

History Chapter 2, "**Physical Features of India**," details the diverse geological and topographical structure of the Indian subcontinent. India contains practically all major physical features found on Earth: mountains, plains, deserts, plateaus, and islands.

Geologically, the **Peninsular Plateau** is one of the Earth's most ancient and stable landmasses, composed primarily of old crystalline, metamorphic, and igneous rocks. Conversely, the **Himalayas** and the **Northern Plains** are the most recently formed landforms, with the Himalayas categorized as an unstable zone due to their youthful topography.

The country's physical features are systematically grouped into six major physiographic divisions:

1. The Himalayan Mountains
 2. The Northern Plains
 3. The Peninsular Plateau
 4. The Indian Desert
 5. The Coastal Plains
 6. The Islands
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1. The Himalayan Mountains

The Himalayas are geologically young and structurally fold mountains that stretch across the northern borders of India, forming one of the loftiest and most rugged mountain barriers in the world.

- **Extent:** They run in an arc spanning about **2,400 km**, from the Indus in the west to the Brahmaputra in the east. The width varies significantly, ranging from 400 km in Kashmir to 150 km in Arunachal Pradesh.
- **Longitudinal Divisions:** The range consists of three parallel ranges:
 - **The Great or Inner Himalayas (Himadri):** This northernmost and most continuous range contains the loftiest peaks (like Mt. Everest and Kanchenjunga) and has an average height of 6,000 meters. Its core is composed of **granite** and is perennially snowbound.
 - **The Lesser Himalaya (Himachal):** South of the Himadri, composed mainly of highly compressed and altered rocks, with average altitudes between 3,700 and 4,500 meters. This region is famous for the Pir Panjal range (the longest and most important), Dhauladhar, the Mahabharat ranges, and hill stations located in valleys like Kashmir, Kangra, and Kullu.
 - **The Outer-most Range (Shivaliks):** Extending in width from 10 to 50 km, these ranges have altitudes between 900 and 1,100 meters. They are composed of unconsolidated sediments, and the longitudinal valleys between the Lesser Himalaya and the Shivaliks are known as **Duns** (e.g., Dehra Dun).
- **Eastern Hills (Purvachal):** Beyond the Dihang gorge, the Himalayas bend sharply south, forming the Purvachal or Eastern hills along the border with Myanmar. These hills (including

the Patkai, Naga, Manipur, and Mizo hills) are composed primarily of strong **sandstones**, which are sedimentary rocks.

2. The Northern Plains

The Northern Plain was formed by the combined action of the **Indus, the Ganga, and the Brahmaputra** river systems and their tributaries, creating a fertile region composed of vast **alluvial soil** deposits.

- **Characteristics:** It covers 7 lakh sq. km, stretching approximately 2,400 km long and 240 to 320 km broad. Due to fertile soil, abundant water, and favorable climate, it is the most agriculturally productive and densely populated physiographic division of India.
- **Divisions:**
 - **Punjab Plains:** The western section, largely in Pakistan, formed by the Indus and its five main tributaries (Jhelum, Chenab, Ravi, Beas, and Satluj). The region is characterized by **doabs** (land between two waters).
 - **Ganga Plain:** Extends between the Ghaggar and Teesta rivers.
- **Relief Variations:** The plains are sometimes classified based on relief, moving from the mountains southward:
 - **Bhabar:** A narrow belt (8 to 16 km wide) of pebbles deposited by rivers descending from the mountains, where streams disappear.
 - **Terai:** South of the Bhabar, where streams re-emerge, forming a wet, swampy, and marshy, thickly forested region.
 - **Bhangar:** The largest part of the plains, composed of **older alluvium**, containing calcareous deposits locally known as **kankar**.
 - **Khadar:** The newer, younger deposits on the floodplains, renewed almost every year, making them highly fertile and ideal for agriculture.

3. The Peninsular Plateau

This ancient landmass is a tableland formed by the breaking and drifting of the Gondwana land. It consists of broad, shallow valleys and rounded hills.

