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Nature And Subject Matter Of Geography

Derived from the Greek words **geo** (earth) and **graphos** (description), Geography means **“description of the earth.”** It draws data from **both natural and social sciences** and seeks to synthesize this information. **Geography** studies areal differentiation, exploring why phenomena differ across regions by analyzing factors like **soil, climate, market demands, and human capacity**, creating **cause-effect relationships**.

Geography answers three key questions:

What exists on earth's surface? Where is it found? and why is it **located there?**

It interprets spatial patterns and examines interactions between nature and humans.

Geography is a discipline of synthesis

- It integrates knowledge from both natural and social sciences.
- Focuses on spatial synthesis, unlike history which emphasizes temporal synthesis.

Geography has a holistic approach

- It recognizes the interdependence of various systems (**Natural, Social, Economic, Cultural**).
- Views the world as a unified system (**global village**).

Interconnected with other sciences

- **Natural sciences:** Geology, Meteorology, Botany, Zoology, etc.
- **Social sciences:** History, Economics, Political Science, Sociology, etc.
- Helps understand the spatial variation of phenomena studied in other disciplines.

Geography explains historical events spatially

- Geographic factors like mountains, rivers, and coasts have influenced **migration, trade, wars, and colonization**.
- **Example:** Himalayas protected India; sea routes enabled European colonization.

Geographical phenomena are dynamic

- Landforms, climate, vegetation, and cultures change over time.
- Geography studies these changes by linking them to **specific historical and spatial contexts**.

Time is the fourth dimension in geography

- Other **three dimensions:** Length, Breadth, and Height (Depth).
- Time and space are interconnected (e.g., distance can be measured in hours).

Technology enhances geographical studies

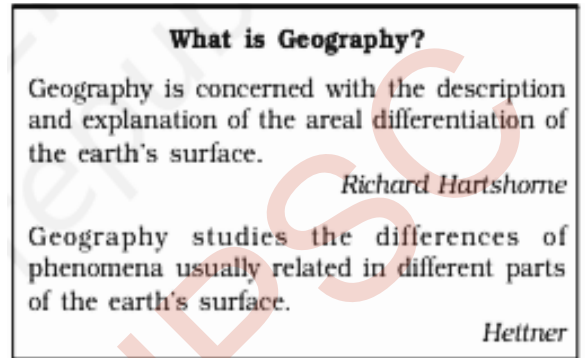
- Use of GIS, remote sensing, and data from **audio-visual media** improves analysis and monitoring of spatial patterns.

Branches of Geography

- Geography, an **interdisciplinary subject**, is studied through **two approaches**: the systematic approach (**Humboldt**) that analyzes global phenomena and patterns, and the regional approach (**Ritter**) that studies regions holistically.
- It also reflects a dualism between physical geography (**Natural processes**) and human geography (**human activities**), both essential to understanding the Earth's surface.

Branches of Geography (based on systemic approach)

Physical Geography: Focuses on natural features and	• Geomorphology: Studies landforms, their origin, evolution, and the processes shaping them. • Climatology: Focuses on atmospheric structure, weather patterns, climatic types, and regions.
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processes of the Earth.	• Oceanography and Hydrology: Examines water bodies like oceans, rivers, lakes, and their impact on life and human activities. • Soil and Pedology Geography: Analyzes soil formation, types, fertility, distribution, and utilization.
Human Geography: Explores human activities, society, and their spatial interactions.	• Social/Cultural Geography: Studies societal structure, spatial behavior, and cultural expressions across regions. • Population and Settlement Geography: Deals with population dynamics (growth, distribution, migration) and the nature of rural and urban settlements. • Economic Geography: Examines economic activities like agriculture, industry, transport, trade, tourism, and infrastructure. • Historical Geography: Explores how historical events and processes have shaped geographical spaces over time. • Political Geography: Investigates political boundaries, interrelations between political units, elections, and political behavior within spatial contexts.
Biogeography: A bridge between physical and human geography, focusing on living organisms in spatial contexts.	• Phytogeography (Plant Geography): Studies the spatial distribution of natural vegetation and ecosystems. • Zoogeography: Focuses on the distribution and habitat characteristics of animal species. • Ecology/Ecosystem Studies: Analyzes relationships between organisms and their environments. • Environmental Geography: Addresses environmental issues like pollution, land degradation, and promotes sustainable development and conservation.

Branches of Geography Based on Regional Approach

1. Regional Studies / Area Studies

- Focus on studying **geographical phenomena** within specific regions.
- Divided into **Macro (large)**, **Meso (medium)**, and **Micro (small)** level regional studies.

2. Regional Planning

- Involves planning for balanced development.
- Includes rural/country planning and urban/town planning.

