



Name: Plaben Subject: Geography

Time: ----- Maximum Marks: 180

		TO BE FILLED BY EVALUATOR
Question No:	Marks allotted	Comments
Q: 1 (a)	46	→ If the question demands then it needs elaboration (ex → Q-4/2nd part)
Q: 1 (b)		
Q: 1 (c)		
Q: 1 (d)		
Q: 2	48	→ 2-3 facts are mis-represented
Q: 3	50	
Q: 4		
Q: 5 (a)		
Q: 5 (b)		→ maps → more geographical significance
Q: 5 (c)		
Q: 5 (d)		
Q: 6		
Q: 7		
Q: 8		

Total Marks (Obtained):

Feedback/Comment/Suggestion:

Structure → 8/10
Presentation → 10/10
context → 9/10
content → 8/10
Handwriting/language skills → 10/10
Intro - conclusion → 9/10

overall
excellent
writing
"✓"
Keep it
up

Optional Test Series: ~~Test~~ (Geomorphology)

Syllabus: *Origin of the earth, Physical conditions of the earth's interior; continental drift; isostasy; plate tectonics; mountain building; volcanism and earthquakes; weathering and erosion, Concepts of geomorphic cycles (Davis and Penck), Landforms associated with fluvial, arid, glacial, coastal and karst region, Polycyclic landforms.*

Candidates Should attempt Question No: 1 (compulsory) and attempt two questions out of three. (Q. No: 2, 3 & 4)

1. Mark the location of any Ten of the following on the Map of World or Map of India. Also write in your answer script the most significant aspect of each of them in not more than 20 words. (6 x 10 = 60 marks)
 - a) Dead Sea
 - b) Death Valley
 - c) Mt Elbrus
 - d) K₂
 - e) Gobi Desert
 - f) Great Dividing Range
 - g) Toronto
 - h) Alaska
 - i) Jalandhar
 - j) Zavar
 - k) Kandla
 - l) Kudremukh
2. Explain "Plate Tectonic Theory". Give a detailed account of Indian Plate movement and Himalaya formation. (60 marks)
3. Write an essay on geomorphic cycles with reference to the theories explained by Davis and Penck. Discuss cycle of erosion by fluvial process (rivers) and landforms associated. (60 marks)
4. Discuss Big Bang Theory on earth's origin. Also elaborate the formation of Earth's Atmosphere. (60 marks)

The World

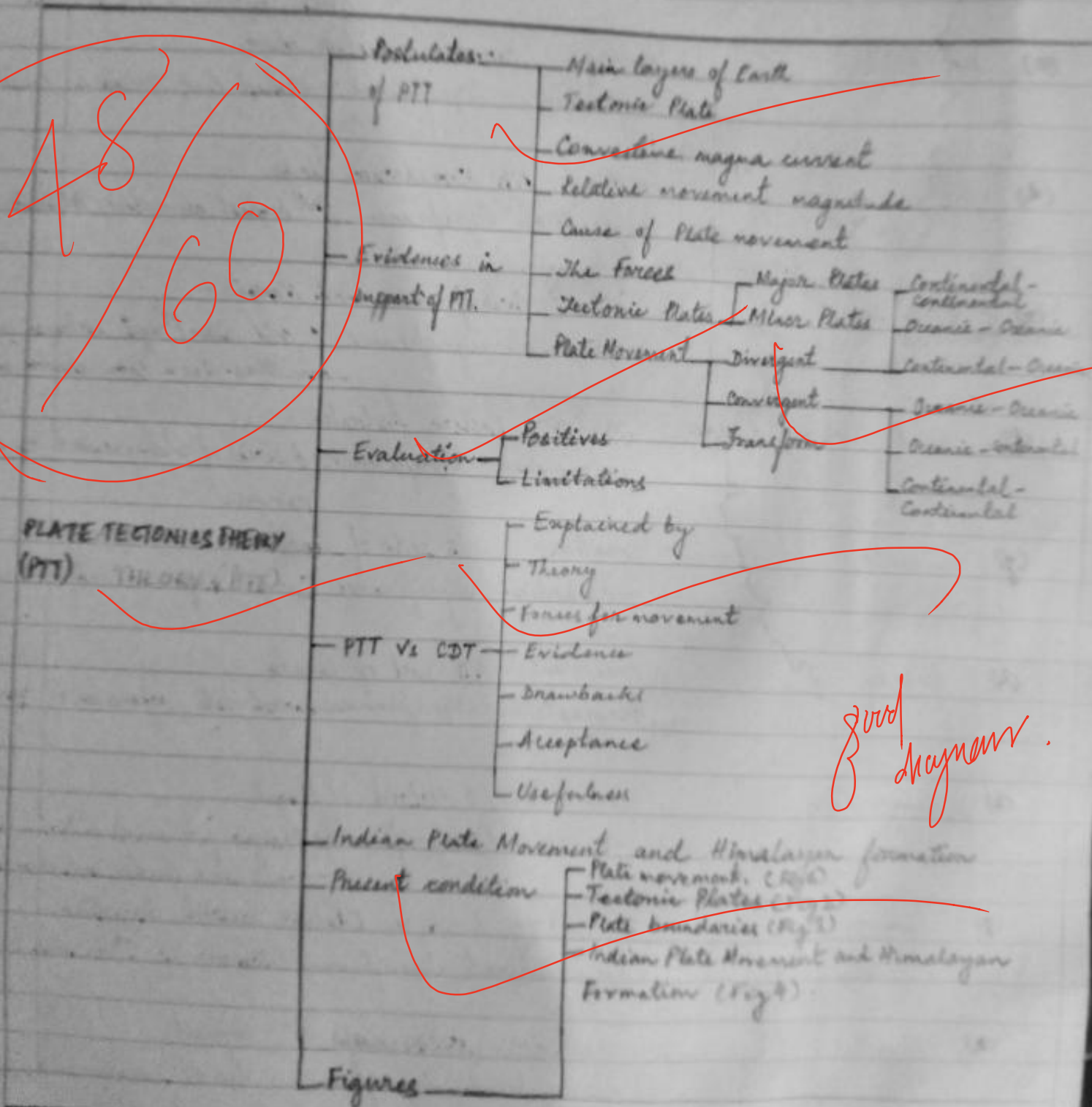


- 1 (a) Dead Sea
Location: Between Jordan (East) and Israel (West).
Geographical Significance: Earth's lowest elevation on land (392 m to 400 m).
World's saltiest (34.2%) bodies of water.
- (b) Death Valley
Location: SE California, US.
Geographical Significance: Lowest, hottest and driest portion of North America. It is a graben.
- (c) Mt. Elbrus
Location: Caucasus mountain chain.
Geographical Significance: Highest peak (5642 m) in Russia.
- (d) K₂
Location: NW Karakoram Range.
Geographical Significance: 2nd highest mountain (8611 m) in the world.
- (e) Gobi Desert
Location: Parts of China and Mongolia.
Geographical Significance: A cold desert with extreme weather conditions. It is a rain-shadow desert.
- (f) Great Dividing Range
Location: Eastern Australia.
Geographical Significance: A series of plateaus and low mountain ranges.
- (g) Toronto
Location: SE side of Canada.
Geographical Significance: Largest major inland port of Canada.
- (h) Alaska
Location: NW part of Canada.
Geographical Significance: Largest state (area-wise) of Canada.
- (i) Jalandhar
Location: A district of Punjab.
Geographical Significance: Famous for sports industry, surgical goods and leather industry in the region.
- (j) Jowar
Location: A city in Vidarbha district, Maharashtra.
Geographical Significance: Famous for Zinc mines.
- (k) Kandla
Location: Kutch district, Gujarat.
Geographical Significance: Kandla harbour is a natural seaport.
- (l) Kundremukh
Location: A city in Karnataka.
Geographical Significance: Longest deposit of iron ore in the world.

Not counted

1st
5th

2. In late 1960s, the consolidation of works and evidences of different geomorphologists like Mc Kenzie, Parker, Wilson, & Holmes, Harry Hess, Wegener, etc led to the development of the "Plate Tectonics Theory." It gave a more comprehensive understanding about the movement related to the different parts of the Earth's crust (both oceanic and continental).



