

BLOCK**2****SCHEMES OF REGIONALISATION****UNIT 5****CHANGING DIMENSIONS OF INDIA'S REGIONAL
STRUCTURE****91****UNIT 6****REVIEW OF MAJOR SCHEMES 1****113****UNIT 7****REVIEW OF MAJOR SCHEMES 2****127****GLOSSARY****143**

BLOCK 2: SCHEMES OF REGIONALISATION

As you know that any domain of knowledge is practiced on the basis of certain well-defined methods and techniques. In regional geography also, regions are divided by adopting certain methods and techniques. In order to devise a regionalisation schemes, numerous scholars came up with their schemes devised on the basis of certain methods and techniques.

In second Block, we will introduce you to the schemes of regionalisation in regional geography. This Block will include the study of key themes like changing dimensions of India's regional structure, review of major schemes 1 and review of major schemes 2 as dealt in three units.

Unit 5: Changing Dimensions of India's Regional Structure

Fifth unit is devoted to the study of changing dimensions of India's regional structure. This Unit introduces the evolution of regions since ancient, medieval and modern times. It also tries to highlight the peculiar characteristics as well as changing dimensions of India's regional structure, with geographical perspective.

Unit 6: Review of Major Schemes 1

Sixth unit is devoted to the study of review of major schemes 1. This Unit presents review of regionalisation schemes of Baker and Stamp, K.S. Ahmad and Pithawala. Besides, it also highlights the critique of methods and techniques as adopted by these scholars in their respective schemes of regionalisation.

Unit 7: Review of Major Schemes 2

Seventh unit is devoted to the study of review of major schemes 2. This Unit presents the review of regionalisation schemes of Spate and Learmonth, S.P. Chatterjee, R.L. Singh and C.D. Deshpande etc. Besides, it also highlights the critique of methods and techniques as adopted by these scholars in their respective schemes of regionalisation.

We hope that after studying Block 2, you will be able to comprehend the schemes of regionalisation in better way.

Our best wishes are always with you in this endeavour.

MGG- 003

REGIONAL GEOGRAPHY OF INDIA

BLOCK 1 FUNDAMENTALS OF REGIONS AND REGIONAL GEOGRAPHY

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-

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CHANGING DIMENSIONS OF INDIA'S REGIONAL STRUCTURE

Structure

5.1	Introduction		Post-Independence Period (1947 AD-Till Date)
	Expected Learning Outcomes		
5.2	Factors and Processes	5.4	Summary
5.3	Genesis of Regions	5.5	Terminal Questions
	Ancient Period (Prehistoric to 700 AD)	5.6	Answers
	Medieval Period (700 AD-1857 AD)	5.7	References and Further Reading
	Colonial Period (1857 AD-1947 AD)		

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Regions evolve. Their shape and size vary not only at a particular time but also over a period of time. They expand and contract. Human functions determine changes more than nature. India is a mosaic of regions (Ahmad, p. 77). The regional structure of India is the aggregation of its sub-parts. This may be considered as territorial or spatial structure.

Physical and cultural regions are fundamentally related. The geographic characteristics of the regions impact the cultural development through time and space. This process of transformation is dynamic and never ending.

India as a physiognomic (formal) region is distinctly demarcated by nature. However, the physiological (functional) regions have been shaped by various administrative, political, economic, demographic and biological processes. India as a region is easier to recognise but difficult to define. Continuous ethnological sweepings from north-west had been a major force in shaping and reshaping the regional structure of the country. Therefore, human heterogeneity is a reality.

People relate themselves with place. Regionalism stems from the identification of people with particular areas to which they form strong psychic bonds. In early Indian thought, a region and its people were often considered as a unit, both being subsumed under the single term, *Janapada*, *Kurukshetra* (religious associations), *Aryavarta* or *Madhya-Desa* (Macro regions).

There may be enduring forces shaping regions but the other forces have contracted and expanded the regions. The universalistic ideologies of resourceful personalities like Buddha and Ashoka did form macro regions. The relics of Buddha are found across Indian subcontinent.

Thus, in order to have a nuanced understanding of the changing dimensions of India's regional structure, Section 5.2 is devoted to the study of factors and processes of the same. Next Section 5.3 extensively deals with the genesis of regions beginning from the ancient to medieval to colonial and finally post-independence period, with an aim to bring out the essence of India's regional structure.

Expected Learning Outcomes

After studying this Unit, you should be able to:

- know the factors and processes that forms the regional structure of India.
- understand the changes in the formation of regions during ancient, medieval, colonial and post-independent period.
- identify the hierarchy of regions influencing the extent of territorial control; and
- comprehend a complex whole by the study of its constituent parts.

5.2 FACTORS AND PROCESSES

Geographers initially tried to comprehend the regional scheme of India in a physiographic framework. Before Independence, the geographic distinctiveness of any region was viewed in terms of its topography, religious composition and the administrative regime of the British or of the princes (Krishan, p. 51). After Independence, the regional identity founded itself on the ideas of ethnicity, historical background, and indigenous culture.

Identification of regions in ancient period on the geographical space of India in the absence of records has not been done with authority. The historical identity of India in the context of space has no unanimity. What is the spatial expression of *heptahindu*, *sapta sindhu*, *hi (n) dush*, *aryavarta*, *hndstn*, *al hind*, *Bharat*, *Hindustan* etc.?

Geographically also India is an intelligible isolate (Spate, p.4). Historically, India was rarely a single political entity. People perhaps never used a common one name for the whole. Names like *Bharat*, *Aryavarta*, *Hindustan*, *India* etc. connote a territory not similar to what we officially represent today. Changing political landscape and associated regional configurations over time describe the regional structure of India. There were 63 dynasties/states since 560 BC as major powers ruling different parts of India (Schwartzberg, p. 254). Territories ruled by rulers were known either by the name of clan/religion/ethnicity/cultural (*Maurya*, *Gupta*, *Marathas*, *Satavahanas*, *Rajputana*, *Mughal* etc.) or by a name given to a region (*Magadh*, *Avadh*, *Malwa*, etc.). Some territories were known by the name of rulers (*Kalinga*).

Enclosed by mountains and deserts in the north-west, mountains in the north and north-east and water bodies in the south, this natural region is very

distinct. The oldest possible civilisation evolved in the north part of this bigger region was Harappan Civilisation.

Major physical regions broadly remain unchanged ever since the evidence of human existence was found in present day territory of India. However, natural processes like flood, earthquakes, fires, desertification, changes in river courses, cyclones, landslides, climatic changes (too cold or too hot regimes) must have impacted the lives of human beings in various ways.

Biological factors like spread of diseases in a region and mass death of people may also be among causes for the end of civilisations. Famines are another possible cause responsible for it. Natural calamities and catastrophic events are also responsible.

Migrations, wars, invasions and conquests are also important factors. Explorations and discoveries of new sites and places changed the regional structure. Migration kept on bringing various patterns of human spread in different parts.

Movement on land was supported by development of skill to navigate across water bodies including seas and oceans. Beginning of trade and transport led to fusion and diffusion of people. Cross cultural exchanges transformed the social structure. Intermixing of races and communities brought visible changes on landscape but many invisible changes further reshaped the regional structure of India.

Technological factors like discovery of fire, use of stone tools, use of wheel, domestication of animals, use of animals for transportation, cultivation for food, beginning of cultivation and enabled sedentary life etc., are also of prime importance. All of these together provided a further thrust to the human society to find newer means of technologically enabled ways meant for the betterment of life. It is not a difficult task for you to surmise the trajectory of subsequent phases of development, characterised by more technologically oriented sophistication across diverse walks of life and economy.

Evolution of speech, language, symbols, scripts, writing, cloth making, cooking of food, and caves to thatched house to mud houses to brick houses are other factors that shaped and reshaped the regional landscape.

Based on available evidences, broad regional structure of India has been explained.

SAQ I

Give a brief account of factors and processes responsible for the formation of India's regional structure.

5.3 GENESIS OF REGIONS

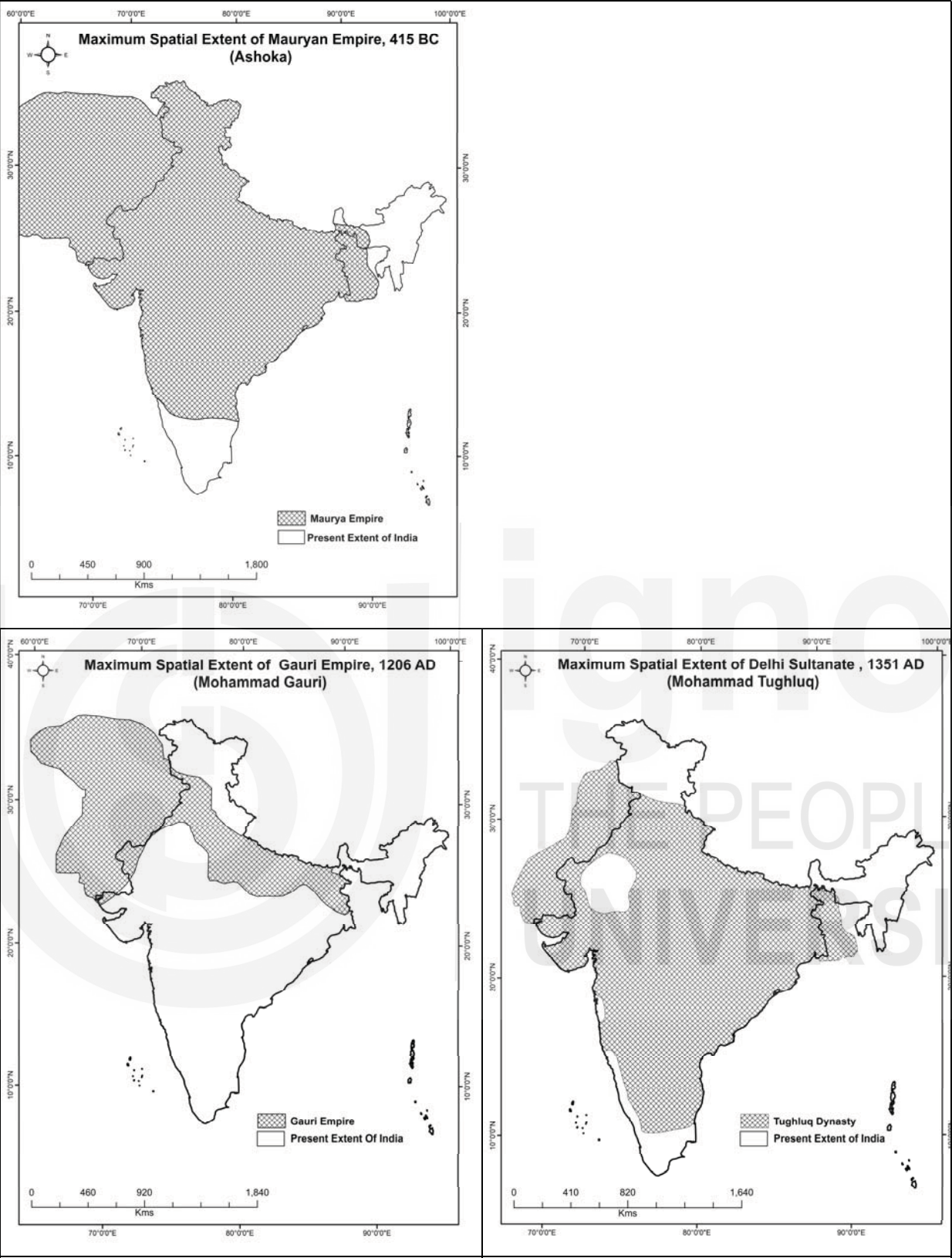
5.3.1 Ancient Period (Prehistoric to 700 AD)

Influence of physical environment has been pervasive in shaping the political-territorial arrangements. The philosophy and methodology of organising space for administration was based on clan or tribal territories.

Based on the evidences, the presence of Homo erectus, believed to have inhabited the planet, is 1.8 million to 2 lakh years ago. However, on the basis of associated fauna, paleomagnetic dating studies by the Geological Survey of India and morphological features compared with antiquity, the Narmada fossil could be 5,00,000 - 6,00,000 years old (Geological Survey of India, 1982) and Homo sapiens 70,000 years ago. Nagas in North East, Santhals in East India, Bhils and Gonds in Central India and Todas in South India were spatially spread on this physical landscape. These are classified as pre-Dravidians. The languages spoken by them are Austric. The reconstruction of regional description in the absence of records is not easy. The diverse sources help but also complicate. More researches in future may unfold unknown.

There are evidences of human activities during Palaeolithic (2 million BC to 10000 BC), Mesolithic (10000 BC to 8000 BC) and Neolithic (8000 BC to 2000 BC) periods. The Palaeolithic sites found are at Kaladgi Basin (Bagalkot district, Karnataka), Bhimbetka (Bhopal, Madhya Pradesh), Hunsgi (Yadgir District, Karnataka), Kurnool caves (Andhra Pradesh), and Narmada Valley (Madhya Pradesh). Similarly, the Mesolithic sites are in Brahmagiri (spread over Kodagu in Karnataka and Waynad in Kerala) and also in Narmada Valley. The Neolithic sites are numerous with broad spatial extent ranging from Kashmir in the north to Andhra Pradesh in south and east to west.

Oral traditions memorised with precision were written in texts. Chronologically, *Vedas*, *Puranas* and *Epics* are arranged from the oldest to latest, respectively. The Indo-Aryan speakers probably entered the north-west of India from the Indo-Iranian borderlands, migrating in small numbers through the passes in the north-western mountains to settle in northern India (Fig. 5.3).



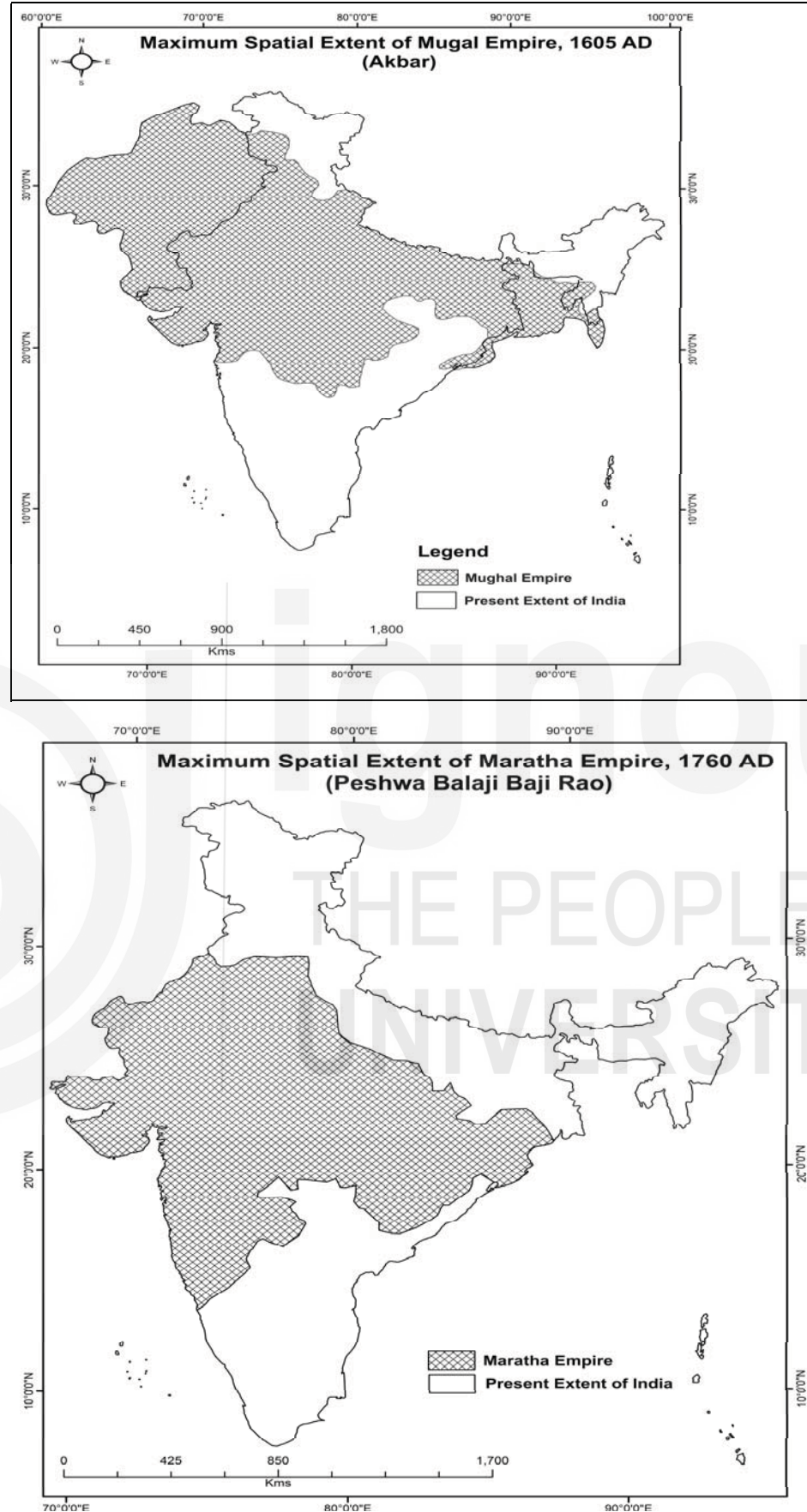


Fig. 5.1: Pan India Territorial Claims of Rulers (Mughal and Maratha empires).