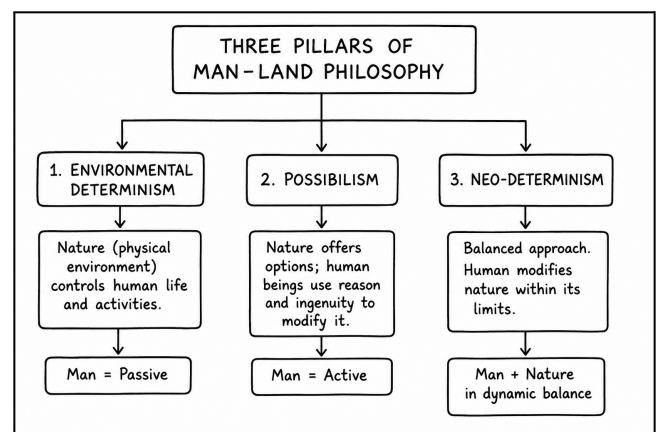
3. Regional Development: Concerned with strategies and actions to improve regional economies and quality of life.

4. Regional Analysis: Uses spatial data and techniques to evaluate regional characteristics, disparities, and development potential.

Common Aspects Across Branches of Geography

A. Philosophy of Geography

- **Geographical Thought:** Explores the evolution of geographical knowledge and ideas.
- **Human Ecology:** Studies the relationship between humans and their environment (land and people interaction).
- The **Three Pillars of Man-Land Philosophy:**
 - **Environmental Determinism:** Nature dictates and controls human actions and culture.



- **Possibilism:** Nature offers choices, while **human technology and culture** actively shape the environment.
- **Neo-Determinism:** A middle path where humans navigate nature's choices like a traffic controller, bound by **ecological limits**.

B. Methods and Techniques

- **Cartography:** Art and science of map-making, now includes **Computer Cartography**.
- **Quantitative Techniques:** Use of mathematical/statistical tools for spatial analysis.
- **Field Survey Methods:** Collection of first-hand data through fieldwork.
- **Geo-informatics:**
 - **Remote Sensing:** Observation of Earth through **satellites or aerial imagery**.
 - **GIS (Geographic Information System):** Tools for mapping and spatial analysis.
 - **GPS (Global Positioning System):** Satellite-based system for accurate location identification.

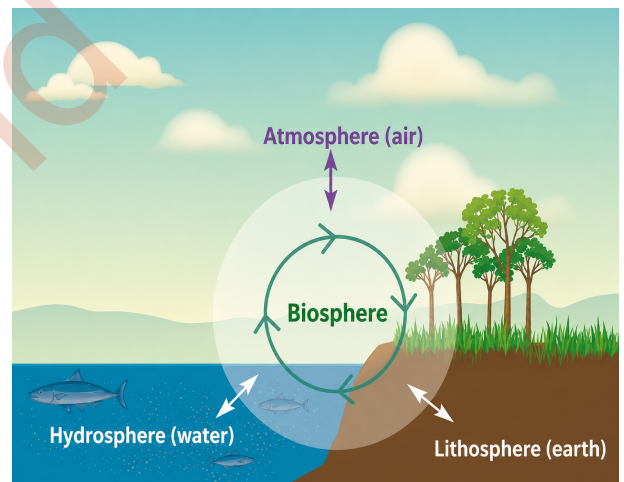
Physical Geography

Scope of Physical Geography

- Physical geography focuses on studying the natural environment of the Earth.
- It includes the study of the **lithosphere, atmosphere, hydrosphere, biosphere, and soils**.

Key Components of Physical Geography

- **Lithosphere**
 - Studies landforms, relief, drainage, and physiography.
 - Landforms like **plains, plateaus, and mountains** influence human settlement and activities.
- **Atmosphere**
 - **Covers weather and climate:** temperature, pressure, wind, precipitation, and climatic types.
 - Climate impacts **Human life** (housing, clothing, food) and agriculture.
- **Hydrosphere**
 - Involves study of oceans, seas, lakes, and other water bodies.
 - Oceans provide marine resources including **food, energy, and minerals** like manganese nodules.
- **Biosphere**
 - Focuses on life forms including humans, plants, and animals.
 - Studies food chains, ecosystems, and ecological balance.
- **Soil Geography**
 - Examines **soil formation (Pedogenesis)**, types, fertility, and use.
 - Soils are renewable and vital for agriculture and vegetation, soils form very slowly and may be considered renewable over geological time, but are **vulnerable to degradation**.



Importance of Physical Geography in Human Life

- **Landforms influence land use:** plains for farming, plateaus for minerals, mountains for tourism and water sources.
- Climate affects **vegetation, cropping patterns, industries, and water availability**.
- Precipitation replenishes **groundwater, vital for agriculture and domestic use**.
- Oceans provide **food, energy, and mineral resources**.
- Soils sustain **agriculture, forests, and biodiversity**.



- Natural barriers like **mountains and oceans** historically guided **human migration routes, established political boundaries**, and isolated or connected cultures.