Postulates of PTT

1. The Earth is made up of 3 main layers (Core, Mantle and Crust).

On the surface of Earth are Tectonic Plates that slowly move around the globe.

2. A Tectonic Plate (Lithospheric Plate) is a massive, irregularly shaped slab of plate of solid rock. It is composed of both continental and oceanic Lithosphere.

3. Under the effect of Convective Magma Current (Convection Current Hypothesis by A. Holmes), the Lithosphere Plate floats over the fluid-like (visco-elastic solid) Asthenosphere.

That leads to plate movement.

4. The relative movement of the plates typically ranges from Zero to 100 mm annually.

5. The cumulative effect of 3 phenomena like ridge push, slab pull and frictional drag led to plate movement.

6. The forces for Plate movement are generated due to internal heat of the Earth that includes Radioactivity, Residual heat and Gravitational heat.

7. The Earth's Lithosphere is composed of 7 Major Plates and Many Minor Plates. (Fig 2)

The Lithosphere is a rigid outermost shell of Earth and is broken up into Tectonic Plates.

7.1 Major Tectonic Plates

7.1.1 Antarctica and the surrounding Oceanic plate.

7.1.2 North American Plate

7.1.3 South American Plate

7.1.4 Pacific Plate

7.1.5 India - Australia - New Zealand Plate.

7.1.6 Africa with the Eastern Atlantic floor Plate

7.1.7 Eurasia and the adjacent Oceanic Plate.

7.2 Minor Tectonic Plates

- 7.2.1 Arabian Plate
- 7.2.2 Bismark Plate
- 7.2.3 Caribbean Plate
- 7.2.4 Carolina Plate
- 7.2.5 Cocos Plate
- 7.2.6 Juan de Fuca Plate
- 7.2.7 Nazca Plate
- 7.2.8 Philippine Plate
- 7.2.9 Persian Plate
- 7.2.10 Anatolian Plate
- 7.2.11 China Plate
- 7.2.12 Fiji Plate

map depiction
is needed.

8. Types of Plate Movements (Fig 3)

8.1 Divergent Movement

The boundary between 2 plates that are moving apart or lifting.

Lifting causes Seafloor Spreading.

8.1.1 Continental - Continental Divergence

When divergent convection flows between 2 continental plates due to tensional force, plates crack down and create faults and move away, forming block mountains and rift valleys. Eg: East African Great Rift Valley.

8.1.2 Oceanic - Oceanic Divergence

The magma comes out of the asthenosphere as it rises due to its denser and hot nature. It spreads in horizontal direction and cools down gradually.

Magma is basaltic and forms elongated sea between rifts and later forming the ocean floor. Eg: Red Sea.

8.1.3 Continental - Oceanic Divergence

Basaltic magma will always come from oceanic floor only and it is not possible that magma comes out and forms continent on one side and ocean on the other side. Hence Continental - Oceanic Divergence is not possible.

8.2 Convergent Movement

At a Convergent boundary, Plates collide and as such are sometimes called "Destructive boundaries" because they result in removal or compression of the Earth's crust.

Convergent Plate boundaries are responsible for some of the most massive and spectacular of earthly landforms: major Mountain Ranges, Volcanoes and Oceanic Trenches.

8.2.1 Oceanic - Oceanic Convergence

8.2.1.1 If the convergent boundary is between 2 Oceanic Plates, subduction also takes place.

As one of the Oceanic Plates subducts beneath the other, an Oceanic Trench is formed, shall and deep-focus Earthquakes occur and volcanic activity is initiated with volcanoes forming on the Ocean floor.

8.2.1.2 With time, a volcanic Island Arc (Eg. Aleutian Islands and Mariana Islands) develops; such an Arc may eventually become a more mature Island Arc system (such as Japan and the Islands of Sumatra and Java in Indonesia are today).

8.2.2 Oceanic - Continental Convergence

8.2.2.1 Because the oceanic lithosphere includes dense Basaltic crust, it is denser than the continental lithosphere and so the oceanic lithosphere always under-rides the continental lithosphere when the 2 collide.

8.2.2.2 The dense oceanic plate slowly and inexorably sinks into the Asthenosphere in the process of subduction. The subducting slab pulls on the rest of the plate - such "slab pull" is the main cause of most plate movement, pulling the rest of the plate in after itself.

8.2.3 Continental - Continental Convergence

When there is a convergent boundary between 2 continental plates, no subduction takes place because

Add map diagram besides each paleogeograph.

because the continental crust is too buoyant to subduct. Instead huge mountain ranges, such as Alps, are built up. The most dramatic present day example of the continental collision has resulted in the formation of the Himalayas.

5.3 Transform or slide past movement

A Transform fault or Transform boundary (Strike slip boundary), is a fault along a plate boundary where the motion is predominantly horizontal.

Transform Plate boundaries are locations where 2 Plates are sliding past each other, and there is no creation or destruction of landform but only deformation of the existing landform.

In oceans Transform faults are the planes of separation generally perpendicular to the mid-oceanic ridges. North Anatolian Fault and San Andreas Fault (along the Western coast of USA) is the best example for a Transform current edges on continents.

rate of plate movement?

Evidences in support of PTT

1. Ocean deep drilling - Glomar Challenger
2. Joint Oceanographic Institutions for Deep Earth Sampling (JOIDES)
3. Hot spots
4. Palaeomagnetism
5. Magnetic reversal
6. Seafloor spreading.

Evaluation

1. Positives
 - 1.1 Most widely accepted theory.
 - 1.2 Explains all endogenous process and all physical features of Earth.
2. Limitation
 - 2.1 It couldn't explain the processes like Hotspot, Mantle convection cell creation, etc.
 - 2.2 It remains a largely descriptive and kinematics

key, albeit a remarkably predictive one.
In real world Plate Tectonics, Triple junctions and boundary conditions evolve, and Plates interact and re-form when conditions change.

2.3 It doesn't clearly explain the 2nd Order Features such as Fracture zones, Arcated terranes, Transform faults, Diffuse boundaries, Belts, Sutures and Microplates may hold the key to global tectonics and volcanism.

PTT Vs COT

Feature	Plate Tectonics Theory	Continental Drift Theory
1. Explained by	In 1967, McKenzie and Parker suggested the Theory of Plate Tectonics. Morgan later outlined the theory in 1968.	Put forward by Alfred Wegener in the 1910s.
2. Theory	Explains the movement of Lithospheric plates that include both continents and oceans.	Explains the movement of continents only.
3. Forces for movement	Convection currents in the mantle drag crustal plates.	Europy, gravity, pole-fleeing force, tidal currents, etc.
4. Evidence	Ocean bottom relief, Palaeomagnetic rocks, distribution of earthquakes and volcanoes, gravitational anomalies at trenches, etc.	Apparent affinity of physical features, botanical evidence, fossil evidence, glacial deposits, placer deposits, rocks of same age across different continents, etc.
5. Drawbacks	Nil significant	Too general with early and sometimes illogical evidence.
6. Acceptance	Most widely accepted.	Discredited.