(Source: Redrawn from An Atlas and Survey of South Asian History, Schmidt, (1995))

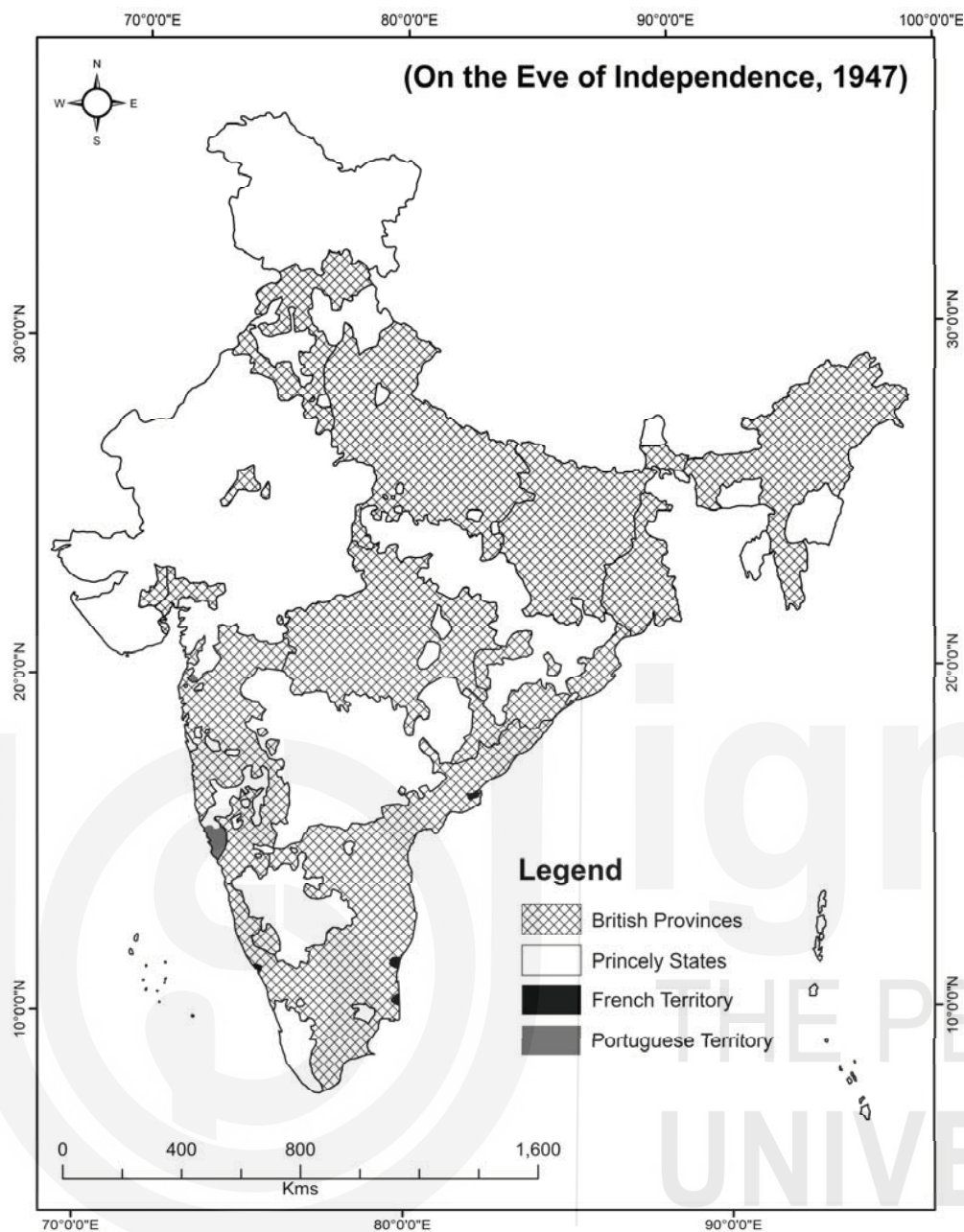


Fig. 5.2: On the Eve of Independence, 1947.

(Source: Redrawn from map from *The Vitality of India: A Regional Perspective*, Krishan (2017), p. 53)

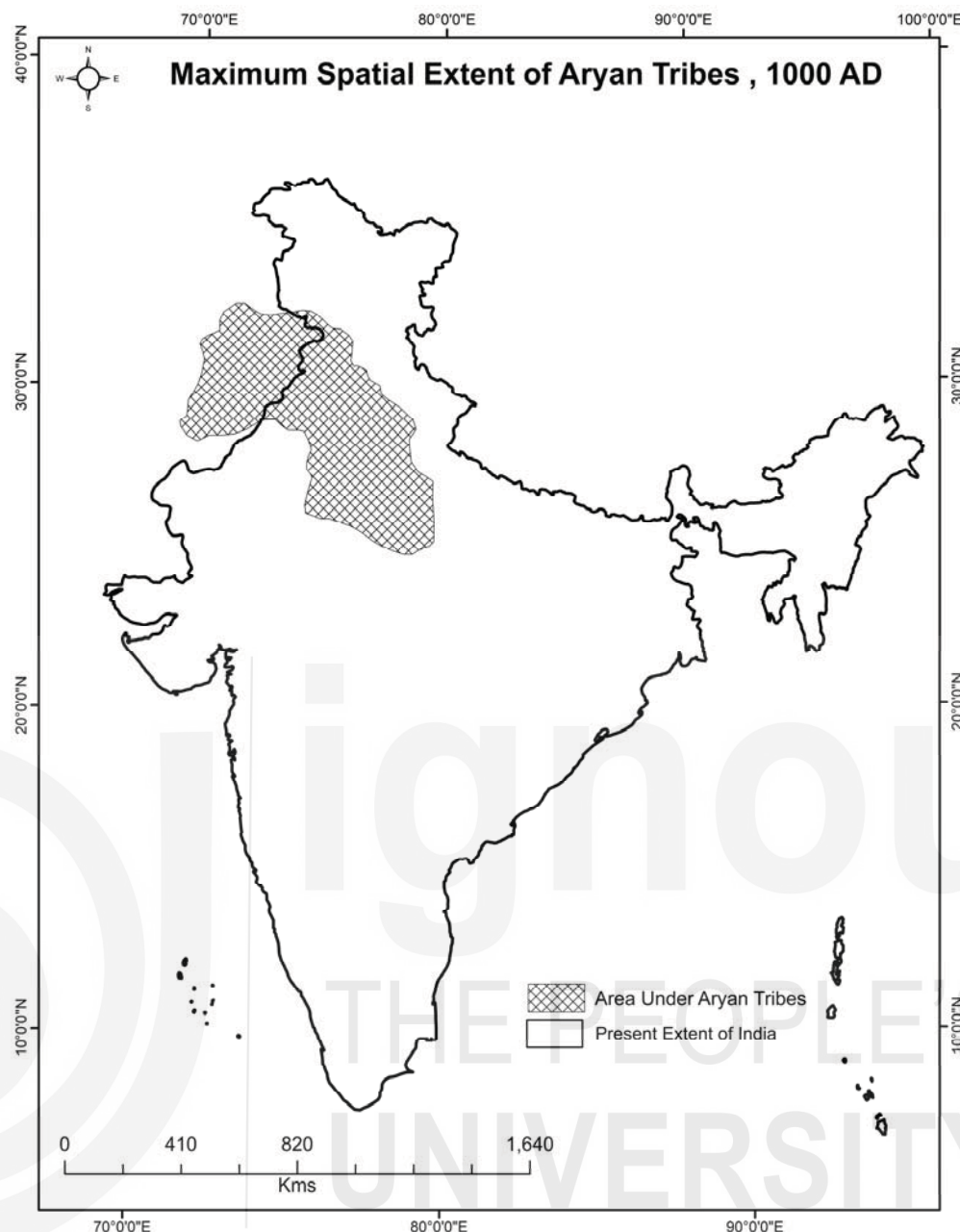


Fig. 5.3: Maximum Spatial Extent of Aryan Tribes, 1000 AD.

(Source: Redrawn from An Atlas and Survey of South Asian History, Schmidt, (1995), p. 15)

Initial settlements were situated in the valleys of North West and the plains of Punjab. Later some groups moved to Indo-Gangetic watershed. This migration was basically in search of pastures and arable land as they were mainly cattle rearing people. The hymns of Rig Veda composed in second millennium BCE were compiled in the first millennium BCE.

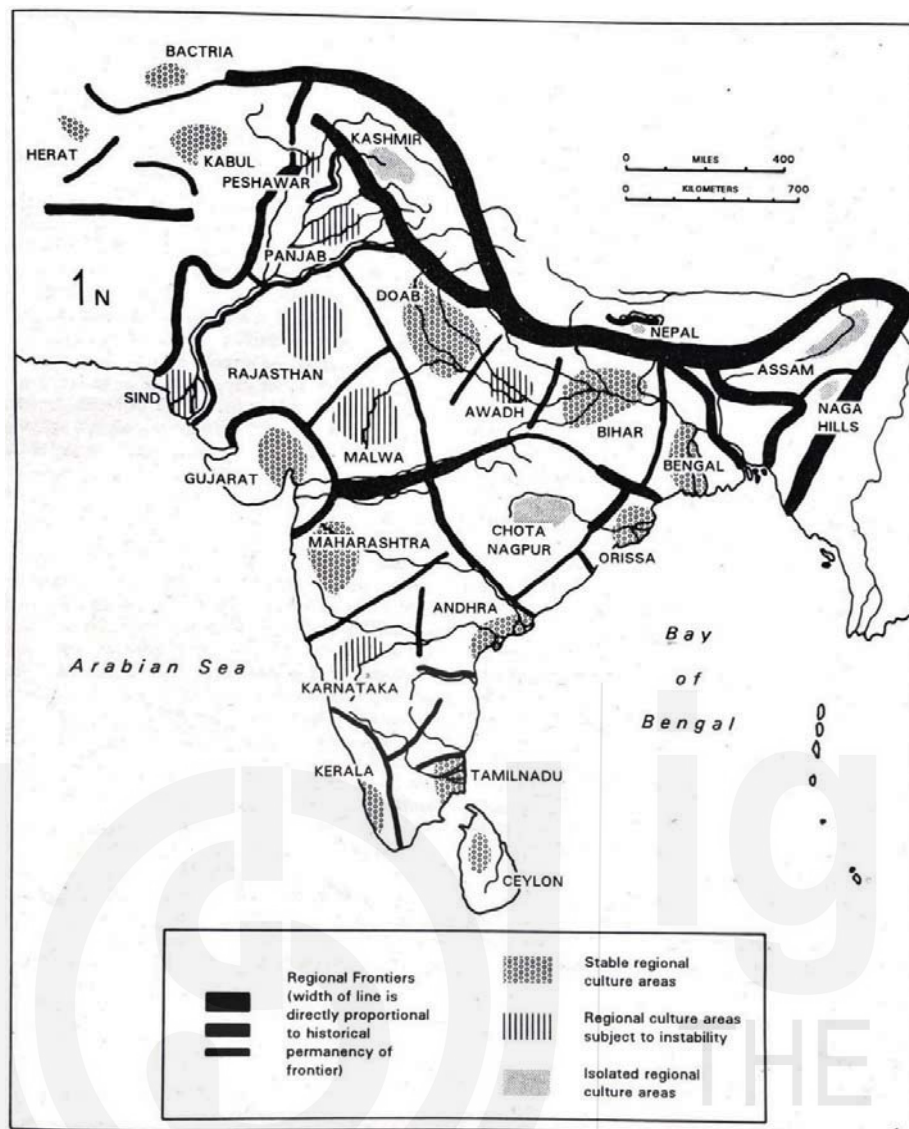


Fig. 5.4: Regional Frontiers and Cultural Area.

(Source: An Atlas and Survey of South Asian History Schmidt, (1995), p. 5.)

Description of geography in the Rig Veda is limited to the northerly Indus plain (The Sapta Sindhu area) and they were not familiar with lower Sind, Kutch and Gujarat and with the ports and hinterlands along the Persian Gulf that was significant to Harappan maritime trade (Thapar, p.110). The geographical knowledge of the authors of the Rig Vedic Hymns can be ascertained by their reference to various rivers. The Rig Veda shows greater familiarity with eastern Afghanistan, the Swat Valley, Punjab and the Indo-Gangetic watershed (Sapt Sindu region).

Climatically, the region was wetter than it is today and forest covered. Some part of Punjab was semi-arid and conducive to cattle-rearing. Deforestation further extended towards the Ganges plain for settlements during Rig-Veda period.

Permanent settlement in a particular area gave a geographical identity to a clan or a confederacy of clans, and subsequently this identity was given concrete shape by its claiming possessions of the territory, then naming it after ruling clan. Maintaining this regional identity required political organisation (Gana-Sangha, chiefdom or as a kingdom). The lineage of such ruling family further derived their regional identity by naming the claimed territory by their lineage.

During sixth century BC, area of significance shifted from north-west to the Ganga plain. The janapadas were now emerging as mahajanapadas. Sixteen janapadas are listed in Buddhist texts. These were: Anga, Magadha the Vriji (located in Vaishali, Bihar) confederacy and the Mallas in the middle Ganga Valley, Kashi, Kosala and Vatsa to its west, Kuru, Panchala, Matsya and Shurasena further west, Kamboja and Gandhara in North-west, Avanti and Chedi in western and central India and Assaka (located around and between Godavari river in present day Telangana and Maharashtra) in the Deccan. This was the geography known to early Buddhist Pali Canon.

In Vedic sources, Magadh and Anga are described as impure lands but the Magadh was known to dominate the politics of the Ganga's Plain. Assaka's importance is related to the southern route to the peninsula, the Dakshina Patha. The Vrijis (located in Vaishali) were a confederacy of 8 clans (7707 Rajas), the Mallas (500 Rajas), Chedis (more than 500 Rajas). These were Gan-Sanghas. The Gan-Sanghas were 1) Single clan (Shakyas, Koliyas and Mallas) or 2) Confederacy of clans (Vrijis and the Vrishnis) (Fig. 5.5).

On the other hand, kingdoms registered a centralised government with the king's sovereignty as its basis. This was a transition from chiefship to kingship. The governance extended over the territory of the hinterland surrounding the main town. In simple words, the clans were weaker in the kingdoms. Important kingdoms were Kashi (the region of Banaras, Kaushala adjoining Kashi northeast), Magadh (south Bihar).

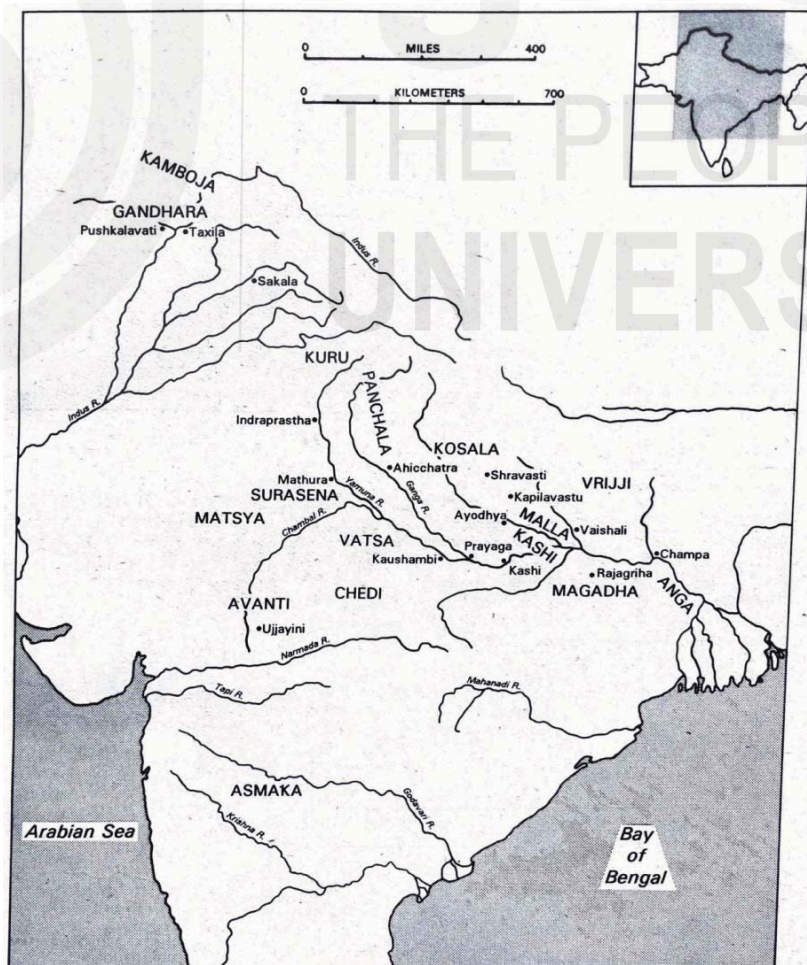


Fig. 5.5: Republics and Kingdoms in Northern India.