- **The Central Highlands:** Lies north of the Narmada river, covering the major area of the Malwa plateau. The flow of rivers (Chambal, Sind, Betwa, Ken) from southwest to northeast indicates the slope of this region. Eastward extensions include the Bundelkhand, Baghelkhand, and the Chotanagpur plateau (drained by the Damodar river).
- **The Deccan Plateau:** A triangular landmass south of the Narmada. It is flanked by the Satpura range in the north and slopes gently eastwards. A distinct feature is the **Deccan Trap**, a black soil area of volcanic, igneous rock origin.
- **The Ghats:**
 - **Western Ghats:** Lie parallel to the western coast, are continuous, and have a higher average elevation (900–1600 meters). They cause **orographic rain** by forcing moist

winds up the western slopes. The highest peaks include the Anai Mudi (2,695 meters).

- **Eastern Ghats:** Stretch from the Mahanadi Valley to the Nilgiris, are discontinuous, irregular, and dissected by rivers flowing into the Bay of Bengal. The highest peak here is Mahendragiri (1,501 meters).

4. The Indian Desert

This undulating sandy plain lies toward the western margins of the Aravali Hills, receiving very low rainfall (below 150 mm per year). It has an arid climate and low vegetation. **Luni** is the only large river, and the landscape features **barchans** (crescent-shaped dunes) and longitudinal dunes, especially prominent near the Indo-Pakistan boundary.

5. The Coastal Plains

Narrow coastal strips flank the plateau along both coasts.

- **Western Coastal Plain:** Narrow, running between the Western Ghats and the Arabian Sea, divided into three sections: the **Konkan** (Mumbai – Goa, northern part), the **Kannad Plain** (central stretch), and the **Malabar Coast** (southern stretch).
- **Eastern Coastal Plain:** Wide and level, running along the Bay of Bengal, divided into the **Northern Circar** (northern part) and the **Coromandel Coast** (southern part). Major rivers form extensive deltas here. The **Chilika Lake**, the largest salt water lake in India, is an important feature of this coast, located south of the Mahanadi delta.

6. The Islands

India has two main island groups:

- **Lakshadweep Islands:** Located in the Arabian Sea near the Malabar coast, these are small islands composed of **coral deposits**. Kavaratti Island is the administrative headquarters.
- **Andaman and Nicobar Islands:** Located as an elongated chain in the Bay of Bengal, divided into Andaman (north) and Nicobar (south). They are believed to be elevated portions of submarine mountains, lie close to the equator, and have a thick forest cover and equatorial climate. India's only active volcano is found on Barren Island in this group.

Significance

The diversity of these physical features ensures that each region complements the others, enriching the country's natural resources. The mountains are major sources of water and forest wealth; the northern plains serve as the country's granaries; the plateau is a storehouse of minerals vital for industrialization; and the coasts and islands provide sites for fishing and port activities.

The third chapter in Geography, titled "**Drainage**," focuses on the river systems of India, outlining their characteristics, classification, and importance.

1. Basic Concepts of Drainage

The term "drainage" describes the **river system of an area**.

- **Drainage Basin:** This is the area drained by a single river system. The Amazon river has the world's largest drainage basin.
- **Water Divide:** Any elevated area, such as a mountain or an upland, that separates two drainage basins is known as a water divide. For example, Ambala is located on the water divide between the Indus and the Ganga river systems.

The drainage systems of India are chiefly controlled by the major relief features, dividing Indian rivers into two primary groups: **Himalayan rivers** and **Peninsular rivers**.

2. The Himalayan Rivers

Himalayan rivers (the Indus, the Ganga, and the Brahmaputra) are distinct from Peninsular rivers in several ways:

- **Perennial Flow:** They are **perennial**, meaning they have water throughout the year, receiving water from rainfall as well as from melted snow from the high mountains.
- **Long Courses:** These rivers have long courses from their source to the sea.
- **Erosion and Deposition:** In their upper courses, they perform intensive **erosional activity** and cut through mountains, forming **gorges**. In their middle and lower courses, they form features like **meanders**, **oxbow lakes**, and well-developed **deltas**.