Not needed

7. Usefulness

Helped us understand the various geographical features

Helped in the evolution of Convection Current Theory and Seafloor Spreading Theory

Indian Plate Movement and Himalayan formation

1. The Himalayas are the youngest mountain chain in the world.
2. Himalayan mountains have come out of a great depression called the Tethys Sea and the uplift has taken place in different phases.
3. During Permian Period (250 Million years ago), there was a supercontinent known as Pangaea.
4. Its Northern part consisted of the present day North America and Eurasia (Europe and Asia) which is called as Laurasia or Angaraland.
5. The Southern part consisted of the present day South America, Africa, South India, Australia and Antarctica which is called as Gondwanaland.
6. In between Laurasia and Gondwanaland, there was a long narrow and shallow sea known as the Tethys Sea.
7. There were many rivers which were flowing into the Tethys Sea.
8. Sediments were brought by these rivers and were deposited on the floor of the Tethys Sea.
9. These sediments were subjected to powerful compression due to the Northward movement of the Indian Plate. This resulted in the folding of the sediments and so the summit of Mt. Everest is made of marine limestone.
10. Once the Indian Plate started plunging below the Eurasian plate, these sediments were further folded and raised. This process is still continuing (India is moving Northwards at the rate of about 5 cm per year and crashing into the rest of Asia).
11. The folded sediments, after a lot of erosional activity, appear as the present day Himalayas. (1999)

12. Tibetan plateau was formed due to upthrusting of Southern block of the Indian Plate.

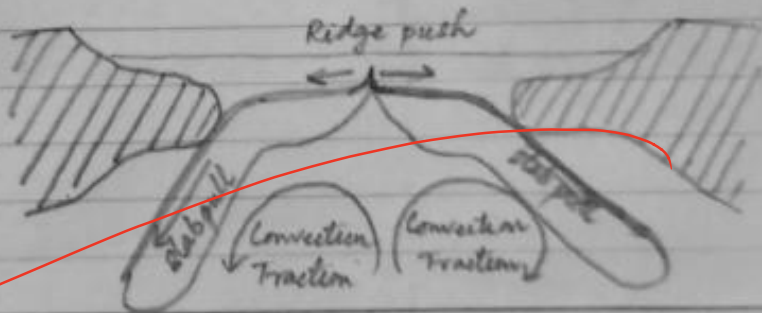
Present condition

At present, the movement of India continues to put enormous pressure on the Asian continent, and Tibet in turn presses on the landmass to the North that is hemming it in.

The net effect of Plate Tectonic forces acting on this geologically complicated region is to squeeze parts of Asia Eastward towards the Pacific Ocean.

One serious consequence of these processes is a deadly "domino effect": tremendous stresses build up within the Earth's crust, which are relieved periodically by Earthquakes along with the numerous faults that scar the landscape.

Plate Movement (Fig 1)



Tectonic Plates (Fig 2)

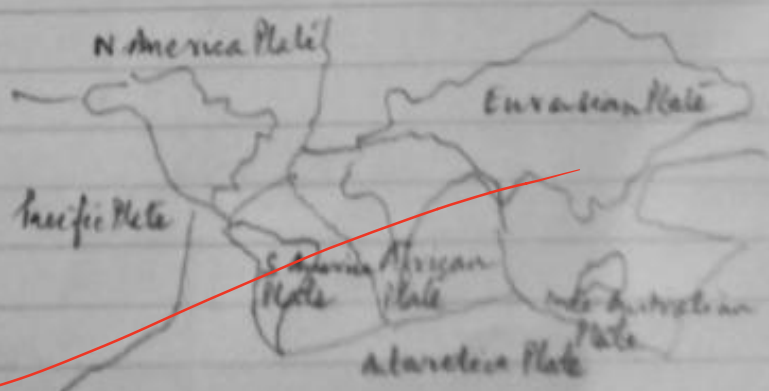
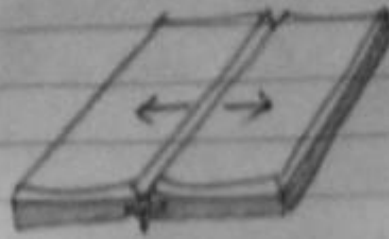
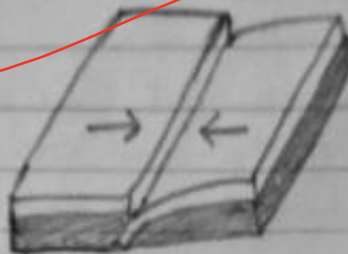


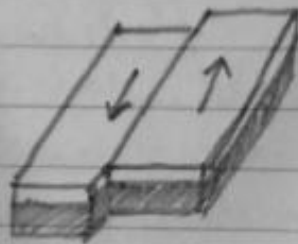
Plate Boundaries (Fig 3)



Divergent boundaries



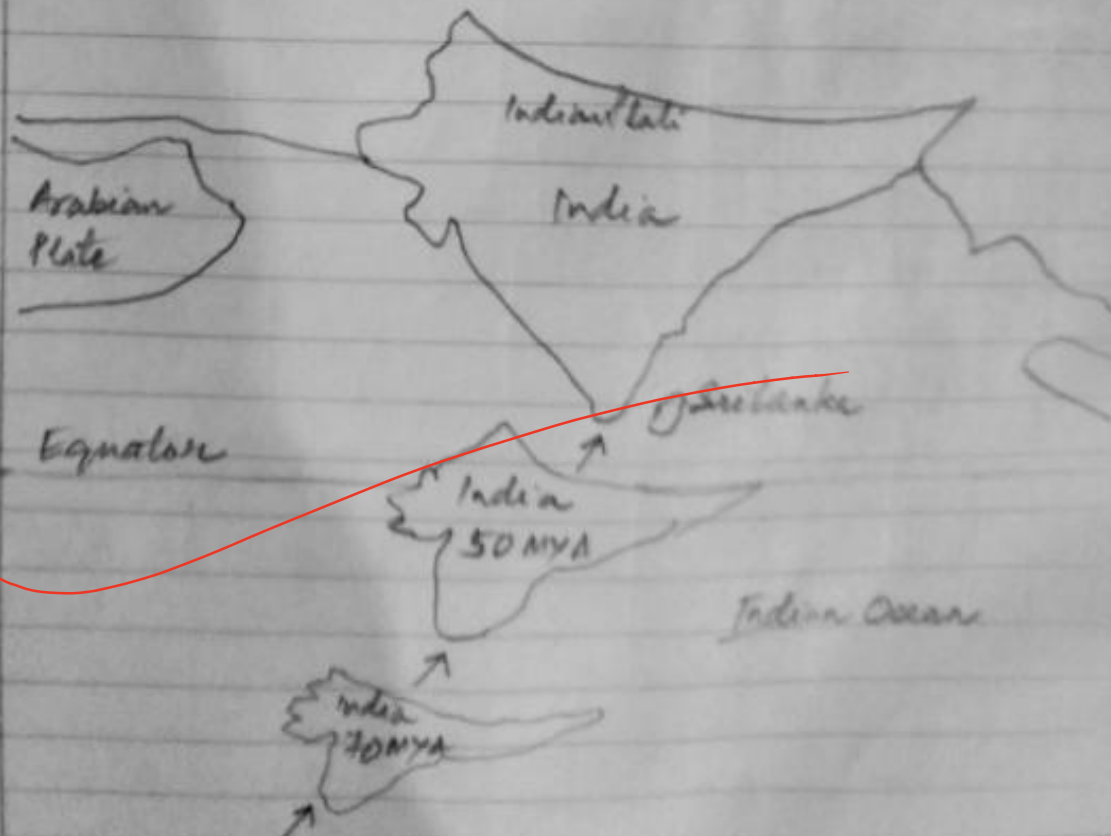
Convergent boundaries



Transform boundaries

Indian Plate movement
and Himalayan formation.
(Fig 4)