(Source: A Historical Atlas of South Asia, Schwartzberg, (1978), p. 17)

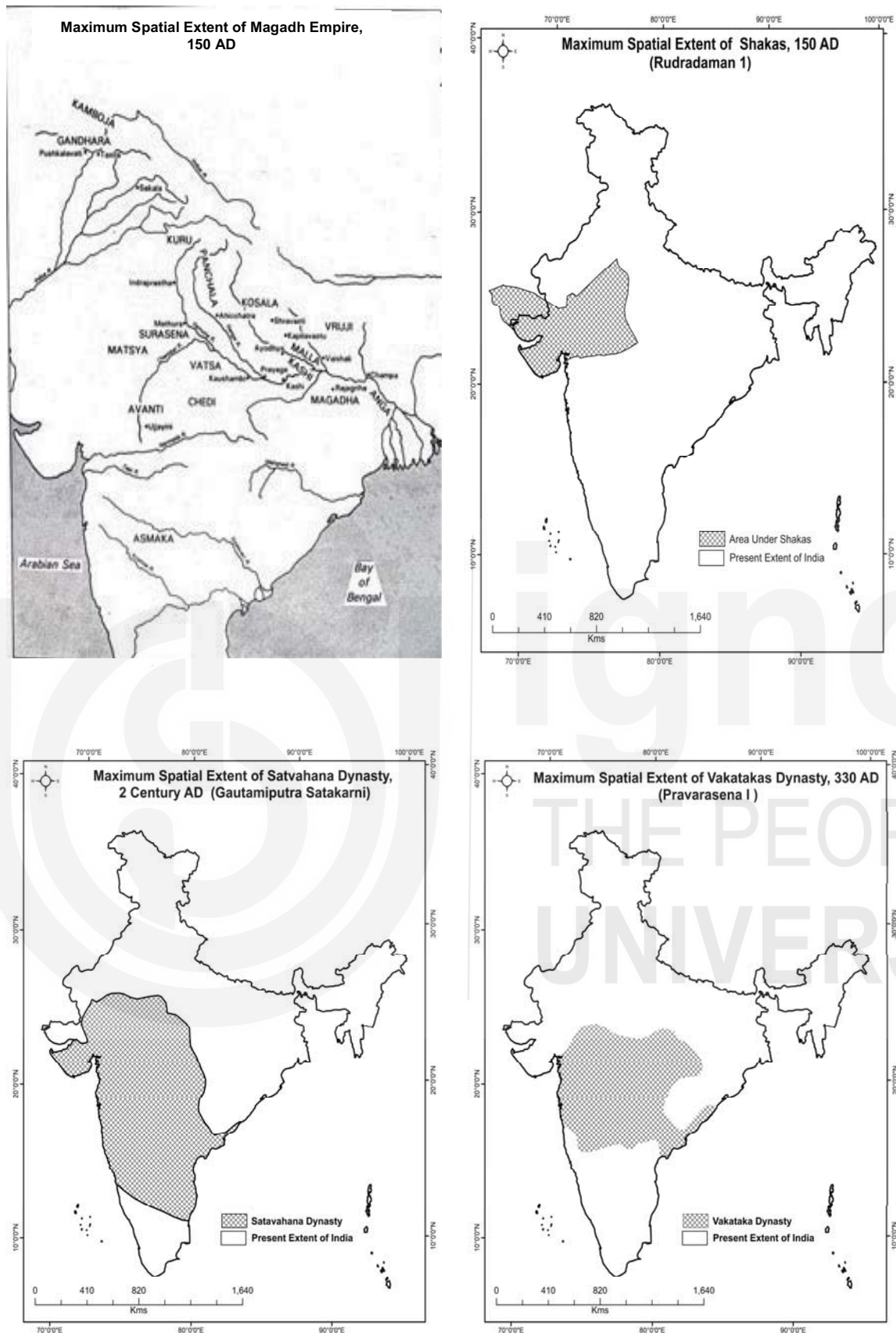


Fig. 5.6: India Supra Regional Powers.

(Source: Redrawn from An Atlas and Survey of South Asian History, Schmidt, (1995))

The evolution of towns was not uniform. These were political and administrative centres (Hastinapura), the capitals of kingdoms (Rajagriha in Magadha, Sharavasti in Kosala, Kaushambi in Vatsa, Champa in Anga and Ahicchatra in Panchala) and Markets on the trade routes (Ujjain). In addition, towns grew as sacred centres (Vaishali). The shifting of capitals due to natural causes (Hastinapur to Kaushambi) is recorded. The mahajanapadas mentioned in Jaina sources had a wider geographical area eastward.

Arrival of Aryans, Rise of Jainism and Buddhism, Emergence of Mahajanapadas, Magadh empire, Sishunaga dynasty, Nanda empire and arrival of Persians and Greeks reveal that there were some regional identities existing.

Maurayan Empire (324-187 BC), Sangam Age (300 BC-300 AD), Gupta Empire (300 AD to 800 AD) are known for their spatial organisation around some cores. The territorial control was changing with rulers.

The regional structure during Chandragupta (322-298 BC), Bindusara (298 BC to 272 BC) and Ashoka (268-232 BC) ranged from a very small to almost pan India. Post Mauryan Kingdoms, the Sunga (181-71 BC) Kanva (71-27 BC) Satavahanas (235-100 BC), Indo Greeks, Parthians (180 BC-45 AD) Sakas (90 BC-150 AD) and Kushanas (78 AD) were important rulers in different parts with different territorial control. During Sangam period, the Cholas, Cheras and Pandyas also ruled. Maximum spatial extent of Aryan Tribes dates back to 100 AD (Fig. 5.3).

Based on the spatial extent of the major powers, there were three broad regional identities distinctly marked. These are as under:

1. Pan India powers (Fig. 5.1 and Fig. 5.2)
2. Supra regional powers (Fig. 5.6)
3. Small powers (Fig. 5.3 and Fig. 5.4)

The Pan India powers can be broadly counted six which controlled, if not full, at least a major part of the territory of the present day India. These were Maurya's, Gupta's, Tughlaq's, Mughal's, Maratha's (Fig. 5.1) and the Britisher's in chronological order (Fig. 5.2). In terms of the size of territories under their control from the largest to the smallest, Ashoka had the largest control followed by Tughlaq, Akbar, Maratha and Gupta's. On the other hand, the supra regional power distinctly identified are four. These are the Magadh, Sakas, Satavahanas and Vakatakas (Fig. 5.6). The smaller powers were numerous such as Rastrakuta, Chalukya, Chera, Nanda's and Kushana's etc. In shaping the regional structure, the ecological conditions or geographical settings played a very important role. The productive physical resource base helped in populating the regions.

Most of the regions had vital core and feeble peripheries. These evolved due to changing political landscape and associated regional configuration. Many regional frontiers and cultural areas formed (Fig. 5.4).

5.3.2 Medieval Period (700 AD – 1857 AD)

Regional kingdoms that rose to political importance in northern and central India between the eighth and thirteenth centuries were Pratiharas of Gujarat, Parmaras of Malwa, Chauhanas of Ajmer and Delhi. These were all Rajput clans. The Palas migrated from Magadh and became a political power.

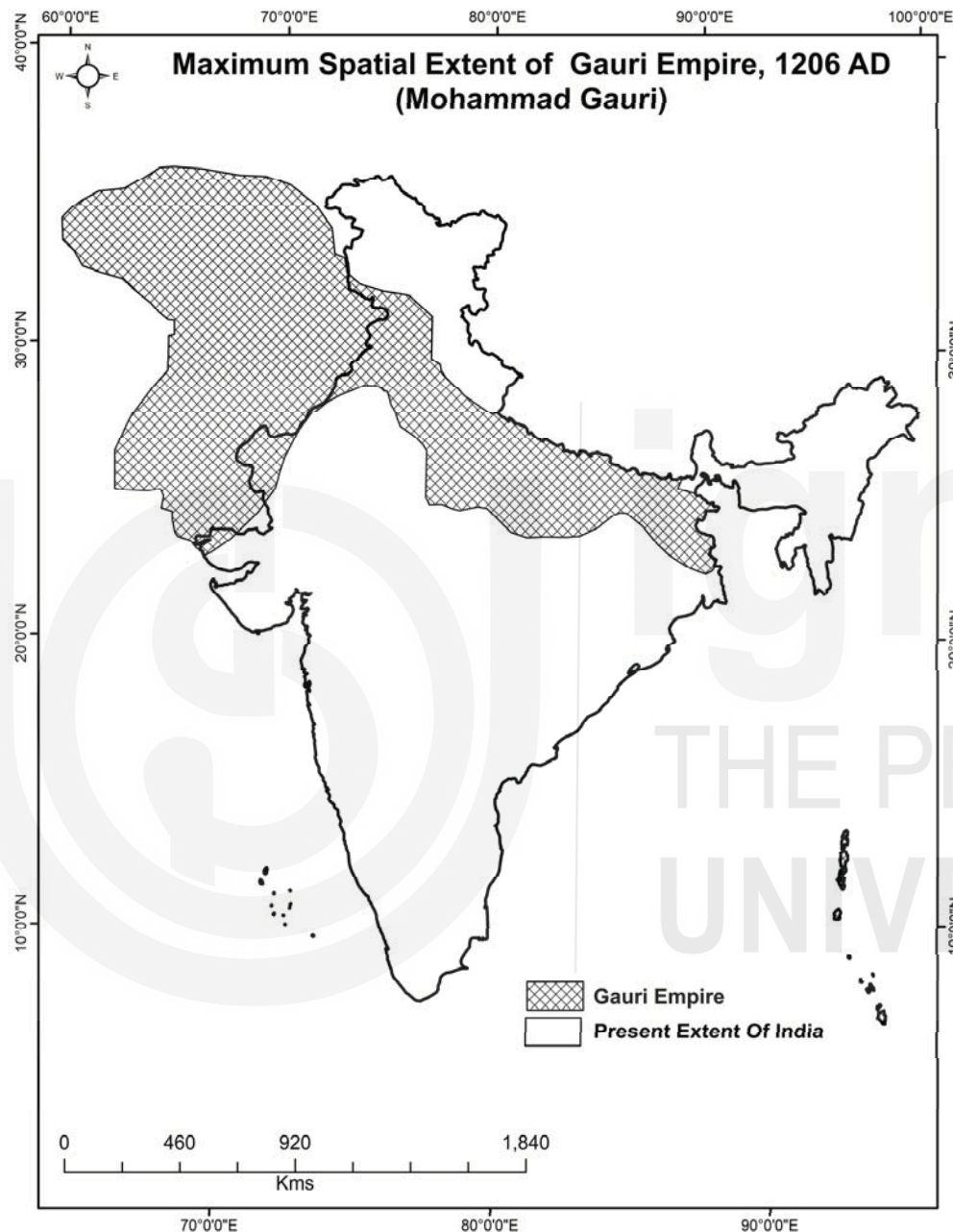


Fig. 5.7: Maximum Spatial Extent of Gauri Empire, 1206 AD (Mohammad Gauri).

(Source: Redrawn from An Atlas and Survey of South Asian History, Schmidt. 1995)

The contact of Arab world with South Asia had established before the advent of Islam in Arabia in 622 AD. It was initially a commercial contact. A group of Arab adventurers attacked Thane (near Mumbai) and many such attacks in different towns were done.

The attack of Muhammad bin Qasim in 712 AD is the beginning of medieval period. The cause of Arab invasion is associated in retaliation for the plundering of Arab ships by Sindhi pirates or was an attempt to territorial

conquest and religious conversion is debated. The Arabs established a firm foothold in spite of facing repulsions from Gurjara-Pratiharas, Chalukyas and Rashtrakutas.

Mahmud of Ghazni started raiding India in 1000 AD. He raided as far east as Kannauj and as far south as Gujarat. By 1025 AD, he had defeated Gurjaras-Pratiharas, the Chandellas of Khajuraho, and the Rajputs of Gwalior. Mahmud delighted in looting and destroying the Hindu temples (Thaneshwar, Mathura, and Kannauj). In his last raid in 1026 AD, he destroyed the Somnath temple and killed 50,000 Hindus. Mahmud never claimed any territory during his raids which were meant for destroying, killing and looting but the military and political weakness of Indian rulers were exposed.

Muhammad Gauri made the concerted effort to conquer India in 1175 AD. He with slave generals captured Delhi, Kannauj, Varanasi, Gwalior (Madhya Pradesh), Ajmer (Rajasthan), and Anhilwara (Gujarat). At the time of his death in 1206 AD, his empire was spread in most of the northern India (Fig. 5.7). His territorial annexation laid the foundation for Islamic rule for nearly 600 years. The political, cultural and religious landscape of India during this period was transformed (Fig. 5. 7).

After the death of Gauri, one of the slaves, Qutubuddin founded first (Slave dynasty) of a series of five unrelated dynasties which ruled over the Delhi Sultanate, a Muslim kingdom for next 320 years. Five unrelated dynasties were Slave, Khilji, Tughluq, Sayyid and Lodi. Maintaining control over the annexed territory and attempts to extend the frontiers were done by subsequent rulers. Capturing, losing and recapturing of territory were frequent. Internal (rebels) and external (Mongols) threats were changing the political landscape.

Khiljis dynasty (1290-1320 AD) was established after the death of last slave ruler in 1290 AD. Mongols invaded four times (1299, 1303, 1305, and 1306 AD) during the period of Khiljis rule. The Khiljis defeated them every time. Allauddin Khilji (1296-1316 AD) forcibly annexed kingdoms of Gujarat, Deccan, and Rajasthan.

The Tughluq dynasty (1320-1413 AD) replaced Khiljis. Muhammad Tughluq (1325-1351 AD) encompassed an area stretching from Punjab to Bengal and from the Himalayas to almost southern tip of the sub-continent. Maintaining such a huge territory was full of difficulties posed by rebels, local rulers and the geography of regions. Famines and plague also weakened the control. The territory after the death of Muhammad Tughluq shrank to the boundaries of Allauddin Khiljis days. Two important kingdoms Bahmani and Vijaynagara in south were independent.

The Mongol leader Timur invaded India in 1398 AD. He occupied, sacked Delhi and finally retreated. Following Timur's attack, the Tughluq dynasty became weak and was replaced by the Sayyids (1413-53 AD). It was the weakest of the five dynasties and the territory shrank the city of Delhi and its environs.

The Lodi dynasty (1421-1526 AD) expanded its territory to include Punjab, Uttar Pradesh, parts of Rajasthan and Bihar. With the death of Ibrahim Lodi in

the Battle of Panipat in 1526 AD, Delhi Sultanate ended. The throne of Delhi passed to the Mughals under Babur.

The growth of Sufism had also influenced the region. In south, Vijaynagar was ruled by Hindus while Bahmani was having Muslim rulers. Military control and revenue collection were the primary motives for having territorial control.

The Mughals (1526 AD to 1857 AD) ruled by controlling different areas with almost Pan India control during Akbar. There were no fixed boundaries or barriers to different empires as these existed at any time.

The advent of colonial powers from Europe in India was in the form of merchant trading companies. The East India Company set up factories in several locations in coastal areas with support of Mughal Emperors, the Maratha Empire and local rulers. There were rivalries among companies of Portugal, Denmark, Netherlands, and France. By 18th century, three presidency towns, Madras, Bombay and Calcutta had grown significantly in power and prominence.

The Company gradually acquired sovereignty over large parts of India, particularly the presidencies. During the process, the company increasingly came under British government oversight, in effect sharing sovereignty with the crown and gradually lost its mercantile privileges.

5.3.3 Colonial Period (AD 1857-1947): British Raj

All of you are familiar with the year 1857 and its importance during the British period in India. It was seen as the first attempt to overthrow the British Empire and its administrators, who ruled India primarily for deriving large scale economic benefits. The war of 1857 was a game changer. The parliament of Great Britain passed the Government of India Act (1858) and abolished the East India Company's charter and transferred control to the British Crown. The unwieldy presidencies were broken up into provinces. British administration involved Indian princes. The loyalty of Princely states to crown and their protection were secured. Numbering nearly six hundred, the princely states varied in size, location, terrain, and wealth. Rulers also varied from one region to another region. Hindu Rajputs dominated the deserts of Rajasthan. The Muslim rulers like Hyderabad, controlled highlands of the Deccan Plateau. There were princes from Hindus, Muslims, Sikhs, Rajputs and Marathas and, Mughal mansabdars. Each of them had individual aspirations and expectations. Indian princely states till the First World War maintained political isolation from British India (Mysore, Travancore) (Fig. 5.8).

After the outbreak of war, Indian princely states became directly involved in the affairs of greater India. Nearly all princely states pledged to support the British Government. The First World War, therefore, gave birth to a new unification process within India and in the world.

The period begins with the idea of Presidencies as the central government. There were three Presidencies: Bombay, Madras and Bengal.