Major Himalayan River Systems:

1. The Indus River System:

- The Indus rises in Tibet near Lake Mansarowar.
- It flows through Ladakh, forming a picturesque gorge, and is joined by tributaries like the Zaskar, Nubra, Shyok, and Hunza in the Kashmir region.
- The Satluj, Beas, Ravi, Chenab, and Jhelum join the Indus near Mithankot in Pakistan.
- With a total length of 2,900 km, a little over one-third of its basin is located in India (in Ladakh, Jammu and Kashmir, Himachal Pradesh, and Punjab). India is permitted to use only 20% of the total water carried by this system for irrigation in Punjab, Haryana, and parts of Rajasthan.

2. The Ganga River System:

- The headwaters (Bhagirathi) are fed by the Gangotri Glacier and join the Alaknanda at **Devprayag** in Uttarakhand. The Ganga emerges onto the plains at Haridwar.
- Tributaries from the Himalayas (Yamuna, Ghaghara, Gandak, and Kosi) flood parts of the northern plains every year, enriching the soil for agriculture. The Yamuna rises from the Yamunotri Glacier and meets the Ganga as a right bank tributary at Allahabad.

- Peninsular uplands contribute tributaries like the Chambal, Betwa, and Son, which have shorter courses and carry less water.
- The river flows eastwards until Farakka, where it bifurcates: the Bhagirathi-Hooghly flows southwards as a distributary, and the mainstream flows into Bangladesh, joining the Brahmaputra (where it is known as the Meghna).
- The combined Ganga-Brahmaputra flow forms the **Sundarban Delta**, which is the world's largest and fastest-growing delta, named after the Sundari tree. The Ganga is over 2,500 km long.

3. The Brahmaputra River System:

- It rises in Tibet, east of Mansarowar Lake, very close to the sources of the Indus and the Satluj. It is slightly longer than the Indus, with most of its course outside India.
- In Tibet, where it is known as the **Tsang Po**, the river carries less water and silt due to the cold, dry climate.
- It enters India through a gorge in Arunachal Pradesh near Namcha Barwa, where it is called the Dihang and is joined by the Dibang and the Lohit to form the Brahmaputra in Assam.
- In India, it passes through a high-rainfall region, carrying a large volume of water and silt. It frequently overflows its banks during the rainy season, causing devastation due to floods in Assam and Bangladesh.

3. The Peninsular Rivers

The main water divide in Peninsular India is formed by the **Western Ghats**. These rivers are characterized by their flow being **seasonal** (dependent on rainfall) and having courses that are generally shorter and shallower compared to Himalayan rivers.

East Flowing Rivers (Bay of Bengal):

Most major peninsular rivers flow eastward, making deltas at their mouths.

- **Godavari Basin:** This is the largest Peninsular river (about 1,500 km long). It rises in the Western Ghats (Nasik district, Maharashtra) and drains into the Bay of Bengal, covering parts of Maharashtra, Madhya Pradesh, Odisha, and Andhra Pradesh. It is known as the **Dakshin Ganga** due to its size.
- **Mahanadi Basin:** Rises in the highlands of Chhattisgarh and flows through Odisha to the Bay of Bengal (about 860 km long).
- **Krishna Basin:** Rises near Mahabaleshwar and flows for about 1,400 km to the Bay of Bengal.
- **Kaveri Basin:** Rises in the Brahmagiri range of the Western Ghats and flows through Karnataka, Kerala, and Tamil Nadu. The river forms the second biggest waterfall in India (Shivasamudram Falls), which is used to generate hydroelectric power.

West Flowing Rivers (Arabian Sea):

The Narmada and the Tapi are the only long rivers flowing west.

- **Narmada Basin:** Rises in the Amarkantak hills in Madhya Pradesh. It flows west through a **rift valley** formed due to faulting. It creates notable sites like the 'Marble rocks' (deep gorge near Jabalpur) and the 'Dhuadhar falls'.
- **Tapi Basin:** Rises in the Satpura ranges in Madhya Pradesh and flows in a **rift valley** parallel to the Narmada, but is shorter.
- Since the coastal plains between the Western Ghats and the Arabian Sea are very narrow, these west-flowing rivers form **estuaries** rather than deltas.