Relevance of Physical Geography Today

- Helps in **evaluating and managing natural resources** effectively.
- Aids understanding of the interdependence between **nature and human life**.
- Essential for sustainable development by promoting responsible resource use.
- Addresses challenges like **ecological imbalance** caused by excessive resource exploitation.

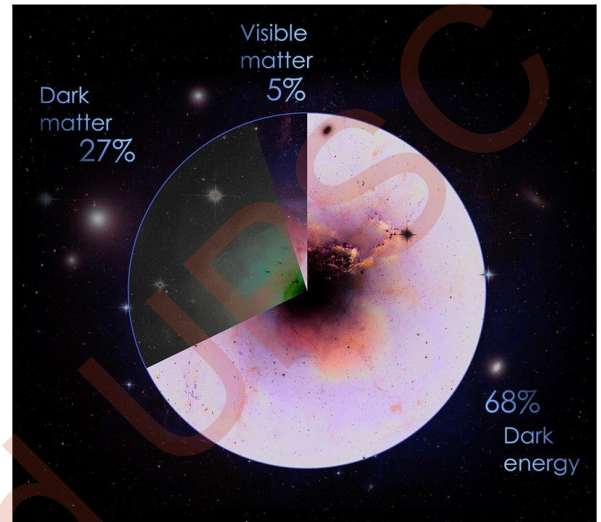
Geography is the study of Earth's **landscapes, environments, and the relationships** between people and their surroundings. Its subject matter spans both physical processes and human activities, making it a bridge between **natural and social sciences**.

The Origin and Evolution of Earth

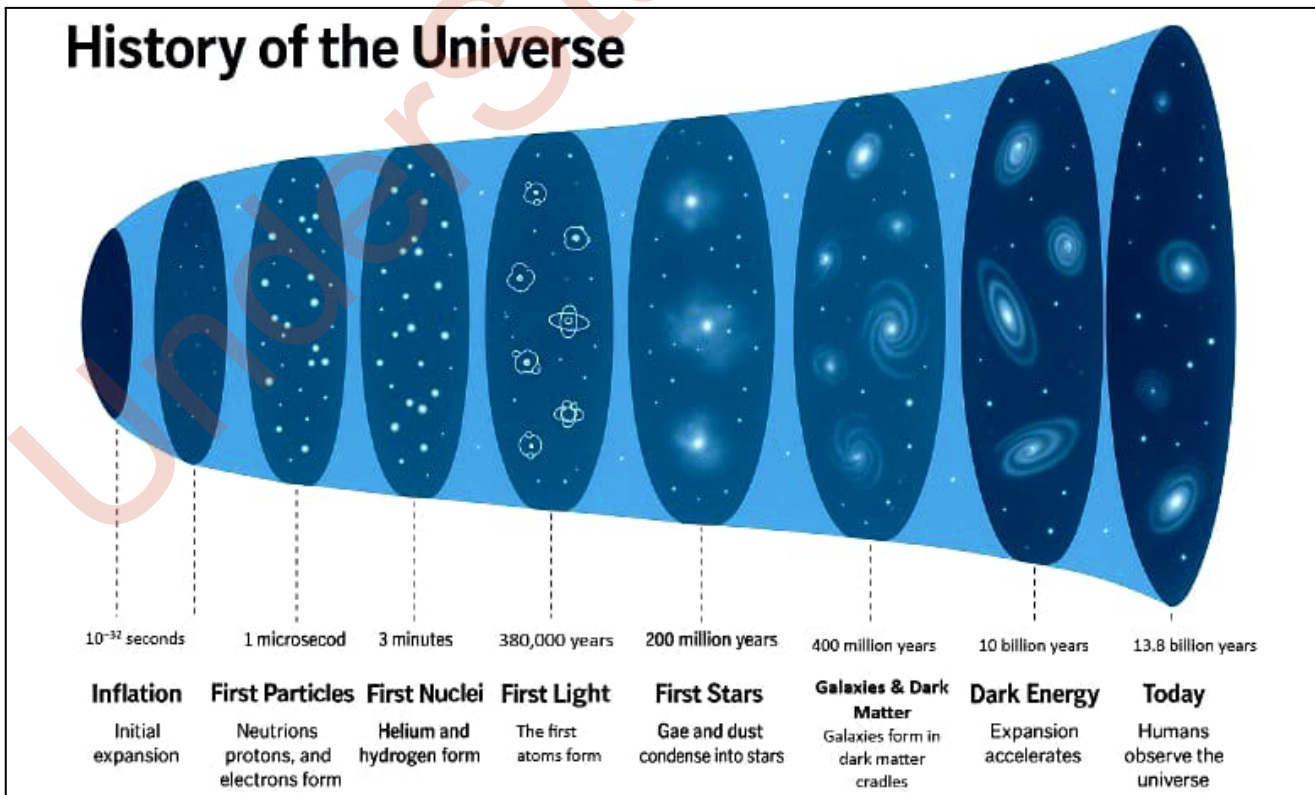
The **Universe** encompasses everything that exists: **planets, stars, galaxies, intergalactic space, subatomic particles, matter, and energy**. Within this **vast Universe** lies the solar system, which includes the Sun, eight planets, numerous **dwarf planets**, millions of smaller bodies like asteroids and comets, as well as vast amounts of gas and dust. **All these celestial objects** orbit the **Sun** in a consistent pattern.