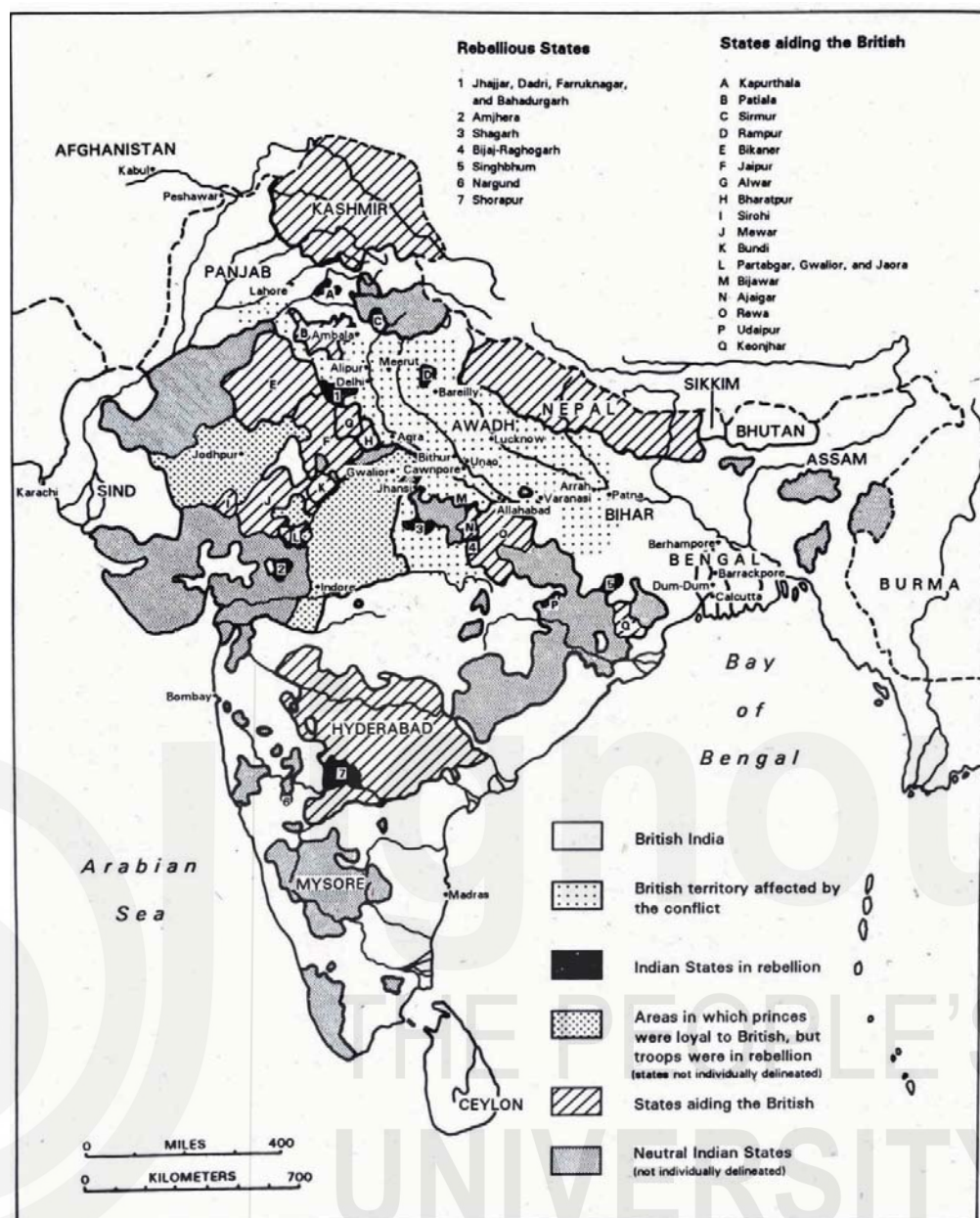


Fig. 5.8: Regions at the Time of 1857-58.

(Sources: An Atlas and Survey of South Asian History, Schmidt, (1995), p.73)

5.3.4 Post-Independence Period (1947- Till Date)

India on the eve of Independence was a highly disjunctive territorial structure with vast disparities in economic and social development (Ahmad, p. 39). On August 15, 1947, when India got Independence, there were (i) British provinces and (ii) Indian princely states. The British provinces were called Part A State. They were 9 in number (Punjab, United Provinces, Bihar, West Bengal, Assam, Orissa, Madras, Madhya Pradesh, and Bombay). The Indian princely states were 584 in number. The larger princely states or group of smaller ones became Part B States. They were 8 in number. The minor provinces and other native states became part C states. They were 10 in number. Andaman and Nicobar Islands was Part D state. In simple words, the territory inherited was reorganised into four different types of States. In all, there were 28 States (A, B, C, and D put together) (State Reorganisation Report 1955, p. 9).

Table 5.1: India: Reorganisation of States, 1947-2020

Year	Reorganisation of States
1947	Punjab
1949	Rajasthan
1950	Assam, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Odisha, Uttar Pradesh
1953	Andhra Pradesh
1954	Pondicherry*
1956	Karnataka, Kerala, Tamil Nadu, Andaman and Nicobar*, Delhi*, Lakshadweep*
1960	Gujarat, Maharashtra
1963	Nagaland
1966	Haryana, Chandigarh*
1971	Himachal Pradesh
1972	Manipur, Meghalaya, Tripura
1975	Sikkim
1987	Mizoram, Arunachal Pradesh, Goa
2000	Jharkhand, Uttarakhand, Chhattisgarh
2014	Telangana
2019	Ladakh*, Jammu and Kashmir*
2020	Dadra and Nagar Haveli, and Daman Diu (Merged)*

* denotes Union Territories (UTs).

The State Reorganisation Commission was constituted on Dec 29, 1953. The Commission submitted its report in 1955 and recommended to reorganise all the A, B, C, and D states into 16 States and 3 Union Territories. The Government divided the country into 14 States and 6 Union Territories (UTs) under the State Reorganisation Act, 1956.

India, as a union of states, has over the year reorganised its internal structure. The reorganisation of states since 1947 has been done many times for administrative efficiency and convenience. Over the year, Goa and Sikkim have been integrated within the union. States and union territory are two types of administrative units. The first status of state was given to Rajasthan (1949). Following it, in 1950, Assam, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Odisha and Uttar Pradesh were accorded status of states. Andhra Pradesh became state in 1953 (Table 5.1).

Major reorganisation based on linguistic homogeneity was done in 1956. It led to statehood of Karnataka, Kerala, and Tamil Nadu. Gujarat and Maharashtra became states in 1960 after the Bombay Reorganisation Act, 1960. Nagaland became state in 1962 and Haryana in 1966. Himachal Pradesh became state in 1971. In 1972, Manipur, Meghalaya and Tripura became independent states after North-East Area Act (Reorganisation Act) 1971. Sikkim became state in 1975. Mizoram and Goa became states in 1987.

In the year 2000, three states were created. These are: 1) Jharkhand from Bihar, 2) Uttarakhand from Uttar Pradesh and 3) Chhattisgarh from Madhya Pradesh. After long demand from people, separate state of Telangana was formed in 2014 by Andhra Pradesh Reorganisation Act 2014 (Fig. 5.9).

Jammu and Kashmir, which had a distinct status under article 370 since Independence was reorganised into two Union Territory in 2019. Article 370 was scrapped. The merger of Dadra and Nagar Haveli, along with Daman and Diu in 2020 from single Union Territories instead of two is the last change. There are 28 states and 8 Union Territories (UTs) including Delhi which is National Capital Region (NCT) (Fig. 5.10).

Over the years, India is getting organised by various administrative, political, economic and demographic factors. Its internal structure is gradually getting transformed. The subsequent units will describe various kinds of regional schemes and regions that are emerging, changing and reshaping India.

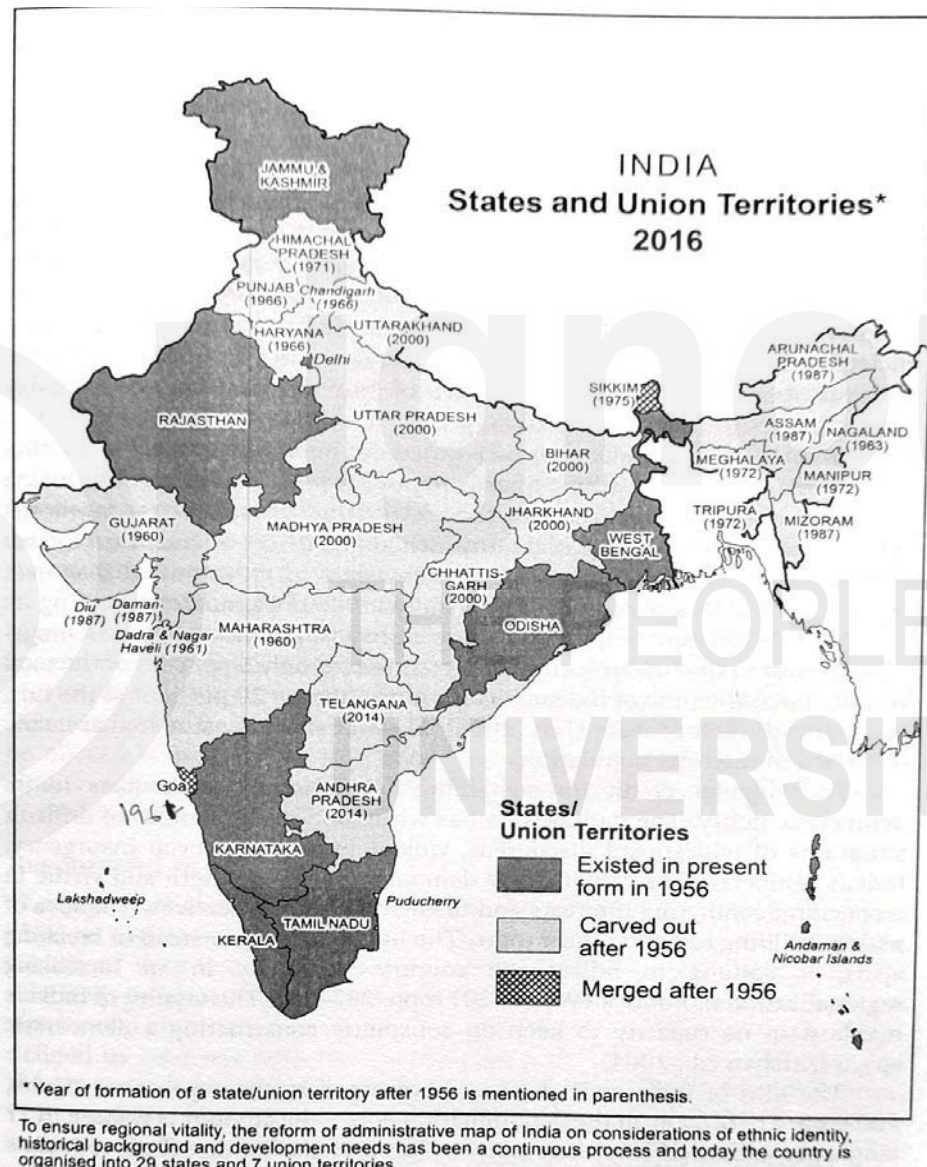


Fig. 5.9: India, States and Union Territories, 2016.

(Source: The Vitality of India: A Regional Perspective, Krishan (2017), p.27)

While India is a Union, its regional structure is continuously changing. Boundaries of States and Union Territories are made for administrative efficiency and convenience. These boundaries can be obligated. The coming of new states produced states which are more homogeneous within. However, many of these are distinct from each other in terms of ecology, sociology, and history (Krishan, p. 56).

Demands for many more states from different parts are emerging for separate identity and cultured reorganisation besides difficulty of their operations for development. Neglect of smaller cultured group by large groups is a factor for their emerging boundary.

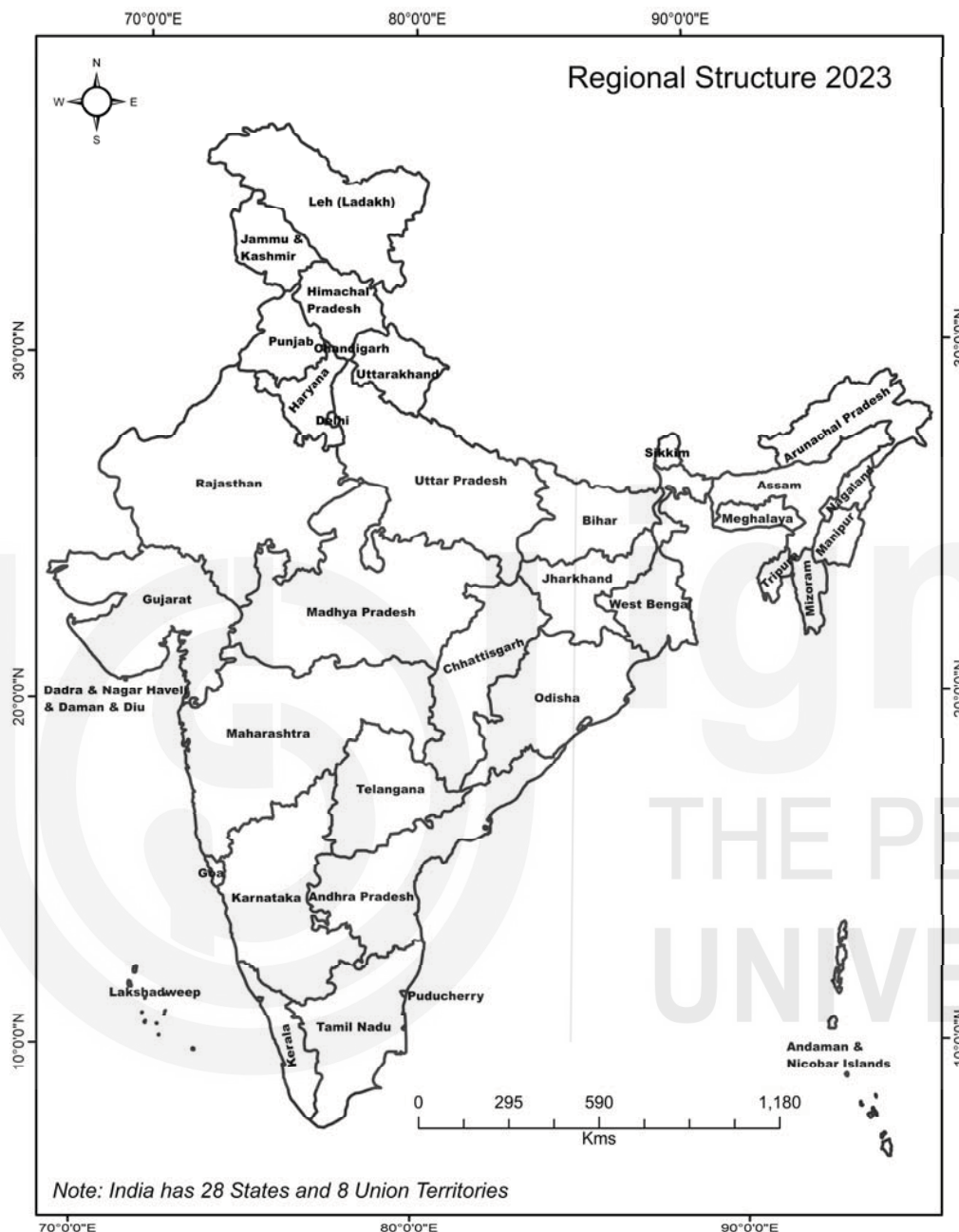


Fig. 5.10: Regional Structure, 2023.

(Source: Redrawn from Survey of India Map (2019))

SAQ 2

- How many major powers were present on the basis of spatial extent during ancient times?
- Name the regional kingdoms of political importance during medieval times.
- Name three presidencies that acted as central government during colonial period or British Raj.
- In how many states and Union Territories, government divided the country according to state reorganisation Act, 1956?

5.4 SUMMARY

In this Unit, you have learnt the following:

- Geographically distinct physical region, known as India or Bharat today on world map, was never a common functional region.
- While physical landscape changed slowly, the cultural landscape changed very frequently by various internal and external processes of fission, fusion and diffusion.
- History of human settlements on this distinct land is still getting unfolded by new researches. The chronology of the settlement is re-defined. The spatial extents are modified. The associations and linkages are deciphered and reinterpreted.
- The new evidences order and reorder the existing understanding. In the process, history is being written and re-written. Based on available evidences, the entire regional structure of India was understood by dividing it on the basis of broad time frame, which signifies some commonness.
- Such commonness was found in the context of culture, clan, ethnicity, kingdoms, dynasties, and empires etc.
- Based on it, four broad divisions based on chronological order are: Ancient Period, Medieval Period, Colonial period and post-Independence period. These grouping are not having uniform duration but are indicative of major external human interventions at that time.
- The political-territorial organisation of space during ancient period has no confirmed beginning but ends by 700 AD were assimilated, though ethnic sweeping of aborigines from north is also a historical truth.
- The pan India powers of this period were Maurya's (Ashoka) and Gupta's (Chandragupta II). The supra regional powers were Magadh, Sakas, Satvahanas, and Vakatakas. The small powers were Rashtrakuta's, Chalukaya's, Chera's, Nanda's, and Kushana's.
- The medieval period began with plundering by the external forces. It was destructive and regressive. It attempted to destroy the existing social and cultural heritage. The religious conversion during Mughal was also forceful.
- The Pan India Powers of this period were Tughlaq (Mohamad Bin Tughlaq), Mughal (Akbar), and Maratha (Shivaji). During the colonial period, the Europeans ruled different parts of this land. The unified territory ruled by Britishers was of Pan India nature. However, there were many independent princely states (Hyderabad).
- Post Independence, the largest unification was recorded through partition of the land on religious line is also a hard reality. The external influence has stopped. The internal reorganisation is still continuing and new factors and processes are operating. As known to all of you that new regional pattern are evolving with the passage of time.

5.5 TERMINAL QUESTIONS

1. What do you understand by hierarchical nature of society?
2. Critically highlight the role of kingdoms during medieval times.
3. Critically evaluate the nature of society and economy during modern period.

5.6 ANSWERS

Self-Assessment Questions (SAQ)

1. Historical, political and biological factors are responsible for the formation of India's regional structure during ancient times. Besides, migrations, wars and technological factors also played significant role.
2. a) Three broad regional powers marked the spatial extent. These were pan India powers, supra regional powers, and small powers.
b) These were Pratiharas of Gujarat, Parmaras of Malwa and Chauhans of Ajmer and Delhi. They rose to power during 8th and 13th centuries and covered northern and central India.
c) These were Bombay, Madras and Bengal.
d) 14 States and 6 Union Territories.

