Latitude, longitude, and scale

The Earth is a small, blue planet. Seen from space it has no right way up.



Latitude

Parallels of latitude are concentric circles that diminish in diameter from the Equator to the Poles. They are used to determine locations either north or south in relation to the Equator. North of the Equator parallels are designated north (N), while those south of the Equator are labelled south (S). The Equator is at latitude 0°. The Poles are at latitudes 90°N and 90°S.

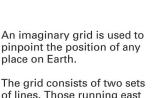
Longitude

Meridians of longitude pass through both Poles intersecting all parallels of latitude at right angles. The meridian through Greenwich, England was chosen in 1884 as the Prime Meridian and given the value 0°.

Meridians determine locations east (E) or west (W) of the Prime Meridian. The 180° meridian of longitude was designated the International Date Line and has a special role in the operation of Standard Time.

The Equator divides the Earth into halves: the Northern Hemisphere and the Southern Hemisphere. The Prime Meridian and the 180° meridian together also divide the Earth into halves: the Western Hemisphere and the Eastern Hemisphere.

The Tropics of Cancer (23°26'N) and Capricorn (23°26'S) are parallels of latitude that represent the northern and southern limits of the overhead sun. The Arctic (66°33'N) and Antarctic Circles (66°33'S) are also parallels of latitude. The sun is not visible poleward of these parallels during their respective winter solstices.



The grid consists of two sets of lines. Those running east and west are called parallels of latitude and those extending north and south are called meridians of longitude. Both are measured in degrees.

80°Nrctic Circle 40°N Tropic of Cancer ow 20°W 20°N Equator Tropic of Capricorn

place on Earth.

Maps or globes are devices used to represent all or part of the surface of the Earth. Every map has a scale to indicate how much the area on the map has been reduced from its actual size on the Earth's surface. Thus the map scale indicates the proportion (or ratio) between a distance on a map and the corresponding distance on the Earth's surface.

Scale can be shown in three ways:

The scale statement

1 cm to 5 km

which means 1 centimetre on the map represents five kilometres on the Earth's surface.

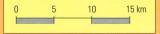
The representative fraction (RF)

1: 500 000

which means 1 centimetre on the map represents 500 000 centimetres on the Earth's surface, one of any unit of measurement

represents 500 000 of the same units.

The linear scale



which is a measured line divided into units representing distances on the earth. each degree of latitude and longitude can be divided into 60 minutes and each minute into 60 seconds. A location specified in degrees, minutes, and seconds (for example, 44° 25' 14" N. 80° 45' 36" W)

When used together, lines of latitude and longitude form a grid.

The position of places on the

located accurately using this grid. To locate places really accurately,

surface of the Earth can be

will describe a location accurately to within a few metres.

It is important to understand the relationship between scale and area. In this atlas Canada is shown mainly on maps that have a larger scale than the rest of the World.

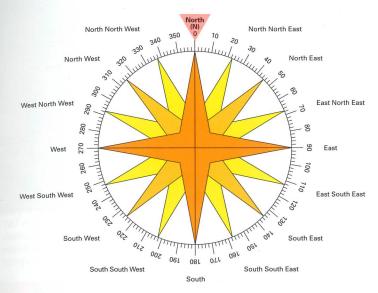
For example:

All of northern Africa appears on page 100 at a scale of 1: 26 000 000, while British Columbia, on pages 38–39, has a scale of 1: 5 000 000. We know from the scale that the African map shows a greater area, but how much greater?

> The table shows that as the scale doubles, the area it represents increases four times. Thus a square centimetre on the Africa map represents an area more than twenty-seven times larger than a square centimetre on the British Columbia map.

Scale statement	Area of 1 cm ²
1 cm to 0.1 km	0.01 km ²
1 cm to 0.2 km	0.04 km ²
1 cm to 1 km	1 km²
1 cm to 2 km	4 km²
1 cm to 50 km 1 cm to 100 km 1 cm to 200 km	2500 km ² 10 000 km ² 40 000 km ²
	1 cm to 0.1 km 1 cm to 0.2 km 1 cm to 1 km 1 cm to 2 km 1 cm to 50 km 1 cm to 100 km

Direction and satellite imagery 7



Direction

A direction can be expressed either in terms of north, east, south, and west and various intermediate positions as shown on the diagram of the compass rose, or in degrees as a bearing. Direction by bearing ranges from 0° (north) to 359° (one degree west of north).

The North Pole, where all meridians of longitude converge, is referred to as true or geographic north. Conversely, the South Pole is known as the true or geographic south. By convention, most maps are oriented so that true (geographic) north occurs toward the top of the map. Thus, when we refer to north and south on most maps, we are speaking of these poles.