4. Lakes

Lakes are important resources that help regulate river flow (preventing floods during heavy rains and maintaining water flow during dry spells), moderate the climate, and promote tourism and recreation.

- **Freshwater Lakes:** Most freshwater lakes are located in the Himalayan region and are of glacial origin, formed when glaciers dug out basins filled later with snowmelt. Examples include Dal, Bhimtal, and Nainital.
- **Wular Lake** in Jammu and Kashmir is the largest freshwater lake in India, resulting from tectonic activity.
- **Saltwater Lakes/Lagoons:** Lakes formed by spits and bars in coastal areas are called lagoons (e.g., Chilika, Pulicat, Kolleru). The **Sambhar Lake** in Rajasthan is a saltwater lake whose water is used for producing salt.
- Artificial lakes, such as Guru Gobind Sagar (Bhakra Nangal Project), are formed by damming rivers for hydel power generation.

5. Rivers and the Economy & Pollution

- **Economic Significance:** Rivers provide a basic natural resource essential for irrigation, navigation, and hydro-power generation, which are especially vital for India's largely agriculture-dependent population.
- **Pollution:** The quality of river water is severely affected by the growing domestic, municipal, industrial, and agricultural demand for water, coupled with the heavy load of untreated sewage and industrial effluents that reduce the rivers' volume and capacity for self-cleansing.
- **Conservation:** Efforts to clean rivers began with the launch of the Ganga Action Plan (GAP) in 1985, which was later expanded to cover other rivers under the **National River Conservation Plan (NRCP)** in 1995, aiming to improve water quality through pollution abatement.

This section covers Geography Chapter 4, which focuses on the **Climate** of India. The chapter defines climate, highlights the significant regional variations within India, explains the factors controlling the climate, and describes the country's distinct seasonal cycle.

1. Defining Climate and Weather

- **Climate** refers to the sum total of weather conditions and variations prevailing over a large area for a **long period of time** (more than thirty years).
- **Weather** refers to the state of the atmosphere over an area at any single point in time.
- The fundamental elements of both weather and climate are the same: temperature, atmospheric pressure, wind, humidity, and precipitation.
- The climate of India is generally described as the '**monsoon**' type. The word *monsoon* is derived from the Arabic word *mausim*, which literally means "season". The term refers to the **seasonal reversal in the wind direction** during a year.

2. Regional Climatic Variations

Despite the overarching monsoon pattern, there are major regional variations across India:

- **Temperature Differences:** In summer, the temperature in the Rajasthan desert can reach 50°C, while simultaneously, it may be only about 20°C in Pahalgam (Jammu and Kashmir). In winter, the temperature in Drass (Jammu and Kashmir) can drop to minus 45°C, whereas Thiruvananthapuram remains moderate at 22°C.
- **Diurnal Range (Day vs. Night):** The Thar Desert experiences a huge difference between day and night temperatures (rising to 50°C and dropping near 15°C the same night), a contrast almost unnoticeable in coastal areas like the Andaman and Nicobar Islands or Kerala.
- **Precipitation Differences:** Precipitation varies significantly in amount and type.
 - Annual precipitation ranges from over **400 cm in Meghalaya** to **less than 10 cm in Ladakh and western Rajasthan**.
 - Precipitation is mainly snowfall in the upper Himalayas, but rainfall across the rest of the country.
 - Most regions receive rainfall from June to September, but the Tamil Nadu coast gets a large portion of its rain during October and November.

3. Major Controls of India's Climate

Six major factors control the climate of any place, and several specifically influence India:

1. **Latitude:** The **Tropic of Cancer** runs through the middle of the country, dividing India into tropical (south) and sub-tropical (north) areas. Therefore, India's climate has characteristics of both tropical and subtropical climates.
2. **Altitude:** The Himalayan mountains, with an average height of about 6,000 meters, act as barriers. They prevent the brutally cold winds originating from Central Asia from entering the subcontinent, resulting in comparably milder winters in North India.
3. **Pressure and Wind System:** India lies in the region of **north easterly winds**. Typically, these winds blow over land and carry little moisture, suggesting India should be an arid land.

