertical farming include LED lighting for artificial photosynthesis (Kozai, 2013), sensor-based monitoring systems, Internet of Things (IoT) technologies, artificial intelligence, and automation for resource optimization and labor efficiency (Benke & Tomkins, 2017; Al-Kodmany, 2018). These advances facilitate precise control over temperature, humidity, CO₂ levels, and nutrient delivery, leading to increased yields and consistent crop quality (Kozai *et al.*, 2016).

Proponents argue that vertical farming offers a range of ecological and economic benefits, including substantial water savings (up to 95%), elimination of pesticide use, and significant reductions in land use (Touliatos *et al.*, 2016; Orsini *et al.*, 2020). Furthermore, by producing food close to the point of consumption, vertical farms can enhance urban food security, reduce post-harvest losses, and create local employment opportunities (Sanyé-Mengual *et al.*, 2015; Mok *et al.*, 2014).

However, despite its potential, vertical farming is not without limitations. High capital investment, energy consumption, limited crop variety, and the need for specialized technical expertise present significant barriers to scalability and widespread adoption (Banerjee & Adenaeuer, 2014; Beacham *et al.*, 2019). Moreover, the environmental sustainability of vertical farms is still debated, particularly regarding their dependence on artificial lighting and non-renewable energy sources (Graamans *et al.*, 2018).

This review article aims to provide a comprehensive overview of vertical farming as a modern agricultural innovation. It discusses the technological foundations, benefits, and challenges associated with vertical farming, and explores its global implementation and prospects in the context of sustainable urban food systems.

CONCEPT AND ARCHITECTURE OF VERTICAL FARMING

Vertical farming is fundamentally defined by the integration of crop cultivation into vertically stacked layers or vertically inclined surfaces, often within enclosed, climate-controlled environments. This model

diverges from traditional agriculture by maximizing spatial efficiency and isolating crops from external environmental variability. The system is rooted in Controlled Environment Agriculture (CEA) and relies heavily on soilless cultivation techniques, automation, and advanced technologies (Benke & Tomkins, 2017; Kalantari *et al.*, 2017). This section explores the physical and technological architecture of vertical farms.

Structural Designs

The physical structure of a vertical farm varies significantly based on geographic, economic, and functional considerations. These designs are typically optimized for land-use efficiency, climate control, and ease of operation.

Warehouse-Based Farms

Warehouse-based vertical farms are among the most common configurations globally. These involve the retrofitting of existing urban structures—such as abandoned warehouses or industrial buildings—into multi-layered growing facilities. Examples include AeroFarms in the U.S. and Spread in Japan, which use vertically stacked trays with automated lighting and irrigation systems (Al-Kodmany, 2018). These systems benefit from reduced construction costs and proximity to urban consumers.

Shipping Container Farms

Shipping container vertical farms are modular and mobile, designed for plug-and-play use in urban, peri-urban, or remote areas. These 40-foot containers are equipped with fully automated CEA systems, LED lighting, and nutrient delivery mechanisms (Beacham *et al.*, 2019). Companies like Freight Farms and Growcer utilize this model to support decentralized, localized food production.

Skyscraper Farms

Skyscraper farms are a more conceptual but highly ambitious form of vertical farming. Proposed by Despommier (2010), these high-rise structures aim to integrate farming into urban skylines, combining food production with residential or commercial use. Though limited in real-world implementation due to high capital costs, such models represent a futuristic approach to urban food resilience (Banerjee & Adenaeuer, 2014).

Green Wall Systems

Green walls or vertical gardens are often installed on

building exteriors or interiors to grow herbs, vegetables, or ornamental plants. While primarily aesthetic, green walls can contribute to urban microclimate regulation, air purification, and supplemental food production (Orsini *et al.*, 2014). They are increasingly incorporated into sustainable architecture initiatives.

FARMING TECHNIQUES

A defining feature of vertical farming is the replacement of traditional soil-based agriculture with soilless systems, enabling efficient nutrient management, water reuse, and cleaner produce.