Terminal Questions

1. Refer to Section 5.2.
2. Refer to Section 5.3.
3. Refer to Section 5.4.

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REVIEW OF MAJOR SCHEMES 1 |

Structure

6.1	Introduction Expected Learning Outcomes	6.4	Review and Critical Evaluation of the Scheme of Regionalisation Presented by Pithawala
6.2	Review and Critical Evaluation of the Scheme of Regionalisation Presented by Baker and Stamp	6.5	Summary
6.3	Review and Critical Evaluation of the Scheme of Regionalisation Presented by Kazi S. Ahmad	6.6	Terminal Questions
		6.7	Answers
		6.8	References and Further Reading

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The Regionalisation of India has been attempted by many geographers and social scientists. To implement the planning processes regional delimitation becomes essential. Delimitation of the region is a synthesis of various geographical attributes. Its staunch criticism is the lack of standardised and objective norms. In the want of standardised norms and practices of regionalisation, there have been different regionalisation schemes afloat. The same holds for regionalisation attempts. There have been several attempts at the regionalisation of India. Immediately after independence and the adoption of planning processes, efforts at regionalisation of India were attempted. The basis of regionalisation used to vary from one social scientist to another.

The present unit will discuss the major highlights of the schemes of regionalisation presented by Baker and Stamp, Kazi S. Ahmad and Pithawala. This unit will have critiques of the methods and techniques adopted in the aforesaid regionalisation of India scheme.

The Regionalisation Schemes presented by the likes of Baker and Stamp, Ahmad, and Pithawala are reviewed in this Unit. A review and Critical Evaluation of the Schemes of Regionalisation Presented by Baker and Stamp has been discussed in Section 6.2. Section 6.3 is devoted to the Review and Critical Evaluation of the Scheme Presented by Kazi S Ahmad. Finally, the

Review and Critical Evaluation of the Regionalisation Scheme Presented by Pithawala have been discussed in Section 6.4.

This Unit is intended to make you understand the nuances of regionalisation schemes of India as presented by different scholars and appreciate the same for different purposes, including planning and development etc.

Expected Learning Outcomes

After studying this Unit, you should be able to:

- understand the basis of the Regionalisation scheme presented for Regionalisation of India by Baker and Stamp;
- highlight the shortcomings of the schemes of Baker and Stamp;
- differentiate among the basis of Regionalisation in the schemes presented by Baker and Stamp and K.S. Ahmad;
- critically evaluate the scheme of regionalisation by K.S. Ahmad;
- highlight the demerits of the scheme presented by K.S. Ahmad;
- analyse the Regionalisation of India scheme by Pithawala; and
- compare and contrast the three schemes of Regionalisation of India.

6.2 REVIEW AND CRITICAL EVALUATION OF THE SCHEME OF REGIONALISATION PRESENTED BY BAKER AND STAMP

Attempts for the regionalisation of India started in the early decades of the twentieth century. However, most of the regionalisation schemes were based on single or multiple features, keeping in mind India's clear macro-level division. These regionalisation schemes were undertaken to address specific purposes. These attempts generally ignored the physiographic or geographical considerations.

Regionalisation done by the Meteorological department or Census of India taking into consideration the climatic factors/ features like Temperature, Rainfall etc, and demographic attributes for the specific purpose of climate and census purposes, hardly sparked interest in Geographers.

Geographers were more interested in spatial diversities to understand the regional framework of the country. However, it was an attempt made by Stamp who came up with a working scheme for the division of India in the year **1922-24**.

Almost during the same period another scheme for the regionalisation of India surfaced. This scheme was presented by **Baker** in 1928, which was independent of the work of **Stamp**, nevertheless, it drew heavily from the former. Baker also incorporated some of the unpublished work of **W. Arden Wood**. The working scheme of Stamp and the one presented by Baker had resounding similarities. Both schemes are in agreement with broad geographical divisions, and the limits or the boundaries of the divisions also coincide.

The scheme produced by Stamp had two factors adopted to delineate the region, the first being the Physiographic and Structure while the climate was included as the second.

There are three macro-level regions and twenty-two sub-regions worked out for the whole of India. Macro-level regions are named 'Natural Regions' (Singh, 1972). The natural regions are:

1. The natural regions of the Mountain Wall
2. The natural regions of the Northern Plain
3. The natural regions of the Indian Plateau

The macro-regions are further divided into 22 sub-regions.

The mountain wall was further divided into four sub-regions based on Physiography.

1. The Eastern Hill region or the North-East Hills.
2. The Himalayan Region comprises the Himalayan Mountain chain approximately from 15000 feet upwards.
3. The Sub-Himalayan Region comprises the foot-hills between the plain and the mountains as well as the lower slopes of the Himalayas themselves.
4. The Tibetan Plateau covers the Aksai Chin area and other parts falling within the Jammu and Kashmir Boundaries.

The basis of this delineation is primarily climate and partly elevation (Singh, 1972).

Similarly, the other two macro divisions were also sub-divided into many meso regions.

The sub-division of the Great Northern Plain is based on Climatic characteristics and variations.

The Coastal Region around the plateau was included under the 'The natural - regions of Deccan Plateau. For the sub-division of the great North Indian alluvium plain 'climate' was the dominant factor. Stamp differentiated between the older alluvium of Uttar Pradesh and the newer alluvium soil found in the delta regions, but couldn't find a remarkable regional variance between the two. He, however, relied upon the climatic characteristics for his sub-division of the North Indian Plain.

The division of the North Indian Plain falling into India's borders partly or exclusively are:

- a. **Punjab Plains** (Indo-Gangetic Plain-west): It should be made clear here that the Indo-Gangetic plain nomenclature does not include the Indus Plain of undivided India (Punjab plains within the Indian territory).
- b. **The Upper-Gangetic Plain** with an annual rainfall of 100 centimetres and comprises two-thirds of the Uttar Pradesh.

- c. **Middle Ganga Plain**, which is an intermediate region with a mixture of dry and wet zone crops. Baker connected the Upper and Middle Ganga Plain and called it the **Indo-Gangetic Plain-East**.
- d. **The Lower Ganges Plain or the delta region**: This is the wet region of newer alluvium corresponding roughly with the former province of Bengal, now West Bengal in India and East Bengal in Bangladesh.
- e. **Brahmaputra Valley (Assam Plain)**, is a region of heavy rainfall.

The entire region south of the northern Plain is termed by Stamp as **Indian Plateau**. He didn't use the term peninsular India or The Deccan Plateau. According to Stamp, the term peninsular India should exclusively be used for the regions south of the Satpura Ranges.

Stamp and Baker's notion of peninsular India seems to be not in congruence with the geographical and physiographic reality. The Deccan plateau is the largest lava plateau in the world and is part of peninsular India. However, in their scheme of regionalisation, the author used the "Indian Plateau" in place of peninsular India. However, Peninsular India is more comprehensive and incorporating than the term preferred by Stamp and Baker.

The Sub-divisions of Indian-Plateau are grouped into three main heads:

1. Coastal Regions

- a. The Kutch, Kathiawar and Gujarat
- b. The West-Coast region
- c. The Karnataka or the Tamil Region (also referred to as the East Coast South, encompassing a broad coastal plain and an inland hilly tract)
- d. The Northern-Circar Region

2. The Plateau (Peninsular India Proper)

- a. The Deccan Region (using the term 'Deccan' in its strict sense)
- b. The Deccan Lavas Region
- c. The North-East Part of the Plateau

3. Regions North of the Satpura Mountain Line with a slope towards the Northern Plain

- a. The Central Indian Foreland (Between the Ganges Plain and the Narmada - Son trough)
- b. The Rajput Upland Region (Region of hills and Plateaus between the Vindhyas in the South and Aravalli in the North)
- c. The Thar or the Great Indian Desert

The scheme considered the coastal region around the plateau as a separate regional division. The scheme considered coastal regions forming a transition between the Dry Indus Valley and the Thar desert and the very humid West coast on the other. The West coast region lies between the crest of the Western Ghat and the Arabian Sea comprising a narrow coastal plain and the slopes of the Western Ghat. The Karnataka or the Tamil region also referred to as the East Coast South encompasses a broad coastal plain and inland hilly track. According to the scheme, the Northern Circar region (Eastern Ghat

mountain) included Odisha situated between Eastern Ghat and the Bay of Bengal.

The scheme provided sub-divisions of three macro-regions in a complicated and, at times overlapping manner. The nature of the scheme though simple yet not compatible with planning and development purposes. The Indian plateau comprises the **Deccan Region**, which covers the southern portion of the plateau, and The **Deccan Lava Region** in the North Western portion of the plateau corresponds with the **Black Cotton** area. This region is further divided into five sub-divisions namely viz., The Central Indian Highlands, Chhotanapur Plateau, Eastern Ghats, Chhattisgarh Plain or Mahanadi Valley and the Godawari Valley.

Regions North of Satpura Mountain line Sloping down towards the Northern Plain is further divided into three sub-divisions:

The **Central Indian Foreland** that lies between the Ganga plain and the Son Trough along with the **Rajput upland region** (a complex region of hills and plateaus between the Bindhiyas in the south Aravali hills in the northwest) and the **Thar or The Great Indian Desert** are the other divisions proposed in the regionalisation of India scheme by Stamp and Baker.

Stamp's division or regionalisation scheme is considered quite valuable for broad divisions of India. The scheme used to be popular among geographers. Stamp and Baker's regionalisation scheme has been widely used as a basis for understanding the geographical diversity of India and for planning various developmental activities. The classification of India into distinct regions based on climate and physiography provides a useful framework for analysing regional disparities and subsequent resource allocations.

The scheme has many shortcomings which were highlighted later by geographers and other social scientists. The merits and demerits of the scheme of regionalisation of India as given by Stamp and subsequently by Baker (though the two schemes surfaced independently), had many common features and are generally named Stamp and Baker's Scheme of Regionalisation.

Strengths

The Regionalisation Scheme of Stamp and Baker is the first comprehensive attempt to divide India into regions. The scheme is also credited with integrating the country through its regionalisation scheme. The scheme which was proposed during the early decades of the twentieth century has presented a contour of physical division of India based on Physiography and structure and Climatic Conditions and is considered among the pioneers in this field. It becomes also important given the fact that it was the first authentic regionalisation scheme of India presented by foreign academicians.

The Scheme of Stamp and Baker is also known for its focus on physiography, structure and climate in regionalisation. The fact that the scheme is based on only two aspects, is taken as a strong criticism, nevertheless, physiographic structure or feature and climate constitute the soul of any regionalisation scheme.

This scheme is acknowledged as the one which provided the foundation for future Regionalisation Schemes. Many subsequent social scientists and academicians of repute built their schemes and models of regionalisation on the sound edifice provided by the scheme of Stamp and Baker. The central theme of this scheme continued to reflect in the schemes of regionalisation of India presented during the later half of the twentieth century.

It was the first detailed attempt towards the regionalisation of a vast and heterogeneous country like India. The merit of the scheme can be subject to critical evaluation, but its significance as a detailed regionalisation scheme of India remains praiseworthy. Regionalisation through the division of Macro and Meso regions (sub-division) was a challenging task for the presenters of the scheme. Macro and Meso regionalisation based on Physiographic features and Climatic conditions still holds water to a great extent.

Weaknesses

Oversimplification is one aspect which is generally taken as one of the demerits or shortcomings of the regionalisation scheme. The complex geographical reality of a vast country like India seems not well captured through the limited attributes of physiography and climate. The omission of linguistic and cultural aspects along with economic activity is the highlight of the regionalisation scheme presented by Stamp and Baker.

India is a vast country with diverse landscapes, climates, and socio-economic conditions. The classification into macro natural regions may not adequately capture the regional variations in terms of culture, language, and socio-economic development.

The regionalisation scheme proposed by Stamp and Baker is based on a static approach, which does not take into account the dynamic nature of regional development. The socio-economic and environmental conditions in various regions of India have undergone significant changes since the 1930s. Therefore, the relevance of the regionalisation scheme in the present context is questionable.

Stamp and Baker's regionalisation scheme primarily focuses on the physical aspects of the regions, such as climate and topography. It does not adequately consider human factors, such as population density, urbanisation, and socio-economic development, which play a crucial role in shaping regional characteristics. The regional identity remains ill-represented when the human dimension is missing. The demographic characteristics along with the Human resources of a region besides, physical parameters, provide Regional Identity.

Lack of Integration is another important omission in the Regionalisation of India Scheme presented by Stamp and Baker. The regionalisation scheme does not provide an integrated framework for analysing the interrelationships between the various regions of India. The regions are treated as isolated entities, which may not be appropriate for understanding the complex interdependencies between the regions in terms of trade, migration, and resource sharing. In the present-day context, regions cannot be imagined to exist in isolation. The spatial organisation along with functional and social

interaction are inextricably intertwined at inter and intra-regional levels. The scheme of Stamp and Baker ignored this factor.

Stamp and Baker's regionalisation scheme of India gave a glimpse of the geographical diversity of the country and was perhaps one of the earliest serious attempts to regionalise India of the twentieth Century, yet it brazenly failed to capture the essence of regionalisation of the country. Because it ignored economic, linguistic, cultural, and demographic aspects etc., essential for regionalisation manoeuvre. However, the scheme is a useful tool to get an idea of the natural regions of India and their diversities, a requisite for planning and developmental activities. The scheme is criticised for its oversimplification, static approach, and lack of integration.

The scheme is simplistic and does not take into account the diversity of cultural, linguistic, and economic factors that contribute to the regional identities of different parts of India. As a result, it fails to capture the complex socio-economic and cultural differences that exist within each region. Regionalisation of a complex, Heterogeneous, and diverse country like India, attempted based on physiography and climate does not do justice to the cause. The scheme by Stamp and Baker failed to capture the essence and spirit of the Indian nation. In this context, there was a need for a more dynamic and integrated regionalisation scheme that takes into account the changing socio-economic and environmental conditions and the complex interrelationships between the various regions of India.

SAQ I

- a) Give a brief account of highlights of the Stamp and Baker's Scheme of Regionalisation.
 - b) What were the bases of the Regionalisation Scheme of Stamp and Baker?
-

6.3 REVIEW AND CRITICAL EVALUATION OF THE SCHEME OF REGIONALISATION PRESENTED BY KAZI S. AHMAD

Kazi S. Ahmad presented his scheme of regionalisation by dividing India into four macro-level divisions. He considered coastal plains independent of the Indian plateau, unlike the Stamp and Baker's Scheme. Ahmad's regionalisation is appreciated by O.H.K. Spate and criticised by Pithawala. Spate found the divisions sound whereas Pithawala criticised it on the grounds of lack of any suitable hierarchical order, particularly given the country's vast dimensions and scale.

The division of India in his regionalisation into four macro-region schemes was a sudden departure from the general practice of three broad divisions: Northern Mountains, Central Plain and peninsular India. Ahmad added coastal plains and Islands and justified their inclusion as a separate physiographic entity in Indian regionalisation.

However, his treatment of the Himalayas as an undifferentiated mass and the small sub-montane “**Cho area**” of Punjab at par, drew a lot of browbeat and criticism in the contemporary era. Ahmad maintained that the additional independent division of coastal plains or the Coastal Low lands is drawn on the basis of physiography and relief. Whereas the conventional three-fold division relied heavily on geology and structure. Criticising The scheme of Ahmad, Pithawala argued that the coastal lowlands (Plain) are the “shore facies” of the Deccan Trap and southern Plateau provinces. Spate on the other hand viewed the regionalisation scheme of Ahmad and observed yet as “less unrealistic” in comparison to the one presented by Pithawala.

While Ahmad's work provides valuable insight into the complex regional dynamics of India, it is important to critically analyse the scheme to identify its strengths and weaknesses.

Strengths

Comprehensive Approach: Ahmad's scheme of regionalisation is relatively more comprehensive in comparison to the one given by his predecessors Stamp and Baker. This multi-faceted approach provides a more holistic understanding of the regional dynamics of India. The inclusion of coastal areas of India as a separate geographical and Physiographic unit is a valid attempt to have a comprehensive representation of the regionalisation of the country.

Like the Schemes of Stamp, Baker, and Pithawala; Ahmad's scheme also gives significant importance to the physical features of the regions such as mountains, rivers, and plateaus, with the addition of coastal lands in his scheme, he tried regionalisation of India purely on a physical basis. The importance of Physical aspects cannot be delegated to lesser importance as important factors in the overall development of the regions.

Weaknesses

Lack of innovation and inability to produce a regionalisation scheme significantly distinct from the one proposed by his predecessors is the underlying criticism of his Regionalisation scheme. The classification of regions in Ahmad's scheme is based on certain subjective criteria, which can lead to inconsistencies and contradictions. For example, the classification of regions based on climatic conditions may not always align with the classification based on socio-economic aspects, leading to confusion and overlap between regions.

The lack of clear boundaries in his scheme is another point of observation by his critics. Ahmad's scheme does not provide clear and well-defined boundaries for the regions. This can lead to ambiguities and disputes, as it becomes difficult to determine the exact extent of each region. His inability to draw clear non-overlapping regional boundaries drew sharp criticism.

Overemphasis on homogeneity in Ahmad's scheme is also considered one of the weaknesses of his Regionalisation Scheme. Ahmad's scheme tends to overemphasise the homogeneity of the regions, which might not always be the case. India is a diverse country with significant variations within each

region, and a regionalisation scheme must acknowledge and account for these differences.

Ahmad's scheme is based on data and information that may no longer be relevant or accurate. The socio-economic and demographic landscape of India has changed significantly since the time of Ahmad's work, and an updated regionalisation scheme would need to take these changes into account.

Kazi S. Ahmad's scheme of regionalisation of India provides a valuable starting point for understanding the regional dynamics of the country. However, it is important to recognise its limitations and shortcomings and to consider updating the scheme to better reflect the current socio-economic and demographic realities of India. A more accurate and up-to-date regionalisation scheme would be instrumental in facilitating regional planning and development, as well as promoting a better understanding of the diverse and complex country that is India.