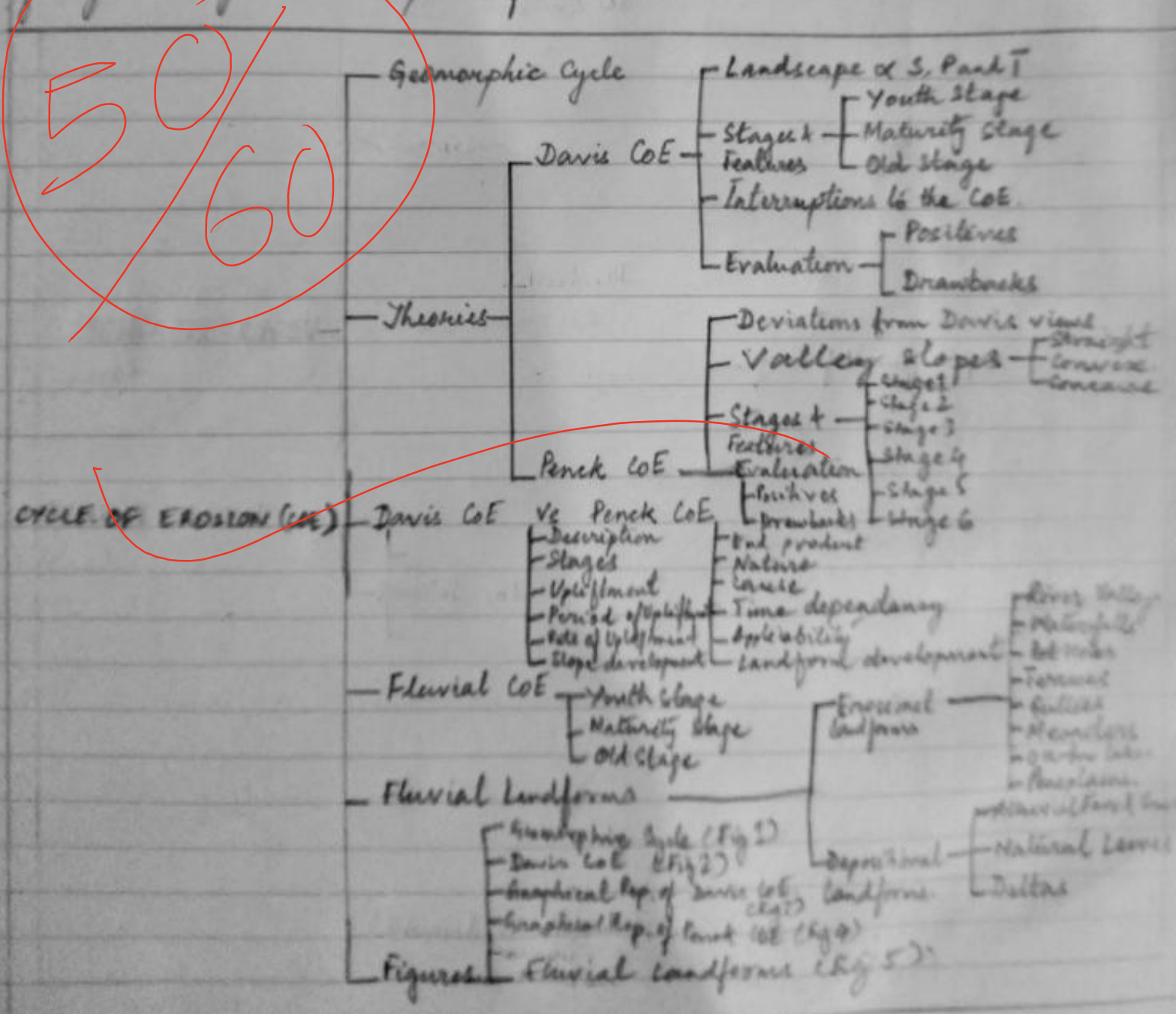
Eurasian Plate



Thus, the Plate Tectonics Theory is the grand unifying theory of Earth sciences, combining the concepts of Continental Drift and Sea-floor spreading into one holistic theory that explains many of the major structural features of the Earth's surface.

Broadly speaking geomorphology is the study of landforms which is a composite result of different endogenetic activities operated on that land or on that region. But exogenetic activities try their best to make a balance with that of endogenetic and their ultimate level of balance is the sea level below which they cannot perform their respective work. So, the balance between the 2 activities in a cyclic process is known as the cycle of erosion.

The concept of geographical cycle of erosion recognises the possibility of obliteration of relief (height difference), or plantation, during the life history of a landscape, by a process of erosion, occurring in a sequence of orderly changes, finally reducing the landscape relief to a minimum.



Geomorphic Cycle

It is a theory that talks about the evolution of landforms, where a cycle is usually regarded as constituting the sequence of changes from an initial stage via a series of stages to an ultimate state.

Erosion is a process in which various erosive agents (running water, wind, glacier, sea waves and underground water) obtain and remove rock debris from the Earth's crust and transport them for long distances.

Theories of Cycle of Erosion

1. Davisian Cycle of Erosion

William Morris Davis advanced the idea of "geomorphic cycle of erosion" in 1899. His major objective was to describe and explain the distinctive characteristics possessed by landforms. He described that all landscapes have definite life history after its emergence. Through different stages and after a long time the elevated landmass becomes a featureless and flat plain known as "Peneplain".

1.1 Accordingly, Davis has described the landscape as the function of Structure, Process and Time.

Landscape $\propto$ (Structure, Process and Time).

where,

Structure - includes nature (hardness, permeability) and attitude (folds, faults, joints, slopes) of rocks.

Process - implies the factors or agents responsible for weathering and erosion.

Time - implies the stage at which the cycle is - Youth, Maturity or old age.

For the purpose of demonstrating his cycle concept in the simplest and picturesque way, Davis imagined as an initial form a mass of land uplifted from beneath the sea by Earth movements. (Fig 2)

1.2 Stages and Features

1.2.1 Youth Stage

Davis assumed that the uplift of the land took place very rapidly, so that the processes of denudation were able to act almost from the start on what was in effect, a stable mass.

The uplift is complete and stopped now. Immediately erosion of the uplifted block sets in. The streams follow initial irregularities available without adjusting to the structure. These are consequent streams. The floors of the valley suffer down cutting while the summits remain almost unaffected. Increased relief heralds the beginning of mature ages indicated by widening of the gap between lines 'A' and 'B'.

~~1.2.1.1~~ Features

- Few Consequent Streams with few large Tributaries
- Headward Erosion by small Tributaries and Gullies.
- Development of V-shaped Valleys
- Lack of Floodplain development
- Interstream Tracts - wide and poorly drained; development of lakes and Swamps.
- Waterfalls and Rapids exist where stream crosses resistant Rockbeds.
- Stream Meandering may exist on flat, undissected initial surface but are closely confined.
- Maximum Altitude → Maximum Potential Energy.

1.2.2 Maturity Stage

At this stage the vertical erosion slows down and the horizontal action increases. A characteristic feature is the erosion of mountain tops at a faster rate than lowering of the valley floor. The coming closer of lines 'A' and 'B' indicates emergence of a gentle slope. The subsequent streams gain importance now.

~~1.2.2.1~~ Features

1.2.1 Youth Stage

Jarvis assumed that the uplift of the land took place very rapidly, so that the processes of denudation were able to act almost from the start on what was in effect a stable mass.

The uplift is complete and stopped now. Immediately erosion of the uplifted block sets in. The streams follow initial irregularities available without adjusting to the structure. These are consequent streams. The floors of the valley suffer down settling while the summits remain almost unaffected. Increased relief reveals the beginning of mature ages indicated by widening of the gap between lines 'A' and 'B'.

~~1.2.1.1~~ Features

- Few Consequent Streams with few large Tributaries
- Headward Erosion by small Tributaries and gullies
- Development of V-shaped valleys
- Lack of Floodplain development
- Interstream Trenches - wide and poorly drained; development of lakes and swamps
- Waterfalls and Rapids exist where stream crosses resistant rockbeds
- Stream Meandering may exist on flat, undissected initial surface but are closely confined
- Maximum Altitude → Maximum Potential Energy

1.2.2 Maturity Stage

At this stage the vertical erosion slows down and the horizontal action increases. A characteristic feature is the erosion of mountain tops at a faster rate than lowering of the valley floor. The coming closer of lines 'A' and 'B' indicates emergence of a gentle slope. The subsequent streams gain importance now.

~~1.2.2.1~~ Features

- Valleys extends → Well-integrated Drainage system
- Adjustment of streams with lithology and structure → Existence of longitudinal Tributaries along both of weak and
- Stream divides sharp and ridge-like → Minimum interstream uplands → Maximum Relief at early Maturity.
- Attainment of Profile of Equilibrium by master streams.
- Elimination of lakes and waterfalls
- Wide floodplains at Valley floor
- Conspicuous Meanders - Free to shift positions over floodplains
- Width of the Valley floors don't exceed the width of the Meander belts.
- Maximum possible Relief
- Topography consists much of slopes of Hillsides and Valley walls

1.2.3 Old Age Stage

A gentle gradient, accentuated by horizontal action & deposition, reduces the erosion intensity. A thick layer of sediment represents the earlier erosion activity. The land gets wellowed lines 'A' and 'B' run parallel to each other. Relicts of mountains or Monadnocks are dotting the water divides and a featureless plain - Peneplain is produced.