Universe and Galaxies

- The universe is everything. It includes all of space, and all the matter and energy that space contains. It even includes time itself. (NASA)
- According to the widely accepted **“Concordance model”** of the **Universe**, about **70%** of the cosmos consists of dark energy, **25%** is dark matter, and **only 5%** is ordinary matter.
- **Galaxies** are vast space systems composed of dust and **countless stars**.
- The number of galaxies cannot be precisely counted.
- Some galaxies resemble our **Milky Way**, while others are quite different.
- The Milky Way has a diameter of about **100,000 light-years** and contains more than a 100 billion stars.
- Our Sun, along with its solar system, is located about **30,000 light-years** from the center of the **Milky Way**.
- Like other stars, the Sun and its solar system revolve around the galactic center, completing one revolution approximately every **224 million years**.



History of the Universe



Theories related to origin of Universe

Early Theories:

- Throughout history, many philosophers and scientists proposed hypotheses about how the **Earth** formed.
- One of the earliest and most popular was proposed by **Immanuel Kant** (German Philosopher).
- Pierre-Simon Laplace** (French Mathematician) revised this theory in **1796**. This came to be known as the **Nebular Hypothesis**.

The Nebular Hypothesis (Kant–Laplace Model)

- Suggested that planets formed from a **cloud of material** linked to a young, slowly rotating **Sun**.
- This cloud of gas and dust gradually condensed, leading to the **formation of planets**.

Modified Nebular Hypothesis (1950s)

- Otto Schmidt** (Russia) and **Carl Weizsäcker** (Germany) revised the original **Nebular Hypothesis**.
- Their version proposed:
 - The Sun was surrounded by a **solar nebula** consisting mainly of **hydrogen, helium, and dust**.
 - Friction and collisions** between particles caused the material to flatten into a **disk-shaped cloud**.
 - Planets formed through the **process of accretion** (**Gradual Accumulation Of Particles**).

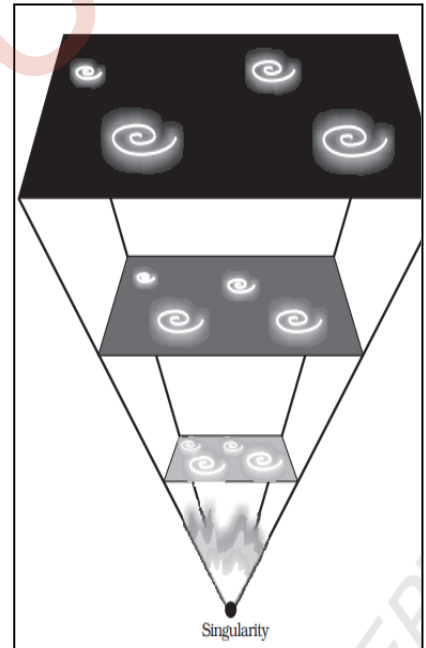
Later scientists moved beyond just explaining the Earth's origin.

Research expanded to address the origin of the universe as a whole, **not only** the Earth or the **Solar System**.

MODERN THEORIES

1. Big Bang Theory (Expanding Universe Hypothesis)

- Most widely accepted theory** for the **origin of the universe**.
- Proposed as an **expanding universe hypothesis**.
- Edwin Hubble (1920s)** provided observational evidence that galaxies are moving away from each other, indicating the **universe** is expanding.
- Balloon Analogy**- Mark points (**Galaxies**) on a balloon; as the balloon inflates, the points move farther apart.
- Limitation**:
 - In reality, galaxies themselves are **not expanding**, only the **space between them** is increasing.
 - The analogy is **only partially correct**.
 - The **Big Bang Theory** does not actually explain what banged, why it **banged**, or what **existed** before the bang.



The Big Bang Theory considers the following stages in the development of the universe:

Stage 1: Initial State	All matter in the universe was concentrated in a tiny, dense, extremely hot point ("Singular Atom") with infinite temperature and density.
Stage 2: Big Bang Event	- Occurred 13.7 billion years ago. - The tiny point exploded violently, leading to a rapid expansion. - Some energy is converted into matter. - Expansion was fastest in the first fractions of a second, then slowed down. Within the first 3 minutes: Formation of the first atoms began. - The expansion continues even to the present day.