However, seasonal pressure changes cause a **reversal of winds** in summer, leading to the moisture-laden Southwest Monsoon.

4. **Distance from the Sea (Continentality):** Coastal areas benefit from the sea's moderating influence, experiencing less temperature contrast. Areas far inland experience **continentality**, characterized by very hot summers and very cold winters.
5. **Relief:** High mountains affect climate by serving as barriers for winds and causing rain if they lie in the path of moisture-bearing winds (like the Western Ghats causing orographic rain).

4. The Seasons in India

The monsoon climate is characterized by a distinct seasonal pattern, which is most noticeable in the interior regions. India recognizes four main seasons:

I. The Cold Weather Season (Winter)

This season lasts from mid-November to February in Northern India.

- **Temperature:** Temperatures decline from the south (Chennai, 24°–25°C) to the north (Northern Plains, 10°–15°C). Frost is common in the north, and snowfall occurs on higher Himalayan slopes.
- **Rainfall:** The prevailing northeast trade winds blow from land to sea, making the season generally dry. However, these winds bring rainfall to the **Tamil Nadu coast** because they blow from sea to land there. Additionally, **cyclonic disturbances** originating over the Mediterranean Sea bring small but important winter rains ('**mahawat**') over the northern plains, vital for the cultivation of *rabi* crops.

II. The Hot Weather Season (Summer)

Lasting from March to May, temperatures rise due to the northward shift of the global heat belt.

- **Low Pressure:** Rising temperature causes air pressure to fall in the north, forming an elongated low-pressure area extending from the Thar Desert to the Chotanagpur plateau.
- **Loo and Storms:** A striking feature is the '**loo**,' strong, gusty, hot, dry winds that blow during the day over north and northwestern India. Localized thunderstorms, known as '**Kaal Baisakhi**' in West Bengal, bring torrential rain and hail. Pre-monsoon showers, or '**mango showers**,' occur toward the end of summer, aiding mango ripening in Kerala and Karnataka.

III. Advancing Monsoon (The Rainy Season)

Starting in early June, the intensifying low-pressure area in North India attracts the **Southwest Monsoon winds** from the warm southern Indian Ocean.

- **Rainfall:** These strong, moisture-laden winds bring widespread rainfall. The windward side of the Western Ghats receives heavy rainfall (over 250 cm), and Mawsynram (Khasi Hills) records the highest average rainfall worldwide. Rainfall generally decreases from the east to the west in the Northern Plains.
- **Monsoon Breaks:** The monsoon features '**breaks**,' alternating wet and dry spells that are unpredictable and can cause severe floods in one area or drought in another, often disturbing the farming schedule.

IV. Retreating/Post Monsoons (Transition Season)

During October and November, the low-pressure trough weakens and is replaced by a high-pressure system.

- **October Heat:** The high temperature combined with humidity creates oppressive weather known as '**October heat**'.
- **Tropical Cyclones:** The low-pressure area shifts to the Bay of Bengal, where it leads to cyclonic depressions (originating over the Andaman Sea). These destructive tropical cyclones frequently strike the eastern coasts (Odisha, West Bengal, and the deltas of the Godavari, Krishna, and Kaveri), providing the bulk of the rainfall to the Coromandel Coast.

5. The Monsoon as a Unifying Bond

The monsoon is considered a unifying bond in India. The constant seasonal shift in wind systems creates a rhythmic cycle of seasons that impacts the entire subcontinent.

- The Indian landscape, its animal and plant life, and the entire agricultural calendar, including people's festivals, revolve around the monsoon phenomenon.
- The Himalayas moderate temperatures by blocking cold air.
- The river valleys that carry monsoon water also unite as a single unit, binding the country together.

This is an excellent way to prepare for map-based questions, especially those that test your knowledge of sources and relationships (like rivers originating from a specific lake).

Here is a comprehensive list of all explicit geographical locations, features, rivers, and boundaries mentioned across Geography Chapters 1, 2, 3, and 4 in your sources.