1.2.3.1 Features

- Tributaries - Less numerous than in Maturity but more in Youth.
- Valleys - Extremely broad & gently sloping laterally & longitudinally.
- Extensive floodplains with broadly meandering stream
- Valley widths - Greater than those of the Maturity stage
- Stream divides reduce in height, gently sloping → Residual hills (Monadnocks).
- Lakes, Swamps, Marshes on floodplains, not on interstream
- Mass Wasting - Dominant over fluvial processes.
- Extensive areas are near base level of Erosion

1.3 Interruptions to the Cycle of Erosion

1.3.1 Some change causes stream to speed up and cut deeper.

→ Uplift of land

→ Lowering of sea level

→ Greater stream flow

1.3.2 Stream Valley takes on youthful characteristics but retains features of older stages as well.

1.3.3 Can happen at any point in the cycle

1.3.4 Leads to development of Polycyclic or Multicyclic Landscapes.

1.4 Evaluation

1.4.1 Positives

→ The Davisian cycle affords a genetic classification and nomenclature of landscape as compared to a morphological one

→ It provides the means of expressing texture and the build of a landscape.

→ The consideration by Davis of change in base level as indication of the initiation of a new cycle has certain advantages:

⇒ The base level change can be considered a unit of time compared to the geologist's stratigraphical time unit.

⇒ The base level changes during glaciations are accommodated.

1.4.2 Drawbacks

→ The geographical cycle proposed by Davis is backward looking as it considers complete suspension of uplift after the erosion has set in

→ There are no logical grounds for the assumption that flat slopes are old and steep slopes are young.

→ The Davisian cycle doesn't take into account the Earth movements.

→ Too much of generalisation in the Davisian cycle presents an inadequate framework for landform interpretation.

- There is little evidence to prove that landforms actually evolve to an end product or peneplain.
- It was not practical and was later objected by Penck.

2. Penck's Cycle of Erosion

Penck propounded the theory of erosion in 1953. Though Penck has accepted the concept of cycle of erosion but not like the concept given by Davis. Penck was the main critic of the Davisian cycle. Penck has also told wrong the concept of Structure, Process and Time in the peneplanation of any landmass and he said that landforms are the result of phase, rate of upliftment and degradation. Penck has given some different terminology at the place of Davisian Stages. He has also accepted the 3 stages but that are not showing the time factor but the rate of upliftment.

2.1 Deviations from the views of Davis.

Penck made certain deviations from the views of Davis:

2.1.1 Erosion doesn't remain suspended till the uplift is complete.

In fact, interaction between the 2 factors, uplift and degradation is continuous.

2.1.2 The rate of uplift keeps changing.

2.2 Types of Valley slopes

Penck proposed 3 types of Valley slopes on the basis of erosional intensity acting on crustal movements:

2.2.1 Straight slope

Indicates uniform erosion intensity and a uniform development of landforms or "Gleichformige Entwicklung" in German.

2.2.1 Convex slope

Indicates waxing erosion intensity and a waxing development of landforms or "Aufsteigende Entwicklung" in German.

2.2.2 Concave slope

Indicates waning erosion intensity and a waning development of landforms or "Absteigende Entwicklung" in German.

2.3 Stage and Features

2.3.1 Stage 1

With uplift, the interfluvies, as well as the lower parts, rise. There is a lack of brisk undercutting. Penck used the term "Primarsumpf" to represent the characteristic feature before upliftment. Primarsumpf is, in fact, initial surface or primary peneplain representing either newly emerged surface from below sea level or a "Fensterbank" or "Peneplain" type of land surface converted into featureless landmass by uplift.

2.3.2 Stage 2

Here, the rate of downcutting is less than the rate of uplift. There is not much change in relief.

2.3.3 Stage 3

Rate of downcutting becomes equal to the rate of uplift. Again there is not much change in relief.

2.3.4 Stage 4

Uplift comes to an end and the downcutting further intensifies. The height of interfluvies decreases. Deepening of valleys accelerates. A concave slope results. This is the stage of waning erosion or Absteigende Entwicklung.

2.3.5 Stage 5

The downcutting and the deepening of valleys slows down. The interfluvies are rounded and further lowered. A concave slope results. This is the stage of waning erosion or Absteigende Entwicklung.

2.3.6 Stage 6

Uniform erosion or gleichförmige Entwicklung characterises the end product - "Endsumpf" or "endplain".

2.4 Evaluation

2.4.1 Positives.

- Penck followed a deductive approach and did not restrict himself to any particular condition.
- Compared to the Davisian cycle, Penck's approach was forward looking.
- Penck emphasised the mutual relation between uplift and the deepening of valleys. This indicates Penck's respect for geological evidence. Penck's 3rd stage is evident in the Middle Aps.

2.4.2 Drawbacks

- Penck gave too much importance to the role of Endogenetic forces.
- The orderliness in landform changes, as assumed by Penck, may be difficult to achieve.
- Inadequate knowledge about the initial pristine landscape doesn't allow much verification.
- The concept of geographical cycle of Erosion itself has been criticised by many, since many of the cyclic generalisations are based on untested assumptions.
- An overemphasis on historical and evolutionary studies in landforms results in the reconstruction of stages of evolution becoming the focus of study.

Davis CoE vs Penck CoE	Feature	Davis CoE	Penck CoE
	1. Description	Davis suggested landform evolution as a function of Structure, Process and Time (Stage). Davis limited his idea upto Exogenic forces and almost ignored Endogenic forces.	Penck suggested that landform was resultant of competition between Endogenic and Exogenic forces. Penck paid equal attention to both the forces.
	2. Stages	Davis Cycle of Erosion has 3 Stages - Youth, Mature	Penck Cycle of Erosion has 4 Stages. He mentioned

and old age

5. conditions - *ansteigende, gleichbleibende und sinkende*

3. Upliftment

According to Davis, upliftment finished before degradation starts.

According to Penck, upliftment and degradation starts together as soon as the landmass was above the sea level.

4. Period of Upliftment

According to Davis the period of upliftment is small.

According to Penck, the period of upliftment is a long process.

5. Rate of Upliftment

The rate of upliftment is very rapid, according to Davis.

The rate of upliftment is sometimes slower and sometimes higher.

6. Slope Development

Davis didn't back his theory by a concrete slope development idea.

Penck's Cycle of Erosion contained the idea regarding slope replacement.

7. End Product

The end product of Davis Cycle of Erosion was Peneplain (A flat extensive featureless plain).

The end product of the Penck Cycle was Endmorff or Peneplain (Not entirely featureless).

8. Nature

Davis Cycle of Erosion is a monocycle, that means cycle complete after the old stage of landforms.

Penck's Cycle of Erosion is polygenic, that means a never-ending process; the cycle starts again by the rejuvenation of landforms.

9. Cause

In Davis cycle, landforms are the result of Davis Trias - Structure, Process and Time.

Penck's landforms are the result of the ratio between the intensity of Endogenic and Exogenic forces.

10. Time-dependency

Davis cycle of landform development is time-dependent.

The Penck cycle of erosion is not time-dependent.

	and old age	5. conditions - <i>Penck</i> Aufsteigende, Gleichzeitige Absteigende and Endstufe
3. Upliftment	According to Davis, upliftment finished before degradation starts.	According to Penck, upliftment and degradation starts together as soon as the landmass comes above the sea level.
4. Period of Upliftment	According to Davis, the period of upliftment is small.	According to Penck, the period of upliftment is a long process.
5. Rate of Upliftment	The rate of upliftment is very rapid, according to Davis.	The rate of upliftment is sometimes slower and sometimes higher.
6. Slope Development	Davis didn't back his theory by a concrete slope development idea.	Penck's Cycle of Erosion contained the idea regarding slope replacement.
7. End Product	The end product of Davis Cycle of Erosion was Peneplain (A flat extensive featureless plain)	The end product of the Penck Cycle was Endrumpf or Peneplain (Not entirely featureless).
8. Nature	Davis Cycle of Erosion is a monocycle, that means cycle complete after the old stage of landforms.	Penck's Cycle of Erosion is polycyclic, that means a never ending process, the cycle starts again by the rejuvenation of landforms.
9. Cause	In Davis cycle, landforms are the result of Davis Trias - Structure, Process and Time.	Penck's landforms are the result of the ratio between the intensity of Endogenic and Exogenic forces.
10. Time-dependency	Davis cycle of landform development is time-dependent.	The Penck cycle of erosion is not time-dependent.