Stage 3: Formation of Atomic Matter	• Within 300,000 years of the Big Bang: ○ The temperature dropped to 4,500 Kelvin. ○ Atomic matter formed. ○ The universe became transparent (radiation could pass through space freely).
--	---

The **expansion of the universe** refers to the increase in the space separating galaxies. An alternative explanation, proposed by **Fred Hoyle**, was the **Steady State Theory**, which suggested that the universe remains essentially the same **at all times**. However, with stronger evidence supporting the expansion of the universe, the **scientific community now widely accepts the expanding universe model** over the steady state concept.

Classification of Galaxies (Edwin Hubble)

1. Spiral Galaxies	• Have a central bulge and a flattened disk containing spiral arms. • Classified based on bulge size, tightness, and appearance of arms. • Spiral arms contain: ○ Many young, blue stars. ○ Large amounts of gas and dust. • Stars in the bulge are generally older and redder. • Disk rotation resembles a hurricane or whirlpool.
2. Barred Spiral Galaxies	• A type of spiral galaxy with a bar-shaped collection of stars running through the central bulge. • Our own Milky Way is now classified as a barred spiral galaxy.
3. Elliptical Galaxies	• Lack of disks and spiral arms. • Have a smooth, oval-shaped appearance. • Contain mostly old stars with very little gas or dust. • Shape ranges from nearly round to highly elongated (baseball-shaped to football-shaped). • Stars move in random orbits, unlike the organized rotation in spirals. • Motion resembles a swarm of bees.
4. Irregular Galaxies	• Do not fit into spiral or elliptical categories. • Have no definite shape. • Usually smaller in size. • Contain very hot, young stars along with large amounts of gas and dust.

The Formation of Stars

- A galaxy contains a large number of stars. **Galaxies** spread over vast distances that are measured in thousands of **light-years**.
- The diameters of individual galaxies range from **80,000-150,000** light years.
- A galaxy starts to form by accumulation of **hydrogen gas** in the form of a very large cloud called a **Nebula**.
- Eventually, growing **nebulae** develop localised **clumps of gas**. These clumps continue to grow into even denser gaseous bodies, giving rise to formation of stars. (CSE 2023)
- The formation of stars is believed to have taken place **5-6 billion years ago**.

Light Year
• A light year is a measure of distance and not of time.

- **Light travels** at a speed of 300,000 km/second.
- Considering this, the distance the light will travel in one year is taken to be one light year. This equals 9.461×10^{12} km.
- The mean distance between the **sun** and the **earth** is 149,598,000 km.
- In terms of light years, it is **8.311** minutes.
- The speed of light is **always the same**, that's why astronomical distances are measured in light years. (CSE 2021)

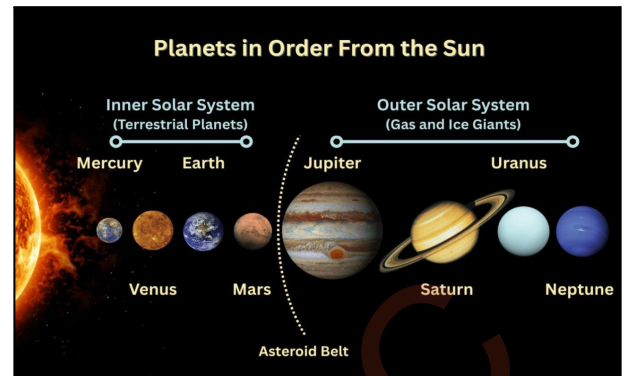
The Solar System

- The Solar System is believed to have formed about **4.6 billion years ago** through the gravitational collapse of a **giant molecular cloud**.
- It is made up of the **Sun and all the objects** that orbit it, either **directly or indirectly**.
- Objects that orbit the Sun directly include the **8 largest bodies** known as planets, along with many smaller objects such as dwarf planets, asteroids, and comets, collectively called **Small Solar System Bodies (SSSBs)**.
- Those that orbit the Sun indirectly are the **natural satellites, or moons, of planets and other bodies**.
- **All the planets** revolve around the Sun in **Elliptical orbits**. Like the earth, they shine only by reflecting the **Sun's light**.
- The Sun has a surface temperature of $6,000^{\circ}\text{C}$.
- **Mercury** is the smallest and closest to the sun. A year on Mercury is only 88 days. It is also the planet with lowest Albedo. [CSE 2008]
- Second in line is **Venus**, considered as '**Earth's Twin**' because of their close proximity in size, mass (weight) and density.
- It is also the hottest planet in the **Solar System** because of its thick atmosphere of carbon dioxide and runaway greenhouse effect [CSE 2005]. It is the planet with the highest albedo.
- Next is **Earth**, the only planet with life. Often referred to as the "**Blue Planet**" due to water covering roughly 71% of its surface.
- It has the highest density among all the planets in the solar system. The fourth planet from the sun is **Mars**. It has two moons, **Phobos and Deimos**.
- Mars hosts **Olympus Mons**, the largest volcano and highest known mountain in the entire solar system.
- Next comes **Jupiter**, the largest planet in the solar system. Its surface is made up of many gases like **hydrogen, helium, and methane**. [CSE 2009]
- Another planet is **Saturn**, second largest in size. It is so far from the sun that it takes 29 and half years to complete its orbit.
- The seventh planet, **Uranus**, unlike other planets orbits around the sun on its side, with its axis tilted nearly **98 degrees**. This causes extreme **21-year-long seasons**. It rotates in a retrograde motion (**East to West**).
- The last one **Neptune** closely resembles **Uranus** in terms of composition and appearance.
- The planets vary in size, with those located toward the middle of the Solar System being larger than those at the edges. Geophysicists refer to this size arrangement as "**cigar-shaped**."
- The planets are generally classified into **two groups**: the **inner or terrestrial planets**, which are smaller and rocky, and the outer planets, which are larger and composed mainly of gases.