The scheme of Ahmad drew flank in the contemporary world on the ground of separate and independent treatment of coastal plain as a geographical unit. However, the scheme is very general and simplistic. The scheme is bereft of other considerations like culture, linguistic nuances, and economic considerations. Regionalisation based on one or a couple of factors does not reflect the true and correct picture of the regions. Although the scheme under consideration is reasonably simple and fails to capture reality, its criticism at times is not acceptable in the prevailing paradigm.

Spate while reviewing the scheme observes why three or four physical divisions in India and why not five broad divisions as eastern and western littoral differ significantly from each other. For him, the two coastal plains differ significantly in terms of relief, structure and origin. The geological, topographical, structural as well as cultural knowledge and in-depth study corroborate O.H.K. Spate's observation in this regard.

SAQ 2

How does the regionalisation scheme presented by Kazi S. Ahmad differ from the scheme of Stamp and Baker?

6.4 REVIEW AND CRITICAL EVALUATION OF THE SCHEME OF REGIONALISATION PRESENTED BY PITHAWALA

During the decade 1930, Pithawala came up with another scheme of regionalisation of India. His scheme was the result of a rigorous regionalisation effort. Pithawala published his work on the regional division in the journal of the Madras Geographical Association in 1939. His scheme was a response as well as a critique of Stamp and Baker's Scheme. The major highlight and the underlying spirit of his scheme is "physiographic uniformity". The factor of physiographic uniformity acts as a master principle running throughout the hierarchy of regional divisions.

However, as Spate observed, Pithawala's Scheme lacks consistency in text and accompanying maps. Pithawala's fixation with one factor or single principle of physiographic uniformity brazenly overlooked other essential factors, like economic consideration, cultural and linguistic identities etc. Relying on a single principle of physiographic uniformity is manifested as an imbalanced and improper regionalisation scheme. No matter how rigorous and meticulous the implementation of a single principled factor, it failed to capture the regional, cultural, demographical, economic and linguistic etc., identity of the nation particularly a geographically vast and diverse country like India.

Strengths

Pithawala's regionalisation scheme of India, developed in the 1930s and published in 1939, represents a rigorous and meticulous effort to create a regional division of the country. One of the major highlights of his scheme is the principle of "physiographic uniformity," which serves as the master principle throughout his hierarchical regional divisions. This approach underscores the importance of natural geographical features in shaping regions and provides a clear and scientifically grounded method for delineating regional boundaries. Pithawala's emphasis on physiographic features reflects a strong deterministic perspective, suggesting that human activities are significantly influenced by the physical environment. This perspective offers a comprehensive understanding of how natural landscapes shape human settlements, climate patterns, and vegetation.

Furthermore, Pithawala's scheme responds to and critiques earlier regionalisation efforts by Stamp and Baker, indicating an engagement with existing scholarly discourse and a willingness to refine and improve upon previous models. His work, published in the Journal of the Madras Geographical Association, demonstrates a significant academic contribution to the field of geography and reflects a dedication to advancing regional science in India.

Weaknesses

The major criticism of the Pithawala's scheme is related to his delineation of boundaries in the plains. It seems that Pithawala overlooked and neglected the fact that plains usually run endlessly featureless and are monotonous. Pithawala, while demarcating the boundary between the Indus and Ganga plains ignored the fundamental concept that plains defy regional division on any meaningful boundaries and more so based on physiography. His division of the aforementioned plains based on the physiographic boundary is highly confusing. Boundaries in plains, now well acknowledged, should be based on an amalgam of many factors instead of one as advocated by Pithawala.

Being aware of strong and valid criticism meted out, Pithawala revised his scheme and tried to incorporate suggestions in his new effort. However, he failed to modify and satiate the objections because he adhered to the one principle (physiographic uniformity) approach. The physical diversity accentuated by cultural, linguistic and economic heterogeneity is an essential factor to be considered while attempting regional division of a country like India. The principle of physiographic uniformity thoroughly failed to effectively

operate in the scheme of the regional division of India because of the vast size and immense spatial inequalities.

Pithawala tried to modify his scheme but didn't adopt the principle of use of more than one differentiating characteristic or principle of division, which resulted in non-upgradation and modification of the existing scheme.

Pithawala's claim to achieve a regionalisation scheme with precision based on all-the-way-running one factor/criterion logic of the Physiographic Uniformity principle was severely criticised by O.H.K. Spate.

Pithawala's View 'Over such scientific and logical divisions of the country, all matters relating to climate, natural vegetation and even human settlements must drape themselves completely and to the satisfaction of all other advocates of allied sciences' (Singh 1972) is a tall and surely exaggerated claim. His view of the 'draping' of cultural and other factors around physiography is in itself not tenable. The over-emphasis on the physical aspect and that too upon a kind of physical homogeneity cutting across the natural regions of a vast and diverse country like India, is the cardinal point of objection from contemporary geographers and social scientists like Spate and others. The 'one principle' centred Regionalisation Scheme of Pithawala is in itself a strong statement in favour of the deterministic school of thought that advocates nature's supremacy and suggests human adaptability/flexibility for human sustenance.

Pithawala through his scheme of regionalisation tried to further his perspective while explaining the regional variations and spatial inequalities in terms of the 'totality of things as seen on the surface of the earth'. He staunchly argued that the physical environment and human-cultural processes co-vary and co-exist spatially because human activities are controlled principally by the physical environment.

The regionalisation scheme by Pithawala although a serious attempt, however, lacked a balanced approach because of his undue emphasis on one criterion. The lack of consideration for factors like cultural aspects, linguistics, demographic composition, and economic activities in his scheme, rendered it less effective and less acceptable. His revised scheme also could do little justice and therefore, had little variation and modification from the original scheme presented by him in the year 1939.

SAQ 3

What was the Single Principle approach of the Scheme of Regionalisation given by Pithawala?

6.5 SUMMARY

In this Unit, you have learnt the following:

- You have studied and learnt about the review and major highlights of the regionalisation scheme of India presented by Stamp and Baker, Kazi S. Ahmad and Pithawala.

- The first scheme reviewed is given by Stamp and Baker. This scheme though simplistic and comprehensible, lacks clarity and in places creates ambiguities. This scheme, however, jointly credited to Stamp and Baker has an independent contribution.
- Since the scheme given by Baker has strong similarities and is in agreement with the one given by Stamp, lately it subsumed with the former and surfaced as a joint effort.
- The scheme focused on physiography and climate in regional divisions of the country, it grossly overlooked the economic, cultural, and linguistic considerations.
- The scheme of Regionalisation by Stamp and Baker paved the way for a series of schemes of regionalisation of the country to be proposed by Geographers and other social scientists in the coming future, decades before the country got independence.
- In other words, the scheme (s) (though proposed independently by Stamp and Baker, however, owing to the similarities between the two often considered collectively and studied combinedly) was perhaps the first of its kind to divide India into Natural regions based upon the Physiography and the climatic characteristics.
- The scheme presented by Kazi S. Ahmad is a result of a critical evaluation of Stamp and Baker's scheme as well as an effort to regionalise India with a fresh perspective. Unlike the former presenters, Ahmad recognised the **coastal plains and islands** of India as a separate and independent division, the fourth macro entity, in his scheme.
- Like his predecessor, he also brazenly ignored the other essential factors for regionalisation. Therefore, his scheme failed to capture the real India. His justification for additional macro division of Coastal Plains and Islands, leaving aside other considerations, also didn't cut any ice.
- Pithawala presented two schemes, the second one surfaced after the criticisms and objections raised to the original one. However, both schemes of regionalisation failed to address the objections and incorporate the suggestions, for he decided to stick to his approach of one principle of physiographic uniformity in regional division.
- Pithawala like his predecessors didn't incorporate essential factors like economic conditions, cultural attributes and linguistic variations of spatially unequal regions. His regionalisation scheme was bereft of essentially relevant considerations and obsessive fixation with one principle approach, rendering the scheme imbalanced and inadequate.
- The essence of the scheme of regionalisation of Pithawala was the emphasis on 'Physiographic Uniformity', the one criterion which he believed was the soul of the regionalisation of India. He firmly believed all other factors and aspects including cultural dimensions are the corollary to the underlying inherent homogeneity or the physiographic oneness or the uniformity of the region.

6.6 TERMINAL QUESTIONS

1. Highlight the main points of criticism common to all three of the schemes of Regionalisation reviewed in this unit.
2. What was the main ground of Criticism for the Scheme presented by Pithawala?
3. 'The Scheme Presented by Kazi S. Ahmad failed to make any impact'. Elaborate on this Statement.

6.7 ANSWERS

Self-Assessment Questions (SAQs)

1. a) The Scheme of Baker and Stamp has the following major highlights:
 - Divides India into Three Major Natural Regions and 22 Sub-divisions.
 - The macro-level division is done based on Physiography and Climate.
 - It completely ignored consideration of economic, cultural, linguistic and other relevant factors in its scheme of regionalisation.
 - The scheme is simplified, however, the delimitation of the boundaries of the sub-divisions becomes overlapping and ambiguous at times.
 - Though the scheme was presented independently by L.D. Stamp and J.N.L. Baker, however, owing to a significant agreement and similarities between the two, they are combinedly known as the Stamp and Baker's Scheme of Regionalisation of India. The scheme of Stamp surfaced during 1922-24, while the scheme of Baker which was heavily based upon the unpublished book of Wood, came into being in the year 1928.b) Physiography, structure and climate are the basis of regionalisation.
2. Regionalisation scheme presented by Kazi S. Ahmad and Stamp and Baker differed from each other on following aspects:
 - Number of Macro Regions.
 - Total reliance on physical features by Ahmad whereas Stamp and Baker included Climate also as an essential basis of their regionalisation.
 - Ahmad's treatment of the Himalayas as an undifferentiated mass and the small sub-montane "**Cho area**" of Punjab at par, was incongruent to the scheme of Stamp and Baker.
3. It was the Principle of **Physiographic Uniformity**.

Terminal Questions

1. Refer to the Sections 6.2 to 6.4.
2. Refer to the Section 6.4.
3. Refer to Section 6.3.

6.8 REFERENCES AND FURTHER READING

1. Deshpande, C.D. (1992). *India: A Regional Interpretation*. ICSSR and Northern Book Centre, New Delhi.
2. Johnston, R.J. et.al (ed.) (1990). *Regional Geography: Current Development and Future Prospects*. Routledge London and New York.
3. Singh, R.L. (ed.) (1972). *India - A Regional Geography*, National Geographical Society of India, UBS Publishers' New Delhi.
4. Stamp, L.D. (1967). *Asia: A General and Regional Geography*. Methuen and Co. Ltd. London.



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REVIEW OF MAJOR SCHEMES 2 |

Structure

7.1	Introduction Expected Learning Outcomes		Regionalisation Presented by R.L. Singh
7.2	Review and Critical Evaluation of the Scheme of Regionalisation Presented by Spate and Learmonth	7.5	Review and Critical Evaluation of the Scheme of Regionalisation Presented by C.D. Deshpande
7.3	Review and Critical Evaluation of the Scheme of Regionalisation Presented by S.P. Chatterjee	7.6	Summary
		7.7	Terminal Questions
		7.8	Answers
7.4	Review and Critical Evaluation of the Scheme of	7.9	References and Further Reading

7.1 INTRODUCTION

In First Block, you have learnt about the fundamentals of regions and regional geography. In Units 5 and 6 of Second Block, you have studied and learnt about the changing dimensions of India's regional structure along with review of three major schemes of regionalisation propounded by renowned scholars of that time period. Beside geographers, few other social scientists have also made an attempt to prepare scheme of Regionalisation for India for planning and administrative purposes with an aim of economic development of the recently independent nation. All of the scholars adopted either common or diverse basis for doing so, with few exceptions. At the time of independence in 1947, India required a sound planning strategy for growth and development in the light of meagre availability of capital, skill, technology, infrastructure and human resources. This Unit 7 has been devoted to the study of few key schemes of regionalisation as propounded by eminent geographers and other social scientists. An attempt has been made to critically review key methods and techniques along with their basis as adopted by proponents of various schemes related to regionalisation of India.

Regionalisation schemes presented by few notable scholars have been critically reviewed in this Unit. Section 7.2 focuses on the review and critical evaluation of schemes of regionalisation presented by Spate and Learmonth.

Section 7.3 has been devoted to review of scheme presented by S.P. Chatterjee. Review and Critical Evaluation of regionalisation Scheme presented by R.L. Singh has been discussed in Section 7.4. Last Section 7.5 presents Review of Regionalisation Scheme Presented by C.D. Deshpande.

The purpose of this Unit is to make the learners understand the subtle details concerning the strengths and weaknesses of regionalisation schemes of India by critically reviewing these schemes, as propounded by above-mentioned five key scholars.

Expected Learning Outcomes

After studying this Unit, you should be able to:

- understand the basis of the Regionalisation scheme presented for Regionalisation of India by Spate and Learmonth;
- highlight the shortcomings of the schemes of S.P. Chatterjee;
- differentiate between the basis of Regionalisation in the schemes presented by Spate and Learmonth and S.P. Chatterjee;
- critically evaluate the scheme of regionalisation by R.L. Singh;
- highlight the demerits of the scheme presented by R.L. Singh; and
- analyse the Regionalisation of India scheme presented by C.D. Deshpande.

7.2 REVIEW AND CRITICAL EVALUATION OF THE SCHEME OF REGIONALISATION PRESENTED BY SPATE AND LEARMONTH

Geography as a spatial science is involved into the study of diverse strands of both physical as well as human features. These features are not homogeneously spread over the Earth's surface. There are wide ranging spatial variations at various scales ranging from macro to meso to micro levels. In essence, entire planet earth may be considered as one whole region, which is further divided into many segments as per the requirements of diverse domains of knowledge. One such domain is the study of geography that cuts across domains of physical and natural sciences on the one hand and social sciences on the other hand. Of late, it has also made an interface with technological domains such as geographical information system and global positioning navigational systems etc., aided with the strength of ever-emerging powerful computer systems. The task of a geographer fits here who not only tries to regionalise an area on the basis of sound adopted concepts and parameters but also tries to render a blueprint for development of particular geographical region. In this quest, various scholars have made attempts to devise plan or scheme of regionalisation for India.

Since beginning of twentieth century, a few eminent scholars made efforts towards regionalisation of India. By taking into consideration broad macro-level division of India, many of these schemes of regionalisation were either based on single or multiple factors. The aim of regionalisation schemes was basically concerned with comprehending the overall diversities of the nation. However, these regionalisation schemes usually overlooked the physiographic attributes

of the country in a more subtle manner. The institutional attempt aimed at Regionalisation of India carried out by the erstwhile India Meteorological Department (IMD) and Census of India (COI), by considering the climatic parameters such as Temperature and Rainfall etc., along with demographic attributes rarely generated interest among geographers, as discussed in Unit 6 as well. It means that geographers were keener to investigate the inherent regional diversities and spatial variations therein to better comprehend the regional framework of the nation, with geographical perspective. In other words, it means that geographers tried to make an attempt not only to study the physical and human dimensions of inquiry but also tried to see the variations and ascertained the logical reasons among these dimensions from one place to another, one region to another region or from one nation to another nation.

In this endeavour, Spate based his scheme of regionalisation on triple tectonic division of India in terms of three tectonic units by taking structure as the main factor (Spate and Learmonth, 1984). According to Spate, “structure is perhaps the most obvious guide, at any rate on the macro level” but also stated that “climate and position can never be ignored” (Spate and Learmonth, 1984). In his scheme, Spate followed the generous approach in order to select the indicators at sub-regional levels. Spate came up with the proposition of a flexible and dynamic scheme of regionalisation. He emphasised that “rigid definition is however impossible” as in a large country as like that of India, it is unmanageable to select a factor having a universal application (Spate and Learmonth, 1984). In the process of his regionalisation scheme, Spate accorded a special emphasis and stated that “scale is of the essence”, exemplified with an example of a ridge, as ridge could be a prominent feature in a plain region on the one hand, however, it could simply be an unimportant feature in mountainous regions as like in Himalayas (Spate and Learmonth, 1984). Similarly, according to Spate, “Siwaliks and other Sub-Himalayan zones, are ribbons hundreds of miles long and only a few miles wide, thus, to treat these as whole regions would involve an intolerable amount of cross referencing” (Spate and Learmonth, 1984). In this background, Spate put forward a proposition for dealing with the scale of variations and stated that geographers are required to practice subtlety to deal with two dimensions involving the variations in geomorphological texture and intensity of human activities. In his effort laden with diverse propositions, Spate came up with the result in the form of identification of Three Macro Regions (excepting the Island groups), 34 First Order Regions, 74 Second Order, and 225 sub-divisions of these regions with diverse scales.

Strengths

One of the characteristic strengths of this scheme is India’s regionalisation on the basis of three tectonic divisions makes it a good scheme. Another strength is the division of regions into number of first and second order regions and their further sub-divisions. Basically, Spate and Learmonth laid more emphasis on physical features encompassing geological structure, climate and geographical position etc.

Weaknesses

In his endeavour of regionalisation scheme of India, Spate seems to have missed to adhere to any principle in its stricter sense. This is concerned with

the ordering of regions laden with diverse characteristics, especially in association with each other as far as these are not considered disadvantageous to comprehend the regions. In addition, Spate also wrongly visualised it in terms of provisioning of ample scope for further sub-divisions of the regions with the help of new technological advancements coupled with regionalisation methodologies.

Furthermore, India is a country characterised by diverse natural as well as physical landscapes, along with socio-economic landscapes. Spate and Learmonth's classification scheme based on three tectonic divisions doesn't represent the orderly regional variations concerned with its socio-economic landscapes.