1. Applicability	Davis limited his idea upto the humid and sub-humid areas.	Went original idea of Cycle of erosion was applicable to arid, semi-arid and tropical regions.
2. Landform development	Landform development is a form of "Slope decline" in the Davis Cycle of erosion. For example V-shaped valley get converted to featureless peneplain in Davisian Cycle of erosion.	Landform development is in the form of "Slope replacement" where a V-shaped valley and then free face slope and concave slopes get replaced to rectilinear slopes.

Fluvial Cycle of Erosion

The cycle of erosion by fluvial process (running waters or rivers) is called normal cycle of erosion as fluvial processes are most widespread (covering most parts of the globe) and most significant geomorphic agent. Even water also plays important roles in glacial and arid regions.

1. 3 stages can be identified during the lifetime of a stream

1.1 Youth stage

A few consequent streams exist and a few subsequent streams are trying to develop valleys by random headward erosion. These valleys may be V-shaped. The depth of these valleys depends on the height above sea level. The inter-stream divides are broad, extensive, irregular and may have lakes. Rapids, waterfalls, gorges, river capture are characteristic features. Floodplain is generally absent but may exist along the trunk stream. Overall a highly uneven relief exists.

1.2 Mature stage

This stage is marked by well-integrated drainage system with a few streams trying to adjust through softer beds. Broad valleys result from continuous horizontal erosion. Meanders are a characteristic feature and valley floor which is more than the meander belt width. The inter-stream

divides are sharp and the upland is reduced. Rapids and waterfalls are absent. Floodplain development is a prominent feature. Maximum relief exists overall.

1.3 Old Age stage

The streams are more numerous than in the youth but less as compared to maturity. With increasing deposition valley broadening dominates. Meanders are highly developed with oxbow lakes and floor width is more than the meander belt width. The interstream divides are highly reduced. Lakes and marshes may be present. The successive floodplains join to form a periplain. Delta formation is characteristic of Old Age at the mouth of the river. Mass wasting is dominant and overall minimum relief is evident.

Fluvial Landforms

The landforms created as a result of degradational action (erosion) or aggradational work (deposition) of running water is called Fluvial landforms. These landforms result from the action of surface flow/run-off or stream flow. The creative work of Fluvial processes may be divided into 3 physical phases - Erosion, Transportation and Deposition. The landforms created by a stream can be divided into Erosional and Depositional landforms.

1. Erosional landforms

1.1 River Valleys

The intended depression on ground through which a stream flows throughout its course is called a River Valley. In Youth stage it is V-shaped but in Maturity stage it becomes U-shaped.

1.2 Waterfall

It is simply the fall of an enormous volume of water from a great height, because of a variety of factors such as variation in the relative resistance of rocks.

relative difference in topographic relief. fall in the sea level and related rejuvenation, earth movements, etc. Eg: Tug falls on Sharavati has a fall of 200 mtr.

1.3 Pot Holes

The kettle-like small depressions in the rocky beds of the river valleys are called Pot Holes which are usually cylindrical in shape. The Pot Holes goes on increasing in both diameter and depth.

1.4 Terraces

Stepped benches along the river course in a flood plain are called Terraces.

1.5 Gullies / Rills

Gully is an incised water worn channel, which is particularly common in semi-arid areas. Eg: Ravines of Chambal Valley in Central India and Chos of Hoshiarpur in Punjab.

1.6 Meanders

A meander is defined as a pronounced curve or loop in the course of a river channel. Morphologically, the meanders may be wavy, horse-shoe type or on-bank braided type.

1.7 Oxbow Lake

Sometimes, because of intensive erosion action, the outer curve of a meander gets accentuated to such an extent that the inner ends of the loop come close enough to get disconnected from the main channel and exist as independent water bodies.

1.8 Peneplane (Peneplain)

This refers to the unrelating featureless plain punctuated with low-lying residual hills of resistant rocks according to W.M. Davis. It is the end product of an erosional cycle.

2. Depositional Landforms

2.1 Alluvial Fans and Cones

When a stream leaves the mountains and comes down to the plains, its velocity decreases due to a lower

gradient. As a result, it sheds a lot of material. It had been carrying from the mountains, at the foot this deposited material acquires a conical shape and appears as a series of continuous fans. These are called alluvial fans. Such fans appear throughout the Himalayan front in the North Indian plains.

2.2. Natural levees

These are narrow ridges of low height on both sides of a river, formed due to deposition action of the stream, appearing as natural embankments. It appears in Huang He river in China.

2.3 Delta

A delta is a tract of alluvium usually fan-shaped at the mouth of a river where it deposits more material than can be carried away. Depending on the conditions under which they are formed, deltas can be of many types:

2.3.1 Arcuate or Fan-shaped

It results when light depositions give rise to shallow, shifting distributaries and a general fan-shaped profile. Eg: Nile, Ganga, Indus etc.

2.3.2 Bird's Foot Delta

This type of delta emerges when limestone sediment deposits do not allow downward seepage of water. Eg: Mississippi river

2.3.4 Estuaries

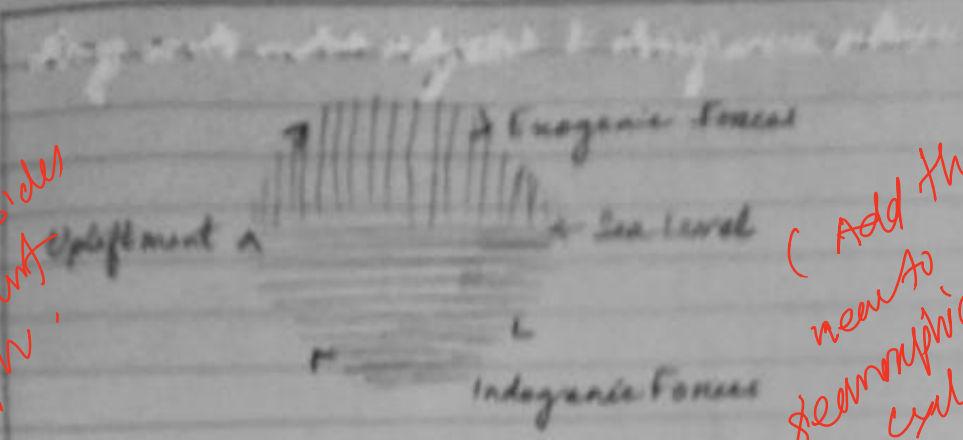
Sometimes the mouth of a river appears to be submerged. This may be due to a downward valley because of a rise in sea level. Here the fresh water and the saline water gets mixed. These are ideal sites for fisheries, ports and industries. Eg: Godavari

2.3.5 Cuspate Delta

This is a pointed Delta formed generally along the strong coasts and is subjected to strong wave action.

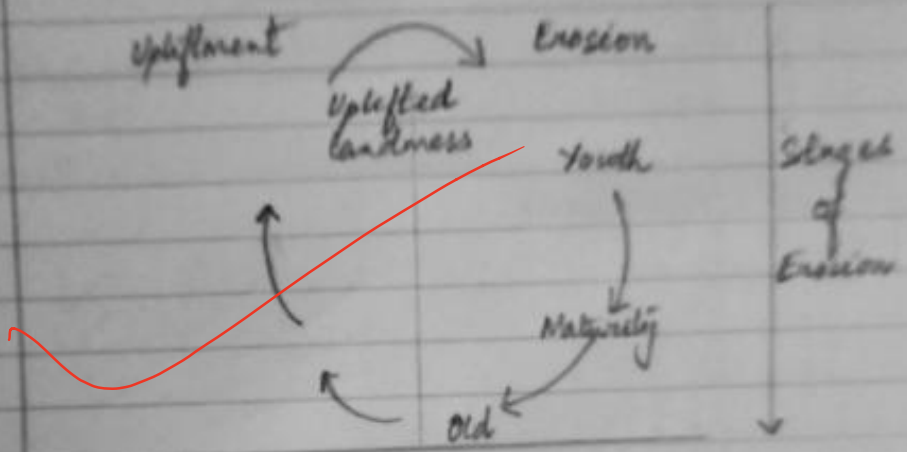
Geomorphic Cycle (Fig 2)

Maps need to be added besides each relevant paragraph.