There is also a magnetic North and South Pole. The north magnetic pole is presently located to the north of Ellef Ringnes Island in the Canadian Arctic (see pages 10-11) and is moving about 24 km a year in a north-easterly direction. When using a magnetic compass, the north arrow points to this pole.

In the atlas, the cardinal points (north, east, south, and west) can be determined from the parallels and meridians. Thus all parallels run north and south, and meridians east and west. Intermediate directions require the application of the compass rose or the use of bearings. Direction using bearings can be accomplished using a protractor.

Satellite imagery

Satellite images are found on a number of pages throughout this atlas. These images are taken by satellites orbiting the Earth at high altitudes. For example, most of the images in this atlas were produced by Landsat satellites which orbit the Earth 14.5 times each day at an altitude of approximately 900 km. As a satellite travels, it is continuously scanning an area 185 km wide. In order to be visible, objects on the Earth must be at least 30 m² in size.

> Satellite image of the area around Winnipeg, Manitoba.

15 30 km Most cameras are sensors that operate only in the "visible" part of the electromagnetic spectrum and thus produce a record of what the eye can see. The images that are normally described as satellite images are produced by instruments that use a multi spectral scanning system to record reflected energy from different parts of the electromagnetic spectrum from microwaves, through infrared, and visible light to the near ultraviolet sections. The scanner sends the radiation received in specifically designated bands to a set of detectors on the satellite. The signal is digitized and then transmitted back to Earth. It is then transformed into images such as the ones shown in this atlas.

The various objects that make up the Earth's surface such as rocks, soil, vegetation, crops, and building materials such as concrete or asphalt absorb and reflect radiation differently (each has its own spectral signature) and so can be easily recognized on satellite images. Even within any surface category there are different spectral signatures; thus, one crop can be distinguished from another and different types of wetland can be recognized. Because these surfaces reflect one part of the electromagnetic spectrum better than others, the colours we see on the images are false colours. For example, green vegetation reflects better in the red than the blue-green, urban areas are blue-grey, and bare soil will show as black to green to white depending on its moisture, and organic content.

Satellite images can also be shown in true colour when false colour images are converted to produce realistic land surface colours. Most of the Canadian satellite images in this atlas are examples.

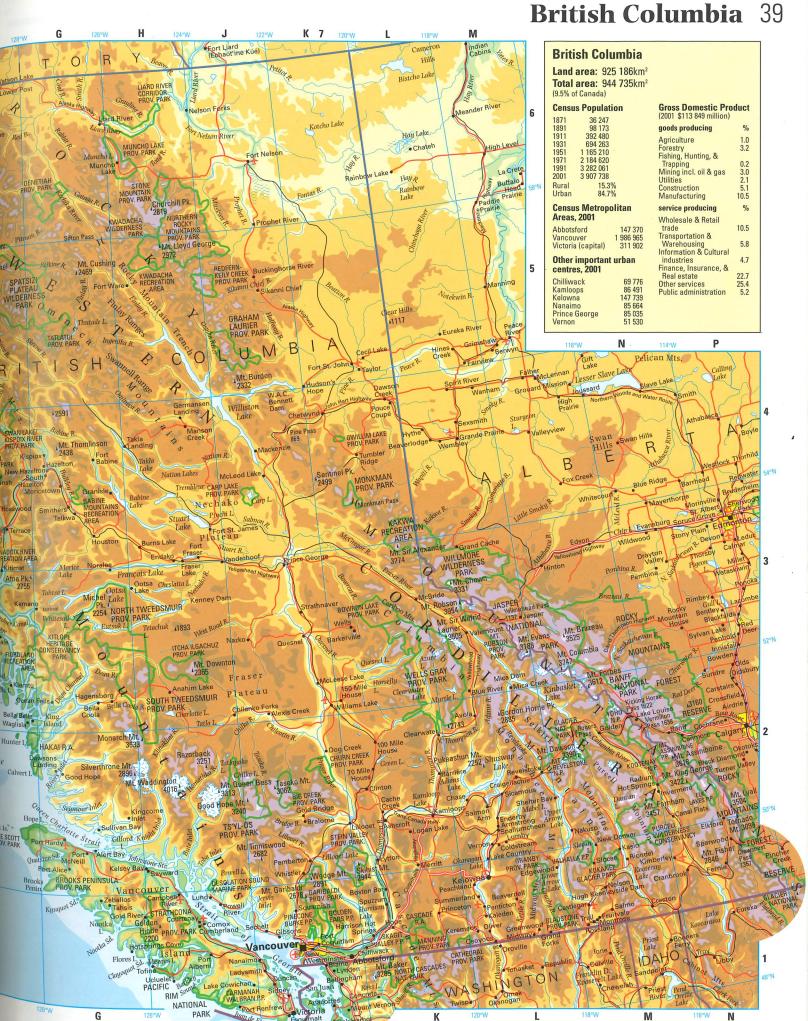
Winnipeg

area of satellite image Lake Manitoba Winnipeg

The number of uses that have been developed for satellite imagery is very great and beyond the scope of this brief description. Some of the non-military applications include: weather prediction, land-use planning, crop and forest inventories, changes in sea ice, surveillance of fishing fleets, and monitoring air pollution.