	Mercury	Venus	Earth	Mars	Jupiter	Saturn	Uranus	Neptune
Distance*	0.387	0.723	1.000	1.524	5.203	9.539	19.182	30.058
Density*	5.44	5.245	5.517	3.945	1.33	0.70	1.17	1.66
Radius*	0.383	0.949	1.000	0.533	11.19	9.460	4.11	3.88
Satellites	0	0	1	2	about 53	about 53	about 27	13

1. Inner or Terrestrial Planets: The inner circle consists of four planets including **Mercury, Venus, Earth** along with **Mars** and **Asteroids**. These planets are called **inner planets** as they lie between the Sun and the belt of asteroids and are closer to the Sun.

- They are called terrestrial which means **Earth like**, as they are made up of rocks and metals.
- These planets are comparatively small in size and have relatively higher density.
- Their speed of **rotation is less**.
- They either have no satellite or very few satellites for example the Earth has **only one** and Mars have **two satellites**.



2. The outer planets: They are also known as the **giant planets** or **Jovian planets** (Jupiter like). The outer circle consists of four planets namely **Jupiter, Saturn, Uranus, and Neptune**.

- These planets are bigger in size and are less dense.
- They have a thick atmosphere mostly composed of helium and hydrogen eg- Jupiter and Saturn.
- The two outermost planets, **Uranus** and **Neptune**, are composed largely of substances with relatively high melting points (compared with hydrogen and helium), called **ices**, such as water, ammonia and methane, and are often referred to separately as **"ice giants"**.
- Their speed of rotation and number of satellites are more compared to the inner planets.

The difference between terrestrial and jovian planets can be attributed to the following conditions:

- The terrestrial planets were formed in the close vicinity of the parent star where it was too warm for gases to condense to solid particles. **Jovian planets** were formed at quite a distant location.
- The solar wind was most intense nearer the sun; so, it blew off lots of gas and dust from the terrestrial planets. The solar winds were not all that intense to cause similar removal of gases from the **Jovian planets**.
- The terrestrial planets are smaller and their lower gravity could not hold the escaping gases.

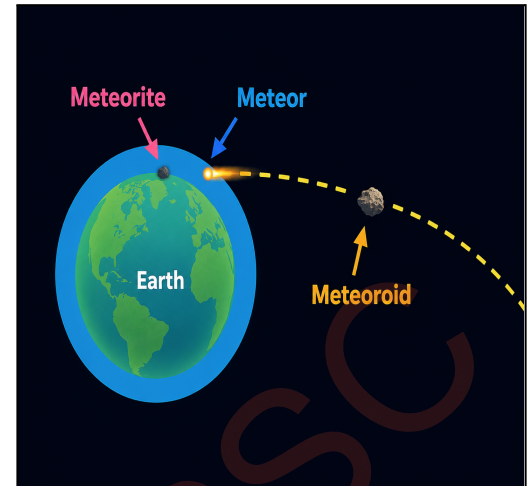
Characteristics of the Solar System

- All planets have some tilt of their rotational axes relative to their **orbital planes (ecliptic)**. The degree of tilt varies from planet to planet
- All the planets rotate around their axis and the speed of rotation of these planets vary from each other.
- Seen from above the Sun's north pole, all planets revolve around the Sun in an anti-clockwise direction.
- The path of these planets is either **circular or elliptical**.
- All these planets are very small in size and mass when compared to the Sun. The Sun comprises about **99.86% of the mass of the Solar System**.
- In the Solar System, angular momentum is unevenly distributed. While the Sun holds **99.9% of the total mass**, it has only **1.7% of the total angular momentum**.
- The planets, which contain just **0.1% of the mass**, possess the remaining **98.3% of the angular momentum**.