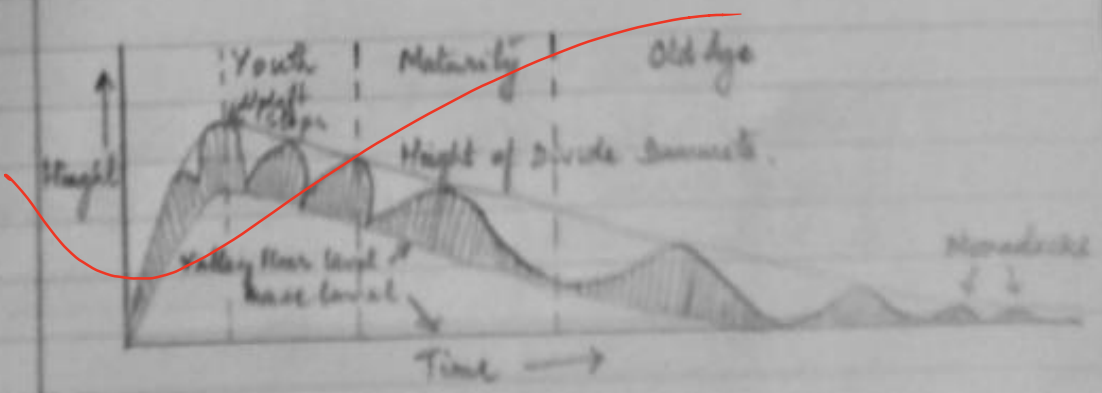


(Add this new to Geomorphic cycle)

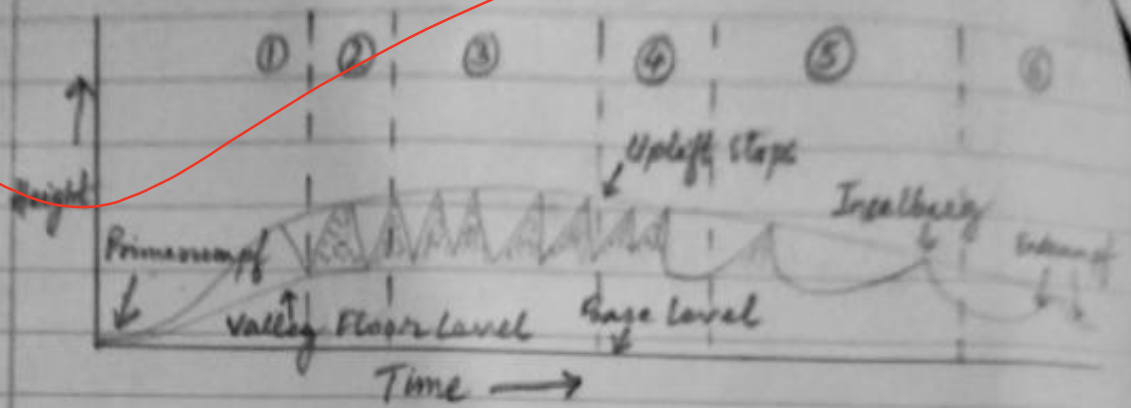
Davis CoE (Fig 2)



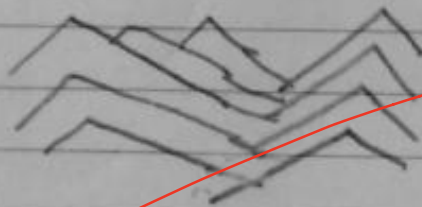
Graphical Representation of Davis CoE (Fig 3)



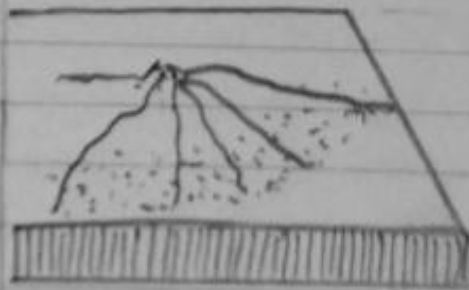
Graphical Representation of Penck C&E (Fig 4)



Fluvial landforms (Fig 5)



River Valleys

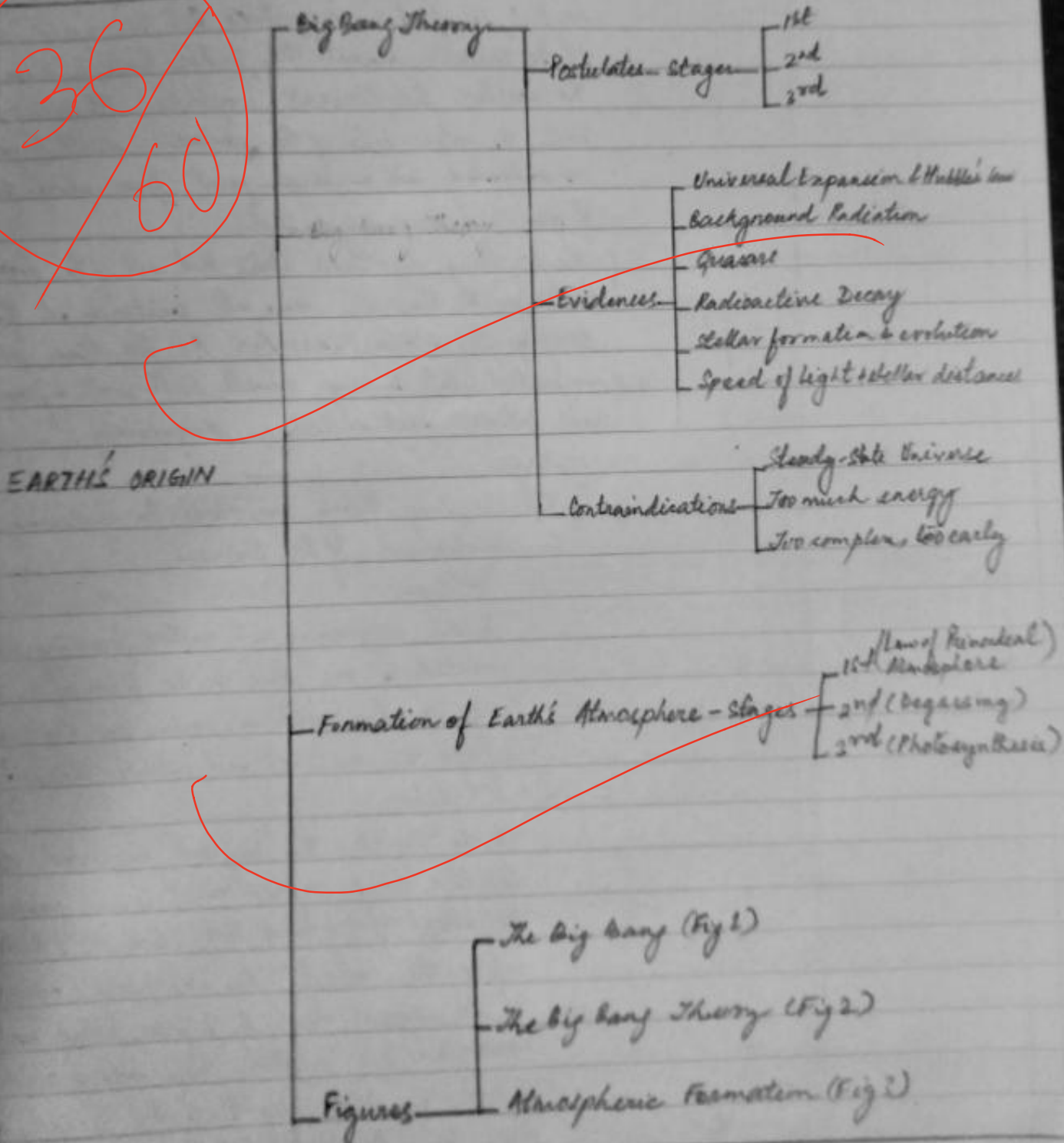


Alluvial Fans and Cones

Thus, the concept of geographical Cycle of Erosion recognises the possibility of obliteration of relief on planetation, during the life history of a landscape. By process of erosion, occurring in a sequence of orderly changes, finally reducing the landscape relief to a minimum.