New uses are continually being found.



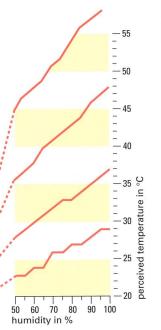


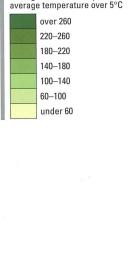
Canada

Climate

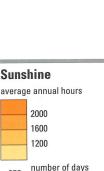
idex

midex was developed in a in 1965. Its purpose is to ne temperature and humidity e number to reflect how mid weather is perceived by erage person.





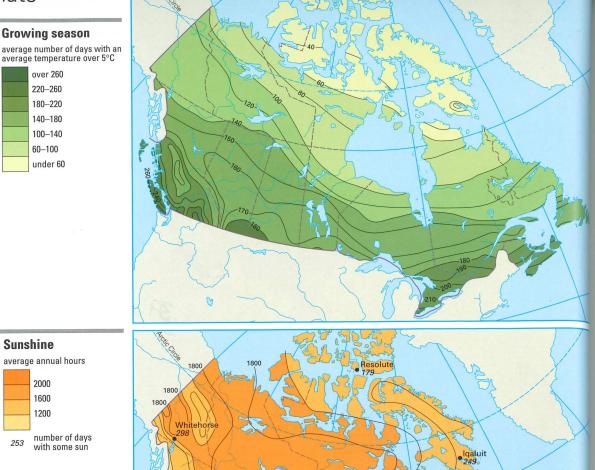
Growing season



with some sun









adian weather records

highest air 45°C Midale and Yellow Grass, Sask. *July 5, 1937* temperature -63°C Snag, Y.T. February 3, 1947 lowest air temperature

-47.9°C Eureka, N.W.T. coldest month February, 1979

highest sea-level 107.96 kPa Dawson Y.T. February 2, 1989 pressure

94.02 kPa St. Anthony, New-foundland *January 20, 1977* lowest sea-level pressure

489.2 mm Ucluelet Brynnor Mines, B.C. *October 6, 1967* atest precipitation in 24 hours

2235.5 mm Swanson Bay, B.C. *November 1917* atest precipitation in one month

8122.6 mm Henderson Lake, atest precipitation B.C. 1931 in one year

greatest average 6655 mm Henderson Lake, nual precipitation

> 12.7 mm Arctic Bay, N.W.T. least annual precipitation

greatest snowfall 2446.5 cm Revelstoke, B.C. in one season

highest average annual number of 34 days London, Ontario hunderstorm days

UV Index

The UV Index (ranges from 0 to 10) is a measure of the intensity of the sun's ultraviolet radiation in the sunburning spectrum. As the index increases, the sun's rays do more harm to skin, eyes, and the immune system, and it becomes necessary to take more precautions to protect exposed skin. In Canada, the UV forecast is issued daily for 48 locations.

The risks from exposure to ultraviolet radiation have increased in recent years due to the thinning of the ozone layer. This thinning has meant that, on average, ultraviolet radiation has increased by about 7 per cent since 1982. (Environment Canada)

		11	
	UV Index	Category	Sunburn time
	over 9	Extreme	less then 15 minutes
	7–9	High	about 20 minutes
	4–7	Moderate	about 30 minutes
	0–4	Low	more than one hour

Wind chill equivalent temperature

Wind chill is a measure of the wind's cooling effect, as felt on expos flesh. So as not to confuse it with actual temperature, wind chill is expressed as a temperature-like index, without the degree symbol.

Scale

for se

Annual p

Annual pr

actual air temperature in °C -5 -10 -15 -20 -25 -30 -35 -13 -19 -24 -30 -36 -41 -47 10 -3 -9 -15 -21 -27 -33 speed at 10 metres in km/h -41 -48 -4 -11 -17 -23 -29 -35 20 -18 -24 -31 -37 -43 -49 -25 -32 -38 -45 -51 25 -6 -12 -19 -46 -52 30 -7 -13 -20 -26 -33 -39 -33 -40 -47 -53 35 -20 -27 -41 -48 -54 40 -7 -14 -21 -27 -34 -8 -15 -21 -28 -35 -42 -48 -55 wind -49 -15 -22 -29

-29 -36

-30 -37 -43 -50 -57

-50 -57

-9 -15 -22

-16 -23

G

E