Comprehensive List of Geographical Locations (Chapters 1-4)

I. Rivers and Associated Features (Origins, Confluences, Trough)

River System	Source/Origin (Headwaters)	Major Tributaries / Confluences / Important Sites
Indus	Rises in Tibet , near Lake Mansarowar .	Jhelum, Chenab, Ravi, Beas, Satluj (join near Mithankot, Pakistan); Zaskar, Nubra, Shyok, Hunza (join in Kashmir region); Emerges at Attock ; Drains into the Arabian Sea east of Karachi .
Ganga	Headwaters (Bhagirathi) fed by Gangotri Glacier ; Joined by Alaknanda at Devprayag in Uttarakhand .	Yamuna (rises from Yamunotri Glacier , meets Ganga at Allahabad);, Ghaghara, Gandak, Kosi (rise in Nepal Himalaya); Chambal, Betwa, Son (from Peninsular uplands); Bhagirathi-Hooghly (tributary near Farakka).
Brahmaputra	Rises in Tibet , east of Mansarowar lake .	Enters India near Namcha Barwa (7757 m) through a gorge in Arunachal Pradesh ; Known as Dihang upon entry; Joined by Dibang, Lohit (to form Brahmaputra in Assam); Known as Tsang Po in Tibet ; Joins Ganga/known as Meghna in Bangladesh .
Godavari	Slopes of the Western Ghats in Nasik district of Maharashtra .	Purna, Wardha, Pranhita, Manjra, Wainganga, Penganga.
Krishna	Spring near Mahabaleshwar .	Tungabhadra, Koyana, Ghatprabha, Musi, Bhima; Nagarjuna Sagar (reservoir).
Kaveri	Brahmagiri range of the Western Ghats .	Reaches the Bay of Bengal south of Cuddalore in Tamil Nadu ; Amravati, Bhavani, Hemavati, Kabini; Shivasamudram Falls .
Mahanadi	Highlands of Chhattisgarh .	Flows through Odisha ; Forms delta on the Eastern Coast; Hirakund (reservoir).
Narmada	Amarkantak hills in Madhya Pradesh .	Flows through a rift valley ;, Creates 'Marble rocks' and ' Dhuadhar falls ' near Jabalpur .
Tapi	Satpura ranges , in the Betul district of Madhya Pradesh .	Flows in a rift valley ;, Forms estuary .
Other Rivers	Luni (only large river in Indian Desert), Damodar (known as "Sorrow" of West	

Bengal),, **Beas** (origin **Beas Kund**),
Baitarni, **Subarnrekha**, **Sabarmati**,
Mahi, **Bharathpuzha**, **Periyar**.

II. Geographical Features (Mountains, Hills, Plateaus, Deserts)

Feature Type	Specific Location Names	Chapter References
Major Mountain Ranges	Himalayas , Himadri (Great/Inner), Himachal (Lesser), Shiwaliks (Outer), Purvachal .	Geo 2
Himalayan Ranges/Hills	Karakoram, Zaskar, Kunlun Mts., Pir Panjal, Dhauladhar, Mahabharat ranges, Patkai hills, Naga hills, Manipur hills, Mizo hills.	Geo 2
Peninsular Ranges/Hills	Aravali Hills , Vindhyan range , Satpura range , Mahadev, Kaimur hills, Maikal range, Western Ghats (Sahyadris),, Eastern Ghats , Garo, Khasi, Jaintia Hills,.	Geo 2, Geo 4
Highest Peaks	K2 (Map Skills), Mt. Everest (Nepal), Kanchenjunga (India), Nanga Parbat (India), Anai Mudi (2,695m), Doda Betta (2,637m), Mahendragiri (1,501m), Namcha Barwa (7,756m),.	Geo 2, Geo 3
Plateaus	Peninsular Plateau , Central Highlands , Deccan Plateau , Malwa plateau , Chotanagpur plateau .	Geo 2
Deserts	Indian Desert (Thar Desert), Western Rajasthan .	Geo 2, Geo 4
Valleys/Passes/Duns	Kashmir, Kangra, Kullu Valley; Dehra Dun, Kotli Dun, Patli Dun; Thal, Bhore, Pal Ghats.	Geo 2