4.

Scientists in Modern period (early 20th century) took up the problem of origin of universe than that of just the earth or the planets. The most popular argument regarding the origin of the universe is the Big Bang Theory. It is also called expanding universe hypothesis.



Big Bang Theory

1. Postulates

Edwin Hubble, in 1924, provided evidence that the Universe is expanding. As time passes, galaxies move further and further apart. In 1927, a Belgian astronomer, Georges Lemaitre proposed the Big Bang theory. In 1931, he took it further, suggesting that the current expansion of the Universe meant the farther back in time one went, the smaller the Universe would be. At some point in the past, the entire mass of the universe would have been concentrated into a single point from which the very fabric of space and time originated.

The Big Bang hypothesis states that all of the current and past matter in the Universe came into existence at the same time, roughly 13.8 Billion Years Ago. At this time, all matter was compressed into a very small ball with infinite density and intense heat called a singularity.

1.1 Stages

The Big Bang theory considers the following stages in the development of the Universe.

1.1.1 1st Stage

In the beginning, all matter forming the Universe existed in one place in the form of a "tiny ball" (singular atom) with an unimaginably small volume, infinite temperature and infinite density.

1.1.2 2nd Stage

At the Big Bang the "tiny ball" exploded violently. This led to a huge expansion. It is now generally accepted the event of Big Bang took place 13.7 billion years before the present. The expansion continues even to the present day. As it grew, some energy was converted into matter. There was particularly rapid expansion within fractions of a second after the bang. Thereafter, the expansion has slowed down. Within

first three minutes from the Big Bang event, the first atoms began to form.

1.3 3rd stage

Within 300,000 years from the Big Bang, temperature dropped to 4,500 K and gave rise to atomic matter. The Universe became transparent.

The expansion of Universe means increase in space between the galaxies.

2. Evidences

2.1 Universal expansion and Hubble's Law

Edwin Hubble discovered that galaxies appeared to be moving away from us at speeds proportional to their distance. This is called Hubble's Law.

2.2 Background radiation

The Big Bang Theory predicts that the early Universe was a very hot place and that as it expands, the gas within it cools. Thus, the Universe should be filled with radiation that is literally the remnant heat left over from the Big Bang, called the "Cosmic Microwave Background".

2.3 Quasars

An extremely luminous active galactic nucleus, where a super-massive black hole with mass ranging from millions to billions of times the mass of the Sun is surrounded by a gaseous accretion disk.

2.4 Radioactive decay

Scientists discovered that Earth receives Microwave radiation from all directions. These are the evidences in the support of Big Bang Theory.

2.5 Stellar formation and evolution

2.6 Speed of light and stellar distances

3. Contradictions

3.1 Steady-state Universe

In 1920s and 1930s almost every major cosmologist preferred an endless Steady-state Universe. During the 1930s other ideas were proposed as non-standard cosmologies to explain Hubble's observations, including the oscillatory Universe originally suggested by Friedman, but advocated

by Albert Einstein and Richard
However, it was then criticized by supporters of the steady state theory that if the Universe was really initially very hot as the Big Bang suggests, we should be able to find some remnant of the heat.

3.2 Too much energy

Most of the Universe is empty space: a vacuum which is defined as a volume containing no particles, force fields nor waves. By definition a vacuum has no energy. However, the Big Bang theory requires both in its early phases and its later phases that the vacuum must have some energy. The law of conservation demands that energy can't be created nor destroyed.

3.3 Too complex too early

The Universe has too many large structures to be created in 10-20 billion years. Considering the rate of expansion, we can get a rough estimate on how long it would take for them to form, probably about 100 billion years.

Formation of Earth's Atmosphere

When Earth formed 4.6 billion years ago from a hot mix of gases and solids, it had almost no atmosphere. The surface was molten. As the Earth cooled, an atmosphere started evolving.

1. Stages in the evolution of the present atmosphere

1.1 1st Stage (loss of primordial atmosphere)

The early atmosphere with Hydrogen and Helium, is supposed to have been stripped off as a result of the solar winds. This happened not only in the case of the Earth, but also in all the Terrestrial Planets, which were supposed to have lost their primordial atmosphere through the impact of solar winds.

1.2 2nd Stage (degassing)

During the cooling of the Earth, gases and water

vapour were released from the interior solid Earth. This started the evolution of the present atmosphere. The early atmosphere largely contained water vapour, Nitrogen, Carbon Dioxide, Methane, Ammonia and very little of free Oxygen. The process through which the gases were outpoured from the interior is called degassing.

1.3 3rd Stage (Photosynthesis)

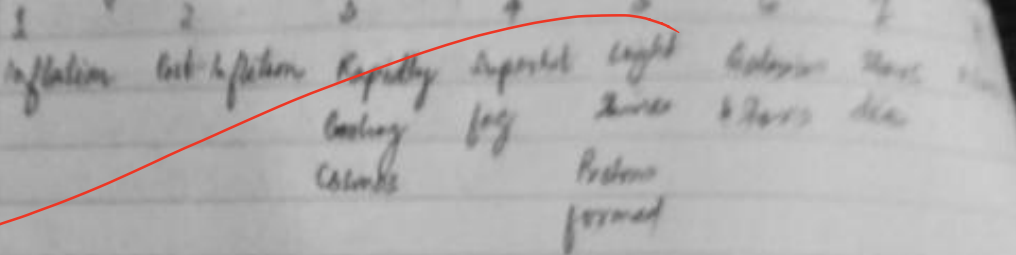
Continuous volcanic eruptions contributed water vapour and gases to the atmosphere. As the Earth cooled, the water vapour released started getting condensed. The CO_2 in the atmosphere got dissolved in rainwater and the temperature further decreased causing more condensation and rains. The rainwater falling into the surface got collected into the depressions to give rise to oceans. The Earth's oceans were formed within 500 Million years from the formation of the Earth. Thus oceans are as old as 4,000 Million years. Sometime around 3,800 Million years ago, life began to evolve. However, around 2,500 - 3,000 Million years before the present, the process of photosynthesis got evolved. Life was confined to the oceans for a long time. Oceans began to have the contribution of Oxygen through the process of Photosynthesis. Eventually, oceans were saturated with Oxygen, and 200 Million years ago, Oxygen began to flood the atmosphere.

The Big Bang (Fig 1)

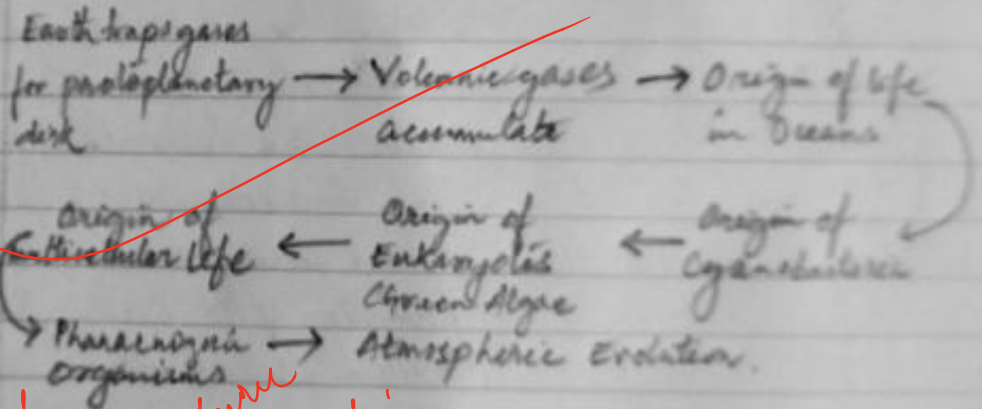


The Big Bang Theory (Fig 2)

Time begins



Atmosphere Formation (Fig 3)



elaborate the atmosphere formation more

Thus, the Big Bang Theory is crucial to understand the origin of the Earth. After that gradually lithosphere, hydrosphere and atmosphere evolved which combined to produce habitable environment for life to generate and make Earth a liveable planet.