Hydroponics

Hydroponics is the dominant growing technique in vertical farming. Plants are cultivated in a water-based, nutrient-rich solution, often using substrates like rockwool or coconut coir for root support. This method enables high-density planting, reduces water usage by up to 90%, and minimizes disease risks (Resh, 2013; Toulaitos *et al.*, 2016). Systems include Nutrient Film Technique (NFT), Deep Water Culture (DWC), and Ebb and Flow.

Aeroponics

In aeroponic systems, plant roots are suspended in air and periodically misted with nutrient solutions. This technique offers the highest water-use efficiency and rapid growth rates but demands precise control of humidity and misting intervals. NASA has explored aeroponics for space farming due to its low resource footprint (Sharma *et al.*, 2018).

Aquaponics

Aquaponics combines hydroponics with aquaculture, utilizing fish waste as a natural nutrient source for plants. The system forms a symbiotic loop—plants filter water for fish, while fish waste nourishes the plants. Though resource-efficient and organic, aquaponics is complex and requires careful balancing of fish, bacteria, and plant health (Goddek *et al.*, 2015).

CONTROLLED ENVIRONMENT AGRICULTURE (CEA)

CEA is the technological backbone of vertical farming. It involves creating an optimal microclimate to promote consistent crop quality and productivity. By decoupling crop production from external weather conditions, CEA enhances resource efficiency and reduces seasonal variability (Kozai *et al.*, 2016).

Temperature and Humidity Control

Maintaining optimal temperature and humidity levels is essential for plant metabolism, transpiration, and disease prevention. HVAC systems, dehumidifiers, and thermal sensors are used to maintain ideal ranges depending on the crop type (Al-Kodmany, 2018).

CO₂ Enrichment

Controlled CO₂ enrichment, typically to 800–1,200 ppm, enhances photosynthetic activity and biomass accumulation. In sealed environments, CO₂ levels can be managed precisely, leading to yield improvements of up to 20–30% (Sahin *et al.*, 2018).

Light Regulation

LED lighting systems simulate natural light conditions and can be adjusted in terms of intensity, spectrum, and duration to optimize plant growth stages (Kozai, 2013). Blue and red wavelengths are essential for vegetative growth and flowering, respectively.

Nutrient Delivery

Nutrients are delivered directly to plant roots via water-based systems. Precision nutrient management reduces waste, improves uptake efficiency, and eliminates soil-borne pathogens (Resh, 2013). The balance of macronutrients (NPK) and micronutrients (Fe, Zn, Mg) is monitored and adjusted using automated systems.

TECHNOLOGICAL COMPONENTS

The success and scalability of vertical farming hinge upon the effective integration of advanced technologies that ensure optimal plant growth conditions while minimizing resource inputs. Among the most critical technological components are LED lighting, sensor networks, IoT systems, and automation integrated with artificial intelligence (AI). These components collectively support precision agriculture, enabling growers to produce more food with fewer inputs, even in densely populated urban settings.

LED Lighting

Lighting is one of the most energy-intensive aspects of vertical farming, but also one of the most transformative. Light-emitting diodes (LEDs) have become the standard in vertical farms due to their energy efficiency, longevity, and spectral tunability.

Unlike traditional lighting systems (e.g., high-pressure sodium or fluorescent

lamps), LEDs can be tuned to emit specific wavelengths of light that are most beneficial for plant growth. Red (around 660 nm) and blue (around 450 nm) light spectra are significant for photosynthesis, influencing leaf expansion, chlorophyll synthesis, and flowering (Olle & Viršile, 2013; Bantis *et al.*, 2018). Some systems also incorporate far-red and UV light to affect plant morphology and secondary metabolite production (Kohler & Lopez, 2021).

Recent advancements in LED technology have improved energy efficiency by up to 50% compared to earlier systems, reducing the overall electricity demand of vertical farms (Kozai, 2013; Poulet *et al.*, 2020). These improvements make it more feasible for vertical farms to scale, especially in regions where energy costs are high.

Moreover, light recipes—custom light spectrum combinations tailored for specific crops and growth stages—are now being deployed to optimize yield and nutritional content (Massa *et al.*, 2008).

Sensors and IoT Integration

In vertical farming, real-time data monitoring is essential for maintaining the ideal environment for plant growth. This is made possible through an extensive network of sensors integrated into Internet of Things (IoT) platforms. These systems facilitate continuous monitoring, data collection, and remote control of environmental parameters, thereby improving efficiency and reducing manual labor.