SAQ I

- a) Give a brief account of highlights of the Spate and Learmonth's Scheme of Regionalisation.
 - b) What were the bases of the Regionalisation Scheme of Spate and Learmonth?
-

7.3 REVIEW AND CRITICAL EVALUATION OF THE SCHEME OF REGIONALISATION PRESENTED BY S.P. CHATTERJEE

Needless to mention that at the time of freedom struggle for independence of India from Britishers, successive series of political factors helped to determine and shape Geography of India to a great extent. Therefore, among the large number of Indian Scholars, two scholars made a pioneering attempt to chronicle the post-colonial geography of India. First scholar is Panikkar (1955), who highlighted the significance of "India: Geographical Factors in Indian History" and second scholar is S.P. Chatterjee (1947) "India: An Introductory Regional Geography". In this Section 7.3, we have made an effort to review and critically evaluate the regionalisation scheme as presented by S.P. Chatterjee in 1947. He was clearly inspired by the sequence and turn of events, the way these unfolded during the freedom struggle. For S.P. Chatterjee, "India was part of the British Empire for about two centuries. On August 15, 1947 came a major political change. India was partitioned" (Chatterjee, 1947).

He viewed these in terms of indicative of the matter of the fact that systematic geography, unlike regional geography, is greatly inadequate to provide amicable answers to such questions because "particular type of environmental factors, which distinguish one region from another are not necessarily confined within the political limits of individual states" (Chatterjee, 1947). As opposed to this view, he believed that physical environment may endure to exert the same influence in continuation. With this idea in mind, subsequently, S.P. Chatterjee initially tried to divide India into Nine Physico-Geographical Regions. Primarily, he did this on the basis of physiographic characteristics. These nine-fold divisions of India are listed as under:

1. The Himalayan Mountain Ranges
2. Ganga Plains

3. The Indian Desert
4. Peninsular India: Northern Section
5. Peninsular India: Southern Section
6. The Deccan Plateau
7. Peninsular India: The Lava Region
8. North Eastern Region: Brahmaputra Valley, Assam; and
9. Hill States: Meghalaya, Manipur, Nagaland, Tripura and Mizoram.

However, S.P. Chatterjee tried to venture beyond this uni-directional trajectory dominated by physical landscape. He said that such divisions carried out on the basis of physiographic characteristics are, however, not very much suitable as far as diverse country like India is concerned. He was of the view that regionalisation scheme in geography, without recognising the emphatic presence of human beings, predominantly their “modes of living”, may not yield desired outcomes, per se. He further held the view that a mode of living in turn is also reflective of the interdependence among physiographic and anthropogenic factors encompassing physiography, climate and population etc. Therefore, with such elaborate and inclusive approach, he made an attempt to propose the following nine-fold alternative physiographic regions of India as listed below:

1. Dry Lands: Hot deserts and Semi-deserts
2. Tropical Grasslands
3. Temperate Grasslands
4. Tropical Rainforests
5. Northern Lands of Arctic and Subarctic Climates
6. Developed Northern Coniferous Forests
7. Monsoon Regions
8. Subtropical and Temperate Arable Lands; and
9. Manufacturing and Mining.

For S.P. Chatterjee, the state reorganisation of India carried out on the basis of administrative regions is not correct and he was very critical about the same. He critically lamented for neglecting the physical environmental characteristics. On the contrary, he advocated for the adoption of certain fundamental physical factors considered as essential for physical unity of India as far as the purpose of regionalisation is under question. These physical factors include Climatic Regions, Natural Vegetation Regions, Soil Regions, Structural Regions and Physiographical Regions etc.

Thus, based on such factors, S.P. Chatterjee once again divided India into the following six regions as under:

1. Himalayan Mountain Region
2. Ganga Plains,
3. The Indian Desert
4. Peninsular India: North Section
5. Peninsular India: South Section or the Deccan Plateau,
6. The Coastal Plains and the Indian Islands.

Strengths

S.P. Chatterjee's scheme of regionalisation seems to be more elaborate and comprehensive as compared to scheme propounded by Spate and

Learmonth. The adoption of mixed and balanced approach by combining physical and cultural landscape makes it more holistic scheme aimed at comprehending the regional geography and its dynamics in India. Another important strength is the attempt to add coastal areas into the physiography of India as a separate geographical and Physiographic unit. This approach ensured the comprehensive representation of all the geomorphological units while attempting regionalisation of the country.

As like Spate and Learmonth's scheme, in his scheme of regionalisation, Chatterjee also tried to lend special importance to comprehensively cover the geomorphological features of the regions. These encompass mountains, rivers, plateaus, and coastal areas etc. Chatterjee was of the view that Physical aspects plays very important role as far as overall development of the region is concerned.

Weaknesses

S.P. Chatterjee's scheme of regionalisation lends credible information to study the regional dimensions of India. Nonetheless, his scheme offers a kind of base platform to understand both physical and cultural dynamics of India. But keeping in mind the changing narratives of contemporary times, it requires a thorough and detailed updating with currently available multifarious data and secondary literature. This will not only help to provide a latest, credible and reliable information dealing with actual realities at various scales, but may also facilitate the diverse array of stakeholders like administrators and planners for devising inclusive local, regional and national level plans aimed for the holistic development of India for enabling it to turn into a burgeoning power that may be reckoned at international levels in all spheres. These may encompass educational, socio-economic, spiritual, and environmental spheres etc., conforming to the principles of ingenuity and frugality for upholding the judicious utilisation of both natural and human resources.

SAQ 2

How does the regionalisation scheme presented by S.P. Chatterjee differ from the scheme of Spate and Learmonth?

7.4 REVIEW AND CRITICAL EVALUATION OF THE SCHEME OF REGIONALISATION PRESENTED BY R.L. SINGH

Soon after independence in 1947, the recently independent nation was desperately searching for a new narrative so as to engage the people of India, primarily on the basis of objective facts derived from varied data base supported with the help of scientific methodology. India believed itself to be a kind of development and welfare-oriented nation on the basis and practice of democratic principles. With this background, a special focus was laid on the generation of strong data base covering socio-cultural and economic aspects. While doing so, due care was taken to accord an importance for both inventory of natural resources and physical aspects as well.

In this endeavour, the pioneering contribution rendered by the Central Statistical Organisation (CSO), which was established in 1951 under the Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation is noteworthy. It further got a momentum coinciding with the creation of Census of India under the Ministry of Home Affairs and re-naming of the Imperial Survey into Survey of India, etc., for the generation of strong and crucial data base based on the objective principles. Gradually, in recently Independent India, thus, the strong data base created in such manner immensely facilitated Geographers and social scientists to develop objective understanding about India in its multifarious dimensions. In this respect, one of the most important contributions was provided by the *Banaras School of Geographers* under the leadership of *R.L. Singh*.

In this attempt, R.L. Singh's team gave prime significance to natural landscape, particularly physiography in order to properly understand the Geography of India. In the words of R.L. Singh (1971), "Geology, Structure, Relief and Physiography together with the positional factor provide a fairly clear-cut division of India into four Units". Apart from this element, R.L. Singh also further highlighted that the Himalayan Mountain Region, the Great Plains, the Peninsular Uplands and the Indian Coasts and Islands "are simple but effective macro divisions of the country and go well with various patterns of the land in general. They are mutually distinct from each other, each having distinctive 'living space' with different set of factors. Each of these contrasts with the other in structure, landforms, climate, soils, natural vegetation, population and settlement distribution patterns, cultural aspects, economic development and above all in the possibilities and challenges" (Singh, 1971).

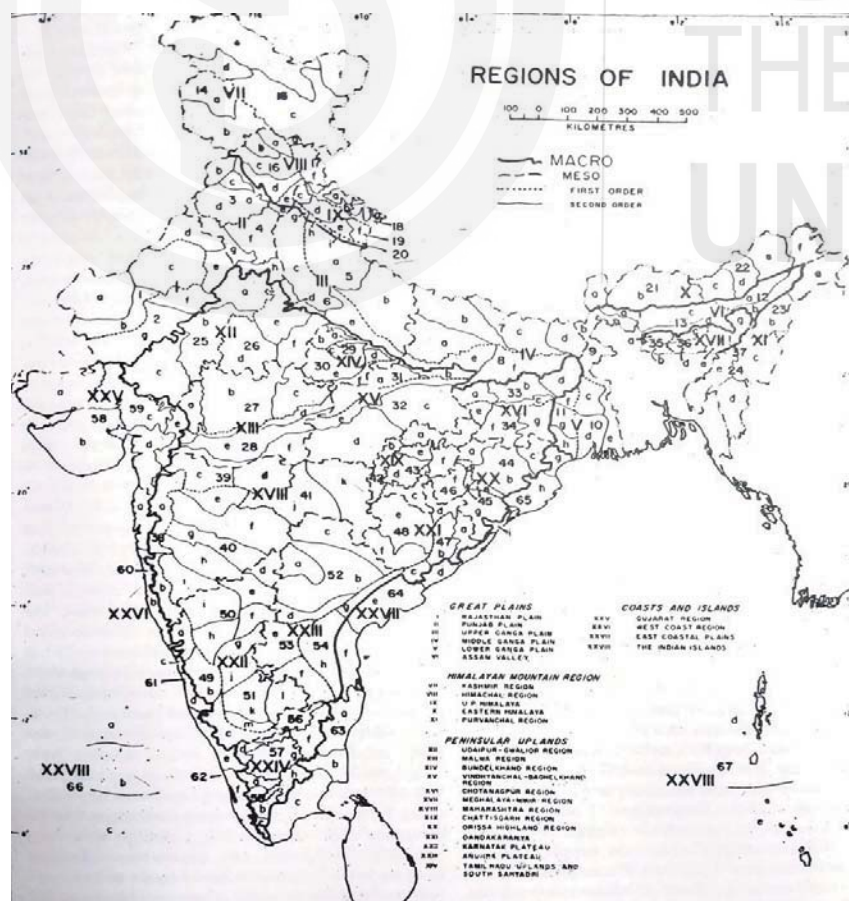


Fig. 7.1: Regions of India by R.L. Singh.

(Source: Singh, R.L. ed. (1971). *India: A Regional Geography*. National Geographical Society of India)

In contrast to rest of the regionalisation schemes, R.L. Singh tried to put special importance to the concept of core and other areas within a region. According to him, a core is characterised by development of specific features of the region developed 'par excellence' while in other areas the characteristics tend to be more apparent than real (Singh, 1971).

Therefore, based on these assumptions as discussed above, R.L. Singh identified 4 Macro, 28 Meso, 67 First Order, and 192 second order Regions (Fig. 7.1).

Strengths

One of the prime strength is the detailed scheme of regionalisation as propounded by R.L. Singh. He carried out his study on the basis of available facts made available through different government organisations in the form of strong data base. Besides, he also agreed with principles as propounded by other scholars, who significantly contributed in the regionalisation of India.

Weaknesses

R.L. Singh's scheme is considered as a seminal scheme based on the assemblage of various schemes as propounded by many geographers and social scientists. Nonetheless, his scheme also suffers as far as methodology and conceptual understanding of regions is concerned. As a result, his scheme involved few problems especially in consonance with the scheme as propounded by Spate, as pointed out below:

- R.L. Singh adopted a firm and particular methodology to regionalise the diverse regions of India. To do so, he conducted rounds of discussions with a group of like-minded geographers. He distributed the task of writing some specific regions to diverse group of geographers. In this attempt, the work assigned to seasoned geographers with in-depth knowledge about the region, resulted into excellent analysis on the one hand. On the other hand, the work assigned to novice geographers resulted into comparatively weaker analysis. Some chapters lacked in-depth comprehensive analysis in terms of academic input that was carried out by scholars namely C.D. Deshpande in case of Maharashtra region and S.L. Kayastha in case of Himachal Region, etc.

However, like other schemes, it also has certain weaknesses in terms of methodological shortcomings, as pointed out below:

- The inclusion of Rajasthan plain within the Great plains, which is highly erroneous and misleading.
- The extent of Indo-Ganga Divide (Punjab Plain South) between Satluj and Yamuna.
- 100 metre contour as the boundary between the Upper and Middle Ganga plain is incorrect.
- Separation of the coastal plains from the Peninsular Uplands and their inclusion with the Islands of Bay of Bengal and of Arabian Sea, are also conceptually wrong and fallacious.

SAQ 3

What was the Single Principle approach of the scheme of Regionalisation given by R.L. Singh?

7.5 REVIEW AND CRITICAL EVALUATION OF THE SCHEME OF REGIONALISATION PRESENTED BY C.D. DESHPANDE

Professor Deshpande was of the view that identification and description of various traditional regions of India is as old as the process of human occupancy of this ancient land. He mentioned two of the seminal work in this context, first one by Chitrao (1970) and second one by Schwartzberg (1970). Chitrao recorded names of various parts of India as known during Vedic and Puranic ages. Schwartzberg made scholarly description of regions as known and recognised during ancient, medieval and modern times (also discussed in Unit 5 of Block 2). Besides, one can find the description of region and their names in Epics, early Buddhist as well as Jain literature. Fourfold division of Bharatvarsha is also an important input. Popular Sangam literature also defines the limits of Tamilham of Tamilnadu along with its diverse smaller regions with reference to 'nadas'. Samundra Gupta's Allahabad pillar inscription also mentions list of names of countries. Early Chinese travellers account also mentions reference to some regions of India. Deshpande has discussed the making of Indian regions starting from the realms of Vedic-Puranic period to 13th Century to post-Independence period. Post-Independence period witnessed the integration of Princely States along with French and Portuguese colonial pockets followed by linguistic organisation of the states.

Deshpande also talked about political organisation of space and presented a brief review as how geographical regions are influenced by the administrative organisation of the terrain. He pointed out that even after Independence; the influence of British administration to divide the land for administrative reasons is still prevalent even today. With this background, Deshpande came up with the purpose of his study to understand historically and administratively evolved regions in their traditional setting and impact of modern economic forces and administration on such regions. He discussed the importance of regional concept and observed the absence of schemes to classify regions, particularly during ancient and medieval times (till end of 19th and onset of early 20th centuries). Seminal Greek scholars like Aristotle, Strabo, Ptolemy and few others (during ancient times) and few Arab geographers (during medieval times) used to explain regions and lands by their traditional names. He also highlighted that coinciding with rise of nationalism in Europe; a trend began to describe the countries in terms of political forms and boundaries. The major contributions lasted up to 18th and 19th centuries. He stated that one of the first attempt to classify regions was seen in the work of Reclus titled 'Nouvelle Geographie Universelle' (1876-1894). He acknowledged 'Major Natural Regions' propounded by A.J. Herbertson in 1956 as first organised regional classification on global scale. As far as study on Indian regions is concerned, Deshpande mentioned few seminal studies done by

J.L.N Baker (1928), L. Dudley Stamp (1927), Kazi, S. Ahmad (1941) etc. He also highlighted the well-known and most importantly used studies done by O.H.K. Spate and A.T.A Learmonth (1967) and R.L. Singh (1971). Besides these, he also mentioned the studies of Narottam Shah (1975) and Rasheduddin Khan (1978) to identify cultural regions of India.

Parallel to other seminal schemes of regionalisation, scholar C.D. Deshpande through his book titled "India: A Regional Interpretation" published in 1992, made an attempt to unleash newer perspectives with respect to regional geography of India. Like his predecessors, notably Subbarao, Spate and R.L. Singh etc., C.D. Deshpande was also a proponent of the significance of core in the region like many other prominent scholars of those times. However, his visualisation of the concept of core was somewhat different from these scholars. According to Spate (Spate and Learmonth, 1984), core areas commonly referred to as perennial nuclear regions were "major agricultural areas, for the most part alluvial". Another scholar named Subbarao (1958) believed in the completely different viewpoint as far as the core areas commonly referred to as areas of attraction were concerned. In his scheme of regionalisation, he gave more priority and importance to the presence of "cycles of cultures". R.L. Singh (1971) held the viewpoint of higher concentration of development potentials as an essence of the core. C.D. Deshpande (1992) gave greater importance to the assessment of intangible traditional, social-cultural and historical aspects concerning the regional communities.

For Deshpande "cultural facets of the regional communities such as language is useful basis in spite of the spatial variations in traditional nature of dialects, bilingual belts and the multi-lingual islands of urban settlements". He held the opinion that language when used in association with traditional regions, the core and their broadly known limits provide a working delineation of a geographical region (Deshpande, 1992). Nonetheless, he also adhered to the tripartite division of India as like that of Spate and Learmonth at macro level.

Deshpande also got swayed away by the temptation of data as being made available by the governmental agencies both at the State and District levels. As a result of this particular input of data, he stated that "the existing States of the Unions provide the basis of the regions of the next order and the level below that is delineated on the basis of cultural parameters relating to the human occupation, spatial spread and growth in numbers, ethnic and linguistic affinities, and political, religious and cultural inter-relations".

Besides, Deshpande also held the strong view that an attempt has been made by various scholars to identify the historically evolved Indian regions in their present forms. It is related to physical, socio-cultural and economic setting of a particular region under study. Regional concept started receiving growing neglect and almost complete rejection by some western scholars and also amongst Indian scholars at that point of time. The growing sense of criticism against regional concept was further strengthened by the emergence of quantitative methods and its applications in central places and regional development, particularly among the Indian scholars. As per Deshpande, however, such wave of criticism started diminishing with the passage of time. The major positive thrust emerged from few seminal studies in regionalisation

to identify the levels of socio-economic development. These seminal studies are by scholars like Ashok Mitra, Biplab Dasgupta, L.S. Bhat, Prakasha Rao and Moonis Raza. It further coincided with the approaching revival of interest in the regional concept significantly among the western scholars. This sense of revival seems to be quite akin to the concept of sovereignty in political science. Deshpande also held the opinion that the understanding of region is indispensable to any other sub-fields or branches of geography as well as allied or cognate disciplines of inquiry or sciences, which quintessentially deals with geographical setting. Such understanding of region is equally true and applicable as far as teaching and research are concerned.