Solar Objects

- **Asteroid:** An asteroid is a small, rocky object and when seen in a telescope, it appears as a point of light. Most asteroids are found in a ring between the orbit of Mars and Jupiter called the **Asteroid belt**. [CSE 2011]
- **Comet:** A comet also orbits the Sun, but unlike an asteroid, it's composed of ice and dust. So, when a comet gets close to the Sun, its ice and dust content start to vaporize.
- So, when seen in a telescope, a comet appears fuzzy and/or has a tail. They are often famously described by astronomers as **"Dirty snowballs."** [CSE 2011, 1995]

- **Meteoroid:** A meteoroid is a small piece of asteroid or a comet, typically pebble-sized, but could be a little smaller or a little larger, and often created from a collision.
- **Meteor:** When a meteoroid gets close to the Earth and enters the Earth's atmosphere, it's called a **meteor**. And a **meteor enters** the Earth's atmosphere at a very high speed. So it burns up and produces a streak of light called a **shooting star**.
- **Meteorite:** If a meteor survives the burn and lands on the ground, it's called a meteorite. A classic Indian example is the **Lonar Crater Lake in Maharashtra**, which was formed by a basaltic meteorite impact during the **Pleistocene Epoch**.



Important facts with respect to solar system

- **Kuiper Belt & Scattered Disc:** Located beyond **Neptune's orbit**; populated mainly by icy bodies (**Trans-Neptunian Objects**).
- **Dwarf Planets:** Objects large enough to be rounded by their own gravity but **not** classified as full planets. **Examples:**
 - **Ceres** (in the **Asteroid Belt**).
 - **Pluto** and **Eris** (in the **Kuiper Belt/Scattered Disc**).
- **Dwarf Planets Criteria:** According to the **International Astronomical Union (IAU)**, dwarf planets meet the first two criteria of a planet (orbiting the Sun and being spherical) but fail the third: **they have not "Cleared the neighborhood" around their orbit.**
- **Other Small-Body Populations**
 - **Centaurs:** icy-rocky bodies with unstable orbits between **Jupiter** and **Neptune**.
 - **Interplanetary Dust:** fine particles traveling freely between regions.
- **Natural Satellites:** Found orbiting six planets, at least **three dwarf planets**, and many smaller bodies.
- **Planetary Rings:** Each outer planet is surrounded by rings composed of dust and small objects.
- **Solar Wind and Heliosphere:** **Solar Wind** is the flow of plasma from the Sun. It creates a bubble in interstellar space called the **heliosphere**, extending to the edge of the scattered disc. Beyond the heliopause lies pristine interstellar space.
- **Oort Cloud & Heliopause**
 - **Oort Cloud:** hypothetical region far beyond the heliosphere; source of **long-period comets**; possibly 1,000× farther than the **heliosphere**.
 - **Heliopause:** boundary where solar wind pressure equals opposing interstellar wind pressure.
- **Location in the Galaxy:** The **Solar System** lies in one of the outer arms of the **Milky Way Galaxy**, which contains about 200 billion stars.
 - Our Solar System is specifically located in the **Orion Cygnus Arm** (also known as the **Orion Spur**) of the **Milky Way**.
- Saturn has thousands of Ringlets (Grouped into **7 main rings**) and 145 known **Satellites (Moons)** as of 2025 (**NASA**). In size, it is the second largest planet (after **Jupiter**).
- Uranus orbits around the sun in a clockwise direction from east to west, with 27 known moons (**E.g., Miranda, Ariel, Umbriel, Titania, Oberon**).

Formation of Planets

- **Initial Stage:** Stars begin as concentrated clumps of gas within a **Nebula**. **Gravitational forces** cause these clumps to form a dense central core, surrounded by a large rotating disc of gas and dust.
- **Planetesimal Formation:** The gas cloud condenses, and matter around the core forms small, rounded objects. Through cohesion, these objects become **planetesimals** and numerous small celestial bodies. **Collisions and gravitational attraction** cause some to merge into larger bodies.
- **Planet Formation:** Over time, planetesimals combine through accretion, forming fewer but larger bodies, which **evolve into planets**.

Importance of Stars and Planets

Stars:	• Source of Energy: The Sun, our nearest star, through Nuclear Fusion in its core provides light and heat essential for life on Earth. • Element Formation: Supernova explosions of dying stars create heavy elements like iron and gold. • Navigation: Ancient sailors used the North Star (Polaris) to find direction at sea. • Understanding the Universe: Observing stars like Betelgeuse helps scientists study how stars age and die.
Planets:	• Support Life: Earth is the only known planet to support life due to its atmosphere and water. ◦ Goldilocks Zone: Region around a star where conditions are "Just right" neither too hot nor too cold for liquid water to exist on the surface of a planet. [CSE 2015] • Learning about Other Worlds: Mars is studied for signs of past water and possible microbial life. • Stability in the Solar System: Jupiter's gravity helps protect Earth by attracting comets and asteroids. • Space Exploration: Missions like Voyager and Juno study planets to advance science and technology.
IAU Parameters for a planet:	
A planet is a celestial body that (a) is in orbit around the Sun , (b) has sufficient mass for its self-gravity to overcome rigid body forces so that it assumes a hydrostatic equilibrium (nearly round) shape, and (c) has cleared the neighborhood around its orbit .	