Standard sensor types include:

- pH and Electrical Conductivity (EC) sensors for nutrient solution monitoring,
- Thermal and hygrometric sensors for air temperature and humidity,
- PAR (Photosynthetically Active Radiation) sensors for light intensity,
- CO₂ sensors for carbon enrichment management,
- Water flow and level sensors for irrigation control.

These sensors feed data into centralized systems that use wireless communication protocols (e.g., Wi-Fi, LoRa, Zigbee) to transmit information in real-time. IoT platforms then aggregate this data and provide actionable insights or trigger automated responses via control systems (Abbasi *et al.*, 2020; Shamshiri *et al.*, 2018).

For instance, if a sensor detects a drop in humidity, the system can automatically activate misting or humidification mechanisms. This level of precision significantly reduces resource wastage, enhances plant health, and facilitates predictive maintenance of systems.

Automation and Artificial Intelligence (AI)

Automation is essential for increasing the efficiency and economic viability of vertical farms. It reduces labor intensity, minimizes human error, and ensures consistency across large-scale operations. Tasks such as seeding, transplanting, nutrient dosing, lighting schedules, harvesting, and packaging can now be performed or assisted by machines (AI-Kodmany, 2018).

Robotic arms and conveyor systems are used for moving plants through different growth stages. In contrast, automated irrigation and fertigation systems deliver the precise amount of nutrients and water based on sensor feedback. Some vertical farms have implemented automated vision systems that inspect plant health, detect pests or diseases early, and adjust inputs accordingly.

Artificial Intelligence (AI) further enhances automation by leveraging machine learning (ML) algorithms trained on historical and real-time data. AI can:

- Predict optimal harvest times,
- Detect early signs of disease or nutrient deficiencies,
- Recommend or autonomously implement adjustments in lighting, CO₂, or nutrient delivery,
- Forecast yields and energy demands (Tsouros *et al.*, 2019).
- Platforms such as Plenty's AI-powered growing system or Iron Ox's autonomous growing robots exemplify the cutting edge of AI integration in vertical agriculture.

CHALLENGES AND LIMITATIONS

Despite its promise, vertical farming faces several critical challenges that limit its scalability and broader adoption. One of the most significant barriers is the high capital investment required to establish a functioning vertical farm. Costs include infrastructure development, energy-efficient LED systems, climate

control technologies, and automation tools. These are compounded by ongoing operational expenses, particularly electricity for lighting and temperature regulation, which can account for up to 50% of total running costs (Al-Kodmany, 2018). The heavy dependence on energy, especially in regions where electricity is derived from non-renewable sources, raises concerns about the overall sustainability of vertical farming operations (Graamans *et al.*, 2018). Without integration of renewable energy sources, the carbon footprint of vertical farms could undermine some of their environmental benefits, such as reduced land and pesticide use.

Another key limitation is the restricted crop diversity currently supported by vertical farming systems. Most commercial operations focus on high-margin, fast-growing crops like leafy greens, herbs, and microgreens. In contrast, staple crops such as wheat, rice, and maize remain economically and technically unfeasible due to their larger space, time, and energy requirements (Beacham *et al.*, 2019). Moreover, the technical complexity of vertical farming—requiring interdisciplinary expertise in plant physiology, mechanical engineering, computer science, and environmental control—can be a barrier for small-scale farmers or developing regions. Even with reduced water usage and pesticide-free cultivation, environmental trade-offs persist. The intensive energy demands, if not mitigated through sustainable practices, can offset the gains made in other environmental metrics, questioning the net benefit of vertical farming in some contexts (Kozai, 2013; Banerjee & Adenauer, 2014).

FUTURE PROSPECTS

The future of vertical farming is closely tied to ongoing innovations in energy systems, automation, biotechnology, and policy frameworks. One of the most critical areas for development is energy efficiency. The integration of renewable energy sources such as solar and wind, alongside the use of next-generation LED lighting with higher photosynthetic photon efficacy (PPE), will be key in reducing the operational carbon footprint and making vertical farms more sustainable (Kozai *et al.*, 2016; Poulet *et al.*, 2020).