III. Coasts, Seas, Islands, and Coastal Divisions

Feature Type	Specific Locations/Names	Chapter References
Oceans/Seas	Indian Ocean , Arabian Sea , Bay of Bengal , Palk Strait , Gulf of Mannar .	Geo 1, Geo 2
Coastal Divisions	Western Coastal Plain : Konkan (Mumbai – Goa), Kannad Plain, Malabar Coast ,. Eastern Coastal Plain : Northern Circar, Coromandel Coast ,.	Geo 2, Geo 4
Island Groups	Andaman and Nicobar Islands ,; Barren Island (active volcano); Lakshadweep Islands (coral origin),. Kavaratti island (HQ of Lakshadweep). Maldives Islands (Southern neighbour).	Geo 1, Geo 2

IV. Lakes and Reservoirs (Markable Water Bodies)

Lake Name	Location / Type	River System Context
Wular Lake	Jammu and Kashmir ; Largest freshwater lake,.	Indus System.

Dal Lake	Kashmir (Freshwater),.	—
Chilika Lake	Odisha (Saltwater/Lagoon),.	Mahanadi delta region.
Sambhar Lake	Rajasthan (Saltwater, inland drainage),.	—
Pulicat Lake	Coastal Area (Lagoon),.	—
Kolleru Lake	Coastal Area (Lagoon),.	—
Loktak Lake	Freshwater.	—
Bhimtal	Freshwater.	—
Nainital	Freshwater.	—
Barapani	Freshwater.	—
Guru Gobind Sagar	(Artificial/Reservoir).	Bhakra Nangal Project.
Rana Pratap Sagar	(Artificial/Reservoir).	—
Nizam Sagar	(Artificial/Reservoir).	—
Nagarjuna Sagar	(Artificial/Reservoir).	Krishna river.
Hirakund	(Artificial/Reservoir).	—

V. Regions and Cities (Locations for Climate, UTs, Boundaries)

Location Name	Context / Significance	Chapter References
Tropic of Cancer	Divides India into two halves (23° 30'N),.	Geo 1, Geo 4
Standard Meridian	82°30'E, passes through Mirzapur (in Uttar Pradesh).	Geo 1
Indira Point	Southernmost point of the Indian Union (submerged during Tsunami).	Geo 1
Kanniyakumari	Location where difference in day/night duration is "hardly felt".	Geo 1
Jaisalmer	Location in the Indian Desert to see barchans.	Geo 2
Dudhwa National Park	Located in the Terai region of the Northern Plains.	Geo 2
Mawsynram	In the Khasi Hills ; receives the highest average rainfall in the world,.	Geo 4
Drass	Jammu and Kashmir ; experiences extremely cold winter temperature (minus 45°C).	Geo 4
Pahalgam	Jammu and Kashmir ; moderate summer temperature (20°C).	Geo 4
Thiruvananthapuram	Kerala ; location of high temperature stability (22°C in winter),.	Geo 4

Mirzapur	Location in Uttar Pradesh through which the Standard Meridian passes.	Geo 1
Delhi	High temperature contrast,.	Geo 4
Jodhpur	High temperature contrast / driest area,.	Geo 4
Udagamandalam (Ooty)	Famous hill station.	Geo 2
Kodaikanal	Famous hill station.	Geo 2
Neighbouring Countries	Pakistan, Afghanistan, China (Tibet), Nepal, Bhutan, Myanmar, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, Maldives,.	Geo 1
Major States/Cities	Mumbai,, Chennai,, Kolkata, Bengaluru,, Nagpur, Shillong, Hyderabad.	Geo 1, Geo 4
Union Territories	Andaman & Nicobar Islands, Lakshadweep Islands, Kavaratti , Puducherry (Puducherry), Daman and Diu, Dadra & Nagar Haveli, Chandigarh, Ladakh, Jammu and Kashmir.	Geo 1, Geo 3