Geological Time Scale

- **Geologists** have classified the **Earth's history** into a number of time intervals of different length of time depending on the major events in the life history of the **Earth** depending on the **evidence of the fossils**.
- The **geological time scale** presents the history of the Earth divided in a **hierarchical set of divisions** of geologic time based on geochronology and dating of the sequential events throughout the Earth's history.
- While most geologists agree on the use of **Eon, Era, and Period**, local terms are often used at lower levels to describe specific depositional environments.

A) EON	The geological time scale has been divided into four major time divisions called eons. These are 1. Hadean (4570 to 3850 Ma), 2. Archean (3850 to 2500 Ma), 3. Proterozoic (2500 to 541 Ma), and 4. Phanerozoic (540 Ma to present) (1) Hadean Eon (4500–4000 Ma) • Oldest phase in Earth's history (4500 Ma). • Marked by heavy meteorite bombardment. • No evidence of life on rocks. • This is the era when the Earth completely melted, causing heavy iron and nickel to sink to the center to form the Core. (2) Archean Eon (4000–2500 Ma) • First evidence of life: prokaryotes like blue-green algae and bacteria. • Stromatolites (3500 Ma) found globally. (3) Proterozoic Eon (2500–541 Ma) • Emergence of multi-cellular life (trace fossils like worm trails). • Life forms lacked shells; rocks lacked coal, oil, and gas. • Hematite (Fe₂O₃) deposits formed. • Stromatolites from blue-green algae were present. • Great Oxidation Event (GOE): The oxygen produced by cyanobacteria reacted with dissolved iron in the oceans, causing it to rust and settle to the ocean floor. This created the world's most valuable Banded Iron Formations (BIFs), which we mine for iron ore today. (4) Phanerozoic Eon (541 Ma – Present) • Era of "Visible life"; most fossil records from this time. • Diverse life forms: plants, animals, fungi, algae. • Evolution of skeletons, shells, and vertebrates.
B) ERA	The Phanerozoic Eon has been divided into Paleozoic: "Age of Fishes", Mesozoic: "Age of Dinosaurs" and Cenozoic era: "Age of Mammals". 1) Paleozoic Era (541 – 252 Ma): Divided into six periods: • Cambrian (541–485 Ma): ○ First organisms with shells (e.g. trilobites). ○ Mud-burrowing scavengers are considered as the index species of this Period ○ "Cambrian Explosion" of multi-cellular invertebrates. • Ordovician (485–444 Ma): ○ This period is known as the "Years of Invertebrates" ○ Abundant invertebrates like trilobites and brachiopods. ○ First appearance of fishes. • Silurian (444–419 Ma): ○ First land plants. • Devonian (419–359 Ma): ○ Dominance of fishes, early sharks, insects, seed plants. ○ Evolution of lungfish and amphibians. ○ By the end of the Devonian, growth of forest formation. ○ It is also called "Age of Fishes" due to high fish diversity. • Carboniferous (359–299 Ma):

- **First reptiles appeared.**
- Large **coal deposits** formed from tropical swamps.
- Sometimes split into **Mississippian** and **Pennsylvanian periods**.
- **Permian (299–252 Ma):**
 - Known as **“Age of Amphibians”**.
 - Ends with the **Great Paleozoic Extinction**: Towards the end of the Permian Period the dominance of trilobites and many more marine species started becoming extinct.
 - Theory of plate tectonics suggested that by the end of this **Permian Period**, all the continents were together as one super continent called **Pangaea** which subsequently started breaking and spreading into the present configuration.

2) Cenozoic Era (66 Ma – Present): Known as the **“Age of Mammals”**

This era consists of two distinct periods i.e. **Tertiary** and **Quaternary**. The Tertiary period again is divided into two periods of **Paleogene** and **Neogene**.”

- **Paleogene Period (66–23 Ma):**
 - Post-dinosaur extinction recovery.
 - Rise of mammals and flowering plants.
 - Subdivided into **Paleocene, Eocene, Oligocene**.
 - Britain shifted from warm to cooler climate.
 - The Indian Plate collided with the **Eurasian Plate**, initiating the rise of the Himalayas.
- **Neogene Period (23–2.6 Ma):**
 - Includes Miocene and Pliocene epochs.
 - Further diversification of mammals and birds.
- **Quaternary Period (2.6 Ma – Present):**
 - Includes **Pleistocene** (Ice Age) and **Holocene** (Modern time).
 - Human evolution and spread.
 - Glaciation shaped much of Britain’s landscape

The **Geological Time Scale** divides Earth’s 4.6-billion-year history into eons, eras, periods, and epochs, marking key geological and biological events. It provides a framework to study Earth’s evolution, extinctions, and future changes.