Another transformative trend is the increasing use of robotics and artificial intelligence (AI) to automate tasks like seeding, harvesting, monitoring, and packaging. AI-driven systems can also manage environmental variables, optimize nutrient delivery,

and predict pest outbreaks, further reducing human intervention and labor costs (Benke & Tomkins, 2017; Shamshiri *et al.*, 2018). In addition, advancements in biotechnology and genetic engineering may soon allow for the cultivation of a broader range of crops, including grains, tubers, and fruits, by adapting them to indoor, soilless conditions. Research into genetic optimization for vertical environments, AI-based predictive growth modeling, and the use of low-cost, sustainable construction materials could significantly enhance the scalability and affordability of vertical farms. Finally, for vertical farming to reach its full potential, government policy support—including subsidies, urban integration plans, and research funding—will be essential to drive innovation and ensure equitable access across regions (Kalantari *et al.*, 2017; Beacham *et al.*, 2019).

CONCLUSION

Vertical farming represents a transformative approach to urban agriculture, offering sustainable solutions to many of the pressing challenges faced by traditional farming systems—particularly in terms of land use, water conservation, and localized food production. By decoupling agriculture from external environmental factors and leveraging controlled environment agriculture (CEA), vertical farms can deliver high yields in compact urban settings while minimizing pesticide use and reducing transportation emissions.

However, the widespread adoption of vertical farming is currently constrained by high capital and operational costs, energy dependency, and limited crop diversity. These limitations necessitate continued technological advancements in energy systems, automation, and crop science, along with supportive policy environments that foster innovation and investment. With strategic development and interdisciplinary collaboration, vertical farming has the potential to become a cornerstone of future-proof, climate-resilient agriculture, particularly in urban and climate-vulnerable regions. As the global population grows and arable land becomes scarcer, vertical farming offers a viable pathway toward ensuring food security, sustainability, and urban resilience in the 21st century.

Ethics Statement: Not Applicable

Originality and Plagiarism: The authors confirm that this manuscript is their original work.



Consent for Publication: All the authors agreed to publish the content.

Competing Interests: There were no conflicts of interest in the publication of this content

Author Contributions:

GG led the original draft writing and methodology. NKT contributed to writing (original draft and review) and validation. TD provided conceptualization and critical review. SS supported methodology, investigation, and review editing. DA contributed to manuscript revision. JN was involved in conceptualization, supervision, and writing. AK assisted with writing and visualization. BK contributed to manuscript review.