Deshpande advocated avoiding the use of words like physical, natural, formal and functional as these tend to be exclusionary in nature. He preferred to make use of geographical region on account of its comprehensive nature. He initially followed the procedure to identify regions with their traditional names and core areas by tracing historical changes. After this, he made an attempt to assess modern impacts on the landscape arising out of population growth and socio-economic activities. The criterion of identification, delineation and classification of geographical regions as postulated by Deshpande is shown in Fig. 7.2.

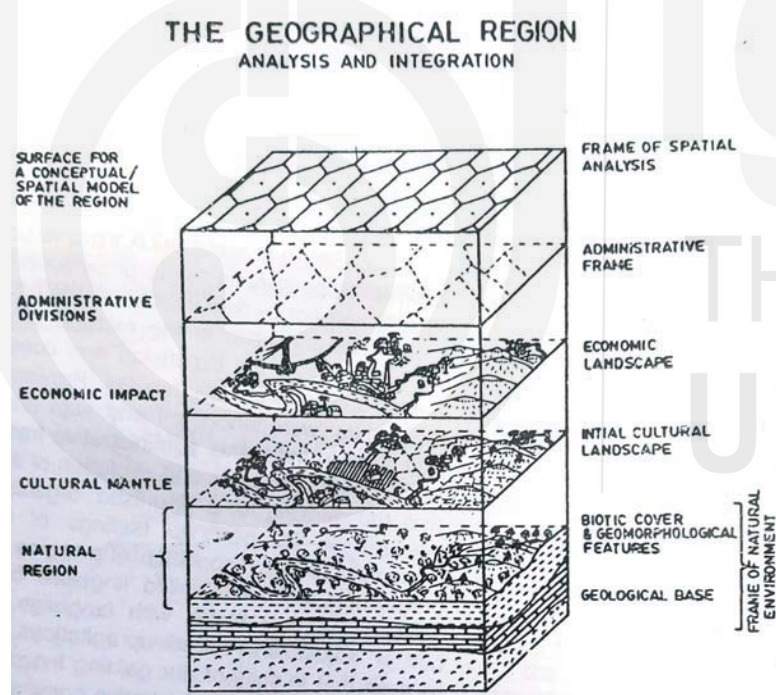


Fig. 7.2: Geographical Regions.

(Source: Deshpande, C.D. (1992): India: A Regional Interpretation)

He believed that delineation of regions is inevitably a complex phenomenon. Therefore, he followed multi-criteria approach instead of single criteria approach. He used physical base, climatic data, land use data and cultural facets of the regional communities. Regions are classified on the basis of 'functions' or the size of the area or population by following a taxonomic order. Deshpande adopted criteria of spatial with an attempt at 'nesting'. He made use of cartographic tools to ascertain the level of socio-economic development or productivity of each region as a whole, under investigation. His aim was to ascertain the status of regions of India critically against their geographical background.

Eventually, Deshpande's efforts of regionalisation scheme resulted into the identification of 12 Geographical regions and 53 divisions. Twelve major geographical regions of India as identified by Deshpande are shown below in Fig. 7.3. These are listed below as under:

- I) Southern (K. & T.)
- II) South-Central (Ka. & AP)
- III) PA West (Guj. & M)
- IV) PA East (Orissa)
- V) PA Central Uplands (M.P & Part. U.P)
- VI a) NW Region (PB & MAP.)
b) NW Region (Rajasthan)
- VII) Upper Yamuna Ganga Plain (U.P)
- VIII) Middle Ganga Plain (Bihar)
- IX) Bengal Delta (W.B)
- X) N W Himalaya (J&K, H.P & G.K. HIM)
- XI) N E Region (Sik, A.PR, Assam, NAG., MEGH, Etc.)
- XII) Oceanic Islands (Lakshadweep and Andaman & Nicobar Islands)

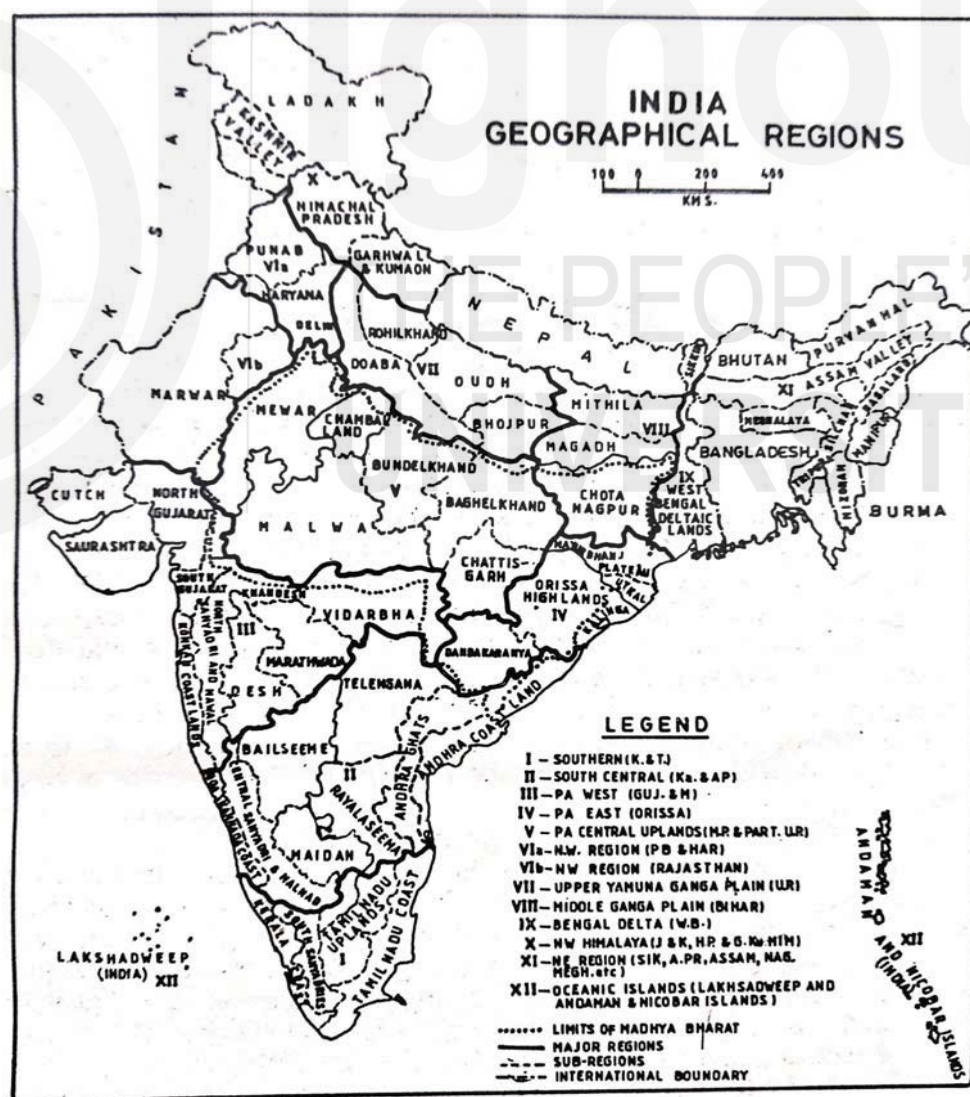


Fig. 7.3: India: Geographical Regions.

(Source: Deshpande, C.D. (1992): India: A Regional Interpretation)

Deshpande presented the scheme of Indian Regions on the basis of the above-mentioned criteria and considerations. On the basis of relief, his first order regions coincide with tripartite division of India, i.e., the Himalayas, the Northern Plains and the Peninsula. He took existing States of the Union as a basis to identify regions of the next order. Based on certain common factors (cultural and political) in terms of historical evolution, he grouped the adjacent States to form the regions of first order (e.g., commonness existing between Gujarat and Maharashtra, and Tamilnadu and Kerala). Further, he cited the case of North-Western Himalayan Region representing Jammu & Kashmir, Himachal Pradesh and the Himalayan part of the Uttar Pradesh as one group on the one hand. On the other hand, he shifted his attention on the role of environmental factors in carving out the regions of first order. He cited first reference of North-Eastern India, which includes Assam and other areas which acquired nascent Statehood. Second reference is of Madhya Bharat Plateau. He also highlighted that the peripheral lands of the plateau have been 'nibbled' out by the more advanced neighbours, referring to the British heritage in administration of Independent India. He pointed out that first order regions do not carry any traditional names.

In addition, first order regions are also different from the fourfold division of India, pertaining to ancient period. These regions are also not representative of the Zonal Councils, created under the umbrella of Constitution. However, Deshpande identified common identity of interests in the regions of first order. He cited the example of recent formation of the Southern Council of States by the Government of Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh and Tamilnadu. He held the view that such kind of formations may lead to proliferation of similar organisations, elsewhere in India as well.

The second order region signifies the territories of the States at macro-level. Important deviations mark these mainly on account of significant differences in relief forms and life style of inhabitants. For example, Adjustments relating to South Bihar (part of the Madhya-Bharat plateau) and the Garhwal-Kumaun (geographically belongs to the Himalayas) portion of the U.P.

Third order regions are nestled into the second order regions. These areas are traditional meso level regions (e.g., Konkan in Maharashtra, Kongunadu of the Tamilnadu or the Pat in Punjab). He also highlighted the possibility to identify the regions at the level of fourth order based on local usage and awareness (e.g., Charutar in Gujarat and Vembnad in Kerala). However, he also cautioned towards the phenomenon of urban development which seems to be influencing the character of such regions. In case of metropolitan areas, he pointed out that such urban regions are matching with the third order regions, if not the fourth order regions.

He believed that his regional scheme matches with that of Planning Regions (1967). Furthermore, he also highlighted the need to explore third and fourth order regions especially by experienced geographers having insider's perspective. In this regard, he mentioned the seminal work done by Schwartzberg (1985) in Rajasthan and specified the possibilities of applying statistical techniques in such studies to bring out the real essence of a region under study. Lastly, he also stressed the importance of regional inter-relations to understand the region in comprehensive, holistic and integrated manner by

highlighting the changing role of centripetal and centrifugal forces with the passage of time. He referred rising regional consciousness and cultural revival as centrifugal forces whereas economic processes and activities along with migration of people as centripetal forces.

Strengths

One of the major strengths of Deshpande's scheme is the emphasis rendered to the significance of core in the region as like many scholars did during that time period. Other strength of his scheme is the importance accorded to the assessment of intangible facets encompassing traditional, social-cultural and historical aspects of the regional communities being studied. Deshpande tried to understand the regional dynamics of India through the prism of socio-cultural parameters on the basis of objective data and facts.

Weaknesses

One of the key weaknesses of his scheme is the reliance on the basis of objective data to regionalise the country into various orders and divisions. He also followed the tripartite division of India as like Spate and Learmonth and other scholars. However, it seems that physical features were not given due importance in his scheme of regionalisation of India. His scheme needs a revision as data on various parameters of social-cultural attributes keeps on changing after every decade in substantial way. However, Deshpande's scheme provides a good framework and holds good value as far as the entire gamut of developmental concepts, and paradigm transitions and related processes and activities are concerned. But his scheme has often been labelled to be devoid of the academic rigour, which other scholars have displayed more prominently as per the standards of academic requirement.

7.6 SUMMARY

In this Unit, you have learnt the following:

- In nutshell, you have studied and learnt about the review and major highlights of the regionalisation scheme of India presented by Spate and Learmonth, S.P. Chatterjee, R.L. Singh and C.D. Deshpande.
- The first scheme critically reviewed is given by Spate and Learmonth. Though, their scheme is known as simple, but suffers from comprehensiveness in its approach and methodology. However, Spate and Learmonth made significant contribution in their attempt of regionalisation scheme.
- This scheme laid an overemphasis on the physical characteristics while carrying out regional division of the country. Thus, it overlooked some of the important filaments of human characteristics, particularly socio-cultural traits.
- The scheme presented by S.P. Chatterjee tried to bridge the gap to regionalise India after careful evaluation of Spate and Learmonth's scheme. In this endeavour, S.P. Chatterjee assigned equal weightage and tried to amalgamate both physical and human factors.

- R.L. Singh made an attempt to regionalise India on the basis of strengths of his predecessor's schemes.
- C.D. Deshpande made an effort to regionalise India on the basis of data made available by the government agencies.
- One of the chief qualities of scheme of regionalisation by Deshpande was the use of objective data as a basic input for attempting the regionalisation of India.
- In nutshell, various scholars tried to emphasise and highlight the specific features of geography of India while attempting the schemes of regionalisation. Nonetheless, all of them had arrived at a consensus that physiography of India plays an important role.

7.7 TERMINAL QUESTIONS

1. Highlight the main points of criticism common to all four schemes of Regionalisation reviewed in this unit.
2. What was the main ground of Criticism for the Scheme presented by Spate and Learmonth?
3. 'The Scheme Presented by S.P. Chatterjee failed to make any impact'. Elaborate on this Statement.

7.8 ANSWERS

Self-Assessment Questions (SAQ)

1. a) The Scheme of Spate and Learmonth have the following major highlights:
 - It accords a prime importance to the physical characteristics while devising and delineating the regionalisation scheme of India.
 - It also mention about the key importance of climatic parameters along with geographical position of a concerned region being investigated.b) Their scheme of regionalisation was based on triple tectonic division of India in terms of three tectonic units. They considered structure as the main factor.
2. The basic difference between the two schemes lies in the approach and phenomena adopted to devise the regionalisation scheme. In the former scheme, the scholars gave greater importance to the physical attributes and tend to ignore the other extreme i.e., cultural attributes.
3. According to R.L. Singh, it is Geology, Structure, Relief and Physiography along with the positional factor which provides a fairly clear-cut division of India into four Units.

Terminal Questions

1. Refer to Sections 7.2 to 7.5.
2. Refer to Section 7.4.
3. Refer to Section 7.5.

7.9 REFERENCES AND SUGGESTED FURTHER READING

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GLOSSARY

- Delineation** : Delineation refers to the act or process of describing, defining, or outlining the boundaries or characteristics of something often to create a clear and precise understanding of it. It can be used for regionalisation purposes as well as for surveying and urban boundary demarcation, etc.
- Formal Regions** : India as a physiognomic (formal) region is distinctly demarcated by nature.
- Functional Regions** : The physiological (functional) regions have been shaped by various administrative, political, economic, demographic and biological processes. It is characterised by its functions such as drainage basin, city region, or metropolitan region etc.
- Heterogeneity** : It means just the opposite of homogeneity. Heterogeneity refers to the state of dissimilarity seen in terms of the characteristics that includes quality and quantity of the concerned attributes of any geographical phenomena over the Earth's surface. It could be both physical as well as cultural characteristics.
- Homogeneity** : It refers to the uniformity or in other words similarity particularly seen in terms of quality and quantity of the concerned attributes of any geographical phenomena. It could be both physical as well as cultural characteristics.
- Janapadas** : The janapadas were now emerging as mahajanapadas. Sixteen janapadas are listed in the Buddhist texts.
- Landscape** : All the individual landforms of a geographical region represent the landscape of that region. A landscape refers to the visible features of an area of land; it may include physical features, such as Mountains, Hills, Lakes, and Rivers etc.
- Macro Region** : It signifies the opposite of micro region. It refers to a large geographic area. Macro region could be delineated on the basis of homogenous characteristics, like uniformity in physical landscape (terrain characteristics).
- Macro-Region** : A large geographic area that is recognised/defined by a combination of Physical, Cultural, Economic or Political characteristics. Macro-regions' boundaries are flexible as it changes as per the changes in the characteristics of its defining attributes and the factors.

Meso Region	: It signifies the geographical regions lying between the micro and macro regions.
Micro Region	: It simply means the opposite of macro region. It refers to a small geographic area that is recognised/defined either by a single characteristics or a combination of Physical, Cultural, Economic or Political characteristics.
Natural Regions	: It is a geographical area that is characterised by a distinct set of natural features, such as climate, vegetation, physiography and relief. These features are generally uniform and cohesive which distinguishes one natural region from another natural region.
Pan India Regions	: The Pan India powers can be broadly six which controlled, if not full, at least a major part of the territory of the present day India. These were Maurya's, Gupta's, Tughlaq's, Mughal's, Maratha's and the Britisher's in chronological order.
Physiographic Uniformity	: The term got prominence in the regionalisation scheme of India, presented by Pithawala. This term emphasises the uniformity and similarity of a region in terms of physical attributes. Physical sameness and evenness became a pre-requisite criterion for Pithawala in his scheme of regionalisation.
Regionalisation	: Regionalisation is the process of dividing large geographical areas into smaller and more defined regions based on specific criteria. This is done for the convenience of the study and the chosen criteria may be single (in case of soil regionalisation of the world) or a bunch of attributes (natural regions of the world).
Spatial	: It signifies a multi-purpose concept along with technique in order to understand the diverse dimensions of a geographical region. It may include regions of varied sizes from a small hamlet to that of a metropolitan city.
State Reorganisation	: It refers to the reorganisation of boundaries of Indian states on the basis of definite criteria like language, since 1953 through the enactment of State Reorganisation Act.
Supra Regions	: The supra regional power distinctly identified are four. These are the Magadh, Sakas, Satavahanas, and Vakatakas.