REFERENCES

- Abbasi, F., Mohammadi, M., & Gharavian, D. (2020). IoT-based smart greenhouse: Towards automated monitoring and control of climate conditions. *Journal of Ambient Intelligence and Humanized Computing*, 11, 5751–5766.
- Al-Kodmany, K. (2018). The vertical farm: A review of developments and implications for the vertical city. *Buildings*, 8(2), 24. <https://doi.org/10.3390/buildings8020024>
- Banerjee, C., & Adenaeuer, L. (2014). Up, up and away! The economics of vertical farming. *Journal of Agricultural Studies*, 2(1), 40–60. <https://doi.org/10.5296/jas.v2i1.4526>
- Bantis, F., Smirnakou, S., Ouzounis, T., Koukounaras, A., & Radoglou, K. (2018). Current status and recent achievements in the field of horticulture with the use of light-emitting diodes (LEDs). *Scientia Horticulturae*, 235, 437–451. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scienta.2018.02.058>
- Beacham, A. M., Vickers, L. H., & Monaghan, J. M. (2019). Vertical farming: A summary of approaches to growing skywards. *The Journal of Horticultural Science and Biotechnology*, 94(3), 277–283.
- Benke, K., & Tomkins, B. (2017). Future food-production systems: Vertical farming and controlled-environment agriculture. *Sustainability: Science, Practice and Policy*, 13(1), 13–26.
- Despommier, D. (2010). *The Vertical Farm: Feeding the World in the 21st Century*. Thomas Dunne Books.
- FAO. (2017). *The future of food and agriculture – Trends and challenges*. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations.
- Goddek, S., Joyce, A., Kotzen, B., & Burnell, G. (2015). *Aquaponics Food Production Systems*. Springer.
- Graamans, L., et al. (2018). Plant factories versus greenhouses: Comparison of resource use efficiency. *Resources, Conservation and Recycling*, 140, 13–24.
- IPCC. (2019). *Climate Change and Land*. Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change.
- Kalantari, F., Tahir, O. M., Joni, R. A., & Fatemi, E. (2017). A review of vertical farming technology: A guide for implementation. *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews*, 67, 241–254.
- Kohler, A. E., & Lopez, R. G. (2021). Far-red light and its role in flowering and elongation responses in horticultural crops. *HortScience*, 56(2), 149–157.
- Kozai, T. (2013). Resource use efficiency of closed plant production system with artificial light: Concept, estimation and application to plant factory. *Proceedings of the Japan Academy, Series B*, 89(10), 447–461.
- Massa, G. D., Kim, H. H., Wheeler, R. M., & Mitchell, C. A. (2008). Plant productivity in response to LED lighting. *HortScience*, 43(7), 1951–1956.
- Mok, H.-F., et al. (2014). The benefits of urban agriculture: A review of the literature. *Environmental Innovation and Societal Transitions*, 17, 6–27.
- Olle, M., & Viršile, A. (2013). The effects of light-emitting diode lighting on greenhouse plant growth and quality. *Agricultural and Food Science*, 22(2), 223–234. <https://doi.org/10.23986/afsci.7897>
- Orsini, F., et al. (2020). How to design a resilient urban food system: A holistic approach to urban agriculture. *Sustainability*, 12(3), 1063. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su12031063>
- Orsini, F., Gasperi, D., Marchetti, L., et al. (2014). Exploring the production capacity of rooftop gardens (RTGs) in urban agriculture: The potential of RTGs in Bologna, Italy. *Renewable Agriculture and Food Systems*, 29(2), 1–10.
- Poulet, L., Massa, G. D., Morrow, R. C., & Wheeler, R. M. (2020). Principles and practices of plant lighting for controlled-environment agriculture. *Nature Food*, 1(11), 626–635. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s43016-020-00162-4>

- Resh, H. M. (2013). Hydroponic Food Production: A Definitive Guidebook for the Advanced Home Gardener and the Commercial Hydroponic Grower. CRC Press.
- Rockström, J., et al. (2009). A safe operating space for humanity. *Nature*, 461(7263), 472–475. <https://doi.org/10.1038/461472a>
- Sahin, U., Ekinci, M., Ors, S., et al. (2018). Improving greenhouse production with CO₂ enrichment: A review. *Notulae Botanicae Horti Agrobotanici Cluj-Napoca*, 46(2), 520–525.
- Sanyé-Mengual, E., et al. (2015). Environmental analysis of the logistics of agricultural products from roof top greenhouses in Mediterranean urban areas. *Journal of the Science of Food and Agriculture*, 95(1), 132–140.
- Shamshiri, R. R., Kalantari, F., Ting, K. C., Thorp, K. R., Hameed, I. A., Weltzien, C., Ahmad, D., & Shad, Z. M. (2018). Advances in greenhouse automation and controlled environment agriculture: A transition to plant factories and urban agriculture. *International Journal of Agricultural and Biological Engineering*, 11(1), 1–22.
- Shamshiri, R. R., Kalantari, F., Ting, K. C., Thorp, K. R., Hameed, I. A., Weltzien, C., Ahmad, D., & Shad, Z. M. (2018). Advances in greenhouse automation and controlled environment agriculture: A transition to plant factories and urban agriculture. *International Journal of Agricultural and Biological Engineering*, 11(1), 1–22.
- Sharma, A., et al. (2018). Aeroponics for horticultural crop production: A review. *Journal of Soilless Agriculture*, 4(1), 22–33.
- Touliatos, D., et al. (2016). Vertical farming increases lettuce yield per unit area compared to conventional horizontal hydroponics. *Food and Energy Security*, 5(3), 184–191. <https://doi.org/10.1002/fes3.102>
- Tsouros, D. C., Bibi, S., & Sarigiannidis, P. G. (2019). A review on UAV-based applications for precision agriculture. *Information*, 10(11), 349. <https://doi.org/10.3390/info10110349>
- UN DESA. (2018). World Urbanization Prospects: The 2018 Revision. United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs.