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# Approved For Release 2009/09/01: CIA-RDP90T01298R000200310001-8 CIAG'S SCHOOL USS SR Energy Atlas

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# USSR Energy Atlas

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Central Intelligence Agency January 1985



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# Preface

The USSR is the largest country in the world and the second-largest producer and consumer of energy. Its vast landmass and adjacent continental shelves contain enormous energy resources. Only in recent years, however, has the extent of the exploration and development of its fuel resources spanned the entire country.

A nationwide quest for new energy sources has rapidly outdated Soviet energy maps. Names like Samotlor, Fedorovo, Urengoy, Kansk-Achinsk, and Ekibastuz have become as well known to Soviet energy planners as Baku, Romashkino, Orenburg, and Donets were a decade or two ago. Likewise, the construction of oil and gas pipelines, electric transmission lines, roads, railroads, and towns has required extensive development of remote areas of Central Asia, Kazakhstan, Siberia, and the Far East.

Soviet energy is a strategic issue that transcends international boundaries. Soviet oil and gas exports have increasingly become available to Western buyers since the 1970s, and the Soviets also import large amounts of Western equipment and technology to upgrade the capabilities of the domestic energy industry.

This atlas uses a wide variety of information to portray many aspects of Soviet energy. Maps, graphics, photographs, and text provide a general understanding and appreciation of the major Soviet energy resources—oil, gas, coal, and primary electricity—as well as minor fuels and alternative energy sources.

Landsat photo on page 19. All others: TASS from SOVFOTO, further reproduction must be approved by SOVFOTO.

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# **USSR: Energy Overview**

The USSR is better endowed with energy resources than any other country in the world. It is the world's largest oil producer and has the largest oil reserves outside the Persian Gulf region. Soviet gas reserves are the largest in the world, and the USSR is also the world's leading gas producer. Coal resources are enormous, although most are unfavorably located at great distances from consuming centers. Electric power output, generated largely from thermal sources, ranks second to the United States.

Moscow's desire to maintain steady economic growth requires an expanding energy resource development program as reflected in the 11th Five-Year Plan (1981-85). The focus of the current effort is to continue the expansion of West Siberian oil and gas development, accelerate nuclear power plant construction in the European USSR, and further exploit vast Central Siberian coal resources. In addition, the Soviets hope to increase the efficient use of these primary fuels through new programs for energy conservation and fuel substitution.

Energy exports are the principal source of Soviet hard currency earnings. Revenues from exports to Western countries permit the acquisition of equipment and technology for a variety of Soviet activities; particularly important are energy efforts to increase oil recovery, transport natural gas, and exploit offshore energy resources.

Energy investment is surging as the Soviets attempt to meet growing energy demand through investments in new production areas and maintenance and enhancement of production from established regions. Costs are rising as exploration and production move into the more remote eastern regions of the USSR and operating conditions become more difficult.



*Oil and gas exploration in Tyumen' Oblast, West Siberia.* 



Foreign equipment being used to mine Central Siberian brown coal.



Construction of nuclear power reactor in the Ukrainian SSR.



Offshore drilling technology is acquired from energy export revenues.

# **Domestic and International Issues**

# **Energy Decisionmaking**

The driving force behind Soviet energy policy is Moscow's desire to remain self-sufficient in energy while increasing hard currency earnings from energy exports. As the Soviets themselves have often noted, "The Soviet Union is currently the only highly developed country in the world meeting all of its own fuel and energy needs from its own resources." In 1983 the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (CPSU) adopted a long-range energy program that provides guidelines for energy resource development and exploitation until the year 2000. Its emphasis is on: attaining an optimal energy mix through substitution of natural gas, nuclear power, and coal for oil; developing new sources of energy, such as geothermal, solar, wind, and tidal; improving and expanding the energy infrastructure; continuing

the development of oil and gas in West Siberia and their transport to the European part of the country; and increasing fuel and energy conservation by means of technological improvements and improved utilization of existing resources.



Kremlin Palace of Congresses, Moscow.

Responsibility for energy matters in the USSR is shared among a number of key party and government organizations. The Politburo of the CPSU, the highest decisionmaking body in the USSR, determines the country's basic energy

research, development, and production policies. In the face of severe problems, the Politburo can act unilaterally to redirect energy policy or shift the allocation of resources necessary for its implementation. Much of the formulation of these energy policies actually occurs in the Presidium of the Council of Ministers, the Secretariat of the Central Committee of the CPSU, and the USSR State Planning Committee (Gosplan). These three groups advise the Politburo, provide guidance on energy policy and management to lower levels, and collectively serve as a high-level forum for discussions of alternative strategies. Like the Politburo, they are concerned with integrating energy policy into a broader economic and political framework.

A significant contribution to the decisionmaking process is made by the state committees and ministries directly involved in implementing energy policies. These organizations possess a level of technical expertise that is largely missing at higher levels. They provide assessments of resource issues and production capabilities and give continuity to energy policies.

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#### Organizations With Primary Responsibility for Energy Production and Management

USSR Academy of Sciences. Oversees research on new energy sources and development of new methods of energy resource production.

#### Energy-Rela ed Committees

State Committee for Science and Technology (GKNT) (A-U)a Sets anergy research and development priorities;

evaluates research and development promose evaluates research and development proposals from the Academy of Sciences and the production ministries; assists in acquisition of foreign technology; administers scientific and technical exchanges with foreign countries.

State Planning Committee (Gosplan) (U-R). Coordinates fiveyear plans in all fields, including energy; makes and oversees plans for energy-related departments, including geology and mineral resources, coal, petroleum and gas industries, power and electrification, and transport; serves as a consultant on energy policy.

State Committee for Useful Mineral Reserves (GKZ) (A-U). Reviews geologic data from exploratory wells to certify reserves and reservoir properties; establishes coefficients of extraction (r) tes of recovery) for petroleum and condensate; classifies petroleum and gas reserves; has final approval for field drilling plans submitted by Ministry of the Petroleum Industry, maintains reserve stocks of petroleum Products State Committee for the Supply of Petroleum Products

(I -R). Oversees the procurement, storage, and distribution of petroleum products including those destined for export; administers retroleum pipelines and storage bases; monitors industrial use of petroleum products.

# State Committee for the Utilization of Atomic Power

(GKAF) (A-U). Administers eivilian atomic energy programs, conducts joint research projects with foreign countries.

State Committee To Supervise Work Safety in the Atomic Power Industry (A-U). Establishes and enforces standards for nuclear power plant safety and radioactive waste disposit.

#### **Energy-Related Ministries**

Ministry of Geology (U-R). Conducts exploration for new oil, gas, and coal deposits; monitors contracts with foreign firms for energy resource exploration in USSR; directs development of new prospecting techniques, equipment, and methods of mineral analysis.

Ministry of the Petroleum Industry (A-U). Manages production drilling, extraction, transportation, and sales of petroleum; shares responsibility with Ministry of Geology for exploratory petroleum drilling and extraction and processing of gas condensate.

Ministry of the Gas Industry (A-U). Oversees the extraction, processing, underground storage, and transportation of natural gas from established fields; directs offshore oil and gas exploratory drilling and production; participates in onshore gas exploration, gas condensate processing, and geothermal energy production.

#### Ministry of Chemical and Petroleum Machine Building

(A-U). Oversees the manufacture and supply of extraction and production equipment to the petroleum, gas, and petrochemical industries.

### Ministry of Construction of Petroleum and Gas Industry

**Enterprises** (A-U). Constructs petroleum and gas pipelines and field processing plants; has primary responsibility for compressor station construction.

Ministry of the Petroleum Refining and Petrochemical Industry (U-R). Oversees all aspects of petroleum refining and petrochemical processing, as well as the production of synthetic rubber, aromatic hydrocarbons, lubricants, fuels,

liquid paraffins, chemical feed additives, and chemical reagents for enhanced oil recovery. Ministry of the Coal Industry (U-R). Manages coal and oil

shale extraction and equipment production; participates in the development of technologies for solid fuel liquefaction and gasification. Ministry of Power and Electrification (U-R). Directs the design, construction, operation, and maintenance of hydroelectric, thermal, and atomic power plants; participates in tidal, solar, geothermal, and wind energy production as well as research and development of techniques for solid fuel liquefaction and gasification.

Ministry of Power Machine Building (A-U). Provides heavy equipment for thermal, nuclear, and hydroelectric power stations; manufactures gas turbines, pumps, and supercharg-

ers for pipeline compressor stations and heat recovery equipment for the petroleum refining industry; operates the nuclear reactor manufacturing plants located in Volgodonsk and Kolpino.

**Ministry of the Electrical Equipment Industry (A-U)**, Directs research, development, and manufacture of electrical generation and distribution equipment.

#### Ministries Involved in Support for Energy

**Ministry of Construction** (U-R). Performs basic construction for energy production industries.

Ministry of Finance (U-R). Allocates financial resources for energy production, research, and development.

**Ministry of Foreign Trade (A-U).** Oversees trade in petroleum, gas, and coal products, as well as energy resource extraction, processing, and transportation equipment.

#### Ministry of Installation and Special Construction Work

(U-R). Constructs installations and buildings for the coal, petroleum, and nuclear power industries; assists in construction of refineries, pipelines, and drilling rigs; conducts some drilling and blasting work.

Ministry of Land Reclamation and Water Resources

(U-R). Participates in construction of hydroelectric plants, in the control of pollution from thermal power plants, and in the management of windpower facilities; also involved in construction of petroleum and gas pipelines. Ministry of Railways (A-U). Transports coal, petroleum products, and other fuels.

MUL mon CVL -organizations have no regional counterparts, union republic (I=R1) organizations operate locally through corresponding organizations on the republic level

# **Energy Balances**

The Soviet Union produces nearly one-fifth of the world's primary energy and is currently the leading energy exporter and the largest producer of oil and natural gas. The USSR is third after the United States and China in coal production.

Domestic production accounts for 99 percent of total Soviet energy use; imports are more a matter of geographic convenience than necessity. The USSR consumes approximately 85 percent of the primary energy it produces and relies on oil, gas, and coal for the bulk of its energy needs.

The overall production rate of primary energy, after expanding rapidly for two decades, has slowed considerably during the early 1980s. The 4.5-percent annual growth rate of the 1970s dropped to about 2.5 percent a year during 1981-82. Soviet plan goals suggest that this slower rate may continue during the remainder of the 11th Five-Year Plan. In addition to the depletion of the most easily exploitable reserves, the slower rate of production is because of inadequate technology and equipment, insufficient capital investment in some sectors of the energy industry, and poor logistic coordination of materials and supplies.

# The Energy Mix

Production of major fuels (oil, natural gas, and coal) accounts for more than 90 percent of the Soviet energy mix. Oil production has begun to level off after three decades of steady growth. Output in 1983 was 12.33 million barrels per day (b/d), just 300,000 b/d more than in 1980. The production of natural gas, important both as a substitute for oil domestically and as a source of hard currency export revenues, has experienced impressive growth since 1970. Gas output rose from 3.3 million b/d oil equivalent in 1970 to 8.9 million b/d oil equivalent in 1983. Coal output, although increasing 28 percent since 1960 in terms of energy content, continues to comprise a decreasing share of primary energy production.

The shares of different fuels in total Soviet energy consumption have also shifted significantly over the past two decades. Whereas natural gas provided only 8 percent of Soviet energy requirements in 1960, it accounted for 29 percent in 1982. During the same period, oil's share rose from 24 to 37 percent. This growth in oil and gas occurred at the expense of coal. In 1960 the Soviets relied on coal for more than one-half of their total energy needs; in 1982 it provided only 26 percent.

# World: Oil, Gas, and Coal Production









\* Excludes natural gas liquids.

<sup>b</sup> Includes Algeria, Ecuador, Gabon, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Kuwait, Libya, Nigeria, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Venezuela, and United Arab Emirates. Source: Energy Information Administration, USDepartment of Energy.

100.0

79.42

# **USSR: Primary Energy**

Million barrels per day oil equivalent

Total



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# **USSR: Energy Balances**

Mill on ball	els per d	ay oil equ	iivalent							
	Product	ion						Imports	Exports	Consumption
l otal	1970 1980				i			1		
$O_1$								Negl.		
Natural gas								Negl.		I
Coal								Negl.	*	· · · · · ·
Hydroelect 6									Negl."	1
Nuclear	Negl								Ì	Negl.
Other"										
	0		10	15	20	25	30	0 5	0 5	$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$
		e electricity e peat oil sl outres		od and other	renewable					

# **Conservation and Substitution**

Rising costs of energy production have led, as in the West, to a growing interest in curbing demand through conservation. But by most standards, the Soviet economy remains energy inefficient. Many of the barriers to improving energy efficiency are endemic to the Soviet system. Centralized planning and resource allocation, ar ificially low energy prices, and incentives geared toward meeting quantitative output goals do not reward innovation or efficient use of resources. Moreover, despite official goals and pronouncements about saving energy, the requisite capital and other resources have been allocated to energy production rather than conservation.

One of the best opportunities the Soviets have for reducing the growth of oil demand is by substituting natural gas for oil in electric power plants and large boilers. Such a program requires the construction of long-distance natural gas transmission pipelines, conversion of older plants to burn gas, completion of new gas-fired power plants, and expansion of lateral gas distribution lines and storage facilities. Aside from reduced use of oil in power plants and industrial boilers, the prospects for substitution are limited. Oil use for transportation and agriculture is not readily amenable to gas substitution, so that efforts to hold down oil use in these sectors of the economy must depend largely on conservation.

### **USSR: Electricity Balances**



# **Foreign Markets**

For most of the past decade, Soviet earnings from energy exports have been increasing, partly as a result of rising prices for oil and gas. The recent expansion of Soviet exports to the West has been responsible for important increases in hard currency earnings necessary for the development of new energy resources. The Soviets have used much of the new revenue to purchase Western equipment and technology for oil and gas exploration and production.

Although Soviet increases in oil exports to Council for Mutual Economic Assistance (CEMA) partners have slowed in recent years, the continuation of a steady flow of energy resources to Eastern Europe and Cuba remains a high priority for Moscow. Except for Romania and Poland, CEMA countries are dependent on the USSR for large shares of their energy supplies.

# Hard Currency

Before the 1973 Arab oil embargo, Soviet hard eurrency earnings from energy exports comprised only 20 percent of the USSR's total yearly commodity export earnings. Some 85 to 90 percent of these energy-derived earnings came from oil. By 1977 the share of hard currency earned from oil and gas sales to the West had grown to more than 50 percent. In 1981 a soft world oil market forced the Soviets to reduce exports and temporarily settle for diminished earnings. Nevertheless, in 1982 Moscow achieved a record 28-percent increase in oil exports to non-Communist customers, largely through restrictions on deliveries to soft currency customers.

Oil continues to be the most important source of hard currency earnings for Moscow, but natural gas trade with the West is growing. In 1975 gas provided only 3 percent of hard currency earnings, but by 1982 natural gas earnings had risen to almost 14 percent of the total. The Soviets anticipate even greater increases in revenues from natural gas exports with the large-scale gas deliveries through the new Siberia-to- Western Europe pipeline.

# Trading Partners CEMA

For nearly two decades, the USSR has been the principal supplier of energy for its East European CEMA allies, Cuba, and Vietnam. During the 1970s the Soviets provided as much as threefourths of the oil consumed by the East Europeans and almost all of the crude oil used by the Cubans. Most---though not all--of these sales were soft currency or barter deals. To help ease the economic burden of oil price increases, Moscow delayed raising the price of oil to its CEMA partners. Thus, for a number of years after OPEC's sharp price increases in the 1970s, the economies of the Soviet allies benefited from below-world-market prices. During this time, however, the Soviet Union kept encouraging its CEMA partners to reduce their dependence on oil and increase consumption of substitutes such as gas, coal, and nuclear energy. Moscow also took steps, including a five-year-moving-average pricing formula, to discourage future increases in East European imports of Soviet oil unless the extra oil was purchased with hard currency. Finally, in 1982 the Soviets began an actual cutback in oil deliveries to some CEMA members.

Historically, the Soviet Union and the East European CEMA members have worked closely to develop Soviet energy resources. Thus far, the gas pipeline from the Orenburg field, also known as the Soyuz (Union or Alliance) pipeline and completed in 1978, has been their largest joint project. The East Europeans provided labor, equipment, and hard currency support in exchange for future supplies of natural gas.



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The production of Soviet nuclear reactors has also involved substantial East European cooperation. A recent agreement between these countries and the USSR calls for the other CEMA countries to specialize in the production of Soviet-designed reactor components to be used in an integrated electrical power system. The increased nuclear power capacity of the Soviet Union and the joint USSR-CEMA projects now under way to improve and enlarge the power transmiss on system should significantly increase Soviet capability to export electricity in the future.

Cuba, with limited domestic oil resources, has been heavily dependent on the Soviets for virtually all of its petroleum needs. The construction of a Soviet-designed nuclear power station in Cuba will improve Cuban energy self-sufficieney and decrease reliance on Moscow for oil.

### Western Europe

Soviet energy trade with Western Europe was limited until the mid-1970s. Since then, the share of siles from the principal exported com-

**USSR: Hard Currency Exports** 



modities, oil and gas, has become increasingly important. Currently, the Soviet Union's largest West European energy customers are West Germany, France, Italy, Austria, Belgium, the Netherlands, United Kingdom, Sweden, and Finland.

Between 1978 and 1981, the rapid growth in oil sales to Western Europe came to an abrupt halt as conservation efforts—"aided" by an oil-fueled recession—by the West Europeans started to take hold. Beginning in 1982 the Soviets partially compensated for the reduced hard currency earnings from long-term contracts by increasing their spot market sales of oil at major West European oil terminals.

In the mid-1970s the West Europeans turned to the Soviet Union in an effort to diversify their energy sources. Existing gas contracts from the late 1960s were expanded. This also led to a number of new joint projects, of which the most notable is the Siberia to Western Europe natural gas pipeline. The terms of many of these contracts usually include compensation agreements, involving either a form of barter, counterpurchase, or product payback arrangements,

**USSR: Oil Exports** 

in which future sales or delivery of a Soviet product are linked to an advance sale or delivery of Western equipment or technology. In exchange for providing technological help in constructing the Soviet gas pipeline system, the Europeans receive guaranteed supplies of natural gas.

#### Japan

Energy trade with Japan will play an important role in the development of East Siberian resources. Joint Soviet-Japanese development of Sakhalin Island oil and gas and of East Siberian coal reserves is now under way. Progress has been slow, however, as a result of financial problems and harsh climatic conditions. Currently, Japan is the primary hard currency importer of Soviet coking coal.

In addition to the hard currency, technology has been a significant part of Soviet-Japanese energy trade negotiations. The Japanese are a major supplier of energy technology; Soviet purchases account for approximately 15 percent of Japanese energy equipment and technology exports.







#### **USSR:** Energy Production Exported



# International Energy Projects

During the 1970s the Soviet Union entered into several foreign contract negotiations associated with domestic energy development. The principal motivation for these cooperative international ventures was Soviet desire to increase hard currency earnings and to acquire essential Western technology and equipment necessary for resource development. Of the many cooperative ventures negotiated with Western countries, three projects the Siberia to Western Europe natural gas pipeline, the South Yakutia coal project, and Sakhalin oil and gas development

have recently received considerable worldwide publicity.

Two widely publicized liquefied natural gas (LNG) projects of the mid-1970s were the North Star project to ship Urengoy gas to the US east coast and the joint USSR-US-Japanese venture to develop Yakutia gas. Although both projects have lost US support, the Japanese still have some interest in Yakutia gas development.

# Siberia-to-Western Europe Natural Gas Pipeline

The Siberia to Western Europe natural gas pipeline is the largest international trade project the Soviets have undertaken to date. Negotiations for the pipeline began in 1979, and Moscow signed gas purchase agreements in late 1981 with West German and French utilities, in June 1982 with Austria's Ferngas, and in May 1984 with Italy. Included in the pipeline negotiations were contracts for Soviet purchases of large-diameter pipe, turbine compressors, and related equipment from the major West European countries and Japan. Installation of the pipeline in the Soviet section was completed in September 1983; all compressors were to be in place in 1984. Plans call for partial deliveries of gas to start in 1984 and full deliveries to begin in 1987.

The Soviet Union has been exporting gas to Western Europe since the early 1970s. Between 1968 and 1975 Moscow concluded several "gas for pipe" agreements with Austria, France, Italy, and West Germany. Under these agreements, the USSR purchased large quantities of large-diameter pipe and other gas-related equipment with long-term, government-backed credits. To repay the loans and earn foreign exchange, the USSR contracted for long-term deliveries of natural gas to Western Europe.

The USSR will be able to use a combination of the existing Soyuz (Orenburg) pipeline, domestic trunklines, and East European transit lines to supplement the initial throughput of the export pipeline which began in early 1984. With the completion of the new 32-billion-cubic-metercapacity export pipeline, total Soviet deliveries to Western Europe eventually could reach 60 billion cubic meters per year. They were almost 29 billion cubic meters in 1983. Siberia-to-Western Europe Natural Gas Pipeline





Imported large-diameter pipe sections at Leningrad port.



Pipe sections are transported by trucks from railyards to the construction site.



Soviet-made excavator being used to dig pipeline trench.



Pipe sections being welded by manual, arcwelding technique.



Welded pipe is coated, wrapped, and positioned within the prepared trench.



Concrete blocks are used in areas of swamp and permafrost to support the pipeline.

# The Pipeline Route

Geographically, the Soviet portion of the pipeline runs 4,451 kilometers from Urengoy in the northern portion of the West Siberian basin to Uzhgorod it the Czechoslovak border. The pipeline route traverses some 700 kilometers of swamp and marshland, 2,000 kilometers of forest, and 550 kilometers of rocky terrain including the Uril and Carpathian mountain ranges. The construction route also crosses nearly 600 rivers and streams including the Ob' in West Siberia and the Volga, Don, and Dnepr in European USSR. The 2.5-kilometer Volga River crossing is the widest waterway on the route.

In the European USSR, the pipeline route crosses several of the country's most heavily populated and industrialized regions. Interconnecting the region's existing gas pipeline network with the export pipeline enables the Soviets to better respond to changing demand for gas.

# Sakhalin Oil and Gas Project

The USSR reached a general agreement with Japan in 1975 for the joint development of

The Pipeline a	it a Glance	Sakhalin Oil and Gas Region	
Length	4,451 kilometers (Urengoy-Uzhgorod)	Moskal'vo •Okha	
Capacity	32 billion cubic meters per year	Sofiysk	
Pipe	2.7 million tons, 1,420-mm diameter	*Komsomol'sk	
Operating pressure	75 atmospheres	KUNISUNU SK	
Compressor stations	41 (40 with three 25-MW gas- turbine compressors each; one with five 10-MW gas-turbine compressors)	Sivelskaya Gavan	
Total cost	\$22 billion (\$7 billion in hard currency)	Area of principal outshore oithelds	
Completion	1983 (pipelaying) 1984 (compressor stations)		

# South Yakutia Coal Region



Sakhalin's offshore petroleum resources. The agreement calls for SODECO --a consortium of Japanese petroleum and trading companies and one US firm, Gulf Oil--to finance the exploration and development of the offshore reserves through credits extended by Japan's Export-Import Bank. In return, SODECO is to receive Soviet oil and gas at preferential prices.

The joint Soviet-Japanese venture to exploit Sakhalin offshore oil resources is similar in many respects to the Siberia to Western Europe natural gas pipeline project. It includes the purchase of Western petroleum equipment financed through credits guaranteed by Western governments in exchange for Soviet repayment through the transfer of energy resources. In addition, the project will boost Soviet hard currency earnings.

Moscow will also acquire offshore experience and technology that could be extremely useful should the Soviets begin intensive exploitation of the potentially rich hydrocarbon deposits of the Barents and Kara Seas. The Sakhalin project will give the Japanese an opportunity to further diversify their oil and gas sources.

Work on the Sakhalin project has not met the projected plans. Exploration, already hampered by the short, ice-free drilling season, has also been delayed by equipment shortages and decisions to drill convenient but unproductive structures. Thus far, two fields—Odoptu and Chayvo—have been discovered off the northeast coast of Sakhalin Island.

# South Yakutia Coal Project

A third major Soviet energy development facilitated by international investment and cooperation is the South Yakutia coal project. Terms of this cooperative venture with Japan, which began in 1975, call for the Japanese to receive specified percentages of the 9 million metric tons of annual coking coal production as repayment for their financial and technical investment.

The first stage of the South Yakutia coal project includes development of the Neryungri strip mine, installation and operation of imported mining equipment, a coal concentration facility to treat exported coal, and the first section of the Neryungri Thermal Power Station, where the first 210-MW generator started up in late 1983. The project, made possible by the construction of the Bamovskaya-Tynda-Berkakit (Little BAM) railroad, is scheduled for completion in 1985, nearly two years behind schedule. Limited coal production began in late 1978 when the Little BAM reached the mine. Production has grown from 400,000 tons in 1979 to more than 5 million tons in 1983.

The Soviets are hopeful the new Siberian town of Neryungri, in addition to being the major industrial city and energy hub of the South Yakutia region, will become one of the largest industrial complexes in Eastern Siberia. Because of the high quality of Yakutia's coking coal and the availability of nearby Aldan iron ore deposits, Neryungri is also being considered as a possible location for steel manufacture.

# **Fuel Resources**

Until recently, the Soviet Union has been able to find, extract, transport, and process its vast fuel resources at a rate sufficient to support rapid economic growth. But, beginning in the late 1970s, supplies of oil and coal, which together contribute nearly two-thirds of Soviet primary energy production, have suffered setbacks. Energy costs are rising because of the growing remoteness and lower quality of the newly discovered resources. Reports of fuel shortages and a growing energy conservation campaign attest to growing fuel supply problems. A current slowdown in the growth rate of oil production, uncertainty about the future world market for natural gas despite long-term contracts with the West Europeans, and stagnating coal output are major causes of concern for Soviet energy planners.

Historically, the large urban and industrial centers west of the Urals were almost totally dependent on plentiful nearby fuel resources. These western resources now provide only about 50 percent of the energy needs of the European USSR; the rest come from newly discovered reserves in Central Asia, Kazakhstan, the Urals, and Siberia. Although the Soviets have significant oil, gas, and coal resources in these southern and eastern regions, with the exception of natural gas they have been unable to develop them fast enough to keep pace with the expanding economy and replace the rapidly depleting and more accessible reserves near the consuming centers of the European USSR. Development of these new energy resources has been slow for a variety of reasons, ranging from the need for specialized equipment and technology to the requirement for enormous additional investment. Additionally, geographic constraints climate, terrain, and distance have compounded the problems associated with exploiting and transporting these resources.

The Soviet system of reserve classification for both major and minor fuel resources is very different from that used in the West. The Soviet reserve categories -A, B, C<sub>1</sub>, C<sub>2</sub>, D<sub>1</sub>, and D<sub>2</sub> are based primarily on the degree of exploration and delineation drilling that has been carried out and cannot be directly equated to the Western categories of proved, probable, and possible reserves, which are based on prevailing economic and technological factors.



Overhead view of mobile jack-up drilling platform, Okha, near Sakhalin Island.

USSR/US: Reserves of Major Fuels, Yearend 1983\*

rude		Natural Gas	Coal <sup>b</sup>
	barrels	Trillion cubic meters	Billion metric tons coal equivaler
00		50	200
0		45	180
0		40	160
0	Range of estimates	35	140
0		30	120
)		25	100
)		20	80
)		- 15	60
)		10	40
)		5	20
	USSR United S		0

<sup>a</sup> The portion of total resources assessed as exploitable, under local economic conditions and available, technology, <sup>b</sup> Yearend 1980.

# Approved For Release 2009/09/01 : CIA-RDP90T01298R000200310001-8

# Soviet Union: Reserve Classification System

#### Soviet Reserve Classification

**Explored** Commercial Reserves R 30 of 0

١  $\mathbf{R}$ 

130-0

Prospective Reserves The remaining [0] of C -plus  $C_2 + D \to D_3$ 

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r	 	 
þ.		

Western Reserve Classification

Proved

Probable



Possible



Oil and gas exploration on Mangyshlak Peninsula, North Caspian.



Extraction of lignite from a Kansk-Achinsk surface mine, Central Siberia.



Central control room of exploratory drill ship Viktor Muravleako.



Construction workers study blueprints for Urengoy gas turbines.

#### "A" Category

Ð

- · Geologically and geophysically examined in detail · Delineated by exploration and production over the
- whole deposit
- · Engineering data demonstrate recoverability · Represent reserves in current production
- "B" Category
- · Geologically and geophysically examined in detail · Evaluated by drilling to a degree adequate for
- development planning
- · Engineering data demonstrate recoverability
- · Represent on-hold reserves or unused producing capae ty
- "C," Category
- Represent reserves adjacent to "A" and "B"
- categories
- · Geologically and geophysically evaluated
- · Verified by minimal drilling
- · Engineering data demonstrate partial recoverability, and average 30 percent will shift to "B" and then "A" categories

"C." Category

- · Presumed to exist, based on favorable geologic and geophysical data analogous to that for areas containing verified reserves
- · Some will shift to higher categories

"D<sub>1</sub>" Category

- · Speculative reserves presumed to exist on the basis of geologic analogy to reference areas • Some will shift to "C," category
- "D." Category
- · Speculative reserves presumed to exist on the basis of geologic analogy to reference area
- Less geologically and geophysically evaluated than "D<sub>1</sub>" category
- · Some will shift to "D," category

#### Proved

- Reserves which geological and engineering or drilling data demonstrate to be recoverable under existing economic and operating conditions
- Probable
- Incompletely defined reserves estimated to occur:
- In known producing areas
- · As extensions of endowed areas
- · In undiscovered areas within known resource-bearing geologic trends
- · Recoverable under existing economic and operating conditions

Possible

- Inferred reserves estimated to occur: · In undiscovered areas analogous to other known resource-bearing areas
- · Recoverable under existing economic and operating conditions

# **Oil and Gas**

The Soviet Union, abundantly endowed with energy resources, is now the world's leading oil and natural gas producer and a substantial net exporter of both fuels. As Soviet planners have become aware of their abundant supplies of these resources over the past three decades, they have relied heavily on them to meet the growth in demand. Oil and gas have fueled national economic growth, and the expansion of key sectors of the economy is tied to their availability. The Soviets' rich resources of oil and gas have allowed Moscow to provide the CEMA countries and other client states with low-cost energy and to export crude oil, natural gas, and petroleum products to the West in exchange for hard currency. Oil and gas have also become essential elements in the USSR's strategic position and a symbol of national pride.

Oil and gas resources are widely scattered throughout the Soviet Union but, by and large, are poorly located with respect to areas of demand. With the exception of the Volga-Urals oil region and the Ukrainian SSR gas region, both now on the decline, the economic and population heartland in the west contains mostly minor oil- and gas-bearing basins. The large sedimentary basins containing the main reserves that will provide the USSR with most of its oil and gas for the rest of this century are in the once virtually unpopulated West Siberia region, where severe environmental conditions, inadequate economic infrastructure, and high development costs will hamper exploitation. The rapid increase in Soviet oil and gas production is a testament to the size of the reserve base, which by most estimates is among the largest in the world. The Soviets' strong position in oil and gas production should continue into the next century since a number of major potential hydrocarbon-bearing regions remain virtually unexplored and exploration of offshore areas other than the Caspian is just beginning.

# **Oil Reserves**

Since 1947 Moscow has treated the size and location of its oil reserves as a state secret, publishing only occasional, fragmentary, and inconsistent data. Most US and West European oil experts believe that Soviet proved reserves are in the range of 60-80 billion barrels, about 10 to 12 percent of the world's total. Reserves in geologically promising but unexplored areas such as the Barents and Kara Seas and East Siberia could significantly raise the overall amount of proved reserves, putting the USSR in an enviable position compared to other industrialized nations.

Potential oil reserves, however, hold little significance for the Soviet oil supply during the 1980s and into the 1990s. Current production will depend almost entirely on hydrocarbon-bearing structures already discovered whose reserves can be rapidly exploited. As the Soviets have been forced to move their search for new deposits into more remote parts of West Siberia, they have encountered smaller fields, lower production levels, and increased development costs. Baku, on the shores of the Caspian Sea, was the earliest center of extractive activity, but it declined rapidly after World War II. The Soviets then moved in the 1950s and 1960s to the north and east into their "second Baku," the Volga-Urals basin. The Volga-Urals was the focus of Soviet oil activity for two decades and is still the second-largest producing area. Production from this region is now declining as major fields and reserves are being depleted.

In the early 1960s large new reserves were discovered in the remote and environmentally hostile West Siberian basin, which contains the richest known nydrocarbon deposits in the country. This prolific basin provided most of the growth in oil output during the 1970s and early 1980s and, according to Soviet statements, will remain the leading producing region into the 1990s.

Although West Siberian oil production is expected to increase for several more years, the rate of growth has slowed. Some oil industry officials are now arguing openly that the Soviets must search more aggressively for new reserves in virgin regions of the country such as East Siberia and offshore basins in the Kara and Barents Seas. The Soviets acknowledge, however, that production from these areas will not begin during this decade.



# **Natural Gas Reserves**

Unlike the policy for oil reserves, the Soviets do publish information about the size and location of their enormous natural gas reserves. In January 1983 the Soviet Union had explored reserves of about 34 trillion cubic meters, 40 percent of the world's total and enough to sustain rapid growth in production for several decades. Although the rate of discovery of new reserves has slowed considerably since the mid-1970s, total reserves probably will continue to rise for the near term. The location of these reserves, however, has created serious production and transportation problems because most are concentrated in remote Arctic regions. The northern part of Tyumen' Oblast in West Siberia contains about 80 percent of the Soviet gas reserves.

Soviet na ural gas production, like that of oil, has increased through the successive development of newly discovered reserves. By the time the North Caucasus region, which was predominant in the early postwar years, reached its peak in the late 1960s, the Ukrainian gasfields had been developed and accounted for most of the growth in production until the early 1970s. Subsequently, gasfields in Central Asia, the Orenburg region of the Volga-Urals, and the Komi ASSR were developed and provided much of the growth during the mid-1970s. Growth in these regions has slowed, and West Siberia is now the primary Soviet gas-producing area. Six northern Tyumen' fields Urengoy, Yamburg, Zapolyarnoye, Medvezh'ye, Kharasavey, and Boyanenko together hold more than threefourths of West Siberia's reserves. Urengoy, with reserves of almost 8 trillion cubic meters, is the world's largest gasfield.

No new, large natural gas region is being developed as a successor to West Siberia, but its enormous reserves are believed to be large enough to support sustained growth into the next century. Long-term future expansion is likely to depend on finding new gas reserves in East Siberia, the Soviet Far East, and offshore areas such as the Barents and Kara Seas.

# **Gas Condensate**

In addition to crude oil and gas, the Soviet Union possesses large reserves of condensate the liquid hydrocarbons that condense from associated and nonassociated gas when it is extracted from the reservoir – which are included in oil production statistics. Out of a total oil output of 12.33 million barrels per day (b/d) in 1983, about 600,000 b/d are believed to be gas condensate. Although Moscow has never published official reserve totals for gas condensate, limited data from the gas ministry suggest that the condensate reserve base is more than large enough to support current and future output requirements well into the next century.

Reserves of gas condensate are widely distributed in many parts of the USSR, with numerous deposits in West Siberia, Komi ASSR, Central Asia, and the Ukraine. West Siberia may contain as much as two-thirds of all USSR condensate resources, primarily at Urengoy and the large oilfields of the middle Ob' region. The remaining portion of the known condensate re-



Night drilling in the Komi ASSR.



Reserves in geologically promising but unexplored areas such as the Barents and Kara Seas and East Siberia could significantly raise proved reserves.

serve base is located at a relatively small number of large fields such as Orenburg in the southern Urals, Vuktyl in the Komi ASSR, and the high-sulfur gasfields of Central Asia.

# The West Siberian Oil and Gas Region

Although it possesses one of the Earth's most forbidding and difficult environments, West Siberia produces 60 percent of the nation's oil and roughly 50 percent of its natural gas, having surpassed the declining Volga-Urals region in oil output in 1978 and Soviet Central Asia in gas production in 1979. To meet Soviet domestic and export needs for these fuels by 1985, the region, according to the current five-year plan (1981-85), will have to produce 63 percent of the nation's oil (8 million b/d are planned) and increase its share of natural gas production to 57 percent (357 billion cubic meters). As production moves farther north in West Siberia, the average cost per unit of output will rise because of higher operating and investment outlays required for exploration, extraction, and transportation.

The oil and gas region is in the West Siberian lowland, one of the world's largest and flattest plains, and, consequently, one of the most poorly drained and flood prone. More than half of the land area of West Siberia is swamp or marshland. In the spring, flood waters of the Ob' and Irtysh Rivers, flowing from the south, are jammed by ice that has not yet melted in the north, and broad areas are inundated.

In addition, severe winter temperatures and cold winds make the West Siberian oil and gas region one of the harshest environments in which to work in the world. Before the discovery of oil and gas in 1960, the entire area was uninhabited wilderness except for hunters and trappers. All endeavors entail a struggle against the environment and result in sharply increased costs to exploit West Siberia's valuable hydroearbon resources.

All seasons in some way seriously impair the effectiveness of men and machines in northern Siberia. The severe cold in winter as well as the swampy conditions in summer reduce the service life of vehicles and machinery. Average winter temperatures of  $-20^{\circ}$ C and below substantially reduce workers' productivity; Soviet work regulations prohibit outdoor work when temperatures reach  $-40^{\circ}$ C and wind speeds exceed 15 meters per second. This produces a windchill effect comparable to  $-110^{\circ}$ F and causes bare skin to freeze in less than 30 seconds. Moreover, swarms of flies and mosquitoes, which saturate the region during the warm season, take an additional toll on worker efficiency and health.

# **Geologic Setting**

Occupying an area of more than 3 million square kilometers, the West Siberian basin is the largest structural-sedimentary basin in the world. Favorable geologic conditions have also made it, in the estimation of most petroleum geologists, one of the better locations in the world for the accumulation of hydrocarbon deposits. Geologically, the basin deepens to the north, where the sediments generally range up to 6 to 8 kilometers in thickness. In the southern and central parts of the basin, the sediments are 3 to 5 kilometers thick. The sedimentary cover of the basin consists of marine and continental deposits of the Jurassic, Cretaceous, and Paleocene ages, overlain by more recent glacial, lake, and stream deposits.

Surface elevations seldom exceed 100 meters above sea level except on an east-west line of low glacial hills that divides the region into two parts. To the south of this divide, where the main oil deposits have been found, rivers flow southward to the middle Ob' River; to the north, where the region's natural gas is found, they flow northward to the lower Ob' and the Arctic Ocean.

#### Development

Following the initial discovery of gas at Berezovo in the mid-1950s and oil at Shaim in 1960, the search for hydrocarbons shifted to the mid-



dle Ob' region. Here, during the 1960s, the Soviets discovered and began developing a number of oilfields with relatively high-quality reservoirs

The immense Samotlor oilfield was discovered in the middle Ob' region of Tyumen' Oblast in 1965 and put into production in 1969. The supergiant Samotlor field near Nizhnevartovsk was soon recognized as one of the largest oilfields in the world. During the 1970s Samotlor

#### Key Settlements

Mos. key West Siberian settlements developed along major waterways as ports and supply bases for the region's early exploration and development. Many became major supply and housing centers on the road and rail systems that later penetrated he region. They now serve as the focuses of the tegion's expanding pipeline and petroleum processing facilities.

 $\label{eq:label} \begin{array}{l} \textbf{Labytnangi} (66 - 39(N), 66 - 21 F) Population: est. 11,000. \\ From this railhead on the lower Ob', cargo is transferred to inverteral to build for gas exploitation areas. \end{array}$ 

Mamontove PyF-Yakh (60) 46 N=72, 47 E, 60, 45 N= <sup>15</sup>, 80 E) P gulation, est. 10,000. Housing and storage areas at Mamont wo settlement and the adjacent PyF-Yakh railstation support Mamontovo official

Megion (61–03 N=76–06 F) Population: est, over 10,000, Megion prevides housing and logistic support for surrounding oilfields. Wil weather roads lead to these fields and to Ni, hirecart wsk.

Nadym (65) 32 N=72, 32 F) Population: est, 50,000. One of the largest arban centers in the northern gas development are i has schools, stores, and community services for workers of the surrounding gas region. Its population is expected to increase to about 150,000.

Neffeyugansk (öl. 56 N. 76: 38 F) Population: est. 72,000 (1983). This is the primary port and supply base for the Mamontovo and Ust Balyk officieds. It is linked to them by all weather roads.

Nizhnesartovsk (60) 56 N 76 38 F) Population: est. 178,000 (1984) Niz inevartovsk supports the Samotlor oilfield and smaller helds nearby. It has extensive port facilities on the OF River, a rul the with Surgut, all-weather roads, and an antport

Novoaganski (61 $\times$ 1 $\times$ 1 $^{-6}$ (414) Population: est. 7,000. Focated at the western edge of the Var'yegan oil-producing area. Novoaganski is a support base for oil exploitation and transport

Noxy Urengoy (66) 06 N=76/33/F) Population: est 52,000 (1984) Noxy Urengoy, served by rail and air, is the main support eity for the Urengoy natural gasheld. Industries and high rise agartments are under construction.

Novabr'sk ( $63/08 N^{-15}/221$ ) Population, est. 55,000 (1984). Novabr'sk, a new urban center for the kholmogory officid and other oil and gas exploitation, has a rail-served storage area covering 3/8 square khometers.

**Pangody** (6  $\times$  SUN 14, 30 F) Population, est. 6,000 Pangody is the supply base of the Medvezh'ye gastield.

Raduzhnyy (62) 06 N (22) 317F) Population: est. 5,000. Raduzlarvy supports nearby officields and is the terminus of an all weather road from Nizhnevartovsk, 140 km to the south

Sergino (62)  $30 \times 68$  (38 F) Population: est. 6,000. Sergino is a rail terminus where cargo is transferred to rivercraft or to tracks plying the winter road to the U rengoy gastield.

Staryy Nadym (65):35 N 72:42 F) Population: est. 2,000. This expanding port serves the erty of Nadym (11 km southwest) and the Medvezh'ye and Urengoy gastields.

Strezhesoy 60–42 N <sup>27</sup> 34/F) Population: est. 10,000. This port, 00 km southeast of Nizhnevartovsk supports the Sovetskove oilfield and may support new oil exploration along the Vikh River.

Surget (61:14  $\times$  73:20 F) Population: est. 188,000 (1984). Surget is the key housing, industrial, and supply center of the middle  $\oplus b^2$  oil region, it has large mechanized port facilities, an all-weather airport, and rail facilities.

Uray (60-05°N -64-48-E) Population: est. 20,000, Uray, which supports an oil exploration area west of the Ob', is served by invertiant and an all-weather airport; a dirt road connects to a railhead at Mezhdurechenskiy.

t(rengo) (65–58  $\times$  78–28 F) Population: est 9,000. Development of threngoy gashelds stimulated construction of port facilities and storage areas. These facilities are expanding along the left bank to the site of the railyard and projected city of Tikhiy

surpassed Romashkino to become the Soviet's premier oilfield and was singularly responsible for the rapid growth in Soviet oil output during that decade. By 1980 Samotlor was yielding about 25 percent of total Soviet oil production and accounted for about 50 percent of West Siberian oil output. Production at Fedorovo, West Siberia's second-largest oilfield, started in 1973 and began to grow rapidly following the intensification of drilling in the late 1970s as output from Samotlor was beginning to level off. In 1982 Fedorovo accounted for approximately 6 percent of Soviet national output.

Explored natural gas deposits in West Siberia are concentrated in the Arctic regions of the Tyumen' Oblast. Production from Medvezh'ye, which began in 1972, and from Urengoy, which began in 1978, is to be followed by Yamburg and ultimately extend to other supergiants Zapolyarnoye, Kharasavey, and Bovanenko.

# Permafrost

North of 64 degrees N latitude, West Siberian oil and gas exploration and extraction are affected by frozen ground or permafrost – a phenomenon that occurs where mean annual temperatures are below freezing. Permafrost complicates all oil and gas activity and seismic exploration; special drilling muds and concretes are necessary to avoid alternate freezing and thawing problems, and well casing has to be carefully insulated to prevent collapse. Maintenance of facilities is often more expensive than their initial construction since seasonal freezing and thawing cause the ground to heave, cracking foundations and collapsing structures.

In the northernmost areas, permafrost is generally continuous and lies within 1 or 2 meters of the surface, creating surface drainage problems. Only a shallow layer of soil thaws each summer. Southward, the surface layer that freezes and thaws seasonally becomes deeper and the underlying permafrost becomes discontinuous. At its southernmost limits, permafrost is reduced to sporadic patches, as in the Surgut and Nizhnevartovsk areas.

Variations of Permafrost

#### Population and Settlement

Population growth particularly urban has been dramatic during the two decades since oil and gas exploitation began in West Siberia. In the two administrative subunits of Tyumen' Oblast where energy development is now concentrated, the population increased from 186,000 in 1959 to 1.2 million in 1983, or from one-tenth to one-fourth of West Siberia's total. Whereas urban residents comprised less than half of the population in 1959, in 1984 fourfifths of the total lived in 44 urban settlements. Of the 44 urban places, 38 were founded after 1960 and 26 of these are oil and gas related; the largest are Surgut and Nizhnevartovsk.

The rapid and large population influx into West Siberia has required the construction of a network of settlements – with attendant housing, stores, schools, clinics, utilities, and related industrial installations. Lack of comfortable housing and amenities is the primary reason that four-fifths of the 500,000 migrants who arrive yearly soon leave the region.

#### Population Trends in Tyumenskaya Oblast





# Administration of West Siberian Development

The buildup of the region has involved the efforts of 26 ministries and state agencies pursuing their own plans. Concerned about the poorly coordinated management of the region, Moscow in 1981 established the unique, interdepartmental Territorial Commission for the Development of the West Siberian Oil and Gas Complex. Headquartered in Tyumen', this group includes 31 major directors and heads of organizations responsible for development in West Siberia. Representatives from the State Planning Committee (Gosplan) and the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the USSR also participate. The commission has no authority of its own and must submit its proposals and recommendations for regional development directly to Gosplan.

# **Transportation Systems**

The construction and maintenance of a reliable transportation network are essential in developing West Siberian resources, which are located thousands of kilometers from material suppliers and markets. Nearly all construction material, equipment, and consumer goods are imported into the West Siberian oil and gas region, and transport systems are severely strained.

The Trans-Siberian Railroad crosses the West Siberian plain a few hundred kilometers south of the oil and gas region. In addition, only one trunk railroad extends into the main oil and gas region-a single-track, diesel-traction line from the Urals, via Tyumen', to Surgut, Nizhnevartovsk, and, in 1983, northward to Novyy Urengoy. The oilfields west of the Ob' are served by a rail line from the Urals. Another line brings freight to Sergino for transfer to ships and barges on the Ob' or, in winter, to trucks for long hauls via winter roads to the northern gasfields. A rail line to Labytnangi on the Ob' also brings freight to be transferred to the river fleet. A temporary gasfield rail line shuttling freight from the river port at Staryy Nadym to the Medvezh'ye and Urengoy gasfields is now being converted to a regular railroad extending the line that reached Novyy Urengoy in 1983.

After 20 years of building, the region's road network is still poorly developed, and the demand for roads grows faster than they are built. The situation is similar to the one faced by the United States in exploiting Alaska's energy resources. There are few all-weather (paved or gravel) roads, and most others are often impassable between May and September. In winter, however, cross-country travel is accomplished on ice roads built by spreading water over the ground or on snow roads built by compacting snow.

Without passable roads through the swamps, many supply and construction activities must wait until winter. Winter roads are vital to early exploitation of new fields and for pipeline construction and maintenance. An impressive example that serves both these purposes is a 700kilometer winter road linking the Sergino rail terminus to Novy Urengoy.

Despite the short navigation season caused by long and severe winters, waterways play a key role as links between railroads and the roads serving the fields. Most river freight to the oil and gas region is routed downstream (north) from rail/river junctions at Omsk, Novosibirsk, Tobol'sk, and Tyumen' to the sub-Arctic ports such as Surgut and Nizhnevartovsk on the middle Ob'.

The navigation season ranges from five months (late May to late October) at Surgut to less than



Air transport, particularily by helicopters, is commonly used to augment-road, rail, and water transport in West Siberia.

one month at the extreme northern port of Nvda. During this season, much of the freight is transferred to small ships and barges for transport up small rivers, such as the Agan in the middle Ob' region and the Nadym and Pur farther north.

While ai: transport provides only a small percentage of the cargo moved into the region, it is particularly important because it can be used when other modes of transportation are unavailable. Ye, r round air links have been established between nator Soviet cities, such as Moseow and Chelvabinsk, and the larger eities of the region. Surgut, Nefteyugansk, Nizhnevartovsk, Strezhevoy, Novyy Urengoy, and Nadym.

Helicopter pads are located at almost every settlement and drilling area. Helicopters are used in laying pipe, building compressor stations, har ling supplies, delivering field crews, and constructing powerlines.



During summer, river barges are frequently used to transport rigs to new drilling sites.



Samotlor oilfield and nearby Ob' River as seen from Landsat.

# Other Major Oil and Gas Regions

# Volga-Urals

The Volga-Urals oil-producing region covers about 500,000 square kilometers between the Volga River and the Ural Mountains. It produces 25 percent of the USSR's oil second only to West Siberia. The region includes the Tatar, Bashkir, and Udmurt Republics and the Kuybyshev and Perm' Oblasts. Other oblasts usually associated with the region are Orenburg, Saratov, and Volgograd.

Production in the "second Baku" began in the 1930s, but growth in oil output did not start to accelerate until the 1950s, when the supergiant Romashkino and Arlan fields and several other major deposits were developed. The Volga-Urals was the leading oil-producing region from the 1950s until it was surpassed by West-Siberia in 1978.

Output from all major producing areas of the Volga-Urals has been declining since it peaked at 4.5 million b/d in 1975. Many fields have been producing for 20 to 30 years and their easily obtainable reserves are nearly depleted. Production wells are lifting increasing amounts of water with the remaining oil. Even with deeper drilling efforts and expanded use of secondary and enhanced oil recovery techniques, the region's share of national output has been steadily declining. It is doubtful that production from newer fields in the Udmutt ASSR and elsewhere in the region will be sufficient to slow the overall decline of the Volga-Urals.

Significant gas production in the Volga-Urals began with the development of the giant Orenburg field, southwest of the Ural Mountains, in the late 1960s. Most of Orenburg's gas has been exported since the CEMA nations completed the Orenburg or Soyuz pipeline to Eastern Europe in 1978. An additional large gas deposit is being developed at Karachaganak, south of Orenburg in Kazakhstan.

# Timan-Pechora (Komi ASSR)

The Timan-Pechora basin is a sedimentary basin of 350,000 square kilometers in the northeastern part of the European USSR. It is part of two administrative subdivisions: the Komi ASSR and the Nenets Autonomous Okrug. Development of the petroleum basin occurred in two phases. The first phase was from the early 1930s to the 1950s when the area south of the Pechora and Usa Rivers was explored and small oil and gas fields were put into production. The second phase began in the early 1960s with the exploration of Arctic areas nearer the Barents Sea. Two fields Usinsk which was discovered in 1963, and Vozey, in 1972 accounted for more than 60 percent of Komi oil production in 1982

Komi ASSR, one of the two oil regions outside West Siberia, has shown no significant growth in oil production since 1979. Although the region appears to have substantial oil resources.



development has been slowed by the extreme Arctic environment and by the heavy and paraffinic oils that are characteristic of the region. Nevertheless, the Soviets hope to increase oil output from the region again.

Komi ASSR gas production was insignificant until the giant Vuktyl gas deposit was developed in the late 1960s. While there are more than 30 gasfields in Komi ASSR, none of the others approaches the size of Vuktyl, which in 1982 accounted for nearly all of Komi ASSR's approximately 18-billion-cubic-meter production. Vuktyl gas production was responsible for the construction of the Northern Lights pipeline from Komi ASSR to Eastern Europe.



### North Caucasus-North Caspian

The North Caucasus North Caspian oil and gas region follows a productive geologic trend more than 1,500 km from the Ukraine eastward across the Caspian Sea into Kazakhstan.

The North Caucasus region, situated west of the Caspian Sea, has been a petroleum producer for more than 60 years. In the late 1950s, as output from early producing wells began to decline, many deeper wells were drilled to increase production. Output in the North Caucasus peaked at about 740,000 b/d in 1971 and then declined to 400,000 b/d in 1980 as production fell rapidly in the most productive area, the Chechen-Ingush ASSR. Oil production in the region's other areas – Starropol' Kray, Krasnodar Kray, and the Dagestan ASSR – is also declining.

East of the Caspian, Kazakhstan's oil development is primarily located in three areas: the Mangyshak Peninsula, dominated by the giant Uzen' field; the Buzachi Peninsula, with several deposits of heavy oil; and the Emba region, the source of early Kazakhstan production.

Natural gas production in the North Caucasus North Caspian has been declining since the late 1960s. A recently discovered field north of Astrakhan' on the lower Volga, however, may prove to be as large as the giant Orenburg field. Astrakhan' gas is high in sulfur and carbon dioxide (sour gas), and the USSR is acquiring Western technology and corrosion-resistant equipment to develop the field and remove the impurities from the gas.



Caspian Sea oil workers.

#### Transcaucasus-Central Asia

The Transcaucasus-Central Asia oil and gas regions extend from the Georgian and Azerbaijan SSRs in the Caucasus Mountains under the southern Caspian Sea across Central Asia's Turkmen and Uzbek SSRs.

Oilfields near Baku, in Azerbaijan, began producing in the 19th century. They accounted for half of the world's oil production in 1900 and more than 70 percent of Soviet oil output in 1941. Azerbaijan's oil industry declined during World War II and, although it never regained prewar production levels, again rose until 1966, accounting for 8 percent of total Soviet production. Postwar growth was spurred mainly by offshore wells in the Caspian Sea, which now account for more than 70 percent of Azerbaijan's output. Transcaucasus oil development extends from Baku westward into the Georgian SSR, where oil production, though relatively small, is rising. Georgia's output about 60,000 b/d in 1980—is primarily from the Samgori field near Tbilisi.

Central Asia played a crucial role in Soviet natural gas production during the late 1960s and early 1970s by offsetting declining growth in the European USSR during West Siberia's early development. From 1973, when output surpassed that of the Ukraine, to 1979, when output was in turn surpassed by that of West Siberia, Central Asia was the leading gas-producing region in the USSR. During this period it accounted for more than 30 percent of total USSR production. Turkmenistan has recently replaced Uzbekistan as the major gas-producing area in Central Asia. Despite outputs from West Siberia's supergiant gasfields, surplus gas from both sparsely populated Central Asian republics continues to be integrated into the vast Soviet domestic and export pipeline network.

Future petroleum growth in the Transcaucasus and Central Asia regions will probably come from deeper drilling in the Caspian Sea rather than from the current oil and gas exploration efforts in western Azerbaijan and Turkmenistan. Any new discoveries would require nearly a decade before they would make a significant contribution to Soviet oil production.



# **Production and Consumption**

#### Oil

For 30 years after World War II, oil production in the Soviet Union grew at enviable rates. During the mid-1970s the USSR became the world's leading oil producer. In 1983 the Soviet oil industry reported an average daily production rate of 12.33 million barrels of crude oil and gas condensate, about 20 percent more than the United States.

The rapid growth in production was largely the result of the discovery and exploration of a series of large, giant, and supergiant fields. In the 1950s and 1960s, the Soviets developed the Volga-Urals and the massive fields of Romashkino and Arlan. By the 1970s, just as production growth from the western USSR was beginning to taper off, the Soviets received a boost in production from the mammoth fields of the West Siberian basin Samotlor, Fedorovo, and Mamontovo.

Soviet oil growth has begun to slow. The Soviets failed to make either the original or revised production targets for 1980 and have not equaled or exceeded an original annual target since the early 1970s. Plans have been revised downward to the point where the 1985 plan goal of 12.0 million b/d is no higher than the original target later revised downward for 1980. The present 1985 goal, already lowered from the upper limit of 12.9 million b/d, a provisional output goal, represents planned growth of less than 1 percent per vear.

These small increases have been possible only because the Soviets have been able to keep West Siberian production growing - from 6.2 million b/d in 1980 to an estimated 7.4 million b/d in 1983. West Siberia's share of national output is now 60 percent. Outside West Siberia, only two lesser oil-producing regions of the USSR are currently able to raise output-- the Komi ASSR, in the north European USSR, and Kazakhstan, on the castern shore of the Caspian Sea. These three growth areas, together with the declining Volga-Urals region, produce more than 90 percent of Soviet oil and will largely determine Soviet output in the 1980s.

Oil production in all other major Soviet producing regions has leveled off or is declining. Volga-Urals production has declined by 1.2 million b/d or 25 percent since its peak in 1975. The drop was largely the result of a decline at the supergiant Romashkino oilfield, the leading producer in the region and the second-largest field in the USSR.

The USSR's first-place position in world oil production is primarily the result of its abundant resource base, massive investment, and sheer persistence rather than of any unique technical and managerial effort on the part of its oil industry. Although accorded high-priority status in the civilian economy, the oil industry is troubled by many of the same problems that afflict other Soviet industries – equipment shortages, technology shortcomings, and lagging productivity and efficiency. Moscow has been at-

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tempting to rectify this with substantial foreign equipment purchases and domestic technology enhancements.

Some 70 percent of oil consumption in the Soviet Union takes place in three sectors of the economy: electric power, transportation, and industry. Although Soviet oil consumption during the last 25 years has consistently grown faster than total energy consumption, in recent years the rates of both have been declining as overall economic growth has decreased. In the first half of the 1970s, oil consumption grew about 7 percent annually (compared with 4.7 percent for total energy), but during the period 1976-80 growth in oil use fell to 4 percent per year (versus 3.5 percent for total energy). Soviet efforts over the last five to 10 years to slow the growth of domestic oil consumption, except in the industrial sector, have been minimal. Domestic oil consumption in 1983 is estimated at 9.0 million b/d.

#### USSR: Oil Production<sup>a</sup> and Apparent Consumption





North Caucasus-Azerbaijan SSR

 Other
 Other

 1972
 73
 74
 75
 76
 77
 78
 79
 80
 81
 82
 83

 Including gas condensate.
 Includes the Reformasian SSR and Baltic.
 Lar East.
 Georgian SSR, Komi ASSR, and the Ukrainian SSR

# Natural Gas

Natural gas, rather than oil, has paced the growth () Soviet energy production in recent years. Not only is Moscow turning to gas to satisfy a large part of its increasing internal demand for energy in the 1980s, it is also relying on gas as an important source of hard currency revenue.

In 1983 he USSR surpassed the United States as the world's largest producer of natural gas. Soviet g is output of 536 billion cubic meters in 1983 compared with 450 billion cubic meters for the United States. Even if the Soviets fall short of their 630-billion-cubic-meter gas production goal for 1985, they are expected to remain in first place.

The European USSR primarily the North Caucasus and the Ukraine supplied 85 percent of natural gas produced in 1965. Following the discovery of the Orenburg field in the late 1960s, the Volga-Urals and Central Asia fields paced Soviet production growth during the 1970s. B: 1983 West Siberia was providing nearly all of the gas industry's growth and accounted for one-half of the nation's gas production.

The first gasfields to be developed in West Siberia were located along the lower Ob' River, near Berezovo, where production began in 1966. The center of the West Siberian deposits, however, is located much farther to the north and east near the Arctic Circle. Of the six large fields there – Medvezh'ye, Urengoy, Yamburg, Zapolyarnoye, Kharasavey, and Bovanenko only Medvezh'ye and Urengoy have been developed. The opening of Medvezh'ye in 1972 marked the beginning of West Siberia's rapid growth in gas production, and by 1978 it supplied abo at three-fourths of the region's total output.

West Siberia's Urengoy gasfield, brought into production in 1978 along with the smaller Vyngapur field, is currently being intensively developed and will account for virtually all the growth in Soviet gas production during the next several ycars. In 1982 Urengoy's production of 117 billion cubic meters was less than one-half the field's planned annual production for the mid-1980s. The supergiant Urengoy field, with reserves of 7.8 trillion cubic meters, is the largest gasfield in the world. Additionally, the Soviets are making preparations to start developing the adjacent Yamburg gasfield to the north in the late 1980s.

Since nat iral gas production increments in West Siberia exceed declines in the older regions, the total USSR output continues to increase. Furthermore, West Siberia has become a principal supplier of natural gas to Europe through several long pipeline systems that extend as far as France.

Currently, natural gas provides four-fifths as much domestic energy as oil, compared with only 63 percent in 1970. Gas output has grown an average of 8 percent per year since 1970. The Soviets plan to raise the share of natural gas in total primary energy production from 26 percent in 1980 to 32 percent in 1985.



**USSR: Natural Gas Production** 



# **Gas Condensate**

Gas condensate, also called natural gas liquids, is a hydrocarbon occurring either in natural gas or oil reservoirs. Condensate is normally in the vapor phase at reservoir temperatures and pressures, but condenses either at lower reservoir pressures or at the surface during extraction. Condensate can be processed to yield fractions usable as petrochemical feedstock, motor gasoline, "bottled gas," and raw materials for other industrial uses.

Significant production of condensate was not achieved until the early 1970s, when the Soviets

first began to add condensate totals to their erude oil production output. By 1975 production had risen to 250,000 b/d with some 155,000 b/d coming from two condensate fields – Vuktyl in Komi ASSR and Orenburg in the southern Urals. Since that time national and regional condensate production figures have not been published by the Soviets. But 1983 output is estimated at 600,000 b/d out of 12.33 million b/d of combined erude oil and gas condensate.

Growth has been steady, but the Soviets have encountered numerous problems in expanding condensate output. Condensate development has long taken a backseat in investment allocations, with the oil and gas ministries preferring to concentrate instead on easier and more rewarding oil and natural gas production. Consequently, a large percentage of both oil-associated condensate and condensate available from gas production has been lost because of inadequate processing capacity and inefficient field recovery techniques. Until very recently the Soviets have lagged badly in developing their gas-processing facilities and increasing their condensate recovery totals.

The USSR is now attempting to upgrade the capabilities of its condensate industry and has set ambitious production goals for the 1980s. Substantial production increases from West Siberia, Central Asia, western Kazakhstan, and possibly Komi ASSR can be expected. The Soviets hope to recover about 100,000 b/d from the Urengoy field alone by 1985 and to transport it by a major condensate pipeline to Surgut which, according to some reports, will extend westward to the Volga-Urals. Two other major gas condensate fields, Astrakhan' on the Volga River and Karachaganak in northwestern Kazakhstan, are slated to provide together some 80,000 to 100,000 b/d of condensate by 1985.



# Exploration

Exploration and discovery of new hydrocarbon reserves oil, gas, and gas condensate – are a slow but critical process that will largely determine the Soviets' ability to meet future oil and gas production goals. Soviet energy planners are actively developing a wide range of plans to locate and evaluate both onshore and offshore petroleum reserves. In addition, they are upgrading their exploration capabilities through purchases of equipment from the West, reproduction of Western designs, and strengthening domestic manufacturing capability.

Historically, Soviet exploration philosophy has been to concentrate on one hydrocarbon-bearing province at a time. The bulk of Soviet exploration is currently being conducted in West Siberia in the vicinity of the oil-producing areas of the middle Ob' and the large gasfields in northern Tyumen' Oblast. Exploration there will, by necessity, be moving farther from the developed infrastructure into the more remote regions of the Tyumen' and Tomsk Oblasts.

At the same time, the Soviets have begun limited surveys of the country's remaining 20 unexplored basins for a successor to West Siberia- the third "Baku." Onshore, East Siberia and western Kazakhstan are scheduled for comprehensive regional investigation. Offshore, exploratory drilling has been under way since 1977 in waters near Sakhalin in a cooperative venture with a Japanese consortium. Soviet exploration in the Barents Sea is beginning despite the lack of engineering and technical experience in the Arctic offshore environment. Limited exploration has also started in the Baltic and Black Seas and the Sea of Azov.

Almost all of these basins, both onshore and offshore, are located away from economic and population centers. Some Soviet oil experts have been suggesting that, instead of exploring these remote areas, the search for new oil should be concentrated in the deeper zones of the older Volga-Urals, the North Caspian basin, and the developed areas of the West Siberian basin. Any major program to explore these deeper and more difficult targets would require a significant upgrading of Soviet drilling equipment and technology.

Exploration planning for new hydrocarbon reserves in the Soviet Union is the joint responsibility of the Ministry of Geology, the Ministry of the Petroleum Industry, and the Ministry of the Gas Industry. The Ministries of Geology and Petroleum Industry are tasked with onshore oil exploration; the gas ministry is responsible for all gas exploration as well as offshore oil exploration.

Plans for petroleum exploration are drawn up by these ministries with the assistance of the Academy of Sciences. The various plans are submitted to the State Planning Committee (Gosplan) for approval, after which they are announced at the beginning of each five-year plan period. During the current plan (1981-85) Soviet oilmen were expected to discover and delineate oil and gas reserves that will be translated into production during the late 1980s and 1990s.

#### **Technology and Equipment**

Soviet geologists, faced with searching millions of square kilometers of unexplored territory, are using every available technique to locate new hydrocarbon reserves and to decrease the time lag between discovery and the onset of production. Foremost among these is the use of space technology to minimize mapping and select areas for detailed exploration. Research for this effort was centralized in 1978 in Aerogeologiya, a geologic institute which applies space photography to terrain analysis to pinpoint promising areas for seismic surveys.

The Soviets employ standard reflection and refraction seismic techniques in exploration but

are hampered by technology shortcomings. Refraction studies can locate large amplitude structures—like Romashkino or Samotlor—but lack the higher resolution to identify smaller deposits. Seismic equipment in the USSR is rated to depths of about 3,000 meters, and there is little chance that this equipment will be able to detect deeper deposits or the more subtle stratigraphic traps.

The Soviets made significant strides in offshore exploration technology during the 1970s, but they fell far short of their original goals. They had intended to have 10 mobile jack-up drilling platforms in operation in the Caspian and Black Seas by 1980, but only four were operating in that year. Efforts to obtain Western offshore

Seismic Exploration



Exploration for oil and gas in the Soviet Arctic.





Fixed drilling platform in the "April 28" oilfield, Caspian Sea.

"Baky" mobile jack-up drilling platform in the Caspian Sea.

# Areas of Current Oil and Gas Exploration



"Shelf 2" semisubmersible drilling platform in the Bay of Baku.

The floating drill ship "Mikhail Mirchink" is one of three built by Finland for the Soviets.

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# Drilling

The past three decades have seen a fourfold increase in Soviet oil and gas drilling in terms of meters drilled. In an effort to maximize output between 1965 and 1980, the Soviets emphasized development drilling rather than exploration drilling. Plans now call for even more rapid growth in development drilling and a substantial increase in exploration drilling.

In the USSR, development drilling within oil and gas fields follows specific phases. After a discovery, several confirmation wells are drilled to learn more about the dimensions and geologic parameters of the new field and to obtain early well production data. Based on the results from early production, as well as on information from exploration wells, a field development plan is designed to establish the optimal initial well spacing for the entire field. Finally as the initial development plan is completed and more details are learned about field characteristics, infill drilling (which creates a denser network of wells) is begun to produce the hydrocarbons that cannot be produced from existing wells or to produce them at a faster rate in the near term.

### **Technology and Equipment**

Although Soviet drilling technology lags considerably that of Western countries, most of the drilling equipment, including rigs, pipes, casing, and bits, is produced in the Soviet Union. The Soviets rely on Western imports to fill specific needs such as additional drill pipe, high-pressure blowout preventers, and offshore drilling and logging equipment.

The USSR produced oil and gas drilling rigs of all types at a rate of about 500 per year in the last decade. The average service life of a Soviet rig is about six to 10 years, compared with 15 to 20 years for rigs built in the United States. Until recently, nearly all Soviet rigs were built at two plants—the Barrikady Plant in Volgograd and the Uralmash Plant in Sverdlovsk. Some 75 percent of the production has been at the Uralmash Plant. A new drilling rig plant was built in 1981 in Verkhnyaya Pyshma, north of Sverdlovsk. Productivity has risen during the past decade as improvements have been made in Soviet rig design, but there are chronic com-







A turbod rilling rig at Zhetybay oilfield, Mangyshlak Peninsula, North Caspian.

plaints that the mix of rig types is inadequate; especially lacking are portable rigs for use in northern climates.

Lurbodrills are used for more than 80 percent of the oil and gas drilling in the Soviet Union. The turbodrill uses a downhole turbine powered by drilling mud that turns only the attached bit and not the entire drill string as does the rotary method used in the West. Turbodrills have been effective in developing the shallow, hard-rock formations in the Volga-Urals basin and for directional drilling from the cluster drilling pads in West Siberia. The original appeal of the turbodrill was that it enabled Soviet drillers to avoid many potential problems associated with the use of low-quality domestic drill pipe and tool joints that could not withstand the stresses of rotary drilling operations. Turbodrilling eliminates torque on the drill string; consequently, it reduces the amount of time lost as a result of broken drill pipe. In addition, the turbodrill is characterized by a high rate of bit rotation which increases the initial rate of penetration. The higher rate of bit rotation in turbodrilling, however, causes a drastic shortening of bit life (meters drilled per bit), reducing the rate of penetration in deep drilling. Lost productivity caused by frequent bit changes in deep drilling increases dramatically as the drilling depth increases. The USSR now produces about 9,000 turbodrill motors annually.

The quality of Soviet drill pipe is generally adequate for drilling shallow wells (less than 2.000 meters). At greater depths, the poorquality steel cannot withstand the torque required for rotary drilling and often fails. Even with turbodrilling, pipe inadequacies are often severe. Problems relating to the quantity and quality of drill pipe and casing produced in domestic plants have been cited as factors in the failure to meet recent West Siberian drilling targets. Moscow has been negotiating with Western firms to purchase a turnkey plant to manufacture drill pipe and casing.

The Soviet Union's output of drill bits, including standard, diamond, and experimental hard alloy types, is about 1 million per year. Although the quality and performance of Soviet drill bits improved during the 1970s, they are still much less efficient than those produced in the United States.

In 1978 the Soviets bought a turnkey drill bit plant from the United States for installation at Kuybyshev. The plant, which began operating in January 1982, is capable of producing upward of 100.000 tungsten carbide insert bits per year. At the high rotational speeds of Soviet turbodrills, the bits from the new Kuybyshev plant should operate for significantly longer periods than conventional Soviet-made bits, increasing productivity because of reduced downtime for bit replacement.

# Administration and Organization

Three ministries geology, oil, and gas are responsible for drilling exploration wells. Of these, the oil and gas ministries are normally responsible for the detailed assessment of field size and potential and the drilling of development wells.

National drilling efforts by the oil and gas ministries are coordinated by Administrations for Drilling Operations. In addition, drillers are supported by research institutes in Moscow, Tyumen', and other cities. The gas ministry controls offshore drilling for both oil and gas.

The basic production unit in the Soviet oil and gas industry is the regional production association, which oversees all aspects of drilling activity including rig assembly and well completions. Drilling is conducted by drilling brigades, usually comprising 24 men, who generally operate in four teams on a single rig in shifts of up to 12 hours' duration around the clock.

# **Offshore Drilling**

Soviet offshore drilling began nearly four decades ago in the shallow waters of the Caspian Sea. As oil and gas fields were discovered, development wells were drilled from small wooden platforms connected to the shore by trestles to facilitate movement of equipment and supplies to the drilling sites. The Caspian Sea is still the Soviet center for offshore drilling and production technology. Currently, nine of the 11 Soviet-owned and -operated mobile offshore drilling rigs are operating in the area. Offshore oil output in the Caspian is estimated at 200,000 b/d, more than three-fourths of Azerbaijan SSR's production.

By 1985 the USSR plans to boost offshore drilling activity 50 percent above the level attained in 1980. New drill ships and platforms from foreign yards and new construction in Soviet yards are part of a major effort to explore the offshore Arctic and Far East. Much of this increased emphasis on offshore drilling was stimulated by geologists' reports that potential oil-bearing sedimentary rock covers more than two-thirds of the Soviet shelf area. Development of the offshore oil potential will be important to the Soviets if they plan to maintain oil production at high levels in the 1990s. Western equipment and technology will be essential for successful development of offshore areas.

# Recovery

During the past decade the Soviets have found it increasingly difficult to locate new oil reserves, to increase development drilling, and to undertake offshore exploration. As a result, the rapid production growth of the postwar period began to slow in the late 1970s. Essentially, all of the important oil-producing regions in the country are confronted with difficulties: major oilfields have been intensively exploited and have reached peak production or are in decline, new fields are less productive and more difficult to develop, and discovery of new reserves has not kept pace with the growth of oil production.

Although the Soviets produce most of their own petroleum equipment, domestic manufacturers have been unable to meet the accelerating demand of the oil industry for more and better equipment and techniques to improve oil recovery. The lack of sufficient high-quality equipment and technology has hampered efforts in several areas, including drilling in West Siberia, and the enhanced oil recovery program.

As a result of domestic production inadequacies, the USSR made selective purchases of Western equipment and technology in the 1970s. Among those oil recovery items imported were highcapacity electric submersible pumps; gas-lift equipment, including compressors and treatment units; well completion units; steam generators; and associated insulated tubing.



Various secondary and enhanced recovery techniques are necessary to offset declining production at all major Soviet oilfields.



Mechanical pumping units are commonly used to offset low reservoir pressures and lift well fluids.



Periodic servicing is required to maintain mechanical sucker rod or beam pumping units.

# **Recovery Methods**

Primary recovery is the initial production of fluids from the reservoir using natural sources of energy to produce oil and gas. Once this method can no longer cause the oil and gas to flow through the porous rocks into the wells, various secondary methods including waterflooding, mechanical pumps, and gas lift are used to recover additional amounts of oil.

In the Soviet oil industry, waterflooding is applied at a very early stage of a field's producing life to m intain reservoir pressure and to increase oil recovery. As a result, in 1980 the water content amounted to 55 percent of fluids recovered. More than 85 percent of Soviet oil output is recovered by waterflooding. The high percentage of water in the oil has increased the demand for artificial lift equipment submersible pumps, sucker-rod pumps, and gas-lift units to maintain or increase oil production.

Pumping units —rod or beam pumps and electric centrifugal pumps — are brought on line as wells stop flowing because of low reservoir pressure or as the arrount of water in the produced fluid becomes too high. Rod pumps are used for lowflow-rate wells, while the high-capacity centrifugal pumps are used to lift large volumes of fluid. During the 1970s the USSR purchased more than 1,200 high-capacity, downhole submersible pumps from the United States. In 1983 about 60 percent of all producing wells in the Soviet U tion were on rod pumps, and 20 percent were on submersible pumps.

Gas lift – a process of lifting fluids from a well by a downhole injection of gas to lighten the fluid column so that the natural reservoir energy can lift the fluid – is an alternative to highcapacity, submersible pumps, although it costs consider; bly more to install. Soviet petroleum officials have become more interested in the use of the gas-lift process for lifting fluids in the oilticlds because of the high frequency of repairs on downhole pumping equipment. In 1969 US gas-lift equipment was installed for the first time at the Pravdinsk field in West Siberia. As a follow-on, the Soviets installed gas-lift equipment at the Uzen' oilfield in Kazakhstan and at the supergiant Samotlor and Fedorovo oilfields in West Siberia.

The Soviets are also interested in using hydraulic pumps in their artificial lift program. These pumps are submerged and are driven by highpressure fluid from equipment at the surface, instead of being powered by electricity as are conventional submersible pumps. Although the Soviet oil industry did not use hydraulic pumps in 1980, plans call for the use of 300 such pumps by 1985.

Enhanced oil recovery (EOR) refers to recovery of oil from a petroleum reservoir beyond that economically recoverable by conventional primary and secondary methods. Three general categories of EOR are chemical flooding, carbon dioxide miscible flooding, and thermal methods.

The Soviets have expressed high hopes for EOR techniques to increase oil recovery from older fields and to produce undeveloped fields that contain heavy oil. Although they have experimented with EOR programs in many fields and tested most of the available methods, only about 60,000 b/d can be attributed to enhanced recovery a present. This yield has primarily come from the application of steam or hot water injection and in situ combustion.

Soviet EOR efforts have been hampered by severe shortages of equipment and chemicals. The Soviets have not as yet been able to build the steam generators needed for thermal recovery or to produce sufficient amounts of surfactants or polymers for chemical and polymer flood programs. Continued efforts are being made to acquire Western technical assistance and equipment to promote EOR.



Workmen waiting to lower sucker rods into well.

# **Recovery Methods**

#### Waterflooding

Water injector well







Steam Flooding



# Oil Refining and Gas Processing

The rapid growth of oil and gas production in West Siberia during the 1970s has required major increases in Soviet crude-oil-refining and gas-processing capacity. Moscow is constructing new oil refineries and adding crude oil distillation units to existing refineries. A major effort is also under way to speed construction of gasprocessing facilities to prepare increasing quantities of gas for domestic use and export. Although Soviet professional journals contain few production statistics, they occasionally have diagrams, flow charts, photo illustrations, and design capacities of crude oil distillation and gasprocessing units.

# **Oil Refining**

In January 1983 there were 53 oil refineries operating in the Soviet Union. Although the Soviets do not publish the total crude oil distillation capacity of these refineries, it is believed to be in the neighborhood of 10.5 million b/d, second only to the approximately 16-million-b/d capacity of the 220 operating refineries in the United States. Four-fifths of the Soviet refineries are located near population and industrial centers west of the Ural Mountains. Many of these refineries are also located within large petrochemical-refinery complexes and provide feedstocks directly to the chemical processes.

Before the mid-1950s the Soviet petroleum industry consisted of about 30 refineries with small crude oil distillation units of less-than-20,000-b/d capacity. The only secondary processing units of consequence were thermal crackers designed to break down heavy oils. Between the mid-1950s and mid-1960s a concentrated effort was made to upgrade the industry, both in crude oil distillation capacity and in secondary processing. Several standardized crude oil distillation units with capacities of 20,000 to 60,000 b/d were constructed as well as a wide variety of secondary processing units such as catalytic crackers and reformers, delayed cokers, and hydrogen treating and lubricating oil units.

With the development of the Volga-Urals oil resources in the 1950s, the Soviets stopped

concentrating refineries in the crude oil production areas and began locating them near points of regional consumption, such as Omsk, Kirishi, Kremenchug, and Angarsk. The refineries receive more than 90 percent of their crude oil from pipelines; most of the remaining is delivered by rail. Conversely, only about 10 percent of the refined products are transported by pipelines; about 90 percent are delivered by rail, water, and tank truck.

Since 1970 required increases in primary distillation capacity have been obtained through modernization or expansion of existing refineries and the construction of at least five new refineries. Modernization of refineries has included the dismantling of old, small refining units and replacing them with larger, more efficient units to upgrade and improve both the output and product mix.

The Soviet refining industry is reported to have major problems in areas such as sophistication of refining processes, variety of product mix, and quality of individual petroleum products. Specifically, Soviet refineries lack adequate processing units—especially cracking units,



Section of Baku No. 2 Oil Refinery, Azerbaijan.

# **Oil** Refineries

which break down heavier fuels into lighter fuels such as gasoline and kerosene.

The second second second

Moscow.

The lack of adequate heavy-oil conversion capacity makes it difficult for Soviet refineries to produce high-octane gasoline and high-grade diesel fuel in the increasing volumes needed to meet growing domestic demand. Moreover, since a large share of the rising volume of heavy fuel oils cannot presently be further refined, they are primarily burned in electric power plants, thereby slowing Soviet attempts to balance fue consumption by converting these plants to coal and natural gas.

All crude oil processed by refining must pass through in initial or primary distillation process where it is separated into gases, gasoline, kerosene, diesel fuels, and heavy fuels (mazut). These products are used as fuels or are further refined through secondary processes to produce lubricating oils, higher quality fuels, and other finished preducts.

Soviet refineries contain three basic types of erude oil distillation units. They range from early-design shell stills, through one-stage atmospheric pipe stills (AT), to current technology, two-stage atmospheric vacuum pipe stills (AVT). Some of the one- and two-stage units contain their own desalting section (ELOU), and some are built in combination with other types of units. The standard crude oil distillation units currently being constructed have a design capacity of 120,000 b/d. Secondary refinery units provide a higher yield of light products and upgrade product quality after primary distillation. The most important secondary processes include reforming, catalytic cracking, hydrogen treating, hydrocracking, alkylation, and lubricating oil production. Other types of secondary processes produce specialty products, recover refinery byproducts, or treat crude oil prior to distillation or refined products prior to shipment.

#### **Natural Gas Processing**

The processing of natural gas is becoming an important subsector of the Soviet oil and gas industry after many years of neglect. In an effort to reduce the wasteful flaring of gas that is a byproduct of oil production called associated gas, the USSR is vastly expanding its capacity to produce valuable natural gas byproducts such as propane, butane, sulfur, and stable condensate. These products are useful not only as fuels but also as feedstocks in the petrochemical industry.

The rapid development of West Siberia's oilfields—especially Samotlor—outstripped the USSR's ability to process the associated gas. Flaring of the region's excess gas probably reached its peak in 1975 when about 20 billion cubic meters had to be burned off. Recently completed gas-processing plants in the Tyumen' oil region have helped reduce flaring and raised associated gas-processing capacity to nearly 20 billion cubic meters in the region during 1982. Large gas-processing facilities have been constructed at Nizhnevartovsk, Belozersk, Surgut, Yuzhno-Balyk, and Lokosovo. New processing plants in the gas-producing regions of Orenburg and Central Asia have significantly increased sulfur removal capabilities, enabling output from high-sulfur fields to replace the region's declining low-sulfur gas production.

Economic region boundary

Processing of nonassociated gas by the Ministry of the Gas Industry has grown substantially since 1970 when only 3 billion cubic meters of gas were processed. The current five-year plan calls for processing about 75 billion cubic meters of natural gas, the production of about 1.6 million tons of sulfur, and more than 20,000 b/d of gas condensate in 1985.

Natural gas is processed by several gas ministry plants located throughout the gas-producing regions. The largest and newest facility is located at Urengoy. Whether because of technological deficiencies or simply a lack of domestic production capacity, much of the gas-processing equipment is imported from the West.

# Pipelines

The USSR has greatly expanded its pipeline network in recent years to transport oil and natural gas. The total length of oil and gas pipelines grew from fewer than 70,000 kilometers in 1965 to more than 231,000 kilometers by the end of 1983. During this period an average of about 6,000 kilometers of natural gas pipelines and 2,600 kilometers of oil pipelines were constructed each year.

The development of major new oil and gas fields at great distances from the economic heartland and increased gas exports are largely responsible for the massive Soviet pipeline construction program. Moscow has given high priority to the construction of pipelines from West Siberia to the industrialized areas of the USSR and to its border with Eastern Europe. At present 12 natural gas pipelines and five oil pipelines transport oil and gas from the producing areas of West Siberia.

Most pipelaying in West Siberia is accomplished when the ground is frozen during October through May. The Soviet press has emphasized the necessity of year-round pipelaying, but construction in swampy areas during the summer has been achieved only on a small scale. Activity in summer is primarily limited to areas of hard ground.

Relatively few pipelines have been built in the area of continuous permafrost. These few - the gas pipelines from the Medvezh'ye and Urengoy

fields to Nadym and from Messoyakha to Noril'sk- are being built above ground to avoid trenching in permafrost and to prevent disruption of the permafrost by heat from pipelines.

### **Oil Pipelines**

The USSR relies on pipelines to transport more than 90 percent of its crude oil production. About 83 percent of the Soviet Union's oil pipelines carry crude oil. The remaining pipelines transport refined products.

Most of the Soviet oil pipeline network is relatively new. Its growth has been dramatic—from 4,000 kilometers at the end of World War II to about 76,200 km in 1983—with half of the growth occurring between 1970 and 1983. About 20,000 km, including nearly 80 percent of the large-diameter 1,020-mm and 1,220-mm lines, were built during the 1970-80 period.

Crude oil pipeline construction has slackened appreciably in the 1980s, primarily as a result of slower growth in oil production. Only 9,200 km are scheduled for completion in the 1981-85 plan, and just two of the 16 planned pipelines are large-diameter interregional oil transmission lines: one from Pavlodar to Chimkent, completed in March 1983, and one from Kholmogory to Kuybyshev, scheduled for construction in 1984. During 1976-80, in contrast, the Soviets laid a number of major interregional lines: Nizhnevartovsk to Kuybyshev, Krasnoyarsk to Irkutsk, Kuybyshev to Kremenchug, and Surgut to Po-

#### USSR: Completion of Crude Oil Pipelines, by Plan Period



lotsk. All of these lines were 1,020 or 1,220 mm in diameter.

Unlike large-diameter gas pipeline construction, the Soviet oil pipeline industry is largely selfsufficient and does not depend on Western





equipment and materials. Nevertheless, the Soviets do selectively import pipelayers, bulldozers, valves, and insulating materials to speed construction and to improve the operational capability at d service life of their pipelines.

# **Gas Pipelines**

Several major natural gas pipeline corridors link the gas-rich regions of West Siberia, Central Asia, and the southern Urals with the industrial centers of the European USSR. The geographic distribution and large capacity of these domestic trunklines also provide a flexible network for gas exports to the West. New pipelines under construction represent a major extension of the Soviet gas transmission system, which has grown rapidly from 2,300 km in 1950 to 155,000 km at the end of 1983. Additional gas pipelines are scheduled for completion during 1984-85.

During the current five-year plan (1981-85), four large-diameter (1,420-mm) natural gas pipelines from the Urengoy field in West Siberia have been constructed, and two more are scheduled for completion. The fourth line completed during the plan, the much-publicized Siberia to Western Furope export pipeline, was reportedly partially operational in early 1984, and pipelaying on the fifth domestic line is complete. The operation of the six pipelines will bring to 12 the number of large-diameter gaslines transporting gas from West Siberia.

The addition of the six new pipelines involved building some 20,000 kilometers of main trunk pipelines and will allow the Soviet Union to transport the more than 350 billion cubic meters per year of West Siberian gas production planned by 1985 (200 billion cubic meters more than in 1980). Also planned for completion during the 1981-85 period is a pipeline to transport gas condensate from Urengoy to Surgut.



### USSR: Length of Natural Gas Pipeline Network, by Diameter of Pipe

150	Diai	neter in 1,420	millin	icters	
135	ł	1,020-	1.220 han 1.0	90	
120					
105					
90					
75					
60					
45					
30					
15					

1955 65 "0 "5 80



Pipe is welded at storage area welding bases along the pipeline by crews using either manual arc techniques or semiautomatic units.

While the majority of the new large-diameter gas pipelines will be constructed with domestically produced pipe and compressor station equipment of less-than-desired quality and reliability, the gas network will still have a firstrate array of Western equipment. The ambitious Soviet plans to increase gas production and transport capabilities envisage reduced reliance on imported pipe and should benefit from the new multilayer pipe production plant at Vyksa, southwest of Gor'kiy.



Every year the USSR lays gas pipeline twice as long as the trans-Alaskan oil pipeline.
## Coal

Coal follows oil and natural gas as a primary energy source in the Soviet Union. The Soviet coal industry dates back to the early 19th century. It remained the cornerstone of the Soviet energy industry and provided the Soviets fuel for their economic development and industrial growth until well into the Khrushchev era, when it was gradually eclipsed by oil and gas—a phenomenon that was simultaneously occurring in the United States and Western Europe. Today, the Soviet coal industry still employs more than a million workers and provides nearly 40 percent of the fuel used to generate electricity.

Most experts agree that abundant reserves will keep the Soviet Union self-sufficient in coal for the near future. Internationally, the USSR is second only to the United States in reserves and annual production of coal. Most energy specialists believe that potential Soviet coal reserves are the largest in the world.

Although coal's share of Soviet primary energy production dropped from two-thirds in 1950 to just over 50 percent in 1960 and to only 22 percent in 1983, coal remains critically important to the Soviet economy. With the cost of oil production rising rapidly, Soviet energy planners have become aware that coal must play a greater role in the total Soviet energy balance. They acknowledge, however, that investment in the coal industry has recently been insufficient both to develop new coal basins and to forestall production declines in older basins. Although substitution of coal for oil is a high Soviet priority, the Soviet coal industry will be poorly equipped to increase production sharply, at least through the 1980s.

Coal at a Glanc	e
Reserves	
Explored	281 billion metric tons
World rank	Second
Production	
Record year	1978-724 million metric tons
World rank	Third
1983	716 million metric tons
By coal rank	Hard coal (anthracite and bituminous), 78 percent; lignite, 22 percent
By type of mining	Surface, 40 percent; underground, 60 percent

### **Resources and Reserves**

As of 1 January 1983 the Soviet Union estimated its coal resources at 6.8 trillion tons, about half of the world's total and nearly twice that of the United States. Only 4 percent of this total has been explored. Although the Soviets estimate the energy potential of their 281-billionton explored coal reserve to be four times greater than the combined potential of their oil and natural gas reserves, the easily accessible coal reserves of the European USSR have been seriously depleted and the remote Siberian reserves are proving to be much more expensive to develop. The portion of total reserves comprised by coking coal is also enormous—estimated at 65-70 billion tons.

Soviet coal reserves are widely dispersed. In the European USSR, the Donets basin contains high-quality anthracite and bituminous coal, much of which is suitable for coking and is close to major blast furnaces. However, increasing mine depths, thinness of coal seams, and high methane concentrations are making the Donets reserves increasingly difficult to exploit. Although production has fallen as a result, the Donets basin still accounts for almost 30 percent of total Soviet coal production. The lignite reserves in the European USSR, although high in moisture, sulfur, and ash content, have, until recent years, been successfully exploited because of their closeness to centers of consumption. The Pechora coal basin, the northernmost basin in the European USSR, has also been extensively developed, despite the severe climate, because of its proximity to markets and the high quality of its bituminous coking coals.

Nearly 75 percent of the Soviet Union's explored coal reserves is located east of the Ural Mountains—thousands of kilometers from the major industrial and population centers of the European USSR. In addition to the costly mineto-market transportation problems involved, the quality of many of these remote coal reserves is poor because of undesirable levels of ash, water, and sulfur.





Until plant at Krasnoyarsk is completed, continued acquisition of foreign-made automated surface mining equipment will be required for development of eastern coal reserves.

Billion metric tons

#### **Coal Resources**

	Geological Resources	Economically I	Economically Exploitable Reserves a			
	6,806	Probable/ Possible	Explored			
Fotal USSR	6,806	5,609	281			
Hard coal <sup>b</sup>	4,649	3,823	171			
Lignite	2,157	1,786	110			
European USSR (including Urals)	473	218	76			
Hard coal	.378	179	66			
Lignite	95	39	10			
Donets basin	141	108	56			
Moscow basin	16	NA	NA			
Pechora basin	265	61	NA			
Kazakhstan	170	121	25			
Hard coal	65	37	16			
Ligni e	105	84	9			
Ekibastuz basin	10	7	7			
Karaganda basin	45	25	NA			
Turgay basin	.51	48	6			
Central Asia	44	38	4			
Hard coal	37	33	1			
Lignite	7	5	3			
Siberia and Far East	6,119	5,232	176			
Hard coal	4,169	3,574	88			
Lignite	1,950	1,658	88			
rkutsk baan	77	33	7			
Kansk-Achinsk basin	6.38	484	75			
kuznetsk basin	637	548	66			
ena basin	1,647	1,539	4			
South Yakutia basin	44	40	4			
Funguska pasin	2,299	1,967	2			

With present technology <sup>6</sup> Includes anthracite and bituminous coal.

Source: Zupasy Uglev Stran Mira, Moscow, Nedra 1983, pp. 93-102

Among explored reserves in the eastern USSR, Kuznetsk and Kansk-Achinsk in Siberia are the two largest basins, but Ekibastuz and Karaganda in Kazakhstan also contain relatively small but productive reserves. Siberia's Kuznetsk basin, the Soviet's second-largest producer - after Donets--of both steam and coking coal, contains significant quantities of high-grade bituminous coal reserves with low ash and sulfur content. East of Kuznetsk and astride the Trans-Siberian Railroad, the Kansk-Achinsk basin contains huge lignite reserves. These coals, however, have a high moisture content and a low thermal energy content. Because the Kansk-Achinsk reserves are under shallow overburdens, they can be easily strip mined. The Soviets believe the Kansk-Achinsk deposit has the potential to become the USSR's largest coalproducing area by the year 2000.

Kazakhstan's coal reserves are concentrated in two basins, Ekibastuz and Karaganda. Although high in ash content, Ekibastuz subbituminous coal is an important source of steam coal for thermal power plants. Much of Karaganda's bituminous coal is used for coking.

In return for coking coal, Japan is helping the Soviet Union develop the smaller but higher quality and strippable reserves of the South Yakutia basin in Eastern Siberia. Exploitation of other large Siberian reserves will probably not begin in this century because of undeveloped rail transportation within the region and the inferior quality of the reserves. The huge Siberian coal-bearing areas of Lena and Tunguska basins represent unexplored reserves that will probably not be of commercial significance in the near future.

## **Production and Consumption**

Between 1950 and 1975 the Soviets were notably successful in raising coal production. Annual output normally increased by an average of 4 percent each year, and production had reached more than 700 million tons by 1975. From the mid-1970s into the early 1980s, however, the Soviet coal industry experienced a leveling off and, subsequently, an actual decline in coal production. The record 1978 coal output of 724 million tons slipped to 704 million tons in 1981, then rose again to 718 million tons in 1982, but fell back to 716 million tons in 1983.

With the notable exception of the Ekibastuz basin in northern Kazakhstan, coal production from all major Soviet basins has been stagnant or in decline during much of the past decade. Production in the Donets basin - the country's largest producer of high-quality steam and metallurgical grade coal-is declining despite repeated Soviet efforts to maintain output. Donets production dropped by 29 million tons from its record 1978 level to 196 million tons in 1983. Output also fell in the smaller basins near Moscow and in the Urals. Together, annual production in western coal basins fell by about 32 million tons between 1977 and 1983.

Soviet planners had not anticipated a decline in production from the older basins so soon. The 1976-80 plan called for production to increase at the Donets basin by 10 million tons and at the Kuznetsk basin by 25 million tons; scheduled production at the Moscow and Karaganda basins was to remain unchanged. The plan succeeded only at Karaganda. The Soviets clearly hoped that declines in aggregate production from the older coal basins could be forestalled at least until the late 1980s, when the new coal basins of the eastern USSR would begin produc-









### **USSR:** Coal Consumption, 1980<sup>a</sup>



Coal Production, by Basin

Million metric tons:

Basin	1950	1955	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1981	1982	1983	1985 b
Fotal	260	390	510	578	624	701	716	704	718	716	775
Western USSR	171	255	327	351	355	366	338	326	330	324	341
	95	141	188	206	217	223	204	198	200	196	210
Donets	31	40	43	41	36	34	25	22	23	21	20
Moscow		40	18	18	21	24	28	28	28	28	28
Pechora		47	59	62	54	45	44	43	44	44	45
Urals	33			24	27	40	37	35	35	35	38
Other	3	13	19					378	388	392	434
Eastern USSR	89	135	183	227	269	335	378				
Ekibastuz		2	6	14	23	46	67	68	70	72	84
Karaganda	16	25	26	31	38	46	48	49	49	49	50
Kuznetsk	38	58	84	96	113	138	144	144	148	147	154
Kansk-Achinsk	2	4	9	14	18	28	35	35	37	40	48
	-	•				0	3	3	4	4	12
South Yakutia							v	79	80	80	86
Other	33	46	58	72	77	77	81	- 19	80		

\* The eight largest coal basins account for more than 83 percent of

annual coal production in the Soviet Union. Two of these basins

Donets and Kuznetsk, produce nearly 48 percent of Soviet coal.

<sup>b</sup> Soviet five-year plan

tion. Moscow must now recognize that its planned 1985 output of 775 million tons is overly optimistic.

At least four major problems are hampering. Soviet coal production:

- Conditions in underground mines are deteriorating rapidly, mine depth is increasing, seam thickness is decreasing, and methane concentrations are rising, particularly in the Donets and Kuznetsk basins. These basins account for about 50 percent of total coal production and about 75 percent of coking coal output.
- Too little new capacity is coming on line to offset the stagnating or declining production in older coal basins.
- Shortages of labor and declines in productivity are becoming more acute, especially in the older coal basins in the western USSR.
- Deve opment of the large basins east of the Urals is constrained by the poor quality of some deposits, slow progress of research on coal preparation, lack of transportation capacity for movement of coal, and unresolved technical problems relating to long-distance transmission of electricity from mine-mouth power stations to areas of consumption.

Oil and natural gas have replaced coal in many applications in industry, transport, and the household-communal sector. Nonetheless, about 40 percent of annual coal production is burned in thermal power plants, compared with about 70 percent in the United States. Ferrous metallurgy accounts for about one-fifth of total consumption – roughly the same share as Western Europe – with other industrial users, exports, and the household-communal sector accounting for the remainder.

Moscow expects that coal's share of total Soviet energy consumption will continue to decline through the 1980s. After supplying about 70 percent of the fuel used in power plants in 1960, coal accounted for just more than 40 percent in 1980. Although coal-fired plants are being built to meet increased energy needs east of the Urals and Central Asia, there has been only a limited effort to convert oil-fired power plants to coal.



Much of the coal mined in South Yakutia's newly developed Neryungri deposit will be exported to the Far East.

USSR: Metall by Basin	Million metric tons						
Basin	1950	1955	1960	1965	1970	1975	980
Total	52.0	78.0	110.0	1,39,0	164.8	180.7	178
Donets	28.4	44.4	64.9	80.4	84.3	88.5	74
Kuznetsk	14.9	21.4	28.5	37.5	46.9	56.1	60
Karaganda	5.5	6.7	8.3	11.0	16.9	18.1	22
Pechora	0.2	0.9	3.8	5.2	12.1	14.1	18
Other	3.0	4.6	4.5	4.9	4.6	3.9	4

 Four of the eight major basins provide 98 percent of the metallurgical or coking coal mined.

### USSR: Selected Characteristics of Major Coal Deposits

Deposit	Type of Coal	Type of Mining	Thickness of Seam ( <i>meters</i> )	Average Depth of Mine ( <i>meters</i> )	Average Calorific Value ( <i>kilocalories/</i> <i>kilogram</i> )	Moisture Content ( <i>percent</i> )	Ash Content ( <i>percent</i> )
Denets	Anthracite, bituminous	Underground	0.9	602	6,056	6.5	19.2
Moscow	Lignite	Underground	2.5	135	2,528	32.3	35.5
Pechora	Bituminous	Underground	2.4	487	5,217	8.3	25.1
Ekibastuz	Subbituminous	Surface	10-40		4,028	7.7	50.0
Karaganda	Bituminous	Underground	2.5	418	5,139	7.5	28.8
Kuznetsk	Bituminous	Underground and surface	2.5	262	5,550	10.2	19,0
Kansk-Achinsk	Lignite	Surface	8.7	283	3,606	33.0	10.7

## Mining and Technology

The Soviet coal industry comprises nearly 900 mines located throughout the country. Although approximately 60 percent of annual coal output is currently mined underground, the Soviets expect most new production to come from large surface mines in the eastern regions, chiefly from Ekibastuz, Kuznetsk, Kansk-Achinsk, and South Yakutia.

Eighty-five percent of underground mining is done by mechanized longwall mining systems, as opposed to the room-and-pillar mining system most commonly used in the United States. Surface mining principally involves open pits with various kinds of excavators. Dipping coal seams in many of the shallow deposits, however, prevent widespread use of contour strip mining.

#### Mining Methods

To date, the Soviets have given little priority to reclamation and reforestation of lands that have been surface mined.

Although the level of mechanization is fairly high, Soviet coal-mining technology is generally less advanced than that in the West. This is especially true of surface-mining technology; for example, the largest domestically produced dragline buckets, trucks, and transporters are much smaller than their Western counterparts. For this reason, substantial amounts of surfacemining equipment must be imported, principally from East Germany. Although domestically produced coal excavating equipment is available, such as the surface mining machine plant being constructed at Krasnoyarsk, the Soviets still expect to import more advanced foreignmade equipment to process South Yakutia coal. According to the Soviets, mine conditions—dust suppression, drinking water, lighting, and underground transportation of miners—are poor. Although health and accident statistics are not published, the Soviet coal industry is known to have a mediocre mining safety record compared with that of the United States.

To mine coal from deep and diffuse deposits, the Soviets are experimenting with alternate fuel extraction and transport methods. At Belovo in the Kuznetsk basin and also in the Donets basin, for example, some coal is mined by hydraulic methods; a pipeline for transporting the resultant coal slurry from the Belovo mine some 250 kilometers to Novosibirsk is under construction.



The longwall mining system is the principal underground technique used in the Soviet Union.

In surface mining, the earth is exervated to uncover the coal seam. The overburden is dumped in a previously mined area. In open pitsurface mining, the overburden is piled beyond the actual mining area



Room-and-pillar mining technique seen at Donets basin mine.



The mechanized longwall mining system is the principal technique used in the Soviet Union.



Processing and shipping facilities above the Pechora underground Vorgashor coal mine, Komi ASSR.



A rotor excavator at the Ekibastuz coal basin.



P-1600 belt reloader being assembled at Ekibastuz.



Surface mining in Ekibastuz basin. The East German ERShRD-5000 powerful bucket-wheel excavator can remove 5,000 tons of coal per hour.

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## Transportation

The transport of coal from mining to consuming areas is a major problem for the Soviet Union. As coal reserves located near industrial centers in the western USSR have been increasingly depleted and the Soviets have been forced to go farther east to develop new reserves, the burden on the rail network has intensified. Coal is the leading freight item in terms of ton-kilometers on Soviet railroads; more than 95 percent of annual coal production is transported by rail.

Coal traffic is particularly heavy in West Siberia, northern Kazakhstan, and the Urals, as well as in parts of the Volga region and the Ukraine. In these regions much of the coal traffic must be channeled through a few already overburdened rail lines. The amount of coal shipped by rail from the Kuznetsk, Karaganda, and Ekibastuz basins to the Urals and beyond has more than doubled in the past decade to about 15 percent of total Soviet coal production. As a result, traffic slowdowns occur frequently, especially during late summer when harvested agricultural goods compete for space.

Crosshauling of fuels also adds to the burden of the railroads. Although large amounts of coal from the Kuznetsk basin in West Siberia are carried to power plants in the Ukraine, for example, coal from the Donets basin in the Ukraine is freighted to power plants in the Volga region, which is nominally within the Kuznetsk basin marketing zone. This is mainly a consequence of boiler design: the boilers in the



Various sizes and grades of coal are awaiting shipment to consumers at the Karaganda coal- yard, Kazakhstan.





A freight train transports South Yakutian coal southward to the Tynda–Station on the Baikal-Amur Mainline.

Conventional Coal Slurry Pipeline System



Ukraine plants that burn Kuznetsk coal were designed when similar coal was available from the Donets basin, which is now hard pressed to supply all of its former markets. To help reduce rail congestion, the Soviets plan to reequip some power plants at great cost to burn coal from closer sources. Crosshauling also occurs where coal preparation facilities are inadequate to process coal at minesites. Coal may be shipped long distances to processing plants, with associated rock and moisture adding unnecessary bulk and weight, and then shipped back to users.

Slurry pipeline transport is one of several mechanisms that Soviet engineers have proposed for movement of Siberian coal to thermal power plants in the Urals and European USSR. The Soviets have two less-than-15-kilometer slurry pipelines currently in operation in the Kuznetsk basin, and a 250-kilometer slurry pipeline from the Belovo mine in the Kuznetsk basin to Novosibirsk is reported to be under construction. Soviet transport officials, seeking to reduce the burden on the railroads, have called for increased efforts to find new sources of coal closer to consumers. In response, Soviet officials are planning to increase production from small coal deposits in the southern Urals and in Central Asia even though they have calculated that coal from Kuznetsk, for example, is cheaper to use in much of the European USSR than coal mined nearer by.

Ineflicient railroad operating practices also contribute to fuel supply problems. For example, some 20 million tons of coal—nearly 3 percent of annual production—are lost to the economy each year, owing to underloading railcars, excessively long loading and unloading times, lack of protective coverings, and spillage from poorly maintained wooden coal gondolas. The Soviets plan eventually to have an all-metal gondola fleet. The Soviets have particular problems dealing with coal mined in the Kansk-Achinsk fields. This coal tends to be highly pyrophoric and cannot be shipped long distances without significant risk of spontaneous combustion. Consequently, unless Kansk-Achinsk coal is processed, it must be burned in nearby furnaces and power plants.

Although Soviet transport officials stress the need to increase water transport of coal in regions of the European USSR where waterways parallel rail lines, barge transport on western rivers and canals accounts for only a small amount of coal traffic. Waterway transport, both river and coastal, is hampered by ice: virtually all waterways are frozen from three to nine months of the year. Moreover, most of the major rivers flow from south to north, which does not facilitate transport of coal from cast to west.

## **Uranium and Thorium**

The USSR has an ambitious and optimistic program for nuclear energy development. The Soviets plan to generate as much as 20 percent of their electricity from nuclear power by the year 1990 and up to 60 percent by the year 2000. Achievement of these ambitious goals will require large-scale exploitation of the nation's uranium and, to a much lesser extent, thorium resources.

Information on the Soviet uranium industry is a closely guarded state secret. Only limited data on uranium occurrences in the Soviet Union and minor details on reserves, mining, and processing operations have been published. However, according to Soviet geologic literature, almost every type of uranium deposit found elsewhere in the world has been found and exploited in the USSR. In addition, some of the uranium deposits described seem to have no Western counterparts. These include deposits associated with iron ores and albitites in Precambrian metamorphic rocks and those with phosphates in clays with detrital fishbones.

Uranium deposits in the Soviet Union are generally classified as either vein-type ores associated with metamorphic and intrusive-extrusive igneous rocks or hydrothermal deposits emplaced in sedimentary rocks. These two geologically distinct types, which seldom occur together, are

Postulated* USSR Total Yellowcake (U <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> ) Production for Nuclear Power						
Metrie 3,000	lons					
2,700						
2,400						
2,100						
1,800						
1,500						
1.200						
900						
600						
300						
0	1960	65	70	75	80	
" Western	estimates					

roughly of equal importance as a uranium resource.

Uranium exploration and mining methods in the Soviet Union are essentially the same as those applied in the West. Exploration methods include geologic, geophysical, geochemical, aerial radiometric, and magnetic surveys. Mining methods include:

- · Underground mining to recover high-grade, vein-type deposits at a depth of 200 meters or more.
- · Open pit methods applicable for low-grade ores dispersed near the surface in large areas.

**USSR: Uranium-Thorium Deposits** and Processing Centers

Deposit	Description
European USSR	
1-Sillamäe	Uranium-phosphate rare earth association in clays with detrital fishbones.
	Uranium mining and milling operations.
2-Zheltyye Vody Terny	Precambrian uranium-iron ore formation.
	Irregular stratiform albitized uranium bodies.
	Uranium in association with conglomerates. Uranium minerals include uraninite, pitchblende and nenadkevite.
	Uranium mining and milling.
3-Lermontov	Uranium-molybdenum associated with volcanic rocks.
	Mining and milling operations.
4-Chupa District	Uraniferous pegmatites in Precambrian gneisses.
	Uranium mineralization in paleovolcanic and intrusive rocks of Baltic shields.
5-Lake Onega	Uranium and vanadium mineral in association with black graphitic marine shales, peat, and asphaltite.
6-Lovozero Tundra	Thorium in phosphate and rare earths in syenite complex.
	Uranium with thorium minerals in alkalic rocks.

Urals	
7-Vishnevogorsk	Uranium mineralization in nepheline syenite intrusions.
8-Novogornyy	Uranium mineralization in nepheline syenite.

#### Kazakhstan and Central Asia

9-Aksuyek-Kiyakhty	Uranium mining.					
10-Koktas	Uranium associated with copper mining.					
11-Stepnogorsk	Possible in situ leaching of deep-seated uranium deposit.					
	Uranium extraction as part of the "Tselinnyy Mining Complex."					
12-Ak-Tyuz-Bordunskiy	Uranium, thorium, and rare earths associated with lead mining.					
13-Chigirik	Uranium milling and processing facilities.					
14-Granitogorsk	Uranium possibly associated with lead mining, milling, and concentration center.					
15-Min-Kush	Uranium mining and milling operations associated with lignite in 1960s.					
16-Tyuya-Muyun	Uranium-vanadium association in metamorphic limestone interlayered with volcanic tuffs and breccia.					
	Tyuyamuyunite, a uranium-vanadium mineral species that was named after this locality.					
17-Kyzyl-Dzhar	Uranium mining associated with gold production.					
18-Kadzhi-Say	Uranium associated with lignite mining.					
19-Taboshar	Uranium vanadium mining.					
	$U_sO_s$ extraction plant.					
20-Chkalovsk	Possible uranium extraction and hexafluoride conversion site for Taboshar mine ore.					
21-Sumsar	Possible uranium mining.					
22-Uchkuduk	Uranium associated with gold mining at Kokpatas gold mine.					
	Possible uranium extraction at Navoi Mining and Metallurgical Complex.					
	Ore genetically similar to South African deposits.					
23-Naugarzan	Uranium-fluorite mining. Ore milling at Chigirik.					
24-Charkesar	Site of former uranium mining.					
25-Chavlisay–Krasnogorskiy–Yangiabad	Site of uranium mining operation.					
26-Kara-Balta	Uranium processing center.					

Siberia	
27-Vikhorevka	Possible uranium-thorium mining of vein-type deposits in ultrametamorphic Archean rocks.
28-Krasnokamensk	Uranium-fluorspar association in Mesozoic volcanic basins.
29-Slyudyanka	Pegmatites-uranium and rare earths.
	Mining reported in 1958 from Precambrian crystalline limestone.
30-Aldan	Uranium, thorium, and rare earths associated with gold mining.







• In situ leaching techniques that use sulfuricacidified waters to exploit low-grade deposits that cannot be mined economically by open pit or underground methods.

As elsewhere in the world, uranium milling, leaching, and concentration processes in the Soviet Union are carried out in proximity of mining operations to facilitate the separation of relatively small quantities of U<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> from large volumes of ore. Information about Soviet uranium processing is even less available than that on the distribution and production of uranium. However, there are three distinct stages in processing:

- Extraction of U<sub>1</sub>O<sub>k</sub> at or near the mining site.
  Conversion of U<sub>1</sub>O<sub>k</sub> to uranium tetrafluoride (UF<sub>4</sub>) by reaction with fluoride.
- Reduction of UF<sub>a</sub> to metal for direct use in weapons or reactor fuel or for conversion to gaseous hexafluoride (UF<sub>a</sub>) to permit enrichment in the uranium-235 isotope.

Several alternatives to the gaseous diffusion method of uranium enrichment have received attention in the Soviet Union, including experimentation with photochemical technology using lasers.

## **Minor Fuel Resources**

Minor fuels oil shale, peat, and fuelwood contributed 2 percent of total Soviet primary energy production in 1983, down from 7.2 percent in 1960. With the relative abundance of major fuel resources, production and use of the minor fuels have been largely confined to those areas of the country without close-at-hand supplies of oil, natural gas, or coal. In these areas, the Soviets have often found it more economical to burn peat, wood, and oil extracted from shale in their power plants and furnaces than to transport major fuels from distant producing regions.

The development of tar sand deposits—from which oil can be extracted—is still in the experimental stage in the USSR. Thus far, the high costs of recovery, refining, and transportation make extensive exploitation of these sands uneconomical during this century.

### **Oil Shale**

The Soviet Union has substantial explored reserves of oil shale and leads the world in its exploitation as an energy source.<sup>1</sup> According to Soviet estimates, the total geological resources of oil shale in the USSR range from 190-220 billion tons. Of this amount, the Soviets believe 56 billion tons are economically recoverable using current technology. Thus far, however, only 6.5 billion tons of those reserves are in explored deposits.

The Estonian and Leningrad oil shale fields near the Baltic Sea, with 5 billion tons of explored shale reserves, yield about 97 percent of all Soviet production. In 1980 the Estonian field alone accounted for nearly 84 percent of the oil shale mined in the USSR. Currently, the only other commercial oil shale deposit is the Kashpirovka field near Syzran' on the Volga River.



Loading oil shale at Oktyabr' mine, Estonia.

In Estonia, oil shale has been used since the 1920s as fuel in various types of industrial furnaces and in locomotives. Today, approximately 70 percent of the shale produced in the USSR is burned directly as fuel in the furnaces of boiler units at power plants in Kiviðli, Tallinn, and near Narva. The two thermal power plants near Narva – the 1.610-MW Estonian State Regional Electric Power Plant (GRES) and 1.435-MW Baltic GRES – are the world's largest power plants that burn this fuel. Estonia,

<sup>4</sup> Oil shale is sedimentary rock rich in kerogen, a fossil organic substance that yields oil, gas, and tar when heated.

#### **USSR: Minor Fuels Production**





with more than 60 percent of its fuel demand supplied by shale, is the only republic of the USSR, and the only political entity in the world, where oil shale predominates in the fuel balance.

The USSR has an active and well-established industrial and technical base, with more than 50 years of experience, for mining, retorting, gasification, and direct combustion of Baltic oil shales. Virtually all current shale oil output is from 12 underground and four surface mines. Underground mining, using the room-and-pillar method, accounts for 60 percent of annual production. The nearly 30 percent of oil shale production not burned by combustion is processed at four sites located near the shale mines at Kohtla-Järve–Ahtme, Kiviõli, Slantsy, and Syzran'.

The Soviet Union uses two principal types of retorts to process raw shale: gas generators and solid heat carriers. The most significant methods are the Kiviter and Galoter processes. The Kiviter process produces shale oil, shale tars, and large quantities of heating gas (low-caloric gas) from lump shale. Until 1978 the largest gas generators could process about 400 tons of shale daily, but in that year a scaled-up Kiviter retort capable of processing 1,000 tons daily was installed near Kohtla-Järve-Ahtme at the V. I. Lenin Combine.

The Soviets refer to the Galoter process as the UTT process, and associated retort units (which have a unit maximum throughput capacity of 3,300 tons per day of Baltic oil shale) are referred to as UTT-3000 units. They first used the technique in 1980 in a pilot oil shale processing plant located adjacent to the Estonian Thermal Power Plant. The new UTT-3000 process uses solid heat retorts, and the temperature can be controlled to provide an optimum mix of oil, gas, and tars that are then either burned as fuel or further refined into numerous oil-based products. The Galoter process is the most advanced for industrial oil shale retorting in the USSR.

The Soviets also use some of the inorganic residual ash waste from the shale oil conversion process as building material and soil conditioner. Despite these beneficial uses, spent shale presents a serious disposal problem. Large areas in the shale regions of the USSR have been despoiled by shale strip mining and dumping of processing waste. Although some areas have been restored through grading and planting, revegetation of open pit mines and spent shale dump sites is difficult because of the high alkalinity of the soil.

## Tar Sands

The USSR has more than 30 billion tons of potential oil reserves that could be extracted from tar sands. The largest concentration of tar sand deposits occurs in northwest Yakut ASSR. The best known of these is the Olenek tar sand deposit near the Lena River. Because of their remote location, the Soviets do not anticipate exploiting the Olenek or other East Siberian tar sands in the near future.

Currently, the Soviets have limited experimental development of tar sands to deposits in the Volga, Pechora, Transcaucasus, and Central Asia regions. The only significant Soviet oil production from tar sands comes from the Yarega field near Ukhta in the Pechora basin of northern Komi ASSR. Here, the Soviets recover heavy oils and bitumen sands via "oil mining." The oil is located at depths of 200 to 400 meters and requires heating to be recovered from seams 2 to 5 meters thick. The resulting heavy oils are refined into specialty oils, greases, and lubricants.

### Peat

The USSR has about 60 percent of the world's peat resources. Soviet geologists estimate their peat reserves at about 150 billion tons, which includes 30- to 40-percent moisture content. Peat is distributed throughout much of the country, but only the reserves in the Baltic republics, the Moscow-Gor'kiy area, and Belorussia are intensely exploited at this time.

The Soviet Union is the world's largest producer of peat, both for fuel and agriculture. Current peat production in the USSR is about 230 million tons per year. About two-thirds of the peat produced is used in agriculture and by the chemical industry for the production of methanol and synthetic natural gas (SNG). Of the remaining peat, nearly 40 percent is burned in several major thermal power plants in European USSR, 10 to 15 percent is formed into briquettes for home heating, and the rest is used in industrial boilers and in large heating plants.

For many years, the use of peat as an energy source has been declining. Peat now accounts for only 0.4 percent of total energy supply. Recent Soviet studies on the future of the peat industry have concluded that the amount of peat used as fuel will continue to decrease because of insufficient reserves in the primary consuming areas and increasing demand in the agricultural sector.





Forests cover approximately one-third of the territory of the USSR. In 1983 the lumbering industry cut 356 million cubic meters of timber, of which about 23 percent was designated as fuelwood.<sup>2</sup> Production of fuelwood has been slowly decreasing in recent years, but wood still comprises up to 40 percent of the locally expended fuel in the northern forest regions and is also an important fuel in the central region. Overall, wood currently contributes slightly more than 1 percent of the national energy supply.

<sup>2</sup> These figures do not include fuelwood gathered by the populace. Occasional data indicate that the amount may nearly equal the fuelwood cut by the lumbering industry

Fuelwood is principally used in home heating or as feedstoek in the synfuel industry; it is rarely burned in power stations. The Soviets are able to produce automotive fuels and methanol from wood fibers and waste by using an acid hydrolysis process. This synthetic fuel is produced at a small demonstration plant near Krasnoyarsk, designated the SKR-10. The Soviets are increasing the volume of wood chips exported for use in producing synfuels and plan to construct industrial plants in Siberia that can convert 2 million tons per year of wood chips and waste into 40,000 tons per year of synfuel.

Forest

(cutting of filelwood widely distributed)

# **Electric Power**

Since 1920, when Lenin presented his dictum "Communism is Soviet power plus the electrification of the entire country," the Soviet Union has become a world leader in the generation of electric power. Virtually every settled area of the vast Soviet territory has now been electrified. But, even though the electric power base of the USSR has been growing rapidly for many years, much faster than the economy as a whole, there is still not enough electricity available to meet all Soviet industrial and communal needs.

Industry is the principal consumer of electric power. Its share of the total electricity consumption has been gradually decreasing, but still amounted to 65 percent in 1983. Compared with other countries, the transportation sector receives a relatively large share, 9 percent, and is maintaining that share as the electrification of railroads expands and the electric power requirements of oil and gas production and distribution systems increase. Plans call for the share of power allocated for household, municipal, and agricultural use to grow from 20.5 percent in 1980 to 22 percent in 1985. This should improve the power supply for domestic and communal uses, which has long been inadequate. Exports of electric power amount to only 1.7 percent of production.

Despite the rapid growth of the power industry, insufficient generating capacity in the European part of the USSR where industry and population are concentrated, leads to chronic power shortages. Provision of additional capacity is impeded by inadequate local fuel and hydropower resources and the costs and difficulty of transporting fuel from elsewhere. As the growth rate of the labor force declines, economic growth is becoming more and more dependent on electric power to help increase labor productivity.

To increase its electric power supply, the USSR is promoting rapid growth of nuclear power and pumped-storage hydroelectric power plants in the European part of the country while continuing to build major hydropower plants on large Siberian rivers and large thermal power plants in the coal-rich eastern regions. It is also attempting to improve efficiency by concentrating power production in large regional power plants and installing larger generators. To improve the distribution of power, the Soviet Union is in the process of integrating the regional power networks via ultra-high-voltage (UHV) transmission lines to form a national power system. And it is developing alternative energy technologies to meet local small-scale and supplementary needs.

## **Electric Power Administration**

The Soviet Ministry of Power and Electrification, in effect, controls more than 90 percent of the country's installed electric power capacity and output. The remaining generating plants are either under the administration of various other ministries, such as metallurgy, machine building, transportation, and agriculture, or assigned to local authorities or industries. Transmission, however, is controlled by the Ministry of Power

and Electrification. Like other energy ministries, the Ministry of Power and Electrification has an extensive array of subordinate enterprises and institutes, almost all of which are headquartered in Moscow.



The 6,400-MW Sayan-Shushenskoye Hydropower Dam across Yenisey River, East Siberia

## **Production and Consumption**

The Soviet Union is second only to the United States in the generation of electric power, although per capita production lags behind that of many industrialized countries. Power generation in the Soviet Union grew from less than 500 million kilowatt-hours (kWh) in 1920 to 1.42 trillion kWh in 1983 (about half the amount



#### **USSR: Electric Power Acronyms**

Power generation AES

AKES

ATETS

GeoTES

AST

DES GAES

GES

GRES

GTU

KES MHD

PES

PGU

SES

TETS Power transmission

AC CEMA

DC

FHV  $\mathbf{ES}$ 

ΗV

kν

LEP

MW

OES

**v**4

TEK

UHV

LEP-500

USSR YeES

GOFLRO

kW, kWh

GOSTANDART

MINENERGO

Like many American industries, the Soviet electric power industry uses acronyms for types of power plants and their components. Some of these acronyms have passed into general usage, and knowledge of them facilitates identification in Soviet publications.

Atomic/nuclear electric power plant

Atomic heat and electric power plant

Pumped-storage electric power plant

State regional electric power plant (thermal)

Geothermal electric power plant

Gas-turbine electric power plant

Hydroelectric power plant

Gas-turbine installation

State Committee for Standards

Long-distance transmission line

Consolidated regional power system

(1,150-kV AC and 1,500-kV DC)

Unified Power System of the Soviet Union

High voltage (35- to 220-kV AC)

State Plan for Electrification of the Soviet Union (1920)

Fuel and power complex (KATEK--Kansk-Achinsk Fuel and

Overhead transmission line (number indicates voltage)

Kilowatt, kilowatt-hours

Kilovolt

Megawatt

Overhead line

Power Complex)

Atomic heat supply plant

Diesel power plant

Atomic condensation electric power plant

Installed C	apacity o	f Electric	Power Plants			Thousand megawatts		
	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1983	1985 Plan	
Total	66.7	115.0	166.2	217.5	266.7	293.6	327.6	
Nuclear	NEGL	0.3	0.9	4.7	12.5	20.2	33.8	
Hydro	14.8	22.2	31.4	40.5	52.3	57.0	64.7	
Thermal	51.9	92.5	133.9	172.3	201.9	216.4	229.1	

Electricity Production Billion kilowatt-hours								
	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1983	1985 Plan	
Total	292.3	506.7	740.9	1,038.6	1,293.9	1,418.1	1,555	
Nuclear	NEGL	1.4	3.5	20.2	72.9	109.8	220	
Hydro	50.9	81.4	124.4	126.0	183.9	180.4	230	
Thermal	241.4	423.9	613.0	892.4	1,037.1	1,127.9	1,105	

Gas-turbine installation	Electricity C		41.0.0				Dilling Li		
Condensation electric power plant	Electricity Consumption						Billion kilowatt-hours		
Magnetohydrodynamic generators		1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1983	1985 Plan	
USSR Ministry of Power and Electrification									
Tidal electric power plant	Total	292.3	506.7	740.9	1,038.6	1,293.9	1,418.1	1,555	
Steam gas-turbine units	Industry (includ		361.3	503.4	678.0	799.2	NA	927	
Solar power plant	ing construction	)							
Heat and electric power plant	Transport	17.6	37.1	54.4	74.2	102.8	115.5	128	
Their and electric power plant	Communal and municipal	30.5	50.6	81.0	119.1	155.0	NA	190	
Alternating current	Agriculture	10.0	21.1	38.6	73.8	110.9	126.6	157	
Council for Mutual Economic Assistance	Exports	NEGL	1.5	5.2	11.3	19.1	23.9	25	
Direct current	Line losses	17.8	35.1	58.3	82.2	106.9	115.3	128	
Extra-high-voltage (330- to 750-kV AC and 800-kV DC)	Ente tosses	17.0		50.5	0212				
District power system									

#### Principal Industrial Consumers of Electric Power, 1980

Percent



generated in the United States). This growth was achieved through heavy investment in power plant construction: since 1960, for example, the electric power industry has been allocated about 10 percent of the total capital investment in industry.

The 11th Five-Year Plan called for the installation of 68,900 megawatts (MW) of new capacity between 1981 and 1985, which would permit power production to increase an average of 3.7 percent annually and reach 1,555 billion kWh in 1985. If production continues to grow at a 4percent annual rate, it would reach about 2,200 billion kWh in the mid-1990s, the level reached in the United States in 1976.

To increase generating capacity at the least cost, the Soviet Union is building fewer, but bigger power stations using larger, more efficient gencrating units. (Large power plants are generally more cost effective than small plants in both construction and operation.) The 6,000-MW Krasnoyask Hydroelectric Plant on the Yenisey River in Siberia is currently the largest hydroelectric power plant in the world, and the Savan-Shushenskove station, when the last two generating units are installed in 1985, will be even larger at 6,400 MW. The 4,000-MW Ekibastuz GRES-1 in Kazakhstan, which reached fully operational capacity in 1984, the 3,800-MW Reftinskiy Thermal Power Plant in the Urals, and the slightly smaller Zaporozh'ye and Uglegorsk plants in the Ukraine are among the largest thermal power plants in the world. Of the more than 900 major Soviet electric generating plants at the end of 1983, 57 were thermal power plants, 14 were hydroelectric power plants, and eight were nuclear power plants with capacities of 1,000 MW or more. These 79 large plants contributed about 163,000 MW, some 55 percent of the total Soviet power generating capacity.

The Soviet electric power industry is most developed in the European part of the country including the Urals. This region produces 72 percent of the national output of electricity. But 75 percent of the people and most of the industrial centers are located in the European USSR, and

demand for power exceeds supply during peak hours. Voltage drops and brownouts are common; moreover, demand is rising steadily. Although additional large power plants are needed to fulfill peak demand requirements, the hydroelectric potential of the European rivers has already been almost fully exploited.

East of the Ural Mountains there is a better balance between power generation and demand. Major thermal and hydroelectric power plants have been built where population and industry are concentrated, mainly along the Trans-Siberia Railroad and in the Kuznetsk basin of West Siberia. The abundant coal and hydroelectric resources permit strong growth of the electric power industry in the eastern regions; between 1980 and 1985 production was scheduled to increase by more than 40 percent in the east compared to 30 percent in the European area. Eventually, as electric power production in the eastern regions exceeds demand, the Soviets plan to transmit the surplus to the energy-short European areas via UHV transmission lines.

## **Thermal Power**

Thermal power plants have always been the backbone of the Soviet electric power industry. In 1983 fossil-fuel-burning plants accounted for three-fourths of total Soviet power plant capacity and generated 80 percent of total electric power output.

Thermal power plants in the Soviet Union are built according to standard designs prepared by the All-Union State Institute for Planning Thermal Electric Power Stations. The generating units in these plants commonly range from 50 to 800 MW in output capacity and are combined into assemblies comprising one boiler, one turbine, one generator, and one transformer. Since 1963, when the first 300-MW units were put into operation, nearly 400 of these units have been installed, making them the standard generating units of large thermal power stations. In the last decade, twelve 500-MW units, eight 800-MW units, and one 1,200-MW unit have gone into operation. In the future, the 500-MW and 800-MW units should become the standard generating units of large thermal power plants, while 200-MW and 300-MW units will continue to be installed in medium-size power plants.

In keeping with the Soviets' shift in policy to locate power generation facilities near fuel resources, four 4,000-MW plants, each with eight 500-MW generating units, have been planned for northeastern Kazakhstan, near the Ekibastuz subbituminous coal deposits. By late 1984, all eight 500-MW units for the first Ekibastuz thermal power plant had been installed. Construction of the three additional plants at Ekibastuz and the one at Chiganak, in southern Kazakhstan, is considerably behind schedule. A similarly large plant (with eight 800-MW units) near the Berezovskoye mine in the Kansk-Achinsk brown coal basin has also been delayed and the first unit is now scheduled for startup in 1985

State regional electric power plants (GRESs) provide central thermal power generation for large areas and for areas of high demand. At the beginning of 1983 there were 51 large GRESs with capacities of more than 1,000 MW; together they comprised almost half of the national thermal power generating capacity. Most of these large GRESs are located in European areas of the Soviet Union; among them are 12 in the Ukrainian Republic, seven in the Urals and six in the Central Moscow Power System. There are only 12 large GRESs in the eastern regions of the country—four in Central Asia, five in Siberia, and three in Kazakhstan.

The cogeneration of electric power and heat little practiced in Western countries—is common in the Soviet Union. At present there are more than 1,000 combination heat-and-power plants (TETs) in the USSR, all located in or near urban areas or at industrial plants. Besides electricity, they supply heat to residences and other indoor facilities and process steam to industrial enterprises. Even though less electricity is obtained per unit of fuel, cogeneration is a more efficient use of fuel than generation of electricity alone, because the heat of combustion is more fully exploited. At the end of 1983 the total electric power generating capacity of all TETs in the Soviet Union was about 75,000 MW or 35 percent of total thermal power plant capacity. The TETs produced about 375 billion kWh of electricity and 1,200.3 million gigacalories of heat, the latter fulfilling 40 percent of the heating requirements of the cities. There are 12 TETs in Moscow alone, with total capacities of 5,100 MW of electricity and 22,000 gigacalories of heat per hour. The TETs-23 in Moscow is the largest TETs in the country; it can simultaneously generate 1,400 MW of electricity and 2,140 gigacalories per hour. Throughout the Soviet Union about 17,000 kilometers of heating mains have been installed, 2,200 kilometers in Moscow alone.

The generation of electric power from internal combustion engines (for example, diesel generators) has been widespread in the Soviet Union, especially in remote areas, but this practice is decreasing because internal combustion power generation is inefficient and relatively costly. Instead, where feasible, transmission networks centered on GRESs are being extended to remote areas.



Construction of the 1,260-MW Mary Thermal Power Plant, Central Asia.



The 2,400-MW Lukoml' Thermal Power Plant, Belorussia.

### **Major Thermal Power Plants**



The average consumption of fuel at thermal power plants of the Ministry of Power and Electrification has been reduced through improved efficiency. This improvement in efficiency has been achieved through the replacement of many small, old generating units with fewer larger, modern units and the increased cogener-

ation of heat and electricity.

Coal has been the principal fuel used in thermal power plants in the USSR. In the early 1960s, however, a significant shift toward natural gas and fucl oil was initiated. At the time, these fuels were cheaper as well as cleaner than coal, and the cost of constructing a gas- or oil-fueled power plant was calculated to be significantly less than the cost of a coal-burning power plant. In the mid-1970s Soviet policies on fossil fuels changed again and coal again became the preferred fuel for Soviet power plants. Most new thermal power plants are gas or coal fired; very few oil burning plants are being built. To conserve ol, some oil-burning power plants in the Urals and Volga regions have been converted to burn gas piped from the large West Siberian gas deposits. Because of a tight coal supply, even some coal-fired plants are being converted partly to gas.

Because they are usually located in cities, most TETs will continue to burn oil and gas, which produce fewer pollutants than coal. Currently, the pri nary method of controlling atmospheric pollutants (mainly sulfur dioxide and ash) from thermal power plants is the use of very tall smokestacks which disperse the effluents into the higher layers of air.

#### **Installed Capacity of Thermal Power Plants**

Major coal reserve

Economic region boundary

Michaelan SSR is not Care or one - reduct

Thousand megawatts



## Operational (capacity in MW) Under construction (projected capacity in MW) 3.000 and above 2.000 to 3.000 1.000 to 2.000 Refer to some to 111111

Power plants



## Hydroelectric Power

### Resources

The Soviet Union has huge hydroelectric resources; only China has more. The Soviets have calculated that the economically exploitable portion of these resources has a potential generating capacity of 270,000 MW that could theoretically provide 1,095 billion kWh of electricity

USSR. The European share, however, is decreasing as large new hydropower plants are completed in the eastern regions. About twothirds of the 12,400 MW of new hydropower generating capacity planned for 1981-85 was to be installed in eastern regions of the country.

The more than 400 hydropower stations administered by the Ministry of Power and Electrification account for virtually all Soviet hydroelectric capacity. Among these stations, which range power production has been constrained by a shortage of rainfall, increased allocations of water for irrigation, and increasing reliance on hydropower to meet peak demand.

The USSR has started building pumped-storage hydropower plants to help meet the demand for power during peak periods. The first Soviet pumped-storage plant (225-MW capacity) is already in operation on the Dnepr River near Kiev. A 1,200-MW plant is being built at



annually. Only 20 percent of that potential capacity had been installed by the end of 1983. (In comparison, the United States had exploited 36 percent of its estimated 186,000 MW of potential capacity.) About 66 percent of the Soviet hydropower resources is located in Siberia and the Far East, 18 percent is located in the European part of the country, and 16 percent is located in Kazakhstan and Central Asia.

## **Hydroelectric Power Stations**

The Soviet Union has built some of the world's largest hydroelectric power stations and, in the mountainous regions of the Caucasus and Central Asia, some of its highest dams. At the end of 1983 the total installed capacity of Soviet hydroelectric power plants was 57,000 MW, about 20 percent of total national electricity generating capacity. In contrast to the distribution of resources, about half of the installed hydropower capacity is located in the European

in size from 6,000 to less than 5 MW, are 14 with capacities of 1,000 MW or more that by themselves account for more than 60 percent of total hydroelectric capacity.

Power output from Soviet hydroelectric plants amounted to 180.4 billion kWh in 1983, more than 14 times output in 1950. From 1950 to

of 12 percent, but since 1970 output of hydro-

total electric power output, but by 1983 that

hydroelectric share of total electric power out-

put is expected to remain stable for the rest of

**Power Production** 

the decade.

#### Schematic of a Conventional **Pump-Storage Facility**



storage plants have reversible turbines that generate hydroelectricity during peak hours and then use reserve power in the network to pump water back up into the reservoir at night

In recent years, the growth of Soviet hydro-

Zagorsk, near Moscow, and a 1,600-MW plant at Kaisiadorys, in Lithuania. Another facility under construction will be used in conjunction with the South Ukraine Nuclear Power Station near Konstantinovka, on the Yuzhnyy Bug River.

## Regional Summary of Hydropower Development

#### The European USSR

On many of the major rivers of the European USSR Volga, Kama, and Dnepr the Soviets have built hydroelectric dams in series to form cascades of large reservoirs, which, in addition to providing power, combine with canals to make deepwater river transport possible between tive seas. Although only 40 percent of the hydroelectric potential of the European part of the country has been exploited, most of the sites in the European area where new hydropower plants could be built are in northern regions and in the mountains of the Caucasus, far from the areas of high power consumption.

More than half of the economic hydropower potential in Soviet Europe is concentrated in the basins of the Volga, Dnepr, Kura, and Pechora Rivers. Exploitation of the Dnepr and the Volga began in the early 1930s. The Dnepr Cascade has been virtually completed; it has six hydroelectric power stations with a total capacity of 3,575 MW. The eight-station Volga Cascade is also nearly finished. The last station, the Cheboksary Hydropower Station, began generating power in late 1980. When all of its 18 units are installed, the eight stations will provide 8,617 MW of generating capacity. Cascades of hydropower stations have also been built in Karelia, near the Kola Peninsula in the north, and in the mountainous region of the Caucasus. The Sevan-Razdan Cascade in Armenia consists of six diversion-type power plants, with tunnels and penstocks bringing the water down to the generating stations.

Because many of the western rivers are flanked by valuable urban, industrial, or agricultural land that would be flooded by additional hydropower reservoirs, little future expansion is likely, compared to that planned in other parts of the country. Consequently, in 1985 only 40 percent of total hydroelectric power production is to be generated in the European USSR including the Urals, a drop from 54 percent in 1970.

#### Soviet Central Asia

Dams are especially important in the dry climate of Central Asia. Besides producing power for industrial development, they also provide water to irrigate the cottonfields and orchards.

In the Kirghiz and Tajik Republics several high dams have been built in difficult mountainous terrain; on the Vakhsh River in Tajikistan, the 2,700-MW Nurek power station is complete, and construction is under way on the 3,600-MW Rogun station; on the Naryn River in Kirgizia four hydroelectric stations are operating, the largest being the 1,200-MW Toktogul station. The total capacity of the hydroelectric power stations now under construction in the mountains of Central Asia will exceed 9,000 MW if all planned construction is completed.

### Siberia and the Soviet Far East

The Siberian regions contain two-thirds of the total USSR hydropower potential, but little of it had been tapped until recently. In the past 20 years, however, massive construction projects in this remote, environmentally inhospitable area have led to steady growth in hydropower output.

The Angara-Yenisey basin in castern Siberia alone contains one-fourth of the country's total hydroelectric resources, capable of producing more than 300 billion kWh of electricity annually. When completed in 1966, the 4,500-MW Bratsk station on the Angara River was the largest hydropower station in the world. Later, in 1971, the 6,000-MW Krasnoyarsk station on the Yenisey River achieved this distinction. An even larger hydroelectric power station, the Sayan-Shushenskoye Hydropower Station on the upper Yenisey River, with 6,400 MW, is to be completed in the mid-1980s. With the completion of other stations under construction or planned, the total capacity of the Angara-Yenisey Cascade could reach 46,700 MW by the end of the century.

Several large hydropower stations built on the Zeya and Bureya Rivers in the Soviet Far East are to provide power for new industry in the area, as well as for the eastern sector of the new Baikal-Amur Mainline (BAM) railroad.

In the far northern regions the Soviets have built hydropower plants in the permafrost zone, where special construction techniques are required because of the unique characteristics of the ground surface and the rigors of the environment. The first plant in this region was built on the Vilyuy River in the Yakut ASSR, where winter temperatures drop to -60 degrees Celsius. A 900-MW hydropower plant is being built in the far northeast on the Kolyma River. It will greatly increase the power available in Magadan Oblast, where more than 1,000 scattered diesel generating stations now provide most of the power.



Construction of 1,325-MW Inguri Hydropower Dam across Inguri River in the Caucasus Mountains, Georgian SSR.

## **Nuclear Power**

In 1954 the Soviet Union became the first country to use nuclear power to generate electricity for commercial purposes. The Soviets were subsequently slow to capitalize on their strong start and made little progress until the mid-1970s. Since then, however, the pace of nuclear development has picked up rapidly despite the chronic construction delays that plague virtually all Soviet projects. Based on the aggressive program Moscow now has on the books to expand existing plants and add new ones, most informed observers expect that strong growth should continue throughout this decade and into the early 1990s, even with continuing construction bottlenecks.

Untroubled by antinuclear protests and increasingly supported by a sizable industry dedicated to the manufacture of nuclear reactor components, the Soviets now have one of the most active nuclear power construction programs in the world. The 11th Five-Year Plan (1981-85) projected the addition of 24,000 to 25,000 megawatts of nuclear capacity and a production of 220 billion kWh of electricity in 1985. At the beginning of 1984, the USSR had 12 nuclear power stations with one or more operating reactors, combining for a total electrical generating capacity of 20,168 MW, and additional reactors were still under construction at six of these operating stations. Electricity generated at these stations accounted for 8 percent of total Soviet electricity output in 1983. Additionally, 11 new nuclear power stations and two district heat stations were under construction.

Except for Bilibino in northeastern Siberia, and the noncommercial plant at Shevchenko in Kazakhstan, the Soviet Union's installed and





Exterior view of 2,455-MW Novovoronezhskiy Atomic Power Station.

planned nuclear power capacity is concentrated in the European USSR. Soviet policy for locating nuclear power plants is aimed at concentrating facilities in the country's most heavily populated and industrialized regions, which are characterized by a deficiency of fossil fuels and other forms of power relative to more remote and less populated regions of the country.

All nuclear power stations in the Soviet Union, and most of the existing and planned stations in the neighboring CEMA countries, are built around Soviet-designed reactors that use uranium fuel slightly enriched in the isotope uranium-235 (U-235). The Soviets have designed two types of power reactors: the pressurized water reactor (PWR) and the graphite-moderated pressure-tube (boiling water) reactor (GMPTR). The pressurized water reactor, designated VVER, comes in two main models, the VVER-440, a 440-megawatt (electrical) model, and the VVER-1000, a 1,000-megawatt (electrical) model. Two smaller prototypes or early demonstration models, the VVER-210 and the VVER-365, are also in operation. The graphite reactors are designated as RBMK. Of these, the RBMK-1000 model is the largest operational; however, the RBMK-1500 a 1,500-megawatt model started up in late 1983 at Ignalina, Lithuania.

The Soviets are also continuing development of a third type – a liquid-metal, fast-breeder reactor (LMFBR). Only two major Soviet breeder reactors are currently in operation: a 350-megawatt prototype at Shevchenko, designated BN-350 and a 600-megawatt prototype at Beloyarskiy, designated BN-600. Several small, research fast breeder reactors are also in use. In addition to continuing emphasis on the expansion of domestic nuclear power generation, the USSR is committed to a joint venture with its CEMA partners in Europe to develop a unified nuclear power program. A total of 11 Soviet-designed, 440-megawatt, pressurized water reactors are already in operation in CEMAmember states, and many more are planned. A nuclear power station with two VVER-440s is currently operating in Finland. Construction has also begun on a Soviet-designed nuclear power station in Cuba.

Reactor being readied for startup at South

To meet its goals for domestic nuclear power

growth and, at the same time, honor its commit-

continuing to increase its capacity for manufac-

turing nuclear reactors, components, and equip-

ment. The recently expanded Izhorskiy Heavy

ments to CEMA partners, the Soviet Union is

Ukraine Nuclear Power Station.

Equipment Plant at Kolpino near Leningrad and the newly constructed Volgodonsk Heavy Machine Plant, known as Atommash, are two of the largest nuclear component fabrication plants in the world. The location of the much-publicized Atommash plant along the Don River allows shipment of large reactor units by barge to sites throughout European USSR. Czechoslovakia, using components manufactured there and by other CEMA countries, assembles the Sovietdesigned VVER-440 and has plans to produce the VVER-1000 reactors.

## **District Heat Systems**

The Soviets are constructing several nuclear stations whose function is to produce heat or both heat and electricity for homes and industries at nearby towns and cities. Two types of these facilities are currently under construction: the first type, designated AST, is a boiling water reactor. Through a three-loop thermal exchange process, heat generated by the reactor is transported into the town's district heating system. The Soviets are building stations of this type, each consisting of two reactors of 500 MW (thermal) at Gor'kiy and Voronezh. A second type, designated ATETs, is a modification of the existing VVER-1000 reactor. In this system, a portion of the steam, which is normally used to produce electricity in the turbines, is diverted and used as a heat source for the district heating system. Because of the high calorific content of the steam, it is possible to transmit heat 30 to 40 kilometers. Construction of stations of this second type has been started at Odessa and Minsk, and the Soviets have announced plans to construct others at Khar'kov and Volgograd.



Interior of the fourth RBMK-1000 power unit at the Leningrad Nuclear Power Station.

## **Power Transmission**

The USSR's unified power transmission system covers more area than any other power transmission system in the world. In 1983, 852,000 kilometers of high-voltage transmission lines interconnected more than 90 percent of the country's generating capacity. The basic units of the USSR's electricity transmission system are the 95 regional power networks called energos. Formed of 110- and 220-kV AC transmission lines, each network supplies power to a single administrative region (oblast, kray) or industrial region. Over the years most of these regional networks have been linked by 220-kV and 500-kV lines to form 11 consolidated regional power systems (OES). A merger of the regional systems began in the mid-1950s and is complete except for the independently operated consolidated systems of Central Asia and the Far East. These two isolated power systems are to be connected to the national network—known as the Unified Power System of the Soviet Union (USSR YeES)—by the end of the 12th Five-Year Plan (1986-90). The USSR YeES is also linked to the power systems of many neighboring countries: CEMA countries, Finland, Norway, and Turkey.

The integration of the OES into the USSR YeES has increased the flexibility of Soviet power supply; power can now be transferred between the linked systems, albeit at present only in small amounts. For example, only a 500-MW load can be transmitted from Siberia to Kazakhstan. The Soviets hope, however, eventually to be able to transmit large blocks of electricity—40 billion kWh and more—from the eastern regions, where energy resources are cheap and plentiful, to the power-hungry, but resource-poor European USSR. The transmission of so much power over so long a distance is unprecedented, in fact infeasible, until ultrahigh-voltage (UHV) power transmission is perfected.

In general, the higher the voltage a transmission line can accept, the greater its capacity and efficiency and the farther it may be extended. Higher voltage transmission permits exploitation of hydropower resources far from



More than 800,000 kilometers of high-voltage transmission lines interconnect more than 90 percent of Soviet generating capacity.



A helicopter is used to erect 500-kV AC transmission towers in the Caucasus Mountains.

Selected Types of Towers for Extra-High (EHV) and Ultrahigh-Voltage (UHV) Transmission



consuming centers and of deposits of brown coal whose ca orific value is too low to justify shipping it long distances. Spurred by such considerations, the Soviet Union has become a world leader in the development of UHV power transmission technology.

In the realm of UHV power transmission, Soviet engineers are proceeding on two fronts. They are continuing to develop UHV AC transmission but are a so working on UHV DC transmission.

The USSR has announced that an experimental 1,150-kV AC powerline under construction in northern Kazakhstan will originate at the Ekibastuz-1 GRES and terminate at Chelyabinsk in the Urals. The first 600-km segment to Kokchetav was to be energized at 500 kV in late 1984. A 600-km castward extension from the Ekibastuz-1 GRES to Barnaul in Siberia, and later to Novokuznetsk, is also under construction. Not only will the line greatly strengthen the tie between the Unified Power Systems of Siberia and north Kazakhstan, it will also tie in the major industrial cities in the Urals, to which it will carry power generated by the many new thermal power plants now in various phases of planning and construction in the Kansk-Achinsk and Ekibastuz coal basins.

Ultra-high-voltage DC transmission can move power over very long distances with lower line losses than AC transmission. Soviet development of DC transmission began in 1956 with the construction of an experimental 800-kV DC line between the Donets basin in the Ukraine and the Volgograd Hydropower Station some 473 kilometers away; it began operating in 1962. This line, which carries 750 MW, linked the OES of the Center and the South regions. The experience gleaned from this 800-kV DC line led the Soviets to begin construction in early 1980 of a 1,500-kV DC line from Ekibastuz to Tambov, south of Moscow, a distance of 2,400 kilometers. But work on this line ceased in 1981 when the entire UHV effort shifted to the 1,150-kV AC system.

Electrification of rural areas in the USSR has grown rapidly in the last two decades as a result of the vast expansion of the countrywide power transmission capacity and the consolidation and centralization of local power generation. In the early 1960s small local power stations supplied nearly 50 percent of the power used in the countryside. Since then most of these stations have been dismantled, and state power grids now supply most of the electricity consumed in rural areas. To carry the increased amount of centrally produced power, the rural transmission network has quadrupled in length since 1960. More than 92 percent of this network consists of small distribution lines of 20 kV or less: the remainder are 35-kV, 110-kV, and 220-kV main lines.

The rapid growth in rural electric power was designed to improve the efficiency of agriculture through mechanization and to raise the standard of living in the countryside, where powerlines now reach most farms.



Workmen installing 1,150-kV AC transmission lines between Kazakhstan and the Urals.



Svalbard (Norway)

## **Power Plants and Transmission Lines**





**United States** 



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## Power for Remote Areas

Economic activity in the Soviet Union is concentrated mainly in the European part of the country and along narrow bands of relatively well-developed territory flanking major transportation routes such as the Trans-Siberian Railroad. These areas comprise far less than half of the total Soviet landmass. Enormous areas in the European north, in Siberia and the Soviet Far East, and in Kazakhstan and Soviet Central Asia are lightly populated and unserved by rail or powerline, hence undeveloped, although they contain vast quantities of natural resources needed for continued Soviet economic growth. From desert to steppe to taiga to tundra, exploitation of these resources requires electric power. Transmission lines have been extended from core areas to some major natural resource processing centers, but often this is not feasible—usually because of the sheer distance involved—and the needed power must be generated locally. Only 3 percent of all power produced in the country is generated in areas beyond the reach of regional power grids, but an estimated 5 million Soviet citizens depend on it.

When the demand justifies it, large power plants are built in isolated areas. Noril'sk, for example, with its population of 183,000 and its important copper, nickel, and platinum mining industries, is supported by three sizable power plants: two are thermal plants with a combined capacity of 825 MW fueled by natural gas from the Messoyakha field and the other is the nearby 441-MW Khantayka Hydropower Plant at Snezhnogorsk. The city of Yakutsk (population 175,000) in the heart of the Soviet Far East has a 165-MW power plant fueled from nearby gasfields. The 648-MW Vilyuy Hydroelectric Power Station at Chernyshevskiy supplies power to diamond-mining areas in the north and Mirnyy and Lensk (a Lena River port) in the south.

For isolated and remote areas of the Soviet Union where power requirements are small, electric power is generated by diesel-powered generators (DES) and to a lesser extent by gasturbine generators (GTU). The Soviets have developed a full line of these, ranging from small units such as a 20-kV diesel generator made at the Kursk Mobile Unit plant for use by



Vilyuy Hydroelectric Power Station in Eastern Siberia's Yakut ASSR is one of the northernmost in the USSR.

shepherds, to 12-MW units that can be grouped to supply power to entire towns. However, the current emphasis is to replace, where possible, these inefficient, relatively expensive portable generators with the more efficient transmission networks centered on large regional power plants.

Where conditions permit, power stations may be mounted on trucks, trains, or ships. Mobile generating units mounted on railway cars have been used for many industrial construction projects in remote areas. A power train supported the construction of the Bratsk Hydropower Station, for example. A 24-MW power train incorporating two diesel-fueled gas-turbine generators was used at tunnel construction sites on the Baikal-Amur Mainline (BAM) railroad. An automated 500-kW diesel station mounted in a truck-drawn van was developed particularly for use by the builders of the BAM.

The responsibility for development and production of small, transportable power plants was centralized in 1947 with the formation of the State All-Union Production Trust for Mobile Power Plants. Besides development and production, the Trust is also responsible for maintenance and repair. The Trust is mandated to develop generating units that are even more economical, efficient, mobile, and rugged; some current models can operate at temperatures as high as 45 degrees and as low as -60 degrees Celsius.

During the 1970s, five floating gas-turbine (GTU) power stations, designated Severnoye Siyaniye (Northern Lights), were built at the Tyumen' Shipyard to seagoing specifications. These ship stations lack their own propulsion systems and have to be towed to the remote sites where they are used to generate electricity for industries, construction sites, mining, and petroleum exploitation. Each of the first three power ships had two 10-MW oil-fueled gas-turbine generators, while the fourth and fifth ships were equipped with two 12-MW gas-fueled generators. Subsequent power ships in this series are to have 48-MW generating capacities.

The development of electric power in the mining area (gold and other heavy metals) near the mouth of the Kolyma River illustrates the various ways in which power may be supplied to an isolated place. That very remote region on the Arctic Ocean in the Soviet Far East is served only by air and by the seasonal Soviet Northern Sea Route; neither roads nor rails connect it with other parts of the country, and the nearest regional power grid is more than 2,000 kilometers away. To supply power for the expansion of gold mining, a small, coal-fired thermal power plant at the port of Pevek was initially augmented by some diesel generators and a power train (delivered by ship). Then in 1970 Severnoye Siyaniye-1 arrived at the port of Zelenyy Mys on the lower Kolyma River. The floating power station provided more power for mining but also supported construction of the 48-MW nuclear TETs at Bilibino, which went into operation in 1973.

To free power consumers in remote areas from dependence on fuel supply, alternative energy sources are receiving attention. A 2-kW winddriven power unit that can be carried by packhorse has been developed for prospectors, shepherds, and mountain farmers. Solar power units have also been developed for such users. A modular nuclear power station specifically designed for use in remote areas is probably now in the testing stage. Its 15-ton modules are air transportable. Its reactor, which supplies steam to a 1.5-MW turbine generator, can operate five years on a single fueling of slightly enriched uranium.



The Severnoye Siyaniye (Northern Lights) floating power station is one of five built at the Tyumen' Shipyard.



Neryungri Thermal Power Plant in the Yakut ASSR is being fueled by Neryungri coal.



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# **Alternative Energy Sources and Technologies**

Spurred by the spiraling costs of fuel production and transport, as well as the depletion of easily accessible fuel reserves, the Soviet Union is devoting increased attention to the exploitation of alternative energy sources and advanced energy technologies. Energy planners have long viewed the conversion of Siberian brown coal into synfuel derivatives as a major potential source of supplemental fuel. Various other methods of obtaining heat, electricity, and mechanical power from solar, wind, tidal, and geothermal energy are under study, as are vehicular engines that can burn liquefied gas, hydrogen, or alcohol. Magnetohydrodynamic (MHD) devices, which would greatly improve the fuel efficiency of conventional thermal power plants, are in the pilot-plant stage of development. Nuclear fusion is also under investigation as a potential source of a virtually limitless supply of electricity. The Soviets, nonetheless, continue to view most alternative energy sources as too speculative and costly to justify major development efforts. Funding in these areas is still sufficient only for limited and selected technological investigation, construction of prototype equipment and pilot plants, and gradual introduction of small-scale applications. Even if given a strong push now, none of these energy sources would probably contribute significantly to the Soviet energy balance before the end of the century.

#### USSR: Alternative and Advanced Energy Applications-A Speculative Sampler

Time Frame	Application	Energy Source	Device				
Current to near Building and greenhouse heating, term (0 to water heating, crop drying		Low-temperature geothermal heat, solar radiation	Heat exchangers, absorption devices				
10 years)	Water pumping	Low-velocity wind	Windmills				
		Solar radiation	Solar steam engines				
	Cooking	Solar radiation	Solar cookstoves				
	Water desalination	Solar radiation	Solar evaporators				
	Smelting	Solar radiation	Solar furnaces				
	Electricity (KW)	Solar radiation	Photovoltaic devices				
	Electricity (MW)	Medium-temperature goethermal heat, solar radiation	Heat exchangers, solar concentrators driving binary-cycle generators				
		High-velocity wind	Wind turbine generators				
Medium term	Vehicular propulsion	Hydrogen, LNG, alcohol	New types of engines				
(10 to 20	Electricity (hundreds of MW)	Fossil fuels, especially coal	Magnetohydrodynamic (MHD) generators				
years)	(feasibility to be demonstrated)	High-temperature geothermal heat, solar radiation	Heat exchangers, solar concentrators driving steam turbines				
Long term (be-	Electricity (hundreds of MW)	Deuterium (isotope of hydrogen obtained from water)	Thermonuclear fusion reactors driving steam turbines				
yond 20 years)	(feasibility to be demonstrated)	Ocean tides	Hydroelectric generators				

## **Coal-Based Synfuels**

The large and well-known disparities between the USSR's eastern energy resources and the fuel requirements for industrial development of the European USSR have caused the Soviets to focus increased attention on the brown coal (lignite) reserves of Siberia. Soviet scientists, engineers, and economists have devoted particular attention over the past 10 to 15 years to developing an economical technique to convert the brown coal reserves of Central Siberia's Kansk-Achinsk basin into better quality and more easily transportable liquid and solid fuels.

Kansk-Achinsk brown coal is an attractive source of energy for the European USSR if processing and transportation methods can be developed. This coal is readily extracted through low-cost, open-pit mining; however, its high moisture content (35 percent), low-heating value (3,300 kilocalories per kilogram), and variable physical and chemical characteristics render its direct shipment to power plants in European USSR highly uneconomical. Kansk-Achinsk brown coal also subject to spontaneous combustion in storage and transit and tends to freeze together in cold weather, making it difficult to handle.

Although commercial production of coal-derived fuels is difficult to justify economically, the Soviets still regard coal conversion as a promising potential means of exploiting their vast Central Siberian brown coal reserves. This is evidenced by Moscow's recent appointment of a coordinator for synfuels development and the construction of a demonstration facility for the pyrolysis of coal and a pilot plant for direct liquefaction.



In 1976 the Soviets began construction of a high-speed pyrolysis demonstration plant at Krasnoyarsk in the Kansk-Achinsk basin. The stated objective of this plant is to extract semicoke (similar to charcoal), synthetic oil, and hydrocarbon gases from lignite.

Reportedly, the completion of the Krasnoyarsk demonstration plant has been delayed, and the Soviets are now showing increased interest in a number of other synfuel technologies. Most recently the Soviets announced construction of two developmental coal liquefaction facilities, one near the Belkovskava lignite mine in the Moscow coal basin and a second at the Berezovskoye mine in the Kansk-Achinsk basin. The Belkovskaya pilot plant-based on the Soviet version of World War II, German standard direct liquefaction coal hydrogenation technology-is designed to produce 18 barrels of oil per day; the Berezovskoye pilot plant is reportedly designed for about 550 barrels per day. The Soviets are also seeking access to additional Western coal-conversion technology.

In the 1930s the USSR became the first country in the world to develop a successful program for converting underground coal into gas. Since then, however, their progress on underground coal gasification has been slow. Only two of the half-dozen pilot plants operating in the early 1960s remain in use. The much-publicized pilot underground coal gasification plant near Angren, southeast of Tashkent, and another plant at Yuzhno-Abinsk have yet to operate at an economical level. In spite of the apparent decline of interest in underground coal gasification, the Soviets are continuing to study economic ways to apply this and other techniques to exploit deep-lying coal deposits.

## Solar Energy

The USSR is developing solar energy for a wide variety of small-scale uses, such as heating and desalinating water, heating and cooling buildings, cook ng food, and powering small steam engines, water pumps, and electric generators to serve consumers scattered throughout rural areas in the southern USSR. In these applications, the sun's radiant energy is used to heat water or air.

In addition, the Soviets are working on the conversion of solar energy to electricity using the photovoltaic effect, in which an electric current is generated between two tightly joined, dissimilar materials when they are exposed to light. Applying research that produced power cells for spacecraft, the Soviets are also developing small photovoltaic devices for more mundane uses for example, to prevent corrosion of pipelines and to power navigation beacons. Reportedly, their largest photovoltaic device is a 500-watt motor.

Solar research is coordinated by the State Committee for Science and Technology and by the USSR Academy of Sciences. Research and testing arc done primarily in institutes in the areas of the USSR south of the 50 degrees N latitude, where the technologies will be most used.

In 1979, at Bikrova, a suburb of Ashkhabad in Soviet Central Asia, the Turkmen SSR Academy of Sciences created the Solar Energy Institute (SOLNTSE), which is said to be the first in the country. A research and production corporation for solar energy equipment, SOLNTSE, is to develop devices to meet small-scale energy needs in desert areas.

The Uzbek SSR is the only republic reported to have officially directed that solar equipment be installed in some public buildings. In 1980 the Uzbek city of Chirchik claimed to have the nation's first residential building using solar energy to supply its hot water and heat. A small factory at Bukhara in the republic is the only known industrial producer of solar equipment in the USSR.



Transforming solar energy into thermal and electric power is studied by workers at the Uzbek SSR Academy of Sciences.



A solar evergy experiment to grow chlorella (a type of alga), near — Ashkhabad, Turkmen SSR.



Solar power station at Bikrova, Turkmen SSR.



In the European USSR the Ukrainian Academy of Sciences is the primary agency for solar energy development. Several of its institutes are working on solar heating and cooling systems, and a research and testing center for such systems has been established at the Crimean resort eity of Alushta on the Black Sea. Cooperating in this work are the USSR State Committee for Civil Construction and Architecture and the Solar Power Engineering Laboratory of the Krzhizhanovskiy Power Engineering Institute (ENIN) in Moscow. And, continuing the longstanding Soviet use of solar furnaces to study high-temperature processes, the Ukrainian Academy has also established a solar furnace facility at Katsiveli in the Crimea to produce pure metal alloys.

As for the large-scale production of solar electric power, the Soviets are still largely in the conceptual and planning stage. They claim to have designed a practical solar boiler and hope to complete a 5-MW solar power test facility by 1986 at Mysovoye, near Lenino in the Crimea. This facility is to have 1,600 heliostats—movable mirrors—each 5 meters square. The heliostats will focus the sun's rays on a boiler atop a tower 100 meters high to produce steam to drive an electric power generator.



Engineers adjust solar thermoelectric generator at Turkmen Academy of Sciences research center.

A much larger (300-MW) solar power station has been designed for the same site, but its cost will make it economically uncompetitive with conventional power plants for a very long time. Soviet energy planners estimate that by century's end large solar power plants will come closest to being competitive in the Crimea and in the lower Volga region but will still not match costs in conventional plants. In the meantime, the Krzhizhanovskiy Institute has worked out an engineering concept that combines solar energy with a conventional fuel such as gas. The initial stage of such a project might involve 300 MW, using a 100-MW solar unit when solar energy is available and a 200-MW, gas-burning unit the rest of the time. Talimardzhan in the Uzbek SSR has been selected as a tentative site for the project.

## Wind Energy

Windpower has long been extensively exploited on farms in the USSR. Indeed, the Soviets claim that 250,000 windmills were in use in the rural areas of prerevolutionary Russia. Today, tens of thousands of homemade windmills are still used in the steppe regions, mainly to pump water. In the arid southern portions of the country and the remote regions of the north, windmills serve as alternative or auxiliary sources of mechanical and electrical power in areas beyond the reach of regional power grids.

Despite widespread recognition of the practical utility of the windmill, uncoordinated research on windpowered devices in laboratories of the agricultural, aeronautical, and electrical equipment ministries has produced few significant technical advances to date. One flurry of governmental interest just after World War II resulted in the production of some 40,000 wind engines, which were used with great effectiveness on farms. By the early 1970s, however, fewer than 9,000 of these were still in operation. Then in 1975 a national corporation named Tsiklon (cyclone) was created under the Ministry of Land Reclamation and Water Resources; its mission is to develop and introduce windpowered devices into the Soviet economy. Although the market for such items has been estimated to be at least 150,000 units, the 1976-80 Five-Year Plan called for an output of only 10,000 units, and by 1980 only 4,500 had been produced.

Most Soviet windpowered devices, whether of the propeller or vertical axis type, are small (15 to 20 kW). A 100-kW wind engine, however, was installed near Yalta in 1931; a 12-element, 400-kW auxiliary power plant was built in Kazakhstan in the 1950s; and, more recently, a 10-element, 400-kW power unit has been installed in Arkhangel'sk Oblast.

Reportedly, Tsiklon engineers have developed a series of windpowered, electricity-generating systems with capacities ranging from 1 to 100 kW. Series production of a 6-kW windpowered generator is under way, and other units with capacities up to 100 kW are in the test stage. The largest units are designed to supply power to small villages on the steppes of Kazakhstan and in the Far North, regions where sustained winds of 6 to 10 meters per second are common. The feasibility of developing still more powerful

units with output capacities of 1 to 5 MW is being studied.

Because wind is only an intermittent energy source, windpowered generators must be integrated with other forms of generating equipment, such as diesel generators. Tsiklon is beginning to design such packages, but none is yet in serial production.

Tsiklon operates development and test facilities at Istra, near Moscow, and at Novorossiysk, a new national test center in the mountains on the Black Sea coast. The Novorossiysk area was chosen because of the frequent occurrence of a very strong local wind known as *bora*. Tsiklondeveloped windpower pumps are also being tested by a wind engineering laboratory at the Kishinev Polytechnic Institute in Moldavia.

## **Tidal Power**

France, China, and the Soviet Union are the only nations now generating electricity from ocean tides. In 1968, with the help of French technology, the Soviets completed a 400-kW pilot tidal power station at Guba Kislaya on the Barents Sea, which feeds into the Kola electric grid. Although the amount of power generated by this initial effort is meager. Soviet engineers, operating under the auspices of the Ministry of Power and Electrification, believe that the potential of tides as a source of energy is great.

No additional construction has been commissioned, but some 20 sites have been identified where exploitation of tidal energy may be feasible, if not yet economically practicable. A number of the proposed installations are huge, such as a 10,000-MW tidal power station in Mezenskaya Guba that would involve building a dam 96 kilometers long. Even this project which if constructed would be the world's largest and most expensive hydropower installation--would be dwarfed by the most ambitious of these schemes, a 100,000-MW tidal power station in Penzhinskaya Guba. By comparison, a relatively modest 300-MW tidal power station in Lumboyskiy Zaliv would contain 24 encapsulated hydrogenerators in two dams totaling 2.8 kilometers in length, making it a rather expensive way to obtain 300 MW of capacity. It is doubtful that the Soviets will build any major tidal power stations soon.





Kislaya Guba tidal power station on the Kola Peninsula.



Another view of the Kislaya Guba tidal power station.

**Geothermal Extraction Methods** 

## **Geothermal Energy**

Even though the Soviet Union may have the largest undeveloped geothermal resources in the world, its geothermal research and development program lags similar programs in the United States, Japan, New Zealand, and Italy. According to some current Soviet estimates, hot rock and magma from which heat energy above 100 degrees Celsius could be recovered---lie as close to the surface as 3,000 to 4,000 meters in almost half the territory of the Soviet Union. and hot water at lower temperatures can be found in more than one-fifth of the country. More than 50 sites where Large geothermal resources could be developed have already been identified. Nevertheless, because of high developmental costs, the Soviets currently plan to exploit geothermal resources only in especially suitable areas lacking fossil fuel resources and in some remote regions.

The main use of geothermal energy will be to provide industrial and municipal heat and hot water. Geothermal hot water is already being





used to heat homes, greenhouses, and industrial buildings and to process raw wool; it is being exploited in spas and sanatoriums; and it is being injected into oil reservoirs to enhance oil recovery. Such applications have been developed in Kamehatka, the Kuril Islands, Georgia, and the North Caucasus. In Siberia, water at 70 to 100 degrees Celsius will be used to prevent freezing in placer mining operations, opening the way for year-round mining.

The only currently functioning geothermal electric power plant using steam in the Soviet Union is at Pauzhetka on the Kamchatka Peninsula. This industrial pilot plant, which exploits a deposit of saturated steam, has a rated output of 5 MW but because of its poor condition had been operating intermittently at 3.5 MW. In mid-1981 the Soviets announced that a new borehole drilled to tap additional steam will increase the station's rated capacity to 11 MW. A 750-kW experimental power plant using a binary-cycle generating system was installed in 1968 near Paratunka, also in Kamchatka. The freon-driven turbine system used geothermal water at 80 degrees Celsius as its heat source. Although operations at the plant ceased in 1975, apparently because the Soviets were unable to cope with the high salt content of the geothermal water, steam wells still supply heat to an adjacent greenhouse farm called Termal'nyy.

Both of these power plants were built to exploit existing deposits of geothermal steam or hot water. The Soviets estimate that such deposits in Kamchatka could eventually produce as much as 600 MW. But, they estimate further, the development of artificial circulation systems in the hot rock deposits of Kamchatka could produce another 3,000 MW. This would involve using underground explosions or hydraulic pressure to create fracture zones between water injection and extraction wells drilled to depths of 3,000 to 6,000 meters, where temperatures could reach 600 degrees Celsius.

Studies of the feasibility of using the energy of magma and hot rock to produce electricity have been done at several sites: in Kamchatka at the Avachinskaya and Mutnovskaya volcanoes, in the North Caucasus near Stavropol', and in the Carpathian Mountains near Mukachevo.

The only large-scale project now under consideration is a 200-MW installation at Mutnovskaya volcano in Kamchatka. Other ongoing geothermal projects include the development of small power plants at Kayasula (near Neftekumsk) and in Dagestan, a region where hot springs are common and where thermal waters have long been used for heating buildings. In the same region the Soviets plan to establish an Institute of Geothermal Power, which will study practical problems of building geothermal power plants.

## Magnetohydrodynamic Power

The magnetohydrodynamics (MHD) process of converting thermal energy of conductor fluids directly into electricity is potentially more efficient than conventional thermal power generation in which thermal energy is converted first into mechanical energy and then into electricity. During the past 25 years, scientists in many countries have tried to design and build an economically practical MHD generator that would use the partially ionized gas produced by burning fossil fuels as the conducting fluid. This objective proved unexpectedly difficult, however, and by 1970 MHD research in France, Great Britain, West Germany, and other countries had ceased because of the projected increased costs of oil, gas, and coal. MHD research continues, nevertheless, in countries that expect to have continuing access to large supplies of coal such as Japan, Poland, the United States, and-particularly-the Soviet Union.

The USSR presently has one of the world's largest and most advanced MHD research programs. Soviet scientists are currently operating two pilot MHD power plants, the U-02 and the U-25. The former is a 75-kW generator, built in 1964 at the Academy of Sciences Institute of High Temperatures in Moscow. It is used to test materials and components later incorporated into the U-25, built in 1971 at the same institute. Both generators burned natural gas, a clean fuel that minimizes fouling. Because it is cheaper, more abundant, and produces a more conductive gas than other fossil fuels, however, coal will eventually be the primary fuel in MHD facilities, should current difficulties in converting coal to a clean gas be overcome. The U-02 has already been converted to burn coal so that the effects of slag on generator performance may be investigated. Eventually, the U-25 could also be converted to burn coal.

The United States and the Soviet Union worked closely during the 1970s on a major cooperative MHD experimental program using the Soviet facility and several US components. As part of the joint program, a second natural-gas-fired MHD generator called the U-25B was built at the U-25 facility. It incorporated a US-made superconducting magnet and was used to evaluate problems associated with the use of such high-field magnets. (Magnetic fields of the strength that will be required in commercial MHD power plants can only be produced by superconducting magnets.)

The results of these investigations will help guide the design of the U-500, a large, naturalgas-fired commercial-demonstration facility. The plant design combines MHD with a conventional steam power plant now being built in Ryazan' jointly by the Institute of High Temperatures and the Ministry of Power and Electrification Like all future MHD power plants, it will be a hybrid facility in which a conventional power generator exploits the substantial thermal energy remaining in the conducting fluid after it has passed through an MHD generating system. Scheduled for completion in 1985, the U-500 is to combine a 250-MW MHD generating system with a 250-MW combination gas-turbine/ steam-turbine generating system to achieve a total output capacity of 500 MW. If successful, plans are to construct several larger (1,000 MW) natural-gas-fired plants in other cities.

After the current studies on coal-fired MHD technology have been completed, a 500- to 1,000-MW, coal-fired demonstration plant is to be built. If successful, the plant could serve as the prototype for large numbers of such plants to be built throughout the country. In mid-1983 the Soviets announced that a 25-MW MHD generator was under construction at Estonia's Kohtla-Järve thermal power station. Reportedly, the purpose is to test the best method to adapt MHD technology to burning oil shale at high temperatures.

According to Soviet scientists, MHD topping systems could result in energy conversion efficiencies approaching 60 percent in power plants producing only electricity and 90 percent in cogeneration plants (TETs), compared with the approximately 40 percent achievable now in steam-turbine systems. Their preliminary calculations suggest that incorporating an MHD topping cycle would add only 10 or 15 percent to the cost of building a conventional thermal power plant. Some observers, however, feel that the Soviets have underestimated the difficulty and costs of overcoming the many remaining technical obstacles as well as the likely efficiency of MHD power generation.



MHD generator at the USSR Academy of Sciences Institute of High – Temperatures, Moscow,



US-made MHD superconducting magnet at the Soviet Academy of Sciences Institute of High Temperatures.

## **Thermonuclear Fusion**

The sun is so hot and dense that the matter inside it exists as a plasma of extremely rapidly moving atomic nuclei and electrons. When collisions among these nuclei are violent enough to overcome their mutual electrical repulsion, they fuse and give off highly energetic nuclear particles. Such "thermonuclear" reactions are the source of the huge energies emitted by the sun.

The awesome amounts of energy released by thermonuclear devices have attracted the interest of scientists seeking new sources of energy to generate electricity. If thermonuclear reactions could be harnessed to produce heat energy at a steady and appreciable rate in a controlled manner, fusion power plants could provide electricity virtually forever, because a prospective fuel deuterium, an isotope of hydrogen-is in nearly inexhaustible supply. Advanced fusion research programs are under way in Western Europe, Japan, China, the United States, and the Soviet Union. Enormous technological difficulties, however, stand in the way of the economic exploitation of controlled thermonuclear reactions.

Many of the early advances in fusion research were made in the USSR; lately, however, the Soviet program has lost momentum and much of its high-level support, probably owing to the high costs associated with making further advances, coupled with the realization that the payoff, if any, is not likely to occur before the next century. Today's Soviet program, managed jointly by the Academy of Sciences and the State Committee for the Utilization of Atomic Energy, is generally less vigorous than the US program.

The essential problem in developing controlled fusion is to confine a plasma at about 100 million degrees Celsius for an extended period. Two general techniques of confinement are being pursued: *magnetic* confinement, in which a plasma is concentrated and isolated by magnetic fields; and *inertial* confinement, in which a fuel pellet is violently compressed, creating a plasma that is momentarily held together by the inertia of its inward-moving particles.

The most advanced magnetic confinement system is the *Tokamak*, a toroidal (doughnutshaped) device invented in the USSR. Numerous Tokamaks have been built throughout the world. The Soviet Tokamaks, the T-7 and T-10, are soon to be succeeded by a larger one, the T-15. An experimental Tokamak of a size suitable for use in a thermonuclear power plant, however, would have to be much larger still.

Fusion power, if developed, will probably be used in hybrid units. Fusion produces a lot of



Experimental Soviet Tokamak, T-10.

high-energy neutrons; if these were used to breed fuel for nuclear-fission power plants, part of the cost of constructing fusion power plants could be borne by the fission power industry. Some Soviet energy engineers believe that a nuclear-fuel breeding system could be incorporated into a commercial fusion power plant around the turn of the century.

### **Measurement Conversion Factors**

To Convert From US Measure	To Soviet Measure	Multiply by:	To Convert From Soviet Measure	To US Measure	Multiply by:
Inches	Millimeters	25.4	Millimeters	Inches	0.03937
Feet	Meters	0.3048	Meters	Feet	3.28084
Miles (statute)	Kilometers	1.609344	Kilometers	Miles (statute)	0.621371
Pounds	Kilograms	0.453592	Kilograms	Pounds	2.154623
Tons (short)	Tons (metric)	0.907185	Tons (metric)	Tons (short)	1.102311
Barrels of oil	Tons of oil	0.136986	Tons of oil	Barrels of oil	7.3
Cubic feet	Cubic meters	0.028317	Cubic meters	Cubic feet	35.314667
Barrels of oil per day	Tons of oil per year	50	Tons of oil per year	Barrels of oil per day	0.02
Barrels per day oil equivalent	Tons coal equivalent (standard fuel) per year	71.5	Tons coal equivalent (standard fuel) per year	Barrels per day oil equivalent	0.014
Btu per pound	Kilocalories per kilogram	1.8	Kilocalories per kilogram	Btu per pound	0.555556

### Ultimate Recoverable Oil and Gas Reserves

The classification of Soviet oil and gas fields by size is based upon official USSR sources and Western estimates of ultimate recoverable reserves. Although the terms "supergiant" and "giant" are commonly used to quantify large oil and gas fields, there are no internationally accepted definitions of field sizes.

Supergiant fields			Giant fields					
Oil (- • 5 billion barrels)			Oil (500 million to 5 billion barrels	s)		Gas (3 to 10 trillion cubic feet)		
Field name	Region	Date of Discovery	Field name	Region	Date of Discovery	Field name	Region	Date of Discovery
Arlan	Volga-Urals	1955	Agan	West Siberia	1966	Achak	Central Asia	1966
Fedorovo	West Siberia	1971	Barsa-Gel'mes	Central Asia	1962	Arkticheskiy	West Siberia	1968
Kotur-Tepe	Central Asia	1956	Bavly	Volga-Urals	1946	Gazli	Central Asia	1956
Romashkino	Volga-Urals	1948	Kholmogory	West Siberia	1973	Gubkin	West Siberia	1965
Samotlor	West Siberia	1966	Mamontovo	West Siberia	1965	Gugurtli	Central Asia	1965
Gas ( > 10 trillion cubic feet)			Megion	West Siberia	1961	Kandym	Central Asia	1966
			Mukhanovo	Volga-Urals	1945	Kirpichli	Central Asia	1972
Bovanenko	West Siberia	1971	Nebit-Dag	Central Asia	1934	Komsomol	West Siberia	1966
Kharasavey	West Siberia	1974	Neftyanyye Kamni	Transcaucasus	1949	Layavozh	Timan-Pechora	1971
Medvezh've	West Siberia	1967	Novoyelkhovo	Volga-Urais	1955	Naip	Central Asia	1970
Shatlyk	Central Asia	1968	Ostrov Bulla	Transcaucasus	1959	Nakhodka	West Siberia	1974
Sovetabad	Central Asia	1974	Pokachi	West Siberia	1970	Neyto	West Siberia	1975
Urengoy	West Siberia	1966	Pravdinsk	West Siberia	1964	Novyy Port	West Siberia	1964
Yamburg	West Siberia	1969	Samgori	Transcaucasus	1974	Nyda	West Siberia	1972
Zapolyarnove	West Siberia	1965	Severnyy Pokur	West Siberia	1964	Orenburg	Volga-Urals	1966
			Severo-Var'yegan	West Siberia	1971	Pelyatka	West Siberia	1969
			Shkapovo	Volga-Urals	1953	Pestsovyy	West Siberia	1974
			Sovetskoye	West Siberia	1962	Russkaya	West Siberia	1968
			Tuymazy	Volga-Urals	1937	Sakar	Central Asia	1966
			Usinsk	Timan-Pechora	1963	Samantepe	Central Asia	1964
			Ust'-Balyk	West Siberia	1961	Semakov	West Siberia	1971
			Uzen'	North Caspian	1961	Severo-Komsomol	West Siberia	1969
			Var`yegan	West Siberia	1970	Severo-Urengoy	West Siberia	1970
			Vata	West Siberia	1961	Solenaya	West Siberia	1969
			Vat"yegan	West Siberia	1971	Sredneyamal	West Siberia	1972
			Vozey	Timan-Pechora	1972	Urtabulak	Central Asia	1963
			Yuzhno-Sukhokumskoye	North Caucasus	1963	Vuktyi	Timan-Pechora	1964
			Zhetybay	North Caspian	1960	Vyngapur	West Siberia	1968
						Yamsovey	West Siberia	1970
						Yetypur	West Siberia	1971
						Yubileynyy	West Siberia	1969
						Yuzhno-Russkaya	West Siberia	1969
						Yuzhno-Tambey	West Siberia	1974
						Zapadno-Tarkosale	West Siberia	1972

### Petroleum Refineries, 1 January 1984

Economic Region	Refinery Name	Economic Region	Refinery Name	Economic Region	Refinery Name
Baltic	Mažeikiai	North Caucasus (continued)	Groznyy No. 2	Urals (continued)	Perm'
Northwest	Kirishi		Groznyy No. 3		Salavat
Northern	Ukhta		Krasnodar		Ufa Novo Chernikovsk
Belorussia	Mozyr		Tuapse		Ufa Novo Ufimskiy
	Novopolotsk	Transcaucasus	Baku No. 2		Ufa Staro Ufimskiy
Central	Konstantinovskiv		Baku Waterfront Group	Kazakhstan	Chimkent (under construction)
	Moskva (Moscow) Lyubertsy		Batumi		Gur'yev
	Ryazan'	Volga	Nizhnekamsk		Pavlodar
	Yaroslavl		Novokuybyshevsk Lend Lease 3	Central Asia	Fergana
Ukraine	Drogobych No. 1		Novokuybyshevsk No. 2		Khamza
	Drogobych No. 2		Saratov		Krasnovodsk
	Kherson		Syzran'		Neftezavodsk (under construction)
	Kremenchug		Volgograd	West Siberia	Omsk
	Lisichansk	Volga-Vyatka	Gor'kiy 26 Bakinskikh	East Siberia	Achinsk
	L'vov		Gor'kiy (Kstovo)		Angarsk
	Nadvornaya	Urals	Ishimbay	Far East	Khabarovsk
	Odessa		Orsk		Komsomol'sk
North Caucasus	Groznyy Group		Orsk 421		

Operational						Under Construction	
Feonomic Region	Plant Name	Gross Installed Capacity (MW)	Economic Region	Plant Name	Gross Installed Capacity (MW)	Economic Region	Plant Name
Baltic	l ithuanian	1,800		Nevinnomyssk	1,380	Ukraine	Zuyevka *
	Estonia	1,610		Krasnodar Heat and	1,105	Transcaucasus	Azerbaijan -
	Baltic	1,435		Power		Urals	Perm'
Northwest	Kirishi	2,120	Transcaucasus	Tbilisi	1,280	Kazakhstan	Ekibastuz-2
Belorussia	Lukomi'	2,400		Razdan	1,210		South Kazakhstan
Central	Kostroma	3,600		Ali-Bayramly	1,100		(Chiganak)
	Ryazan'	2,800	Volga	Zainsk	2,400	Central Asia	Novo-Angren 4
	Konakovo	2,400		Lower Kama-1 Heat	1,100		Talimardzhan
	Kashira	2,000		and Power		West Siberia	Surgut-2
	Cherepet	1,500	Urals	Reftinskiy	3,800		Urengoy
	TETS-23 Mosenergo Heat	1,400		Troitsk	2,500	East Siberia	Berëzovskoye-1
	and Power			Iriklinskiy	2,400		Gusinoozërsk 4
	1FTs-22 Mosenergo Heat and Power	1,250		Karmanovo Verkhniy Tagil	1,800		Kharanor
	IFTs-21 Mosenergo Heat	1.180		Sredneural'sk	1,198		
	and Power	11100		Yuzhno-Ural'sk	1,000		
	Shatura	1,020	Kazakhstan	Ekibastuz-1	3,500		
l krame	Zaporozh'ye	3,600	<b>Harak</b> internet	Yermak	2,400		
	t glegorsk	3,600		Dzhambul	1,230		
	Krivoy Rog-2	3,000	Central Asia	Syrdar'ya	3,000		
	Burshtyn	2,400	c chirar Asia	Tashkent	1,950		
	Zmiyev (Gotval'd)	2,400		Mary	1,260		
	Pridneprovsk	2,400		Navoi	1,250		
	Voroshilovgrad	2,300	West Siberia	Surgut-1	3,345		
	Starobeshevo	2,300	west stocha	Tom'-Usa	1,300		
	Slavyansk	2,100		Belovo	1,300		
	Ladyzhin	1,800	East Siberia				
	Eripol'ye	1,800	cast Siberia	Krasnoyarsk-2 Nazarovo	1,340		
	Kurakhovo	1,460			1,300		
Moldavia	Moldavian	2,480		Irkutsk-10 Heat and Power	1,160		
North Caucasu -	Novocherkassk	2,400		Kransnoyarsk Heat and	1,115		
	Stavropol	2,100		Power			
Currently operating at	a capacity under 1.000 MW.						

## Thermal Power Plants 1,000 MW or Larger, 1 January 1984

## Hydroelectric Power Stations 1,000 MW or Larger, 1 January 1984

Operational				Under Construction		
Station Name	Installed Capacity (MB)	River	Economic Region	Station Name	River	Economic Region
Kransnovarsk	6,000	Yenisey	East Siberia	Boguchany	Angara	East Siberia
Bratsk	4,500	Angara	East Siberia	Bureya	Bureya	Far East
Savan Shushen: kove	1,840	Yenisey	East Siberia	Cheboksary *	Volga	Volga-Vyatka
(expansion under way)				Kaišiadorys (pump storage)	Neman, Strèva	Baltic
Ust' Himsk	3,840	Angara	East Siberia	Rogun	Vakhsh	Central Asia
Nurek	2,700	Vakhsh	Central Asia	Shul'ba	Irtysh	Kazakhstan
Volga at Volgograd	2,541	Volga	Volga	Zagorsk (pump storage)	Kun'ya	Central
Volga at Tol'ya ti Zhigulevsk	2,300	Volga	Volga			
Dhepr at Zapor izh'ye	1.538	Dnepr	Ukraine			
Satatov	1,360	Volga	Volga			
Inguri	1,325	Inguri	Transcaucasus			
Zeva	1.290	Zeya	Far East			
Toktoguľ	1,200	Naryn	Central Asia			
Lower Kama	1,092	Kama	Volga			
Chirkey	1,075	Sulak	North Caucasus			
Votkinsk	1,010	Kama	Urals			
Currently operating at a capa	city under 1,000 MW.					

#### Nuclear Power Stations, 1 January 1984

Operational						Under Construction
Station Name	Gross Installed Capacity (MW)	Date of First Operation	Туре	<b>Operating Reactors</b>	Soviet Designation	Station Name
Leningrad	4,000	1973	GMPTR	4	RBMK-1000	Balakovo
Chernobyl	4,000	1977	GMPTR	4	RBMK-1000	Bashkir
Kursk	1,000	1976	ĠMPTR	3	RBMK-1000	Crimean
Novovoronezliskiv	2,455	1964	PWR	1	VVER-210	Gor'kiy AST
			PWR	1	VVER-365	Kalinin (started up in 1984)
			PWR	2	VVER-440	Khmel'nitskiy
			PWR	1	VVER-1000	Kostroma
lgnalina	1,500 *	1983	GMPTR	1	RBMK-1500 a	Minsk ATETs
Kola	1,320	1973	PWR	3	VVER-440	Odessa ATETs
Smolensk	1,000	1982	GMPTR	1	RBMK-1000	Rostov
South Ukraine	1,000	1983	PWR	1	VVER-1000	Tatar
Royno	880	1979	PWR	2	VVER-440	Voronezh AST
Armenian	815 h	1976	PWR	2	VVER-440 b	Zaporozhye (started up in 1984)
Beloyarskiy	900	1964	GMPTR	1	RBMK-100	
			GMPTR	1	RBMK-200	
			1.MFBR	1	BN-600	
Bilibino ATETS	48	1974	GMPTR	4		
lotal	20,168					
generator was operatio <sup>6</sup> The two VVFR 440 ( <sup>6</sup> Does not include expe	vresents full nameplate capa mal at the beginning of 1986 reactors are operating at 40 rimental development react nd the Shevchenko AES, wh	4. 5 and 410 MW. ors, such as Obninsk and D	imitrovgrad,			

### **Gazetteer and Index**

This gazetteer and index includes names in the Soviet Union and some hydrographic and physiographic features in nearby areas.

The spelling of geographic names is in accordance with decisions of the US Board on Geographic Names (BGN). Some physiographic names and textual references to administrative divisions, however, have been simplified, and abbreviations have been used for some administrative generic terms.

Names of oil and gas fields, other than major fields, and other energy-related facilities are not normally ruled on by BGN. Their spellings are based on prevailing usage in the industry and source material. Fields producing both oil and gas are classified and named according to their production of major importance.

Coordinates for regions or areal features are given near their centers or midpoints, and streams at their mouths or lower ends.

Abbre	viations	
ло	Avtonomnay	a Oblast'
AOk	Avtonomnyy	Okrug
ASSR	Avtonomnay	a Sovetskaya Sotsialisticheskaya Respublika
SSR	Sovetskaya S	sotsialisticheskaya Respublika
Glossa	ıry	
		as generic parts of names in this atlas. The meaning gazetteer on the Soviet Union.
gory		mountains, mountain range
guba		bay
kanal		canal, channel, distributary
khrebet		mountains, mountain range, ridge
kryazh		ridge, hill, mountains
more		sea, sound
nagor'ye		upland, plateau, mountain range
nizmenno	st`	plain, lowland
ostrov(a)		island(s)
ozero		lake
peski		desert, sands
plato		plateau, upland
poluostrov		peninsula, spit
proliv		strait
sopka		volcano, mountaín, mound, hill
stolovaya	strana	plateau
uvaly		hills
vodokhrar	nilishche	reservoir
vozvyshen	nost'	hills, upland, plateau
zaliv		gulf, bay, inlet, lagoon
zemlya		land, island(s)

admd	administrative division	rdge	ridge
bay	bay	reg	region
can	canal	resv	reservoir
coal	coal basin/deposit	rr	railread
dst	desert	sea	sea
gasf	gasfield	stm	stream
gulf	gulf	strt	strait
hlls	hills	tars	tar sands deposit
hydp	hydroelectric power station	thep	thermal power plant
iron	iron ore deposit	upld	upland
isl(s)	island(s)	u/t	uranium/thorium de
lake	lake		and processing center
mts	mountains, mountain range	vole	volcano
nucp	nuclear power station		
oilf	oilfield		
oils	oil shale deposit/field		
pen	peninsula		
petr	petroleum refinery		
pipe	oil/gas pipeline		
plat	plateau		
pin	plain		
ppl	populated place		

#### Simplified Names

orium deposit ing center

Simplified	BGN
Alay Mountains	Alayskiy Khrebet
Aldan Upland Betpak-Dala Desert	Aldanskoye Nago Betpak-Dala
Buzachi Peninsula Byrranga Mountains	Poluostrov Buzac Gory Byrranga
Caspian Lowland	Prikaspiyskaya N
Central Range Cherskiy Range	Sredinnyy Khreb Khrebet Chersko
Chukotsk Upland Chukotsk Peninsula	Chukotskoye Nag Chukotskiy Poluc
Jucpi Lowand	Pridneprovskaya
Ozhugdzhur Range Tydan Peninsula	Khrebet Dzhugdz Gydanskiy Poluos
Karakum Desert Kazakh Upland	Peski Karakumy Kazakhskiy Melk
Kolyma Lowland Kolyma Mountains	Kolymskaya Nizr
Kolyma Mountains Koryak Mountains	Kolymskoye Nag Koryakskoye Nag
Cyzylkum Desert	
.ake Balkhash .ena Plateau	Ozero Balkhash Prilenskoye Plato
Mangyshlak Peninsula Muyunkum Desert	Poluostrov Mang Peski Muyunkum
North Siberian Lowland	Severo-Sibirskaya
Northern Hills Dka-Don Plain	Severnyye Uvaly Oksko-Donskaya
šikhote-Alin' Range	Sikhote-Alin' Stanovoye Nagor
stanovoy Range	Stanovoy Khrebe
Faymyr Peninsula Faz Peninsula	Poluostrov Taym; Tazovskiy Poluos
Fiman Ridge	
Furan Lowland Furgay Plateau	Turanskaya Nizn Turgayskaya Stol
opper Kama Upland	Verkhnekamskay Plato Ustyurt
Verkhoyansk Range	Verkhoyanskiy K
Volga Upland Yablonovyy Range	Privolzhskaya Vo Yablonovyy Khre
Yamal Peninsula	Yablonovyy Khre Poluostrov Yama
Oblast-Level Administrative Di	
Simplified	BGN
Abkhaz ASSR	Abkhazskaya Av Sotsialisticheskay
Adygey AO Adzhar ASSR	Adygeyskaya Avi Adzharskaya Avi
	Sotsialisticheskay
Aginskiy Buryat AOk Aktyubinsk Oblast	Aginskiy Buryats Aktyubinskaya O
Alma-Ata Oblast	Alma-Atinskaya
Altay Kray	Altayskiy Kray Amurskaya Obla
Andizhan Oblast	Andizhanskaya C
Arkhangel'sk Oblast Ashkhabad Oblast	Arkhangel'skaya Ashkhabadskaya
Astrakhan' Oblast Bashkir ASSR	Astrakhanskaya ( Bashkirskaya Avi
	Sotsialisticheskaya Belgorodskaya O
Belgorod Oblast	Brestskaya Oblas
Bryansk Oblast Bukhara Oblast	Bryanskaya Obla Bukharskaya Obl
Buryat ASSR	Buryatskaya Avte
hardzhou Oblast	Sotsialisticheskay Chardzhouskaya
hechen-Ingush ASSR	Checheno-Ingush Sovetskaya Sotsia
helyabinsk Oblast	. Chelyabinskaya (
Therkassy Oblast Thernigov Oblast	. Cherkasskaya Ob Chernigovskaya O
hernigov Oblast hernovtsy Oblast himkent Oblast	Chernigovskaya C Chernovitskaya C Chimkentskaya C
Thita Oblast Thukotsk AOk	Chitinskaya Obla
Thukotsk AOk Thuvash ASSR	Chukotskiy Avtor Chuvashskaya Av
	Sotsialisticheskay
Dagestan ASSR	Dagestanskaya A Sotsialisticheskay
Diepropetrovsk Oblast Donetsk Oblast	Dnepropetrovskay
Jonetsk Oblast Jzhambul Oblast	Dzhambulskaya Obla Dzhambulskaya O Dzhezkazganskay Dzhizakskaya Ob
Dzhezkazgan Oblast Dzhizak Oblast	<ul> <li>Dzhezkazganskay</li> <li>Dzhizakskava Ob</li> </ul>
SVCNK AUK	Evenklyskly Avto
ergana Oblast	Ferganskaya Obl Gomel'skaya Obl
iomel' Oblast ior'kiy Oblast	Gomel'skaya Obl Gor'kovskaya Ob Gorno-Altayskay
iorno-Altay AO iorno-Badakhshan AO	Gorno-Badakhsha
irodno Oblast	Oblast' Grodnenskaya O
rkutsk Oblast ssyk-Kul' Oblast	Irkutskaya Oblas Issyk-Kul'skaya Oblas
vano-Frankovsk Oblast	Ivano-Frankovska
vanovo Oblast Kabardin-Balkar ASSR	Irkutskaya Oblas Issyk-Kul'skaya Oblas Issyk-Kul'skaya ( Ivano-Frankovska Ivanovskaya Obla Kabardino-Balka
Calinin Oblast	Sovetskaya Sotsia Kalininskaya Obl
Kaliningrad Oblast	Kaliningradskaya
Calmyk ASSR	Kalmytskaya Avt Sotsialisticheskay
Kaluga Oblast Kamebatka Oblast	Kaluzhskava Obl
Kamchatka Oblast Karachay-Cherkes AO	Kamchatskaya O Karachayevo-Che
Karaganda Oblast	Oblast' Karagandinskaya
Karakalpak ASSR	Karakalpakskaya
Karelian ASSR	Sovetskaya Sotsia Karel'skaya Avto
	Sotsialisticheskay
Kemerovo Oblast	Kashkadar'inskay Kemerovskaya Ol
Khabarovsk Kray	Khabarovskiy Kra Khakasskaya Avt
Khakas AO	Khakasskava Aut

or'ye hi izmennost gor`ye ostrov Nizmennost zhur strov kosopochnik mennost' gor'ye gor'ye yshla) a Nizmennost Nizmennost . trov nennost nennost Iovaya Strana /a Vozvyshennost hrebet ozvyshennost ebet vtonomnaya Sovetskaya ya Respublika vtonomnaya Oblast' tonomnaya Sovetskaya ya Respublika skiy Avtonomnyy Okrug Oblast' )blast' Oblast' Oblast Oblast onomnava Sovetskava a Respublika blast' ast onomnava Sovetskava a Respublika Oblast' skaya Avtonomnaya ilisticheskaya Respublika Severo-Ossetin ASSR Oblast` last Oblast' Oblast Oblast nomnyy Okrug vtonomnaya Sovetskaya ya Respublika vvtonomnaya Sovetskaya a Respublika ya Oblast st' Oblast' a Oblast olast` nomnyy Okrug ast' ast' a Avtonomnaya Oblast anskaya Avtonomnaya blast last` oblast' Oblast' aya Oblast' ist rskaya Avtonomnaya ilisticheskaya Respublika lisue ast 4 Oblast tonomnaya Sovetskaya ya Respublika erkesskaya Avtonomnaya Oblast Avtonomnava Avtononinaya ilisticheskaya Respublika nomnaya Sovetskaya 'a Respublika 'a Oblast' blast' ay .onomnyy Oblast`

Khanty-Mansi AOk Khar'kov Oblast Kherson Oblast Khorezm Oblast Kirov Oblast Kirovograd Oblast Kivev Oblast Kokchetav Oblast Komi ASSR Komi ASSR Komi-Permyak AOk Koryak AOk Koryak AOk Koryak AOk Krasnodar Kray Krasnoyark Kray Krasnoyark Kray Kryan Oblast Kuryab Oblast Kuryab Oblast Kursk Oblast Kursk Oblast Kursk Oblast Leninabad Oblast Leninabad Oblast Leninapad Oblast Leninapad Oblast Leninabad Oblast Leninabad Oblast Leninabad Oblast Leninabad Oblast Leninabad Oblast Leninabad Oblast Magadan Oblast Mary Ablast Mary Shak Oblast Mary Shak Mary Shak Oblast Mary Shak Mary Shak Oblast Mary Shak Mary Sha Mary Oblast Minsk Oblast Mogilëv Oblast Mordva ASSR

Moscow Oblast Murmansk Oblast Nagorno-Karabakh AO Nakhichevan' ASSR

Nakhechevari ASS Namangan Oblast Naryn Oblast Naryn Oblast Navoi Oblast Novosibyev Oblast Novosibrisk Oblast Orenkug Oblast Oren Oblast Orenbrug Oblast Pavlodar Oblast Pavlodar Oblast Politav Oblast Politav Oblast Politav Oblast Politav Oblast Rostov Oblast Ryazan' Oblast Sakhalin Oblas Samarkand Oblast Saratov Oblast Semipalatinsk Oblast Severo-Kazakhs an Oblast

Smolensk Oblast Stavropol' Kray Sumy Oblast Surkhandar'ya Oblast Sverdlovsk Oblast Syrdar`ya Oblast Talas Oblast Taldy-Kurgan Oblast Tambov Oblast Tashauz Oblast Tashkent Oblast Tatar ASSR

Taymyr AOk Ternopol' Oblast Tomsk Oblast Tselinograd Oblast Tula Oblast Turgay Oblast Tuva ASSR

Tyumen' Oblast Udmurt ASSR

Ul'yanovsk Oblast Ural'sk Oblast Ust'-Ordynskiy Buryat AOk

Vinnitsa Oblast Victosk Oblast Viadimir Oblast Vologorad Oblast Vologotad Oblast Vologotad Oblast Voronezh Oblast Voronezh Oblast Voronezh Oblast Voroshivograd Oblast Vorschivograd Oblast Yakut ASSR

Yamal-Nenets AOk Yaroslavl' Oblast Yevrey AO Yugo-Ossetin AO Zakarpatskaya Oblast Zaporozh'ye Oblast Zhitomir Oblast

#### Oblast-Level Administrative Divisions (contin

BGN

Simplified

BGN Khanty-Mansiyskiy Avtonomayy Okrug Kharkovskaya Oblast' Kheronskaya Oblast' Kheronskaya Oblast' Kheronskaya Oblast' Khorezmskaya Oblast' Kirovgrafskaya Oblast' Kirovgrafskaya Oblast' Kirovgrafskaya Oblast' Komi Avtonomaya Swetskaya Sosialistichekaya Republika Komi-Pernyatskiy Avtonomaya Okrug Kayaksiy Oblast' Kugaan Subat (Kaya Kugaan Subat) Kugaan Subat (Sayaksi) Kayaksiy Oblast' Kugaan Subat (Sayaksi) Kayaksiy Oblast' Kugaan Subat (Sayaksi) Kugaan Subat ( Multinainskaja konasi Nagorino Karabkihskaja Avtonomnaya Oblasi Nakhichevanskaya Avtonomnaya Sovetskaya Sotsialisticheskaya Respublika Naranganskaya Oblasi Narojskaya Oblasi Nenetskij Avtonomnyy Okrug Nikolajevskaya Oblasi Novosibirskaya Oblasi Novosibirskaya Oblasi Odesskaya Oblasi Odesskaya Oblasi Odesskaya Oblasi Orenburgskaya Oblasi Orenburgskaya Oblasi Orenburgskaya Oblasi Orenburgskaya Oblasi Pernenskaya Oblasi Patavskaya Oblasi Patavskaya Oblasi Sakhalinskaga Oblasi Samarkandskaya Oblasi Samarkandskaya Oblasi Severo-Kazinskuas Oblasi Semapalatinskaya Oblasi Semapalatinskaya Oblasi Semapalatinskaya Oblasi Severo-Kazakhstanskaya Oblast Severo-Osetinskaya Avtonomnaya Sovetskaya Sotsialisticheskaya Respublika Smolenskaya Oblast' Smolenskaya Oblast Stavropol'skiy Kray Sumskaya Oblast' Surkhandar'inskaya Oblast' Sverdlovskaya Oblast' Syrdar'inskaya Oblast' Syrdar inskaya Oblast Talasskaya Oblast' Taldy-Kurganskaya Oblast Tambovskaya Oblast' Tashauzskaya Oblast Tashkentskaya Oblast Tatarskaya Avtonomnaya Sovetskaya Sotsialisticheskaya Respublika Taymyrskiy Avtonomnyy Okrug Ternopol'skaya Oblast' Tomskaya Oblast' Tomskaya Oblast' Tselinogradskaya Oblast' Turgayskaya Oblast' Turgayskaya Oblast' Tuvinskaya Avtonomnaya Sovetskaya Sotsialisticheskaya Respublika Tyumenskaya Oblast' Tyumenskaya Oolaat Udmartskaya Avtonomnaya Sovetskaya Sotsialisticheskaya Respublika Ul'yanovskaya Oblast' Ural'skaya Oblast' Ust'-Ordynskiy Buryatskiy Avtonomnyy Ural'skaya Oblast' Ust'-Ordynsky Buryatskiy Avtonomnyy Okrug Vinnitskaya Oblast' Vitobskaya Oblast' Volgordskaya Oblast' Volgordskaya Oblast' Volgordskaya Oblast' Voroshilorgradskaya Oblast' Vakutskaya Avtonomnaya Oblast' Yaunalo-Nenetskiy Avtonomnaya Oblast' Zukarpatskaya Oblast' Zakarpatskaya Oblast' Zakarpatskaya Oblast' Zakarpatskaya Oblast'

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А					A (continued)				
Abakan	ppi	53 43N	091-26E	57.R M	Aykbal	ppl	66.00N	111.30E	57,59,RM
Aban Aban coal deposit	ppi coal	56.41N 56.30N	096-04E 096-00E	60,RM 60	Ayon, Ostrov Aysarinskove	isl ppl	66 50N 53 16N	168-40E 071-46E	RM 56,RM
Abaza Abkbazskava ASSR	ppl admd	52 39N 43 00N	090.06E 041.30E	56.R M 79	Azerbaijan	thep	NA	NA	49,67
Achak	gasf	40.59N	061.02E	21,66	Azerbaijan SSR Azov, Sea of	admd sea	40.30N 46.00N	047-30E 036-00E	21,22,79 RM
Achinsk Achinsk	ppi petr	56-17N NA	090.30F NA	57.RM 31.66					
Achisu	oilf	42 26N 45 00N	047 45E 040 00E	21	B	r	20.000		
Advgeyskaya AO Adzharskaya ASSR	adınd adınd	41.40N	042.00E	79	Bagadzha Bagdarin	gasf ppl	39.00N 54.26N	062 40E 113 36E	21 RM
Agan Agan	stm oilf	61 23N 61 28N	074-35E 076-LLE	16,19 16,66	Baikal-Amur Mainline (BAM) Baikal, Lake	rr lake	56.30N 54.00N	118-00E 109-00E	LLRM RM
Agdam Aginskiy Buryatskiy AOk	ppl admd	39.59N 51.00N	046 57E 114 30E	56.RM 79	Bakanas	ppl	44 50N 40 00N	076-15E	56,RM
Aginskove	ppl	51.06N	114.32E	RM	Bakhar Baku	oilf ppl	40 00N 40 23N	050-00E 049-51E	21 21,32,55,56,79, RM
Agul Ahtme	stm ppl	55 44N 59 18N	095.41E 027.28E	60 44,R.M	Baku No. 2 Baku Waterfront Group	petr petr	NA NA	NA NA	30,31,66 31,66
Ak-Dovurak	ppl	51.11N	090.36E	56.RM 42.43	Balagannakh	ppl	64.30N	143-50E	57,RM
Ak-Tyuz Bordunskiy uranium; thorium deposit Akhtubinsk	u/t ppl	NA 48.16N	046 10E	RM	Balakovo Balakovo	ppl nucp	52.02N NA	047-47F NA	RM 52,67
Aksenovo Zilovskove Aksu	ppl ppl	53.04N 52.30N	117.32E 071.59E	RM 56,RM	Balashov Balkhash	ppl ppl	51.32N 46.50N	043-08E 074-58E	RM 56.RM
Aksuvëk	ppl u/t	44.45N	074-21E	RM 42,43	Balkhash, Lake Baltie	lake	46.00N	074.00E	R M 49.67
Aksuyék Kiya chty uranium deposit Aktas	oilf	NA 43.07N	NA 051 57E	21	Baltic oil and gas region	thep reg	NA 55.00N	NA 022.00E	14,25,32
Aktogay Aktyubusk	ppl ppl	46 57 N 50 17 N	079 40E 057 10E	RM 56,79,RM	Baltic oil shale deposit Baltic Economic Region	oils reg	59.04N 56.00N	028-17E 025-00E	44 79
Aktyubinskay: Oblast'	admd	48.00N 42.54N	058-00E	79	Baltic Sea Baltiysk	sea	56.00N	018.00E	RM
Aktyuz Al'inet'yevsk	ppl ppl	54.53N	076-07E 052-20E	RM 20,RM	Banbuyka	ppl ppl	54 39N 55 48N	019 55E 115 47E	RM 59,RM
Alapavevsk Alay Mountains	ppl mts	57.50N 39.45N	061 41F 072 00F	R M R M	Bamovskaya Barabinsk	ppl ppl	54.08N 55.21N	123 42E 078 21E	LLRM RM
Alazeya	stm	70.51N	153-34E	RM	Baranovichi	ppl	53.08N	026 02E	RM
Aldan Aldan	ppl stm	58.37N 63.28N	125-24E 129-35E	11,57,59,RM 11,RM	Barents Sea Barguzin	sea ppl	74.00N 53.37N	036-00E 109-37E	RM 57.RM
Aldan uranium thorium deposit Aldan Upland	u/t upld	57.00N	NA 127.00E	42,43 11,RM	Barinovka Barnaul	oilf ppl	52 58N 53 22N	050 43E 083 45E	20 55,56,79,RM
Alekhin	oilf	62.26N	071-30F	16	Barsa-Gel'mes	oilf	39.04N	054-00E	21,66
Aleksandriya Aleksandriya coal deposit	ppi coal	48 40N 48 39N	033 07E 033 03E	R M 34	Bashkir Bashkirskaya ASSR	nucp admd	NA 54.00N	NA 0.56 00F	52,67 20,79
Aleksandrov Cay Aleksandrovsk coal region	ppl coal	50.09N 50.00N	048-34E 142-45E	32,56,RM 34	Bastryk Batagay	oilf	55.23N 67.38N	052-21E 134-38E	20 R M
Aleksandrovsk Sakhalinskiy	ppl	50.54N	142.10F	57.R M	Batagay Batumi	lqq lqq	41.38N	041-38E	21,32,56,79,RM
Alekseyevka Alenkin	oilf oilf	52 34N 60 29N	051.07E 077.10E	20	Batumi Batyrbay	petr oilf	NA 56-49N	NA 055.55E	31,66 20
Aleysk Ali Bayramly	pp) ppl	52.28N 39.55N	082 45E 048 56E	RM RM	Bavly Baydaratskaya Guba	oilf bay	54.30N 69.00N	053 11E 067 30E	20,66
Ah Bayramly	thep	NA	NA	49,67	Baykal	ppl	51.53N	104.471	RM
Alma Ata Alma-Atinskaya Oblast'	ppl admd	43 15N 44 00N	076 57E 076 00E	32,55,56,79,RM 79	Baykonur Bayram-Ali	ppl gasf	47 50N 37 50N	066-03E 062-06E	56.R.M 21
Almalyk Altar Mountar is	ppl mts	40.50N 48.00N	069.35E 090.00E	RM RM	Bekabad Bekdash	ppl	40.13N 41.34N	069 14E 052 32E	RM 56.RM
Altayskiy Kras	admd	52.30N	083-00E	79	Bel'kovskiy, Ostrov	ppl isl	75.32N	135.441	RM
Alushta Alvab'yevo	ppl oilf	44 40N 53 15N	034 25E 053 48E	62,RM 20	Bel'isy Belaya	ppl stm	47 46N 55 54N	027 56E 053 33E	56,RM 20,RM
Alvtus Amangel'dy	ppl	54 24N 50 10N	024 03E 065 13E	RM 56,RM	Belaya Tserkov' Belebey	ppl oilf	49 47 N 54 10 N	030.07E 053.55E	R M 20
Amderma	ppl ppl	69.45N	061.39E	RM	Belgorod	ppl	50.36N	036-34F	79, R M
Amga Amgun'	stm stm	62 38N 52 56N	134 32E 139 38E	11.RM 11.RM	Belgorod-Dnestrovskiy Belgorodskaya Oblast'	ppl admd	46 12N 50 45N	030-21E 037-30E	R M 79
Ama Darya Amar	stm stm	43.40N 52.56N	059.01E 141.10E	21.RM 11.RM	Belogorsk Belogorsk	ppl	50.55N 55.02N	128-28E 088-28E	R M 60.R M
Amursk	ppl	50.14N	136-54E	RM	Belokurikha	ppl ppl	51.59N	084 59E	RM
Amuiskava Oblast' Anabar	admd stm	54.00N 73.08N	128-00E 113-36E	79 RM	Belomorsk Beloretsk	ppl ppl	64 32N 53 58N	034 48E 058 24E	RM RM
Anadyr' Anadyr'	ppl stm	64 45N 64 54N	177-29E 176-13E	57,59.RM RM	Belorussia Economic Region Belorussian oil shale deposit	reg	53.00N 53.46N	028 00E 029 14E	79 44
Anadyr' coal basin	coal	65.00N	174.00E	34,40	Belorussian SSR	admd	53.00N	028-00E	79
Anadyr' coal deposit Anadyrskiy Zaliy	coal gulf	65.00N 64.00N	177-30E 178-00W	34 RM	Belova Belova	ppl thep	54-25N NA	086-18E NA	38,RM 49,67
Andizhan Andizhanskay, Oblast	ppl admd	40.45N 40.45N	072 22E 072 00E	56,79,R M 79	Beloyarskiy Beloyarskiy	ppi	56 45N 63 43N	061-24E 066-40E	RM 16,RM
Andropov	ppl	58.03N	038-50E	32,R M	Beloyarskiy	ppi nucp	NA	NA	52,67
Angara Angarsk	stm ppl	58.06N 52.34N	093-00E 103-54E	50,51,60,67,RM RM	Belyy Yar Belyy, Ostrov	ppl isl	58-26N 73-10N	085.01E 070.45E	60,RM RM
Angarsk Angren	petr ppl	NA 41.01N	NA 070-12E	31,66 60.RM	Bendery Bennetta, Ostrov	ppl isl	46 49N 76 21N	029/29E 148/56E	R M R M
Angren coal deposit	coat	41.09N	070-00E	34	Benoy	oiff	42.42N	046-29E	21
Anzhero-Sudzhensk Anzhero-Sudzhensk coal deposit	ppl coal	56.07N 56.10N	086-01E 086-00E	60,RM 34	Berdsk Berdyansk	ppl ppl	54 47 N 46 45 N	083-02E- 036-47E	R M R M
Apatity April 28	ppl oilf	67 34N 39 52N	033-22E 050-50E	R.M	Berdyanskoye	gasf	51 14N 59 24N	055-05E 056-46E	20 R M
Atal Sea	sea	45.00N	060.00E	RM	Berezniki Berezovo	ppl	63.56N	065-02E	16,23,RM
AraUsk Aras	ppl stm	46 48N 39 59N	061-40E 048-20E	56,59,RM 21	Berëzovo Berëzovo oil shale deposit	gasf oils	63.36N 65.32N	064 24E 062 48E	16 44
Arenets Arean	gasf stm	64 51N 53 20N	057-43E 121-28E	20 RM	Berëzovskoye Berëzovskoye coal deposit	ppi coal	55 50N 55 45N	089.36E 089.15E	60,RM 34.60
Ariadnoye	ppl	45.09N	134-21E	RM	Berëzovskoye-1	thep	NA 51.40N	NA	49,60,67
Arkagala Arkagala coal-deposit	ppl coal	63.09N 63.25N	146-47E 147-00E	57,59, <b>R M</b> 34	Berëzovyy Bering Sea	ppl sea	60.00N	135.42E 175.00W	RM RM
Arkalyk Arkhangelisk	ppl ppl	50 13N 64 34N	066 50E 040 32E	79.RM 56,59,79,RM	Bering Strait Beringovskiy	strt ppl	66.00N 63.03N	169.00W 179.19E	R M R M
Arkhangel'skaya Oblast'	admd	64.00N	044.00E	79	Beringovskiy coal deposit	coal	63.00N	178-40E	34
Arkticheskiy Arlan	gasf oilf	69.46N 55.59N	070 49E 054 13E	16,66 20,22,66	Berkakit Beshkul	ppl oilf	56.34N 46.13N	124-48E 046-34E	11,R M 21
Armavir Armenian	ppl nucp	45.00N NA	041.08E	R M 52,67	Bestyakh Betpak-Dala Desert	ppl dst	61-24N 46.00N	128-50E 070-00E	32,RM RM
Armenian SSR	admd	40.00N	045.00E	21.79	Beurdeshik	gasf	39.17N	060.36E	21
Arsen'vev Artém	ppl ppl	44 10N 43 22N	133-15E 132-13E	RM RM	Beyneu Bezmein	ppl ppl	45 11 N 38 05 N	055.06E 058.12E	21,32,56,59,RM 21,RM
Artêm Artêm coal deposit	oilf	40.28N 43.30N	050 22E 132 19E	21	Bidzhan	ppl	47 58N 46 48N	131-56E	57, <b>RM</b>
Artémovsk	coal ppl	54.21N	093-26E	57,R M	Bikin Bikin coal deposit	enal	46.53N	134-16E 134-14E	57,R M 34
Artemovskiv coal deposit Arys'	coal ppl	57.30N 42.26N	061 30E 068 48E	34 56,RM	Bilibino Bilibino ATETs	ppl nucp	68.03N NA	166-20E NA	57,59,RM 52,67
Arzamas Asar	ppl gasf	55 23N 43 30N	043 50E 052 33E	56,RM 21	Binagadi tar sands deposit Birobidzhan	tars ppl	40.05N 48.48N	048 57E 137 57E	45 57,RM
Ashkhabad	ppl	37.57N	058-23E	21,56,61,79,RM	Biryusa	stm	57.43N	095-24E	60
Ashkhabadska: a Oblast' Asino	admd ppl	39.00N 57.00N	059-00E 086-09E	79 RM	Biya Biysk	stm ppl	52.25N 52.34N	085.00E 085.15E	RM 56,RM
Askiz	ppl	53.08N 38.26N	090.32F 048.53E	56.RM 21.56.RM	Black Sea	sea	43.00N	035 00E 127 32E	R M 79 R M
Astara Astrakhan'	ppl ppl	46.21N	048-03E	21,25,55,56,79,RM	Blagoveshchensk Blagovevo	ppl ppl	50 16N 63 25N	074 56E	79,RM RM
Astrakhan' Astrakhanskaya Oblast'	gasf admd	46 58N 47 00N	048-16E 048-00E	21.23	Bobrovka Bobruysk	oilf ppl	52.32N 53.09N	051.36E 029.14E	20 RM
Atabay	gasf	39.54N	058-33E	21	Bodaybo	ppl	57.51N	114-10E	RM
Atbasar Atlasovo	ppi ppi	51 48N 46 01N	068-20E 142-09E	R M R M	Boguchany Boguchany	ppl hydp	58.23N NA	097-29E NA	RM 50,67
Avachinskaya, Nopka Av-Pim	vole ailf	53 15N 62 17N	158-49E 071-06E	64,RM	Bol'shaya Kuonamka Bol'shevik, Ostrov	stm isl	70.45N 78.40N	113-24E 102-30E	R M R M
Av Yuan	oilf	59.27N	072 45E	16	Bol'shoy Anyuy	stm	68-30N	160.49E	RM
Avaguz	ppl	47.56N	080-23E	56,RM	Bol'shoy Begichëv, Ostrov	isl	74 20N	112.30E	RM

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Bol'shoy Lyakhovskiy, Ostrov	isl	73 35N	142.00E	R M
Bol'shoy Pit	stm	59 01N	091.44E	60
Bol'shoy Yugan	stm	61.01N .	073 24E	16,RM
Bologoye	ppl	57 24N	034 02E	56,RM
Bondyuzhskiy	oilf	55 58N	052 25E	20
Bor	ppl	56 22N	044 03E	RM
Borisoglebsk		51 23N	042 06E	RM
Borisov	ppl	54 15N	028 30E	RM
Borodino	ppl	55 55N	094 55E	60,RM
Borovichi	ppl	58 24N 54 07N	033 55E 051 19E	R M 20
Borovka Borzya	oilf ppl	50 24N	116 31E	57,RM
Bovanenko	gasf	70 25N	068 19E	15,16,17,23,66
Bovtyshka (Boltyshka) oil shale deposit	oils	48 37N	033 29E	44
Bratsk	ppl	56.21N	101.55E	55,57,59,60,R M
Bratsk	hydp	NA	Na	50,51,58,67
Bratskoye Vodokhranilishche	resv	56 05N	101 50E	60,RM
Brest		52 06N	023 42E	32,56,79,RM
Brestskaya Oblast' Brestnev	admd	52 30N	025 30E 052 19E	79 RM
Bryansk	ppl ppl	55 42N . 55 15N	034 22E	56,79,RM
Bryanskaya Oblast'	adınd	53 00N	033 30E	79
Budennovsk	ppl	44 46N	044 12E	56.RM
Bugul'ma	ppi	54 33N	052 48E	56.RM
Buguruslan	ppl	53 39N	052 26E	RM
Buguruslan	oilf .	53 39N	052 32E	20
Bukachacha	ppl	52 59N		R M
Bukachacha coal deposit	coal	53.00N 39.48N	117 00E 064 25E	34 21,56,61,62,79
Bukhara Bukharskaya Oblast'	ppl admd	41.00N	064 00E	79
Bulla-More	gasf	39.45N	049 49E	21
Buor-Khaya, Guba	bay	71.30N		RM
Bureya Bureya	stm . hydp	49 27N	129 30E	50,51,67 50,67
Bureya coal basin	coal	51.00N	132 30E	34,40
Burkand'ya	ppl	63.19N	147 30E	RM
Burshtyn	ppl .	49.16N	024 38E	RM 49.67
Burshtyn Buryatskaya ASSR	thep admd	NA	NA 109 00E	79
Buy	ppl	58 29N	041 30E	RM
Buzachi Peninsula		45 00N	052 00E	21,RM
Buzuluk	ppl	52 47N	052 15E	RM
Byrranga Mountains	mts	75 00N	104 00E	RM
Bystrin	oilf	61 37N	072 53E	l6
	stm	68 46N	134 20E	RM
Bytantay	Still	08 4014	154 201	K.M
C				
Carpathian Mountains	mts	47.00N	025 30E	RM
Caspian Lowland	pln	48.00N	052 00E	RM
Caspian Sea	sea	42 00N	050 00E	21,RM
	mts	42 00N	045 00E	21,RM
Center power system	reg	54 00N	038 00E	46,55
Central coal region	coal	48 00N	142 15E	14,15,21,22,23,
Central Asia oil and gas region	reg	40 00N	060 00E	
Central Asia power system	reg	40.00N	068 00E	25,32 46,55
Central Asia Economic Region	reg	39.00N	066 00E	79
Central Chernozem Economic Region		51.00N	040 00E	79
Central Economic Region	reg	56.00N	038 00E	79
Central Bange		56.00N	158 00E	RM
Central Russian Upland	upld	52.00N	038 00E	RM
Central Siberian Plateau	plat .	66 00N	106 00E	RM
Chadan	ppl	51 17N	091 35E	RM
Chaladidi	oilf	42.06N .	041 49E	21
Chany, Ozero	lake	54.50N	077 30E	RM
Chara	stm .	60 22N	120 50E	RM
Chardzhou	ppl	39 06N	063 34E	21,56,79,RM
Chardzhouskaya Oblast'	admd .	39 00N	063 00E	79
Charkesar uranium deposit	u/t	Na		42,43
Charsk	ppl	49 34N 66 30N	081 05E 178 00E	56,RM 34
Chaun-Chukotka coal area Chavlisay-Krasnogorskiy-Yangiabad uranium deposit	coal	NA	. NA .	42,43
Chayek	ppl	41 55N	074 30E	56,RM
Chaykovskiy	ppl	56 47N	054 09E	RM
Chayvo	oilf .	52 31N	143 46E	11
Chebach'ye	oilf	60 27N	078 47E	
Cheboksary Cheboksary	ppl . hydp	56.09N	047 15E	56,79,RM 50,51,67
Checheno-Ingushskaya ASSR	admd .	43.15N 51.10N	045 30E 133 05E	21,79 57,RM
Chegdoniyn Chekmagush	ppl oilf	55.12N	054 44E	20
Cheleken	ppl	39 26N	053 07E	56,R M
Cheleken	oilf	39 14N	053 27E	21
Chelkar	ppl	47 50N	059 36E	56,59,RM
Chelny	ppl	48 53N	136 02E	RM
Chelyabinsk	ppl	55 10N	061 24E	32,55,56,79,RM
Chelyabinsk coal basin	coal	52 00N	062 15E	34
Chelyabinskaya Oblast'	admd	54.00N .	060 30E	79
Cheremkhovo	ppl	53.09N	103 05E	57,RM
Cheremkhovo coal deposit	coal	53.00N	102 30E	34
Cheremkhovo oil shale deposit	oils	53 59N	101 41E	20
Cheremshan	oilf	54 44N	051 28E	
Cherëmushki	ppl	52 52N	091 24E	RM
Cherepet'	ppl	54 07N	036 23E	RM
Cherepet'	thep	NA	NA	49,67
Cherepovets	ppl	59.08N	037 54E	56,RM
Cherkasskaya Oblast'	admd	49 00N	031 00E	79
	ppl	49 26N	032 04E	79,RM
Cherkassy Cherkessk	ppl .	44.14N	042 03E	RM
Chermoz	oilf	58 49N	056 00E	20
Chernigov	ppl .	51 30N	031 18E	79,RM
Chernigovskaya Oblast'	admd .	51.00N	032 00E	79
Chernobyl'	ppl	51.16N	030 14E	RM
Chernobyl'	nuep .	NA	NA	52,67
Chernogorsk	ppl .	53 49N		RM
Chernogorsk coal deposit	coal admd	53 45N 48 15N	091 00E	34 79
Chernovitskaya Oblast' Chernovskiye Kopi coal deposit	coal .	52.05N	. 112 45E	34
Chernovtsy	ppl	48 18N	025 56E	56,79,RM
Chernyakhovsk	ppl	54 38N	021 49E	RM
Chernyayevo	ppl	52 46N	125 59E	RM
Chernyshevsk		52 32N	117 00E	57,RM
Chernyshevskiy	ppl	62 59N	112 35E	57,58,59,RM
Cherskiy	ppl	68 45N	161 18E	57,RM
Cherskiy Range	mts	65.00N	144 00E	RM RM
Chervonograd Chëshakaya Guba	ppl bay	50 23N 67 30N	024 14E	20,R M
Chib'yu	oilf	63 56N	053 44E	20
Chiganak	ppl	45 06N	073 58E	48,RM
Chigirik uranium processing center	u/t	NA	NA	42,43
Chiili	ppl	44 10N	066 45E	56,R M
Chimkent	ppl	42 18N	069 36E	32,56,79,RM

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Chimkent	petr admd	NA 43.00N	NA	31,66 79
Chimkentskaya Oblast` Chirchik	ppl	43 00IN	. 069-35E.	61,62,RM
Chirkey Chistopol	hydp ppl	NA . 55 21 N	NA 050-37E	50,67 RM
Chita Chitinskaya Oblast`	ppl	52 03N	113 30E 117 00E	57,79,RM 79
Chkalovsk uranium deposit/processing center		. 52.00N NA	NA	42,43
Chokurdakh Chu	ppl ppl	70 38N 43 36N	147 55E 073 42E	RM 56.RM
Chuguyevka	ppl	44 10N 69 00N	133 52E 174 00W	57,RM RM
Chukchi Sea Chukotsk Peninsula Chukotsk Upland	sea pen	66 00N	174 00W	RM
Chukotsk Upland Chukotskiy AOk	admd	. 67 00N 67 30N		RM 79
Chul'man	ppl	56 52N	124 52E 125 00E	11,57,RM
Chul'man coal deposit Chulym Chulym	coal . ppl	56 45N 55 06N	080 58E	11,34 56,RM
		57 43N 57 47N	083 51E	60,RM 60,RM
Chuna tar sands deposit	tars	57.35N		45
	stm ppl		096 30E . 033 04E	RM RM
Chupa Chupa District uranium deposit	u/t oilf	NA 60.04N	NA . . 072 38E	42,43 16
Chupal'skoye Chusovaya	stm	58.13N	056 22E	20
Chusovoy	oilf	58 17N 57 26N	057 49E 053 12E	56,RM 20
Chuvashskaya ASSR	admd	55 30N	047.00E	79
Chuya Crimea	stm nucp	50 24N NA	086.39E Na	R M 52,67
Crimean Peninsula	pen .	. 45 00N	034 00E	RM
D Dagestanskaya ASSR	admd	43 00N	047 00E	21,64,79
Dal'mamedly	oilf	40 40N 44 35N	045 59E 135 35E	21 57,RM
Dal'nerechensk	nnl		133 40E	RM
Dalakhay Danilov	ppl ppl	50 50N . 58 12N	102 48E 040 10E	RM RM
Danilov	oilf	60.56N	064.05E	16
Danilov Daugava Daugavpils Da Kastri	stm ppl	57.00N . 55.53N	024 00E 026 32E	RM RM
Derkasti		51.28N 62.22N	140 47E 150 12E	R.M 57.R.M
Debin Dekabr'skoye Dëma		62 08 N	070 06E	16
Dëma Demskoye		54 42N 53 40N	056 00E 054 11E	20 20
Denau	ppl	38.16N	067 54E	56,RM
Dengizkul'	gasi	39 28N	064 40E	21 RM
Derbent Desna	ppl stm		048 18E 030 32E	RM RM
Desovskoye iron ore deposit Dikson	iron	57 30N	124 15E	11
Dikson Dimitrovgrad	ppl ppl	73 30N 54 14N .	080 35E 049 33E	59,RM RM
Dimitrovgrad	nucp	. NA	. NA	67 RM
Dmitriya Lapteva, Proliv Dnepr	strt	73 00N 43 30N	. 142 00E . 032 18E	50,51,67,RM
Dnepr at Zaporozh'ye Dnepr coal basin	hydp coal	48.00N	NA 032.00E	50,67 34,40
Dnepr Lowland	pln	50.00N	032 00E	RM
Dnepr Upland Dnepropetrovsk	upid ppl	49 00N 48 27N	028 00E 034 59E	RM 56,79,RM
Dnepropetrovskaya Oblast'	admd stm	48.30N 46.18N	035 00E 030 17E	. 79 R.M
Dnestr		57 50N	029.59E	RM
Dolgozhdannoye coal deposit Dolina	coai ppl	68 00N 48 58N	172 30E 024 01E	34 . RM
Domisk		47.21N	142 48E	57,RM
Don Donets coal basin	stm. coal	47 04N 48 00N	039-18E 039-00E	53,RM 34,35,36,37,38
Donetsk	ppl	48 00N	037 48E	40,41 55,56,79,RM
Donetsk coal deposit	coal		037 50E	34
Donetskaya Oblast' Dorokhovka	admd oilf	48.00N 56.38N	037 30E 056 57E	79 20
Dossor		47 32N 47 34N	053 00E	56.RM
Dossor Drogobych No. 1	petr		032.30F NA .	31,66
Drogobych No. 2	. petr	NA	NA 113.02E	31,66 RM
Druzhba	ppl	45 17N	082 30E	R M 60, R M
Dudinka	ppi 	69 25N	086 15E	16,57,RM
Dukat Dulgalakh	ppl	62 45N 67 44N	155 15E 133 12E	RM RM
Dunay	ppl	42.52N	086 15E 155 15E 133 12E 132 22E	RM
Dushanbe Dzerzhinsk	ppl ppl	38 33N 56 15N	. 068 48E . 043 24E .	55,56,79,RM RM
Dzh'yer	oilf	63 17N	054 58E	20 R M
Dzhalal-Abad Dzhalinda	ppl ppl		123 54E	II,RM
Dzhambul		42.54N	071 22E	56,79,RM 49,67
Dzhambulskaya Oblast'	admd	44 00N	072 00E	79
Dzhansugurov Dzhebariki-Khava coal deposit	coal	45 24N 62 25N		56,RM 34
Dzhebol'	gasf	62 26N	056 30E	20 34
Dzhergaran coar deposit Dzhetygara	ppl		079 03E 061 12E	56,RM
Dzhezkazgan Dzhezkazganskava Oblast'	. ppl	47 47N 47 30N	067 46E 071 00E	56,59,RM 79
Dzhizak	ppl	40.06N	067 50E	79,RM
Dossor Dossor Dossor Drogobych No. 1 Drogobych No. 2 Droyanaya Druzhba Dubinino Dudinka Dubinino Dudinka Dukat Dukat Dukat Dukat Dukat Dukat Dukat Dukat Dukat Duhyanbe Dzarhinsk Dah'yer Drhatal-Abud Drhatnbul Drhambul D	admd ppl admd mts ppl	40 30N 58 00N 38 57N	067 40E 136 00E 045 38E	. 79 . RM . RM
E				
	coal	56 00N	162.00E	34
East Karnchatka coal area East Siberia Economic Region East Siberian oil and gas region East Siberian Sea Egyekinot Egyekinot Ekibastuz coal basin	reg	61 00N 64 00N	099 00E 126 00E	
East Siberian Sea	sca	74 00N	126 00E	RM
Egyekinot	ppl ppl	66 19N 51 40N	179 10W 075 22E	57,59,R M 55,56,R M
	coal	51 30N	075 30E	34,35,36,37,3
Ekibastuz coal basin				10.40
			NA	39,40 47,48,49,55,6
	thep thep	NA NA		

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E (continued)					I (continued)					
Elitsa	ppl	46 16N	044.14E	21,56,79,RM	Iony, Ostrov	i		56.26N	143.25E	RM
1-mba 1-mba	ppl stm	48 50N 46 38N	058-08E 053-14E	56,RM 21	Irbit		pl pl.	57.41 N 51.39 N	063-03E 058-38E	RM RM
Emba/Caspian tar sands deposit Engel's	tars	47 47N 51 30N	050 10E 046 07E	45 RM	Iriklinskiy	t	hep pl	NA 52.16N	NA 104-20E	49,67
Frozionnyy	ppl ppl	65.46N	149.44E	RM	Irkutsk coal basin	c	oal	53.00N	102-30E	32,55,57,79,RM 34,35,40
Erzin Estonia	ppl thep	50.15N NA	095-10E NA	57,RM 44,49,67	Irkutsk-10 Heat and Power Irkutskaya Oblast'	t	dmd .	NA 56.00N	NA 106-00E	49,67 79
Estonian oil shal: field Estonian SSR	oils admd	59.07N 59.00N	027 23E 026 00E	44 79	Irsha		pl oal	55 55N 55 45N	094 48E 095 13E	60,RM 34.60
Evenkiyskiv AO c	adınd	65.00N	095 00E	79	Irtysh	s	tm	61.04N	068 52E	16,50,67,RM
Export pipeline	pipe	55.45N	049 00E	10,11,20,32,33	Isakov		ilf pl	64 30N 56 09N	056-03E 069-27E	20 56,RM
1					Ishim		tm . pl	57 42N 53 28N	071-12E 056-02E	R M R M
Ear East power system	reg	51.00N	134.00E	46.55	Ishimbay		if.	53.24N	065 01E	20
Far East Feonorne Region Farab	reg gasf	63.00N 39.16N	143 00E 063 27E	79 21	lshimbay Iskine		etr ilf	NA 47.10N	NA 052-38E	31,66 21
Ledorovo Lergana	oilf	61 40N 40 23N	073 32E 071 46E	16,17,22,29,66	lskitim Islim	p	pl asf	54 37N 35 30N	083 24E 062 04E	R M 21
Fergana	ppl petr	NA	NA	79,RM 31,66	Issyk-Kul', Ozero	. Ī	ake	42.25N	077-15E	RM
Fergana Valley⊐ar sands deposit Ferganskaya Oblast'	tars admd	42 41 N 40 30 N	073-21E 071-30E	45 79	Issyk-Kul'skaya Oblast'		dmd ilf	42.30N 58.47N	078-00E 057-00E	79 20
Fevral'sk Finland, Gulf of	ppl gulf	52-28N 60-00N	130.43E . 027.00E	RM RM	Istra Itatskiy		pl pl	55 55N 56 04N	036-52E 089-05E	62.RM 56,60.RM
Łommowka	oilf	54.13N	053.09E	20	Itatskiy coal deposit	e	oal	56.15N	089-00E	34,60
Fort-Shevchenko Franz Josef I an I	ppl isls	44.31N 81.00N	050-16E 055-00E	RM RM	Iturup, Ostrov Iul'tin	i: P	si pl	45.00N 67.50N	148-001( 178-48W	RM 57.RM
Franz Josef I and tar sands deposit Etologo	tars ppl	80.30N 49.46N	049 00E 043 40E	45 RM	Ivano-Frankovsk Ivano-Frankovskava Oblast		pl dmd	48 56N 48 30N	024 43E 024 30E	79,RM 79
trunze	ppl	42.54N	074.36E	55,56,79,RM	Ivanovo	P	pl	57.00N	040 59E	79.RM
					Ivanovskaya Oblast' Ivdel'		dmd pl	57 00N 60 42N	042 00E 060 24E	79 RM
G Gayny	ppl	60 [8N	054-19E	56,RM	lya Izberbash		tm ilf	55 33N 42 13N	102 07E 047 58E	60 21
Gavvoron	ppl	48.21N	029-51E	56,RM	Izhma	s	tm	65 19N	052-54E	20, R M
Gazh Gazh	ppl gasf	40 14N 40 04N	063 24E 063 21E	56,RM 21,66	Izmail		pl	45 21 N 48 59 N	028-50E 131-33E	32,56,RM RM
Genrivetty, Ostrov	isl	77.06N 80.30N	156-30E 049.00F	RM	lzyum		pl	49.12N	037-19E	RM
Georga, Zemlya Georgian SSR	isl admd	42.00N	043-30E	RM 21,79	J					
Georgiu-Dezh Georgivevsk	ppl ppl	50 59N 44 09N	039.30E 042.28E	56.RM RM	Japan, Sea of	s	ca	43.30N	135.45E	RM
Geral'd, Ostrov Gilvas	isl	71 23N 53 58N	175 40W	RM	Jelgava		p	56 39N 56 58N	023 42E 023 34E	RM RM
Glazov	stm ppl	58 09 N	127-28E 052-40E	11.RM RM	Jürmala	t,	pl	20.2018	025.541	КМ
Gogran'dag Gomel'	gasf ppl	38 44N 52 25N	054 27E 031 00E	21 56,79,RM	К					
Gomel'skaya Oblast' Gonam	admd stm	52.00N 57.21N	030.00E 131.14E	79 11	Kabardino-Balkarskaya ASSR		lmd	43 30N	043-30E	79
Goriko	ppl	57 21 N 56 20 N	044 00E	32,56,79,RM	Kachug Kadzhi-Say	PI PI		53 58N 42 08N	105 52E 077 10E	57,RM RM
Gor'kiy (Kstovo) Gor'kiy AST	petr nucp	NA NA	NA NA	31,66	Kadzhi-Say uranium deposit Kafan	u, pr		NA 39 12N	NA 046-24E	42,43 R M
Gor'kiy 26 Bakinskikh	petr	NA	NA	31,66	Kaišiadorys	PI	n i	54.52N	024 27E	51,56,RM
Gori'kovskaya Oblast' Gori	admd ppl	56 00N 41 48N	045 00E 044 07E	79 RM	Kaišiadorys Kalach-na-Donu	hy . pr	/dp ol	NA 48 43 N	NA 043.31E	50,67 RM
Gorlovka Gorno-Altavsk	ppl ppl	48 18N 51 58N	038 03E 085 58E	RM 56.RM	Kalach-na-Donu Kalai-Khumb Kalamkas	- PI oi	ol .	38.28N 45.11N	070 46E 052 07E	56,RM 21
Gorno-Altayskaya AO Gorno-Badakhshanskaya AO	admd admd	51.00N 38.00N	086 00E 073 00E	79 79	Kalinin	pr	bl	56 52N	035 55E	56,79,R M
Gornozavodsk	ppl	46.34N	141-49E	57,RM	Kaliningrad	. nu . pr	iep ol	NA 54 43N	NA 020-30E	52,67 56,79,RM
Gornvak Gorvachegorsk	ppl ppl	51.00N 55.24N	081-29E 088-55E	RM 60,RM	Kaliningradskaya Oblast' Kalininskaya Oblast'		lmd Imd	54 45N 57 00N	021-30E 035-00E	79 79
Gotval'd	ppl	49.41N	036-21E 055-08E	RM	Kalmykovo	PF	al .	49.02N	051-50E	56,59,RM
Gozhan Grakhovo	oilf oilf	56 31N 56 04N	051-55E	20 20	Kalmytskaya ASSR Kaluga	. ac	lmd sl	40 30N 54 31N	045-30E 036-16E	79 56,79,RM
Granitogorsk Granitogorsk uriinium deposit/processing center	ppl u/t	42 44N NA	073 27E NA	RM 42.43	Kalush Kaluzhskaya Oblast'	pr ad	l Ind	49.01N 54.30N	024 22E 035 30E	R M 79
Greem-Bell, Ost ov Gremikha	isl oilf	81 ION 56 52N	064 00E 053 48E	RM 20	Kama Kamchatka	st	m	55.25N	050 40E	20,50,51,67,RM
Grodnenskaya Oblasť	admd	53.30N	024-30E	79	Kamchatka Peninsula	sti pe		56 15N 56 00N	162-30E 160-00E	RM 64.RM
Grodne Groznys	ppl ppl	53.41N 43.20N	023 50E 045 42E	79,RM 21,56,79,RM	Kamehatskaya Oblast' Kamen'	ad	lmd . J	55 00N 53 47N	160 00E 081 20E	79 RM
Groznyy tar sands deposit	tars	44 23N	044 44E	45	Kamen'-Rybolov	PF	d	44.45N	132 04F	57,RM
Groznyy Group Groznyy No. 2	petr petr	NA NA	NA NA	31,66 31,66	Kamenets-Podol'skiy Kamenka	pr pr		48 40N 58 33N	026-34E 095-51E	RM RM
Groznys No. 3 Grsazi	petr ppl	NA 52.30N	NA 040.00E	31,66 RM	Kamenka Kamennove	oil oil		65 03N 61 33N	056 31E 067 20E	20 16
Gubino Gubkin	oilf	53.18N 51.17N	048-41E	20	Kamensk-Ural'skiy	pp	t	56.25N	061 54E	RM
Gubkin	ppl gasf	64.45N	037-32E 077-14E	56,RM 16,66	Kamskoye Vodokhranilishche Kamyshin	re: . pp		58 52N 50 06N	056 15F 045 24F	20 56,RM
Gubkin Gudermes	gasf oilf	39.33N 43.05N	052 22E 046 20E	21	Kamyshidzha	. oil		38 16N 56 31N	054 07E 093 47E	21 60
Gugurth Gulistan	gasf	40.04N 40.29N	062 16E 068 46E	21,66 79.RM	Kandry	oil	if	54 42N	054-15E	20
Guniivegan	ppl oilf	61.41N	077 46E	16	Kandym Kanin, Poluostrov	ga pe		39 27N 68 00N	063.31E 045.00E	21,66 RM
Gurivey	ppl	47 07 N	051-53E	21,32,56,59,79. RM	Kansk Kansk-Achinsk coal basin	pp co		56 13N 56 30N	095 41E 093 00E	57,60,RM 34,35,36,37,38,
Gur'yey Gur'yeyskaya Oblast'	petr admd	NA 45.00N	NA 053.00E	31,66						40,41,60
Gus' Khrustal'nyy	ppl	55.37N	040 40F	RM		ga pp		42 45N 43 50N	054 30E 077 05E	21 RM
Gusinoozërsk Gusinoozërsk	ppl thep	51-17N Na	106.30E NA	57,RM 49,67	Kapchagay Kapustin Yar Kara Sea	pp sea		48 34N 76 00N	045 45E 080 00E	RM RM
Gusinoozërsk co; Edeposit Guzar	coal ppl	51 30N 38 36N	106-00E 066-15E	34 56,RM	Kara-Balta uranium processing center	n /	t	NA	NA	42,43
Gydan Pennsula	pen	70.50N	079 00E	16,RM	Kara-Balty Kara-Bogaz-Gol, Zaliv	. pp gu		42 50N 41 00N	073 52E 053 15E	RM RM
					Karaarn Karabagly	oil oil		46 10N 39 22N	053 231- 049 05E-	21
H Haapsalu	nal	58.56N	023-33E	56,RM	Karabil'	ga	sf	36.09N	062 46E	21
Habomai Islands	ppl isls	43.30N	146-10E	RM	Karabula Karabulak	pp oil		58 02N 43 12N	097 23E 044 35E	RM 21
Hnumaa	isl	58.50N	022 40E	RM	Karabutak	pp oil		49 59N 55 16N	060 14E 055 09E	56.R M 20
1					Karachaganak	. ga	sf .	51.16N	053 271	20,23
lgarka	ppl	67.28N	086.35E	57,59,RM	Karachayevo-Cherkesskaya AO Karachop	. ad		44 00N 35 20N	042 00F 062 28F	79 21
lgnalina Ignalina	ppl nucp	55.21 N NA	026-10E NA	53,RM 52,53,67	Karagag	oil	f	40 10N 49 50N	049.33E 073.10E	21 56,79.RM
Igrim	gasf	62.58N	064 13E	16	Karaganda Karaganda coal basin	. co	al	49.45N	073 00E	34,35,36,37,40
lk U'pyrskiy	stm ppl	55 55N 59 56N	052 36E 164 10E	20 R M	Karagandinskaya Oblast'	ad pp	md I	48 00N 49 22N	070-00E 075-58E	79 56,RM
Ili Imem Poliny Osipenko	stm ppl	45 24N 52 25N	074 08E 136 29E	RM RM	Karagayly Karaginskiy, Ostrov Karakalpakskaya ASSR	. isl		58 50N 43 00N	164 00E 059 00E	R M 79
Inderborskiv	ppl	48.33N	051.47E	56,RM	Karakum	. ga	sf	39.03N	065.35E	21
Indigirka Ingoda	stm stm	70.48N 51.42N	148.54E 115.48E	RM RM	Karakum Desert Karakumskiy Kanal	. ds ca		39 00N 37 35N	060 00F 065 43F	RM RM
Ingun Ingun	stm hydp	42 24N NA	041.33E NA	50,51,67 50,51,67	Karamov	. oil	f	63 37N 51 27N	074 37E 053 25E	16 RM
Inta .	ppl	66.05N	060 08E	56,59,RM	Karashaganak Karasuk Karasuk	. pp	1	53 44N	078 02E	56,RM
Inta coal deposit Inya	coal stm	65 30N 54 59N	059 46E 082 59E	34 60	Karaton	str		46 26N 46 25N	077-10E 053-20E	R M 21
Inza Iokanga	ppl ppl	53 51 N 68 00 N	046-21E 039-41E	RM 56,RM	Karazhal	pp oil	I	48 02N 45 00N	070 49E 051 35E	56.RM 21
					Karazhanbas	on		12 0019	and and	~ 1

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K (continued)					K (continued)				
Karel'skaya ASSR	admd	64 00N	032 30E	79	Kizyl-Arvat	ppl	. 38 58N	056 15E	56,RM
Kargaly	ppl	54 37N 49 26N	054 45E 075 30E	20 R M	Klaipėda	ppl ppl	55 43N 56 20N	021 07E 036 44E	56,RM RM
Karkaralinsk Karmanovo	ppl .	56 14N	054 33E	RM	Klintsy	ppl	52 45N	032 14E	RM
Karmanovo Karpinsk	thep ppl	NA 59.45N	NA 060 01E	49,67 RM	Klyuchevskoye Kochki	oilf ppl	59 03N 54 20N	077 29E 080 29E	16 56,RM
Karpogory	ppi	63 59N	044 27E	RM	Kodinskiy	ppl oilf	58 40N 62 24N	099 12E 074 24E	57,RM 16
Karsakpay Karshi	ppl	47 50N 38 53N	066 45E 065 48E	RM 56,79,RM	Kogalym Kohtla-Järve	ppl	59 24N	027 15E	44,65.RM
Karskiye Vorota, Proliv	strt	70 30N 53 03N	058 00E 060 40E	RM RM	Kok-Yangak coal deposit	coal ppl	41 00N 40 30N	073 19E 070 57E	34. RM
Kartaly Kartashevka	ppl oilf	54 27N	056 31E	20	Kokchetav	ppl	. 53 17N		55,56,79,RM
Kartop'ya Karymskoye	oilf	61 13N 51 37N	065 30E	16 57.RM	Kokchetavskaya Oblast' Kokpekty	admd ppl	53 30N 48 45N	070 00E 082 24E	79 56,RM
Kashira	. ppl	54.51N	038 10E	RM	Koktas	ppl	47 30N	070 54E	RM 42,43
Kashira Kashkadar'inskaya Oblast'	thep admd	NA 39.00N	NA 066 00E	49,67 79	Koktas uranium deposit Koktuma	u/t ppl	45 52N	081 39E	RM
Kashpirovka oil shale deposit	oils .	52 44N 54 56N	049 20E 041 24E	44 RM	Kokuy coal deposit Kola	coal	58.00N	096.05E	34 52,67
Kasimov Kaspiyskiy	ppl oilf	. 45 I 3N	047 15E	21	Kola Peninsula	pen		037 00E	RM
Katangli Katsiveli	ppl ppl	51 42N 44 25N	143 14E 034 03E	RM 62,RM	Kolguyev, Ostrov Kolik"yegan	isl oilf	69 05N 61 18N	049 15E 079 05E	RM 16
Kattakurgan	ppl	39.55N	066 15E	RM	Kolkhozabad	. ppl	37 35N 55 05N	068 40E 038 47E	56,RM RM
Katun' Katyi'ga	stm oilf	52 25N 59 18N	085 00E 077 08E	RM 16	Kolomna Kolomyya	ppl ppl		025 02E	RM
Kaunas	ppl	54 54N	023 54E	RM 57.RM	Kolpashevo	ppl ppl	58 20N 59 45N	082 50E 030 36E	RM 52,53,RM
Kavalerovo Kayak coal deposit	ppl	44 16N 67 30N	135 05E 104 00E	34 34	Kolpino	stm		161 00E	50,51,59,RM
Kayakent Kayasula	oilf	41 57N 44 19N	048 12E 045 00E	21 64,RM	Kolyma Lowland Kolyma Mountains	pin mts	68 30N 63 00N	154 00E 160 00E	RM RM
Kazakh SSR	admd	48.00N	068 00E	20,21,22,79	Komandorskiye Ostrova	isls	55 00N	167 00E 054 00E	RM 15,20,22,79
Kazakh Upland Kazakhstan Economic Region	reg	49 00N 48 00N	072 00E 068 00E	R M 79	Komi ASSR Komi-Permyatskiy AOk	admd admd	64 00N 	054 30E	. 79
Kazan'	ppl	55.45N	049 08E	20,32,56,79,RM 21	Kommunarsk Komsomol	ppl gasf	48 30N 64 20N	038 47E 076 39E	RM 16,66
Kazanbulak Kazanchi	oilf . oilf .	40 27N 56 17N	046 19E 056 22E	20	Komsomol'sk	ppl	50 35N	137 02E	11,32,55,57,RM
Kazantsevo	gasf	69 47N 37 21N	083 18E	16 21,RM	Komsomol'sk Komsomol'skiv	petr	69.10N	172 42E	31.66 RM
Kelif Kemerovo	ppl ppl	55 20N	086 05E	60,79,RM	Komsomolets, Ostrov	. isl	80 30N		RM 55,56,RM
Kemerovo coal deposit Kemerovskaya Oblast'	. coal	55 30N . 55 00N	087 00E 086 00E	34 79	Konakovo Konakovo	ppl thep	56 42N	036 46E	49,67
Kempendyay	ppl	62.02N	118 37E	RM	Konechnaya	ppl oilf	50 46N 62 25N	078 36E 072 29E	R.M. 16
Kenderlyk oil shale deposit Kentau	oils ppl	47 15N . 43 32N	084 15E 068 36E	44 56,RM	Konitlor Konosha	ppl	60 58N	040 15E	RM
Kerch'	ppl .	45 21 N	036 28E 065 12E	56,RM 56,RM	Konotop Konstantinovka	ppl ppl	52 33N 48 32N	036 01E 037 43E	56,RM RM
Kerki Kerkichi	ppl ppl	37 50N 37 51N	065 12E	RM	Konstantinovka	ppl	47.50N	031 09E	51,56,RM
Ket	stm	58 55N 48 30N	081 32E 135 06E	60.RM 55,57,79,RM	Konstantinovskiy Konstantinovskiy	ppl petr	57 50N	039 36E	RM 31,66
Khabarovsk Khabarovsk	petr	. NA	. NA	31.66	Kopeysk	. ppl	55 07N	061 37E	RM
Khabarovsk coal basin Khabarovskiy Kray	coal admd	45 45N 55 00N	135 00E 134 00E	34,40 79	Kopeysk coal deposit Korf coal deposit	coal	55 01N 60 45N	061 51E	34 34
Khachmas	. ppl	41.28N	048 48E	56.R M	Korkino	ppl stm	54 54N 64 44N	061 23E	RM RM
Khakasskaya AO Khal'mer-Yu	admd ppl	53 00N 67 58N	090 00E 064 50E	79 16.RM	Korkodon Korosten'	ppl	50 57N	028 39E	RM
Khampa	ppl	63 43N	122 59E 071 30E	32.RM RM	Korsakov	ppl	46 38N 62 30N	142 46E 172 00E	57,RM RM
Khamza Khamza	ppl petr	40 25N	NA	31,66	Koryakskiy AOk	admd	62 00N	166 00E	79
Khandagayty	ppi	50 44N 62 40N	092 03E 135 36E	RM RM	Koryazhma Koschagyl	ppl oilf	61 18N 46 48N	. 047 11E. 053 42E	RM 21
Khandyga Khanka, Lake	lake	. 45 00N	132 24E	RM	Kostomuksha	. ppl	64 41 N 57 46 N	030 49E 040 55E	RM 56,79,RM
Khantayka Khanty-Mansiysk	ppl .	NA 61.00N	NA 069 06E	58 RM	Kostroma	ppl thep		NA	49,67
Khanty-Mansiyskiy AOk	admd	62 00N	072 00E 112 24E	17,79 RM	Kostroma. Kostromskaya Oblast'	nucp admd	58 30N	NA	52,67 79
Khapcheranga Khar'kov	ppl	49 42N 50 00N	036 15E	52,53,56,79,RM	Kotel'nich	. ppl	58 19N	048 20E	56,RM
Khar'kovskaya Oblast'	oilf	49 30N 67 10N	036 30E 056 21E	79 20	Kotel'nyy, Ostrov Kotlas	isl ppl	75 45N 61 16N	138 44E 046 35E	20,56,RM
Khar'yaga Kharanor	thep	NA	NA	49,67	Kotur-Tepe	oilf		053 49E	21,66 RM
Kharanor coal deposit Kharasavey	coal	50 15N 71 15N	117 00E 066 52E	34 15,16,17,23,66	Kotuy Kotuy-Maymecha tar sands deposit	stm. tars	71 55N 69 41N	102 05E 100 25E	45
Khasan	. ppl .	. 42.25N	130 40E	57,RM RM	Kovdor	ppl ppl	67.34N 51.13N	030 24E 024 43E	RM 56,RM
Khasavyurt Khatanga	ppl ppl	43 15N 71 58N	046 36E 102 30E	59,RM	Kovrov	ppl	56 25N	041-18E	RM
Khatanga	stm. oilf	75 55N 43 15N	106 00E 045 27E	RM 21	Koyun-Sharlyk Kozubay	gasf oilf	39 39N 57 53N	058 47E 056 03E	21 20
Khayankort Kherson	. ppl.	46.38N	032 36E	32,56,79,RM	Kramatorsk	ppl	48 43N	037 32E	RM RM
Kherson Khersonskaya Oblast'	petr admd	NA 46.30N	NA 034 00E	31,66 79	Krasnaya Sopka Krasnoarmeysk	ppl 	55 42N 48 31N	090 02E 044 32E	RM
Khiva	ppl	41 24N	060 22E	21,32,RM 79	Krasnodar	ppl petr		039.00E	56,79,RM 31,66
Khmel'nitskaya Oblast' Khmel'nitskiy	admd ppl	49 30N 49 25N	027 00E 027 00E	79,RM	Krasnodar Krasnodar Heat and Power	thep	. NA	NA	49,67
Khmel'nitskiy	nucp	NA 62.01N	NA 079 28E	52,67 16	Krasnodarskiy Kray Krasnogorsk	admd ppl		040 00E 142 06E	21,79 RM
Khokhryakov Kholbon	oilf ppl	. 51 53N	116 15E	57,RM	Krasnokamensk uranium deposit	u/t	NA 58 04N	NA 055.48E	42,43 RM
Kholmogory Kholmogory	oilf	63 06N 63 06N	074 18E 074 18E	16,32,56,59,RM 16,66	Krasnokamsk Krasnokamsk	oilf	58 02N	055 39E	20
Kholmsk	ppl	47 03N 66 27N	142 03E 143 06E	57,RM RM	Krasnoleninskiy Krasnotur'insk	ppl ppl	61 38N 59 46N	067 42E 060 12E	16,RM RM
Khonuu Khopër	ppl stm	. 49 36N	042 19E	RM	Krasnovishersk	. ppl	60 23N	057 03E	56,RM
Khorezmskaya Oblast' Khorea	admd	41 30N 37 30N	060 30E 071 36E	79 RM	Krasnovodsk Krasnovodsk	ppl	40.00N	. 053 00E NA	21,56,79,RM 31,66
Khorog Khromtau	ppl	50 17N	058 27E	56,RM	Krasnovodskaya Oblast'	admd ppl	40 00N 56 01N	055 30E 092 50E	79 32,38,45,57,59,
Kiev Kinel	ppl	50 26N 53 14N	030 31E 050 39E	55,56,59,79,RM 56,RM	Krasnoyarsk				60,79,RM
Kineshma	ppl	57 28N 53 27N	042 07E 056 10E	56,RM 20	Krasnoyarsk Krasnoyarsk Heat and Power	hydp. thep	NA NA	NA	47,50,67 49,67
Kinzebulatovo Kirensk	oilf ppl	57 46N	108 08E	RM	Krasnoyarsk-2	thep	. NA	NA	49,67
Kirghiz SSR Kirishi	admd ppl	41 00N 59 27N .	075 00E 032 02E	79 32.RM	Krasnoyarskiy Kray Krasnoyarskoye Vodokhranilishche	admd resv	67 00N 55 00N	100 00E 091 05E	16,79 60, <b>R</b> M
Kirishi	thep	. NA	. NA	49,67	Kremenchug	ppl petr	49.04N NA	033 25E	32,RM 31,66
Kirishi Kirov	petr	NA 58.33N	NA 049 42E	31,66 55,56,79,RM	Kremenchug Krivoy Rog	ppl	47.55N	033 21E	RM
Kirov	. ppl .	54 05N 40 41N	034 20E 046 22E	RM RM	Krivoy Rog-2 Kropotkin	thep ppl	NA 45 26N	NA 040 34E	49,67 RM
Kirovabad Kirovakan	ppl	. 40 48 N		RM	Kropotkin	. ppl		115 17E	57,RM
Kirovo-Chepetsk Kirovograd	ppl	58 33N 48 30N	050 01 E 032 18 E	RM 56,79,RM	Krymskaya Oblast' Kstovo	admd	45 00N 56 11N	034 00E 044 11E	79 RM
Kirovogradskaya Oblast'	admd	48 30N	032 00E	79	Kuban'	stm.	45 20N 56 19N	037 22E 056 39E	21,RM 20
Kirovsk Kirovskaya Oblast'	ppl	. 67 37N 58 00N	033 40E 050 00E	56,RM 	Kubiyazy Kuchukovka	oilf	56 16N	053 04E	20
Kirpichli	gasf .	39 46 N	061 14E	21,66 RM	Kudymkar	ppl stm	59 01 N 59 24 N	054 39E	RM RM
Kiselevsk Kishinëv	ppi	54 00N 47 00N	086 39E 028 50E	79,R M	Kukhtuy Kul'sary	ppl	46 59N	054 01 E	
Kistaya, Guba Kislovodsk	bay	69 22N 43 55N	033 04E 042 43E	63 RM	Kul'sary	oilf oilf	46 58N 54 58N	054 05E 057 01E	21 20
Kiviðli	. ppl	. 59 21 N	026 57E	44,RM	Kuleshovka	oilf	52 49N 51 44N	051 08E 103 42E	20 57,RM
Kiya Kiyengop	stm. oilf	56 52N 57 18N	086 39E 053 20E	. 60 . 20	Kultuk	ppi 		078 57E	RM
Kiyevskaya Oblast'	admd	. 50 15N	030 30E 057 40E	79 RM	Kulyab Kulyabskaya Oblast'	ppl admd	37 55N 38 00N	069 46E	56,79,RM 79
Kizel Kizel coal basin	ppl coal	59 03N 58 30N	058 00E	. 34	Kum-Dag	oilf	38 54N	054 37E	21
Kizel coal deposit	coal .	59 02N	057 49E	. 34	Kumertau	ppl	52 46N	055 47E	RM

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Kumertau coal deposit	coal	52.43N	055.39E 038.12E	34 50.67	Lugovoy Lukomi'	ppi	42 56N 54 42N	072 45E 029 09E	RM RM
Kun'ya Kunashir, Ostroy	stm isl	56 31N 44 10N	146 00E	RM	Lukoml'	ppl thep	NA	NA	48,49,67
Kungrad Kungur	ppl ppl	43.02N 57.19N	058 49E 056 49E	21,56,RM RM	Lumbovskiy Zaliv Lutsk	gulf ppl	67.48N 50.45N	040-27E 025-20E	63 56,79,RM
Kuoyka tar sands deposit Kupino	tars ppl	69.38N 54.22N	121 22E 077 18E	45 RM	Luza Luza	ppl oilf	60.39N 65.00N	047-10E 055-33E	56,RM 20
Kupyansk	ppl	49.42N 61.46N	037.38E 057.33E	R M 20	Lyantor	oilf	61.36N	072 01E	16
Kuriya Kura	gasf stm	39.24N	049-19E	21,50,51,RM	м				
Kurakhovo Kurakhovo	ppl thep	47.59N NA	037-16E NA	RM 49,67	Magadan	ppl	59 34N	150 48E	57,59,79,RM
Kureska Kurgan	stm ppl	66 30N 55 26N	087-12E 065-18E	RM 56,79,RM	Magadanskaya Oblast' Magnitogorsk	admd ppl	65 00N 53 27N	160.00E 059.04E	79 56,RM
Kurgan-Tsube Kurgan-Tsubin daya Oblast'	ppi admd	37.50N 37.40N	068 47E 068 40E	79.R M 79	Mago Makarikha	ppl oilf	53 15N 66 34N	140-13E 058-17E	R M 20
Kurganskaya Oblast'	admd	55 30N 46 10N	064 00E 152 00E	79 RM	Makarov coal region Makat	coal ppl	49 00N 47 39N	143.00E 053.19E	34 21,R M
Kuril Islands Kursk	isls ppl	51.42N	036-12E	56,58,59,79,RM	Makeyevka	ppl	48 02N	037 53E	RM
Kursk Kurskaya Oblast'	nucp admd	NA 51.30N	NA 036.00E	52.67 79	Makhachkala Makhachkala	. ppl gasf	42 58N 42 46N	047-30E 047-31E	56,79,RM 21
Kushka Kushkul	ppl oilf	35 16N 55 28N	062 20E 056 13E	21,56,RM 20	Makinsk Makushino	ppl ppl	52 37N 55 13N	070-26E 067-13E	56,R M 56,R M
Kushmurun coal deposit	coal	52 30N 53 10N	065.00E 063.35E	34 55,56,79,RM	Malgobek Malochernogorsk	oilf oilf	43 24N 61 10N	044-37E 077-17E	21 16
Kustanay Kustanayskaya Oblast'	ppl admd	51.00N	064 00E	79	Malorechensk	oilf	60.33N	077.08E	16
Kutaisi Kushyshey	ppl	42 15N 55 27N	042 40E 078 19E	RM RM	Maloyamal . Mama	gasf ppl	68 20N 58 18N	071 49E 112 54E	16 57,RM
Kuybyshev	ppl	53 12N	050 09E	20,27,32,55,56, 59,79,RM	Mamakan Mamontovo	ppl ppl	57 48N 60 46N	114 01E 072 47E	57,59,RM 16,17,RM
Kuybysheyskaya Oblast	admd	53.00N 53.40N	050.00E 049.00E	20,79 20	Mamontovo Mana	oilf stm	60 39N 55 57N	072-37E 092-28E	16,22,66 60
Kuybyshevskoy: Vodokhranilishche Kuydzhik	resv gasf	39.03N	054 42E	21	Mancharovo	oilf	55.24N	054-28E	20
Kuveda Kuzhavevo	oilf oilf	56 26N 56 03N	055.33E 055.10E	20 20	Mangut Mangyshlak Peninsula	ppl . pen	49 42N 44 18N	112 40E 051 00E	RM 21,RM
Kuznetsk Kuznetsk coal tasin	ppl coal	53.07N 54.30N	046.36E 087.00E	RM 34,35,36,37,38,	Mangyshlakskaya Oblast' Manzurka	admd ppl	44 00N 53 30N	054 00E 106 04E	79 RM
				40,41,60	Margilan	ppl	40 27N 56 30N	071 42E 048 00E	RM 79
Kvakhta Kvrtasel'	ppl oilf	50 20N 63 53N	106-30E 054-48E	57,RM 20	Mariyskaya ASSR Markha	admd stm	63.28N	118-50E	RM
Kysyl-Syr Kyardamir	ppl ppl	63 53N 40 21N	122 46E 048 11E	RM 56.RM	Markovo Martyshi	ppl oilf	64 40N 47 11N	170 25E 050 44E	RM 21
Kyuroydag	oilf	39 35N 39 27N	049 04E 049 16E	21 21	Mary Mary	ppl thep	37 36N	061-50E	21,32,55,56,79,RM 48,49,67
Kyursangya Kyzyl	ppl	51.42N	094.27E	57,79,RM	Maryyskaya Oblast'	admd	37.00N	062 30E	79
Kyzyl coal deposit Kyzyl-Dzhar uranium deposit	coal u/t	51.28N NA	094 44E NA	34 42,43	Matyushkin Maya	oilf stm	60 08N 60 24N	076 57E 134 30E	16 RM
Kyzyl Kiya coa: deposit Kyzyl kum	coal gasf	40.16N 39.11N	072 15E 054 32E	34 21	Mayak Maykop	oilf ppl	57 25N 44 35N	055 40E 040 10E	20 56,RM
Kyzylkum Desert	dst	42.00N 51.30N	064 00F 065 30F	RM 34	Maykop	oilf	59.00N	055 58E 076 00E	20
Kyzyltal coal deposit Kzyl Orda	coal ppl	44.48N	065-28E	56,79,RM	Maykuben coal deposit Mayna	coal ppl	50.45N 53.00N	091-28E	RM
Kzyl Ordinskaya Oblast'	admd	45 00N	065 00E	79	Mayskoye Mažeikiai	gasf ppl	37 20N 56 19N	062 05E 022 20E	21 RM
1					Mažeikiai Medvezh'i Ostrova	petr isls	NA 70.52N	NA 161-26E	31,66 RM
Exec	ppl	49.50N	024 00E	55,56,79,RM	Medvezh'ye	gasf	66 08N	074 09E	15,16,17,18,
L'xov L'vov Volyn' ccal basin	petr coal	50.30N	NA 024 30E	31,66 34	Megion	ppl	61.03N	076-06E	23,32,66 16,17,19,RM
E'vovskava Oblast' La Perouse Strut	admd stri	50.00N 45.45N	024 00E 142 00E	79 RM	Megion . Melitopol	oilf ppl	60 58N 46 50N	076-20E 035-22E	16,66 R M
Labytnangi	ppl lake	66 39N 61 00N	066-21E 031-30E	16,17,18,RM RM	Messoyakha Mezen	gasf ppl	68 59N 65 50N	082 58E 044 16E	16,32,59 RM
Ladoga, Lake Ladvzhim	ppl	48 40 N	029-15E	RM	Mezen	stm	66 11 N 66 40 N	043 59E 043 45E	20,RM 63
Ladszhin Lagodekhi	thep ppl	NA 41 49N	NA 046 16E	49,67 56,RM	Mezenskaya Guba Mezhdurechensk	bay ppl	53.42N	088-03E	RM
Lake Onega ur inium deposit Laim	u/t gasf	39.12N	NA 052-31E	42,43	Mezhdurechenskiy Miass	ppl ppl	59.36N 54.59N	065 56E 060 06E	16,RM RM
Langepas	ppi sea	61 13N 76 00N	075-17E 126-00E	16,RM RM	Michayu Michurinsk	oilf ppl	64.00N 52.54N	055 47E 040 30E	20 56.RM
Laptev Sea Latvian SSR	admd	57.00N	025-00E	79	Middle Olenëk tar sands deposit	tars	68 12N 54 00N	121-15E 048-00E	45 46,55
Lavavozh Lazarev	gasf ppl	67 44N 52 13N	054 51F 142 32E	20,66 R M	Middle Volga power system Mikhaylovka	reg ppl	50.04N	043-15E	RM
Ledovove Lem"vu	oilf oilf	59.51N 64.15N	076 54E 055 22E	16 20	Mikhaylovskiy. Mikun'	ppi ppl	51 49N 62 21N	079 45E 050 06E	RM 56,RM
Lemisa Lena	oilf stm	60 57 N 72 25 N	063-12E 126-40E	16 RM	Min-Kush Min-Kush uranium deposit/processing center	ppl u/t	41.41N NA	074-28E Na	RM 42,43
Lena coal basir.	coal	63.00N 60.45N	123 00E 125 00E	34,35,40 B M	Mingechaur	ppl ppl	40.45N 53.54N	047.03E 027.34E	RM 53,55,56,79,RM
Lena Plateau Lena Lungusk, oil and gas region	upld reg	58.00N	107.00E	14,25,32	Minsk Minsk ATETs	nucp	NA	NA	52,67
Leninabad Leninabadskava Oblast'	ppl admd	40.17N 40.00N	069-37E 069-10E	79,R M 79	Minskaya Oblast' Minusinsk	admd ppl	54.00N 53.43N	028 00E 091 42E	79 RM
Leninakan Leningrad	ppl ppl	40.48N 59.55N	043-50E 030-15E	56.RM 32,55,56,59,79,	Minusinsk coal basin Mirbashir	coal oilf	53 30N 40 12N	091-15E 046-52E	34 21
I eningrad	nucp	NA	NA	RM 52,53,67	Mirnyy Mirzaani	ppl oilf	62 33N 41 19N	113 53E 046 05E	57,58,59,RM 21
Leningrad oil shale field	oils	59.01 N	029-11E	44	Mishkino	oilf	57 08N 39 48N	054 03E 049 11E	20
Leningradskav i Oblast" Leninogorsk	adınd ppl	60.00N 54.36N	032 00E 052 30E	79 R M	Mishovdag Modar	oilf gasf	39.24N	057.55E	21
Eennogorsk Eeninsk (Evurztam)	ppl ppi	50.22N 45.40N	083.32E 063.20E	56.RM 56.RM	Mogilëv Mogilëvskaya Oblast`	ppl admd	53 54N 54 00N	030-21E 030-45E	56,79,R M 79
Leninsk Kuznetskiv Leninsk Kuznetskiv coal deposit	ppl coal	54-38N 54-45N	086-10E 086-00E	60,RM 34	Mogoyto Moldavian	ppl thep	54 25N NA	110.27E Na	RM 49,67
1 emnskove	ppl	47.56N	132.38E	57.R M	Moldavian SSR	admd	47.00N 37.05N	029 00E 061 20E	79 21
Lensk Lerimontov	ppl	60 43N 44 06N	114 55E 042 57E	57,58,59,RM RM	Mollaker Molodechno	gasf ppl	54 19N	026-51E	RM
Eermontov uranium deposit, processing center Eesosibirsk	u/t ppl	58-20N	NA 092-20E	42,43 57,60,RM	Monchegorsk Mondy	ppl ppl	67 56N 51 40N	032 58E 100 59E	RM RM
Lesozavodsk Lida	ppl ppl	45.28N 53.53N	133-27E 025-18E	57,RM RM	Mordovskaya ASSR Morozovsk	. admd ppl	54.30N 48.22N	044 00E 041 51E	79 56,RM
t repăța	ppl	56.31N	021-01E	56,R M	Morshansk	ppl oilf	53 26N 60 33N	041 49E 064 38E	R.M 16
Lipetsk Lipetskava Objast'	ppl admd	52 37N 52 30N	039-35E 039-00E	56,79, <b>R</b> M 79	Mortym'ya-Teterev Moscow	ppl	55 45N	037 35E	32,55,56,59,79,
Lisakovsk Lisichansk	ppl ppl	52 39N 48 55N	062 45E 038 26E	56.RM RM	Moscow coal basin	coal	54.30N	036-00E	RM 34,35,36,37,40
Lisichansk Lisicenka	petr oilf	NA 57.08N	NA 053.36E	31.66 20	Moskal'vo Moskovskaya Oblast	ppl admd	53.35N 55.45N	142-30E 037-30E	11.RM 79
Listovanka	ppl	51.52N	104.51E	RM	Moskva	stm	55.05N	038-51E NA	RM 31.66
Labuanian Labuanian SSR	thep admd	NA 56.00N	NA 024 00E	49,67 79	Moskva (Moscow) Lyubertsy Moyynty	petr	NA 47 14N	073-20E	RM
Lattle BAM Lavanov	rr gasf	56-30N 39-41N	124 50E 051 58E	11 21	Mozdok Mozyr'	ppl ppl	43 44N 52 03N	044 40E 029 16E	56,RM RM
Lobanovo Lodevnove Pole	oilf ppl	57 45N 60 44N	056 13E 033 33E	20 56.RM	Mozyr' Mubarek	petr ppl	NA 39.16N	NA 065-10E	31.66 21,RM
Lokosovo	oilf	61.11N	075.06E	16	Mubarek	gasf	39.21N 54.00N	065 28E 100 30E	21
Longa, Proliv	oilf strt	59 34N 70 20N	077-09E 178-00E	16 RM	Mugun coal deposit Mukachevo	coal ppl	48.27N	022 43E	56,64,RM
Lovozero Lovozero Tuncra uranium, thorium deposit	ppl u/t	68.00N NA	035.00E NA	RM 42,43	Mukhanovo	oilf oilf	53 21N 60 06N	051-24E 073-14E	20,66 16
Lower Kama Lower Kama – Heat and Power	hydp thep	NA NA	NA NA	50,67 49,67	Mulym'ya Muna	oilf stm	60 15N 67 52N	064.37E 123.06E	16 RM
l uchegorsk	ppl	46 29N 58 44N	134 12E 029 52E	57,RM RM	Muna tar sands deposit Munalyk	tars oilf	67 07N 46 45N	122 27E 054 49E	45 21
Luga	ppl		and shake						

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• Muradkhanly	oilf	9 46N	047 51E	21	Novokadeyevka	oilf	54.43N	056 24E	20
Murgab	stm 3	8 18N	061 12E	RM	Novokazalinsk	ppl	45 50N	062 10E	RM
Murmansk Murmanskaya Oblast				55,56,59,79,RM 79	Novokiyevskiy Uval	ppl	. 51 40N	128 57E	57.RM
Murom				RM	Novokuybyshevsk Novokuybyshevsk Lend Lease 3	ppl	53 07 N	049 58E	RM 31.66
Musina				20	Novokuybyshevsk No. 2	petr	NA	. NA	31,66
Mutnovskaya Sopka Muvunkum Desert				64,RM RM	Novokuznetsk Novomoskovsk	ppl	53 45N	087 06E	32,55,56,RM
Mys Shmidta				RM	Novonikolayevskiy	ppl ppl	. 54 05N . 50 58N	038 13E 042 22E	RM 56,RM
Mysovoye	. ppi . 4:	5 27N	035 50E	62,RM	Novopolotsk	ppl	55 32N	028 39E	RM
					Novopolotsk Novopskov	petr	NA	NA 039.05E	31,66
N					Novorossiysk	ppl ppl	44 43N	037 47E	32,RM 32,56.62,RM
Nadvornaya Nadvornaya				RM	Novoshakhtinsk	ppi	47 47 N	039 56E	RM
Nadym	petr N ppl 6:			31,66,RM 16,17,19,32,59,	Novosibirsk Novosibirskaya Oblast'	ppl admd	55 02N 55 00N	082 55E 080 00E	18,32,55,56,59,79 79
				RM	Novotroitsk	ppl	51 12N	058 20E	RM
Nadym Nadym				16,19,RM 16	Novovolynsk coal deposit Novovoronezhskiy	coal	50 42N 51 19N	024 13E	34
Naftalan				21	Novovoronezhskiy	ppl nucp	. 51 19IN	039 13E	RM 52,67
Nagorno-Karabakhskaya AO				79	Novoyelkhovo	oilf	54 59N	052 02E	20,66
Nagumanskoye Naip				20 21,66	Novyy Port	ppl gasf	67 40N 67 53N	072 52E 072 21E	16,59,RM 16,66
Nakhichevan'	ppl	912N	045 24E	56,79,R M	Novyy Port Novyy Urengoy	ppl	66 05N	076 42E	16,17,18,19,32
Nakhichevanskaya ASSR Nakhodka				79 57,RM	Novyy Uzen'		43 18N	0.50 1017	55,56,59,RM
Nakhodka	gasf 68	8 04N		16,66	Noyabr'sk	ppl ppl	63 08N	052 48E 075 22E	56,RM 16,17,RM
Nal'chik Namangan	ppl			79,RM	Nozhovka	oilf	57 09N	054 49E	20
Namanganskaya Oblast'				56,79,RM 79	Nukus Nurek	ppl ppl	42 29N 38 23N	059 38E 069 21E	56,79,RM 56,RM
Namtsy	ppl 62	2 43N	129 37E	RM	Nurek	hydp	. NA	NA	50,51,67
Nar'yan-Mar Narva				20,RM	Nurlat	oilf	. 54 37N	. 050 54E	20
Naryn	ppl 41	1 26 N	075 58E	44,RM 56,79,RM	Nurmin Nyakh	gasf ppl	69 02N 62 09N	071 41E 065 27E	16 16,RM
Naryn	. ppl	8 17N	068 55E	RM	Nyamed	gasf	63 16N	054.15E	20
Naryn Narynkol				50,51,67,RM RM	Nyandoma Nyda	ppl ppl	61 40N	040 12E 072 54E	RM 16,19,RM
Narynskaya Oblast'	admd 41	1 30N	075 30E	79	Nyda	gasf	. 66 37N	073 49E	16,19,RM 16,66
Natanebi tar sands deposit Naugarzan uranium deposit				45	Nysh Nyukzha	ppl	51.33N	142 46E	RM
Naugarzan uranium deposit Naushki	u/t			42,43 RM	Nyukzha	stm	56 35N 63 17N	121 36E 118 20E	11 RM
Navoi	ppl 40	0.09N	065 22E	56,79,RM	Nyuya	stm	60 32N	116 14E	RM
Navoi Navoiyskaya Oblast	thep NA admd 42			49.67 79					
Nazarovo				79 57,60,RM	0				
Nazarovo Nazarovo coal deposit	thep NA		NA .	49,67	Ob'	stm.	. 66 45N	069 30E	16,19,60,RM
Nebit-Dag				34 32,56,RM	Obninsk Obninsk	ppl nucp	55.05N NA	036 37E	RM
Nebit-Dag	oilf	9.06N	054 18E	21,66	Obozërskiy	ppl	63 29N	NA 040 19E	67 . RM
Nebit-Dag tar sands deposit Neftechala	tars			45 21	Obshchiy Syrt oil shale deposit	oits	51 40N	055 53E	44
Neftekamsk				RM	Obskaya Guba Odessa	bay ppl	69 00N 46 28N	073 00E 030 44E	16,RM 32,53,56,79,RM
Neftekumsk				21	Odessa	petr	NA	NA	31,66
Nefteyugansk Neftezavodsk	ppl 61 petr NA			16,17,19,RM 31,66	Odessa ATETs Odesskaya Oblast	nucp admd	NA 47.00N	NA	52,67 79
Neftyanyye Kamni	oilf 40	06N	050 43E	21,66	Odoptu	oilf	53 20N	143 49E	. 11
Nelidovo Nelidovo coaf basin				56,RM 34	Oka Oka-Don Plain	stm		031 05E	RM
Neman	stm	5 18N	021 23E	50,67	Okarem	pln oilf	53 00N 37 53N	040 30E 053 57E	. RM . 21
Nenetskiy AOk Nenoksa				20,79 RM	Okha	ppl	53 34N	. 142 56E.	11,32,57,59,RM
Neryungri				KM 11,57,59,RM	Okhotsk Okhotsk coal area	ppl coal	59 23N 59 45N	143 18E 147 00E	RM 34
Neryungri	thep	۸ i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i	NA	11,59	Okhotsk, Sea of	sea	. 55 00N	150 00E	11,RM
Neryungri coal deposit Never				11,34 11,57,RM	Oktyabr'sk Oktyabr'sk	ppl ppl	49 28N 53 10N	057 25E 048 42E	RM RM
Nevinnomyssk	ppl		041 57E	RM	Oktyabr`skiy	ppi	52 40N	156 14E	RM
Nevinnomyssk New Siberian Islands	thep NA isls 75			49,67 RM	Oktyabr'skiy Oktyabr'skiy	ppl	. 39 06N		RM
Neyto				16,66	Oktyabi skiy	ppl ppl	54 28N 53 01N	053 28E 128 37E	RM 57.RM
Nezhin Nikel'		03N		56,RM 56,RM	Oktyabr'skoy Revolyutsii, Ostrov Oktyabr'skoye	isl	79.30N	097 00E	RM
Nikol'skiy				RM	Ol'doy	ppl stm	62 28N	066 03E	RM 11
Nikoľskoye	. oilf 52	2.52N (	053 05E	20	Ol'ga	ppl	43 45N	135 18E	57,RM
Nikolayev Nikolayevsk				56,79,RM 57,RM	Ol'khovka Olëkma	oilf stm	58 41 N 60 22 N	056 41E 120 42E	20
Nikolayevskaya Oblast'	admd 47	15N	032 00E	79	Olëkminsk	ppl	60 22N	120 42E	RM RM
Nikolayevskoye Nikopol				21 RM	Olen'ye Olenëk	oilf	. 59 31N	076 36E	16
Nizhneangarsk				57.RM	Olenëk	ppl stm	68 33N 73 00N	112 18E 119 55E	RM RM
Nizhnekamsk	ppl 55	36N (	051 47E	RM	Olenëk oil shale deposit	oils	67 30N	119 22E	44
Nizhnekamsk	oilf 62			31,66 20	Olenëk tar sands deposit Olenëkskiy Zaliv	tars	. 71 17N	122 23E	45
Nizhnesortym	oilf	. 39N (	070 57E	16	Oleynikov	gulf oilf	. 73 20N . 45 31N	121 00E 046 30E	RM 21
Nizhneudinsk Nizhnevartovsk				57,RM	Olovyannaya Olov	ppl	. 50 56N	115 35E	RM
	ppn			16,17,18,19,31, 32,56,RM	Oloy Olyutorskiy Poluostrov	stm. pen	66 29N . 60 15N .	159 29E 170 12E	RM
Nizhneyansk Nizhniy Bestyakh			136 04E I	RM	Omolon	stm	. 68 42N	158 36E	RM
Nizhniy Tagil		55N (	059 57E I	RM RM	Omolon coal area	coal ppl	64.45N . 55.00N	159 30E 073 24E	34 18,32,56,79,RM
Nizhnyaya Poyma	ppl	11N (	097 13E e	50,RM	Omsk	ppi petr	. 55 00IN	073 24E	18,32,56,79,RM 31,66
Nizhnyaya Tunguska Nizhnyaya Tura				RM 32,RM	Omskaya Oblast' Omsukchan	admd	56 00N	073 00E	79
Noginsk	ppl 55	51N (	038 27E	RM	Omsukchan coal deposit	ppl coal	62 32N 62 30N	155 48E 156 15E	57,59,RM 34
Noginsk Noril'sk		32N 0	09110EI	RM	Onega	ppl	63 54N	038 08E	RM
	ppl	20N 0		16,32,57,58,59, RM	Onega, Lake	lake stm	61 30N 51 42N	035 45E	RM RM
Noril'sk coal deposit			087 30E	34	Opukha coal area	coal	62.00N	173 30E	34
Norio North Caspian oil and gas region				21 14,21,25,32	Or'ya Ordzhonikidze	oilf ppl	56 06N 43 00N	054 44E 044 40E	20 21 56 70 PM
North Caucasus oil and gas region	rcg 45	00N 0	045 00E 1	14,15,21,22,25,32	Orël	ppi	52 55N	044 40E 036 05E	21,56,79,RM 56,79,RM
North Caucasus power system North Caucasus Economic Region				46,55 79	Orenburg	ppl	51 45N	055 06E	10,20,32,55,56,
North Kazakhstan power system	reg . 50	00N 0	073 00E 4	6,55	Orenburg	gasf	51.45N	054 47E	79,RM 15,20,23,66
North Siberian Lowland Northern Economic Region	pln 72	00N 1	104 00E F	RM 19	Orenburgskaya Oblast'	admd	52.00N	056 00E	20,79
Northern Hills				RM	Orlovskaya Oblast' Orsha	admd ppl	53 00N 54 31N	036 15E 030 26E	79 RM
Northern Lights pipeline	pipe 57	00N 0	035 00E 1	0,20	Orsk	ppi	. 51 t2N	058 34E	32,56,RM
Northwest power system Northwest Economic Region				16,55 19	Orsk Orsk 421	petr	NA	NA	31,66
Novaya Sibir', Ostrov	ist 75	00N 1	149 00E F	ŔM	Osa	oilf	NA 57.14N	NA 055 25E	31,66 20
Novaya Zemlya Novgorod				RM 6 79 PM	Osh	ppl	40 32N	072 48E	56,79,RM
Novgorodskaya Oblast'				56,79 <b>,R</b> M 79	Osh coal deposit	coal	40 30N 71 47N	073 00E 082 50E	34 RM
Novikovo	ppl	22N 1		RM	Oshskaya Oblast'	admd	40.00N	073 00E	79
Novo-Angren Novoagansk	thep NA ppl 61			19,67 6,17,RM	Osinniki Ostrov Bulla	ppl oilf	53 37N 40 04N	087 21E	RM
Novoaltaysk	ppl	24N 0	083 55E F	RM	Oymyakon	oilt	40 04 N 63 28 N	049 37E 142 49E	21,66 RM
Novoasharovo Novocheboksarsk				10 R M	Ozek-Suat Ozërnyy	oilf	44.29N	044 47E	21
Novocherkassk	ppi	25N 0	040 06E	RM		gasf	70 29N	085 06E	16
Novocherkassk Novogornyv	thep NA	N	я́а	9,67					
Novogornyy uranium deposit	ppl			RM -2,43					

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Р					R (continued)				
Pakhachi Pal'yanoyo	ppl oilf	60.34N 61.50N	169 03E 066 41E	RM 16	Reftinskiy Revda	thep	NA 56 48 N	NA 059-57E	47,49,67 RM
Palana	ppl	59.07N	159-58E	RM	Riga	ppl	56 57N	024 06E	32,56,79,RM
Palatka Palyavaam	ppl stm	60.06N 68.50N	150 54E 170 45E	57,RM RM	Riga, Gulf of Rogun	gulf ppi	57 30N 38 47N	023 35E 069 52E	RM RM
Pannys Panevöžys	mts ppl	38.00N 55.44N	073 00E 024 21E	RM RM	Rogun Romanovka	hydp ppl	NA 53 14N	NA 112.46E	50,51,67 RM
Pantilov	ppl	44 10N	080.01E 074.30E	56,RM	Romashkino Romay	oilf	54 50N 50 45N	052 32E 033 28E	17,20,22,66 RM
Pangody Paramushir, Ostrov	ppl isl	65 51N 50 25N	155 50E	16,17,RM RM	Roslavi	ppl ppl	53 57N	032 52E	RM
Paratunka Pärun	ppl ppl	52 57N 58 24N	158 14E 024 32E	57,64,RM 56,RM	Rossokha tar sands deposit	tars ppl	71 07N 50 12N	111 02E 038 26E	45 RM
Paromay Partizansk	ppl	52 50N 43 07N	143 02E 133 05E	57,RM RM	Rostov	ppl nucp	57 11 N Na	039-25E	55,56,59,79,RM 52,67
Partizansk coal basin	coal	43.15N	133.00E	34	Rostovskaya Oblast'	admd	47.00N	042 00F	79
Pashnya Patara	oilf oilf	63 16N 41 09N	056-20E 046-26E	20 21	Rovenskaya Oblast'	admd . ppl	51 00N 50 37N	026-30E 026-15E	79 56,79, <b>RM</b>
Pauzhetka Pavlodar	ppl ppl	51-28N 52-18N	156 48E 076 57E	57,64,RM 32,56,59,79,RM	Rovno	nucp ppl	NA 52.15N	NA 043-47E	52,67 RM
Pavlodar	petr	NA 52.00N	NA	31,66	Rubisovsk	ppl.	51 30N 59 38N	081-15E	55,56,RM
Pavlodarskaya C'blast" Pavlograd	admd ppl	47.00N	076 00E 035 03E	79 RM	Rudnichnyy Rudnyy	ppl ppl	52 57N	052 26E 063 07E	56,RM RM
Pavlovskove Pechenga	oilf ppl	56 34N 69 33N	056 06E 031 12E	20 RM	Russian Soviet Federated Socialist Republic Russkava	admd gasf	60 00N 66 40N	100 00E 080 33E	79 16,66
Pechora Pechora	ppl stm	65 25N 68 13N	057 02E 054 15E	20,32,56,59,RM 20,50,51,RM	Russkaya tar sands deposit Russkiy Khutor	tars oilf	66 56N 44 15N	080 45E 045 19E	45 21
Pechora coal basin	coal	67.00N	062 00E	34,35,36,37,39,40	Rustavi	ppl	41 33N 54 04N	045 03E	RM
Pechora-Kozhva Pechorskove More	gasf sea	65 15N 70 00N	056 58E 054 00E	20 RM	Ruzayevka	ppl ppl	54 04N 54 38N	044 56E 039 44E	56,RM 56,65,79,RM
Peipus, Lake Pelyatka	lake gasf	58 45N 69 44N	027 30E 081 53E	RM 16.66	Ryazan' Ryazan'	thep	NA NA	NA NA	49,67 31,66
Peno	ppl	56.55N	032 45E	RM 56,79,RM	Ryazanskaya Oblast'	admd .	54.15N	040-30E	79 56,RM
Penza Penzenskaya Oblast'	ppl admd	53 13N 53 00N	045 00E 044 30E	79	Rybach'ye Rybinskoye Vodokhranilishche	ppl resv	42 26N 58 30N	076 12E 038 25E	RM
Penzhina Penzhinskaya Gaba	stm bay	62 28N 61 00N	165 18E 162 00E	RM 63.RM	Ryrkaypiy Rzhev	ppl ppl	68 56N 56 15N	179 26W 034 20E	59,RM 56,RM
Peregrebnoye	ppl	62.58N 58.00N	065 05E	RM 20,32,56,79,RM					
Perm' Perm'	ppl thep	NA	056-15E Na	49,67	S				
Perm' Permskava Oblast'	petr admd	NA 59.00N	NA 056-00E	31,66 20,79	Saaremaa Safonovo	isl ppl	58 25N 55 09N	022 30E 033 13E	RM 56.RM
Permyakov Pervomaysk	oilf ppl	61 27N 48 03N	079 30E 030 52E	16 RM	Safonovo coal deposit	coal oilf	55 15N 47 26N	033 09E 053 21E	34 21
Pervomaysk	ppi	46 26 N	141.57E	RM	Sakar Sakhalin	gasf isl	38.54N 51.00N	063 35E 143 00E	21,66 11.RM
Pervomayskoye Pervoural'sk	oilf ppl	59.09N 56.54N	076-14E 059-58E	16 RM	Sakhalin oil and gas region	reg	52.00N	143 00E	11,14,25,32
Pestsovyy Petropavlovsk	gasf ppi	67.02N 54.52N	075 21E 069 06E	16,66 56,79,RM	Sakhalin tar sands deposit Sakhalinskaya Oblast'	admd	53 58N 52 00N	142 47E 142 30E	45 79
Petropavlovsk-K inchatskiy	ppl	53.01N 52.19N	158-39E 045-23E	57,59,79,RM 32.RM	Sakmara	stm ppl	51 46N 46 28N	055-01E 041-33E	20 56,RM
Petrovsk Petrovsk-Zabaykaľskiy	ppl ppl	51.17N	108-50E	57,RM	Salaush	oilf	55.59N	052 57E	20
Petrozavodsk Pevek	ppl ppl	61 49N 69 42N	034 20E 170 17E	56,79,RM 57,59,RM	Salavat	ppl. petr	53.21.N Na	055-55E Na	20,R M 31,66
Pikhtoska Pilyugino	ppl oilf	56.00N 53.23N	082 42E 052 18E	RM 20	Salekhard	ppl oilf	66 33N 60 47N	066 40E 071 12E	16.RM 16
Pinega	stm	64 08 N	041.54E	RM	Salyukino	oilf	66 52N 38 59N	058 43E 063 53E	20 21,66
Pinsk Pionerskoye iron ore deposit	ppl iron	52.07N 57.30N	026 07E 125 05E	56,RM 11	Samantepe	gasf stm	53.10N	050 04E	20
Plesetsk Pobedino	pp) ppl	62 43N 49 51N	040-17E 142-49E	RM RM	Samarkand Samarkandskaya Oblast	ppl admd	39 40N 40 00N	066 58E 067 00E	56,79,RM 79
Podkamennaya 'unguska	ppl stm	61.36N 61.36N	090-09E 090-18E	RM RM	Samgori Samotlor	oilf oilf	41 34N 61 14N	045 09E 076 39E	21,66 16,17,19,22,29,66
Podkamennaya junguska Pogranichnyy	ppl	44.25N	131-24E	RM	Sangar coal deposit	coal	64 30N	128-00E	34
Pokachi Pokosnyy	oilf ppi	61 42N 55 31N	074 59E 101 04E	16,66 57,RM	Sannikova, Proliv Saran'	strt. ppl	74 30N 49 46N	140 00E 072 52E	RM RM
Pokrovka Pokrovka	oilf oilf	52 49N 53 01N	049-39E 052-47E	20 20	Saransk Saraoul	ppl ppl	54 11 N 56 28 N	045.11E 053.48E	79,RM RM
Pokrovsk	ppl	61.29N	129.06E	57,RM 20	Saratov Saratov	ppl hydp	51.34N Na	046-02E Na	32,56,79,RM 50,67
Polazna Poles'ye	oilf reg	58 15N 52 00N	056-25E 027-00E	RM	Saratov	petr	NA	NA	31,66
Polevskoy Polotsk	ppl ppl	56 26N 55 29N	060 11E 028 47E	RM 32,56,RM	Saratovskaya Oblast' Sarny	admd . ppl	51 30N 51 20N	047 00E 026 36E	20,79 56,RM
Poltava Poltavskaya Oblast'	ppl admd	49.35N 49.30N	034-34E 034-00E	79.RM 79	Sartang Sary-Ozek	stm ppl	67 44N 44 22N	133 12E 077 59E	RM 56.RM
Poludennoye	oilf	60.07N	078 09E	16	Saryshagan	ppl	46.06N 54.20N	073-36E 041-55E	56,RM 56,RM
Polyarnyy Pomary	ppl ppl	69.38N 55.58N	178-44E 048-21E	59.RM 10.20.RM	Sasovo	ppl oilf	61.54N	073 42E	16
Ponomarevka Ponov	oilf stm	53.18N 66.59N	054 04E 041 17E	20 RM	Sayak Sayan Mountains	ppl mts	47.00N 52.45N	077-24E 096-00E	56.RM RM
Popigay	stm	72.54N	106 36E	RM 57 PM	Sayan Shushenskoye Sayanogorsk	hydp ppl	NA 53.05N	NA 091-25E	46,47,50,51,67 55,57,RM
Poronavsk Pos'yet	ppl	49 13N 42 39N	143 07E 130 48E	S7,RM RM	Saygat	oilf	61 22N	072 09E	16
Potanas Poti	oilf ppl	61 15N 42 09N	065 56E 041 40E	16 RM	Segezha	ppl stm	63 44N 51 42N	034-19E 128-53E	56,RM RM
Povkh Poyarkovo	oilf ppl	62 28N 49 36N	075 51E 128 41E	16 RM	Semakov Semenovka	gasf . oilf	69 11N 53 41N	076 02E 050 34E	16,66 20
Pravdinsk	oilf	60.51N	071 47E 056 38E	16,29,66	Semipalatinsk Semipalatinskaya Oblast	ppl admd	50 28N 49 00N	080-13E 080-00E	56,79,RM 79
Pravobereg Priargunsk	gasf ppl	62 13N 50 24N	119 06E	57,RM	Serafimovskiy	oilf	. 54.33N	053-35E	20
Pridneprovsk Pridneprovsk	ppl thep	48 24N NA	035.07E NA	RM 49,67	Serdobsk Sergeyevka	ppl ppl	52 28N 53 51N	044-13E 067-25E	RM 56,RM
Priluki Primorskiv Krav	ppl admd	50-36N 45-00N	032-24E 135-00E	RM 79	Sergeyevka	oilf ppl	54 50N 62 30N	055.41E 065.38E	20 16,17,18,RM
Primorsko-Akhtarsk	ppl	46.03N	038-10E	RM	Serov	ppl .	59 36N 54 55N	060 35E 037 25E	56,RM RM
Prípyať Prokop'yevsk	stm ppl	51-10N 53-53N	030-30E 086-45E	RM RM	Serpukhov	ppl lake	40 20N	045-20E	RM
Prokop'yevsk. co. 1 deposit Promyshlenyy	coal ppl	54 15N 67 35N	086 45E 063 55E	34 RM	Sevastopol' Severnaya Dvina	ppl stm	44 36N 64 32N	033-32E 040-30E	56,RM RM
Pron'kino	oilf oilf	52 47N 45 51N	052 34E 053 20E	20 21	Severnaya Sos'va Severnaya Zemlya	stm isls	64 11 N 79 30 N	065-27E 098-00E	16,RM RM
Prova Provideniya	ppl	64.23N	173-18W	RM	Severnyy Pokur Severo-Achak	oilf	60 48 N	078-27E	16,66
Przhevaľsk Pskov	ppl ppl	42 29N 57 50N	078-24E	56,79,RM 56,79,RM	Severo-Balkui	gasf gasf	41.06N 39.55N	061 38E 061 36E	21
Pskovskaya Obli st' Pugachëv	admd ppl	57 30N 52 02N	029 00E 048 49E	79 RM	Severo-Buzachi Severo-Gugurtli	oilf gasf	45.09N . 40.25N	051 50E 062 01E	21
Punga	gasf	62 40N	064 11E	16	Severo-Kamsk Severo-Kazakhstanskaya Oblast'	oilf	58 07N 54 30N	056 08E 069 00E	20 79
Pur Pushkino	stm ppl	67 31N 51 14N	077 55E 046 59E	16,19,RM RM	Severo-Komsomol	gasf	64 46 N	076-08E	16,66
Pyasina Pyatigorsk	stm ppl	73 50N 44 01N	087 10E 043 05E	16.RM 56.RM	Severo-Najn	oilf gasf	62 17N 40 42N	055 59E 061 48E	20 21
Pyt'-Yakh	ppl	60 45N	072 50E	16,17,RM	Severo-Osetinskava ASSR	admd oilf	43 00N 61 12N	044 00E 075 48E	79
R					Severo-Pokur	gasf	67 34N	076-3215	16,66
R Radayevka	oilf	53.52N	050 57E	20	Severobaykal'sk	oilf ppl	62 26N 55 38N	077 25E 109 19E	16,66 RM
Raduzhny y Rassokha	ppl gasf	62.06N 61.52N	077 31E 057 19E	16,17,RM 20	Severodvinsk	ppl ppl	64 34N 69 05N	039 50E 033 27E	56,RM RM
Raychikhinsk coal basin	coal	51.30N	128 00E 044 46E	34,40 RM	Severoural'sk	ppl ppl	60 09N 62 53N	059 57E 152 26E	RM RM
Razdan Razdan	ppl thep	40 29N NA	NA	49,67	Seyrab	gasf	38 40N	062 40E	21
Razgort Rechitsa	ppl ppl	63 29N 52 22N	048 42E 030 23E	56,RM RM	Shadrinsk	ppl ppl	56 05N 60 21N	063-38E 064-10E	RM 16,RM
Reftinskiy	ppl	57.00N	061-30E	RM	Shakhpakhty	gasf	42 49N	057 22E	21

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Shakhtinsk	ppl	49.41N	072 36E	RM	Sutormin	oilf	64 01 N	074 58F	16
Shakhty	ppl coal	47 42N 47 37N	040 13E . 040 22E .	RM 34	Suzun	ppl gasf	53 47N 68 10N	082 19E 083 52E	56,RM 16
Shakhty coal deposit Shantarskiye Ostrova	isls	55.00N	137 36E	RM	Sverdlovsk	ppl	56.51N	060 36E	26,55,56,79,RM
Shapkina Sharypoyo	oilf ppl	67 18N 55 33N	054 17E 089 12E	20 55,56,60,RM	Sverdlovsk	admd ppl	58 00N 52 38N	062 00E 029 46E	79 RM
Shashkin	oilf	55.01N	056 07E	20	Svetlogorsk	ppl.	66 55N	088 23E	57,RM
Shatlyk Shatura	gasf ppl	37 20N 55 34N	061 27E 039 32E .	21,66 RM	Svetlogorsk Svetlyy Svetlyy	ppl ppl	62 43N 63 15N	064 17E 113 45E	57.RM
Shatura	thep	NA	NA	49,67	Svobodnyy	ppr	. 51 24N	128 08 E	55,57,RM
Shchuchinsk Shelikhova, Zaliv	ppl gulf	52 56N 59 45N	070 12E 158 00E	RM RM	Svobodnyy Svobodnyy coal deposit Syktyvkar	coal	51 30N 61 40N	127 45E	34 56,59,79,RM
Shevchenko	ppl	43.39N	051 12E	21,32,52,53,	Sylva	stm	57 39N	056 54E	20
Shevchenko AES	nucp	NA	. NA	56,59,79,RM 67	Synya Synya	ppl gasf	65 22N 65 25N	058 02E 058 14E	R M 20
Shiikh-Darvaza Shikotan-Tō	gasf isl	40.09N 43.47N	058 21E 146 45E	21 RM	Synya Syrdar`inskaya Oblast` Syrdar`ya	admd	41 00N 46 03N	067.15E 061.00E	79 RM
Shilka	stm	53 20N	. 121 26E	RM	Syrdar'ya	thep	NA	NA	49,67
Shingino Shkapovo	oilf oilf	58.31N 53.58N	078 23E 054 02E	16 20,66	Syzran' Syzran'	oilf	53 11N 53 12N	. 048 27E . 048 20E	20,44,56,RM 20
Shmidta, Ostrov	isl	81.08N	090 48E	RM	Syzran'	petr	NA	NA .	31,66
Shorkel' Shostka	gasf ppl	37.03N 51.52N	061 40E 033 29E	21 RM	-				
Shugurovo	oilf hvdp	54 28N	052 05E	20 50.67	T Tabashar uranium denasit (processing center	. u/t	NA		42,43
Shul'ba Shurab coal deposit	coal	NA 40.08N	NA 070-27E	34	Taboshar uranium deposit/processing center	ppl	47.12N	038 56E	RM
Shurtan Siauliai	gasf ppl	38 30N 55 56N	066 02E 023 19E	21 RM	Tagrinskoye Tajik SSR	oilf admd	62 23N 39 00N	078 15E 071 00E	16 79
Siazan	oilf	41.00N	048-54E	21	Takhta-Bazar	ppl	35.57N	062 50E	56,R M
Siberia power system Siberian AES	reg nucp	55.00N NA	097.00E. Na	46,55 67	Talakan Talas	ppl ppl	50 19N . 42 32N	130 22E 072 14E	57,RM 56,79,RM
Sibiryakova, Ostrov	isl	72 50N	079.00E.	RM	Talasskaya Oblast'	admd	42 20N 45 00N	072-10E	79
Sikhote-Alin' Range Sillamaë	mts ppl	48 00N 59 24N	138 00E. 027 45E.	RM RM	Taldy-Kurgan Taldy-Kurganskaya Oblast'	ppl admd	45 00N 45 00N	078-24E 079-00E	56,79,RM 79
Sillamaë uranium deposit/processing center Simferopol	u/t	NA 44.51N	NA 034.06E	42,43 56,79,RM	Talimardzhan Talimardzhan	ppl thep	38 23N NA	065.37E Na	62.RM 49.67
Simushir, Ostrov	ppl isl	46.58N	152 02E	RM	Talinskoye	oilf	62.05N	065 55E	16
Sinegor'ye Siren'kino	ppl oilf	62.04N 54.53N	150 28E 056 15E	57,59,RM 20	Tallinn	. ppl	59.25N	024 45E	32,44,55,56,79, RM
Skovorodino	ppl	53 59N	123.55E	11,57.RM	Talnakh	ppl	69.30N	088 I HE	RM
Slantsy Slavgorod	ppl ppl	59.06N 53.00N	028 04E . 078 40E	44,56.RM RM	Talon	ppl	59 48N 52 43N	148-38E 041-27E	RM 55,56,79,RM
Slavyansk	ppl	48.52N	037 37E	RM	Tambovskaya Oblast'	admd	52.45N	041-30E	79
Slavyansk Slavyansk-na-Kubani	thep ppl	NA 45.15N	NA	49,67 RM	Tanyp	oilf ppl	56 43N 56 54N	056 07E. . 074 22E	20 56,RM
Slobodskoy	ppl	58.42N 51.38N	050 12E . 103 42E	RM RM	Taribani Tarkhan	oilf oilf	41.08N 53.32N	045 54E 053 07E	21
Slyudyanka Slyudyanka uranium deposit	ppl u/t	NA	NA	42,43	Tarkhan Tarko-Sale	. ppl	. 64.55N	077 49E	RM
Smela Smolensk	ppi ppi	49 14N 54 47N	031.53E 032.03E	RM 56,79.RM	Tartu Tas-Tumus	ppl ppl	58 23N 64 12N	026 43E 126 37E	RM RM
Smolensk	nucp	NA	NA	52,67	Tas-Turyakii	ppl .	. 61 47 N	113.01E	RM
Smolenskaya Oblast' Snezhnogorsk	admd ppl	55.00N 68.10N	033 00E 087 30E	79 57,58,59,RM	Tasbulat Taseveva	gasf . stm	43 05N 58 06N	052 20E 094 01E	21
Sochi	ppl	43 35N	039 45E	56,RM	Tash-Kumyr coal deposit	. coai	. 41.16N	072.05E	34
Sofiysk Sogo coal deposit	ppl coal	51.33N 71.15N	139 54E 128 15E	11.RM 34	Tashanta Tashauz	ppl ppl	49 43 N 41 50 N	089-11E 059-58E	RM 21,56,79,RM
Sol' Hetsk	ppl	51.10N	054 59E	RM	Tashauzskaya Oblast'	admd		058 50E. 069 18E	79 55,56,59,79,RM
Solenaya Soligorsk	gast ppl	69 08 N 52 48 N	081 56E 027 32E	16,66 RM	Tashkent Tashkent	thep	NA	NA	49,67
Solikamsk Solnechny y	ppl ppl	59 39N 60 19N	056 47E 137 35E	RM RM	Tashkentskaya Oblast' Tashkuduk	admd gasf	41 00N 39 54N	069 30E 063 27E	79 21
Solnecknyy	ppl	50.35N	137 02E	RM	Tashtagol		. 52.47N	087.53E	RM
Sololi tar sands deposit Solov'vevsk	tars ppl	70 36N 49 55N	125 23E 115 42E	45 RM	Tatar Tatar Strait	strt	NA 50.00N	NA 141.00E	52.67 RM
Sosnogorsk	ppl	63.37N	053 51E	RM	Tatarian tar sands deposit	tars	56 18N	055 48E	45
Sosnovo-Ozěrskove South power system	ppl rcg	52.31N 49.00N	111 34E 032 00E	57,RM 46,55	Tatarka Tatarsk	ppl ppl	53.58N 55.13N	075 03E 075 58E	56.RM 56.RM
South Kazakhstan (Chiganak)	thep	NA NA	NA	4 9,67 50,52,53,67	Tatarskaya ASSR Tavda	admd	55 00N 58 03N	051-00E 065-15E	20,79 56,RM
South Ukraine South Yakutia coal basin	nucp coal	56.30N	126 00E	11,34,35,36,38,40	Tavtimanovo	oilf	54 49N	056-45E	20
Sovetabad Sovetsk	gasf ppl	36.41N 55.05N	061-23E 021-53E	21,66 RM	Tayëzhnoye iron ore deposit Taymurzino	iron oilf	57 41N 55 29N	125 23E 054 53E	11 20
Sovetskaya Gavan'	ppl	48.58N	. 140.18E	11,59.RM	Taymylyr coal deposit	. coal	72.30N	122 00E	34
Sovetskiy Sovetskove	ppl oilf	61 24 N 60 48 N	063.31E 077.05E	16.RM 16.66	Taymyr coal basin Taymyr Peninsula	coal pen	74 30N 76 00N	097-00E 104-00E	34,40 RM
Soyuz (Orenburg) pipeline	pipe	49 46N 44 37N	043 40E	10,20 57.RM	Taymyr, Ozero	lake admd	74 30N 72 00N	102 30E 095 00E	RM 79
Spassk-Dal'niy Srednechernogorsk	ppl oilf	44.37N 61.15N	077.06E	16	Taymyrskiy AOk Tayshet	ppl	55.57N	. 098-00E .	57,59,60,RM
Srednekolymsk Sredneural'sk	pp] pp]	67 27N 56 59N	153.41E 060.28E	RM RM	Taz Taz	stm . gasf	67 32N 67 23N	078 40E 079 13E	16,RM 16
Sredneural'sk	thep	NA	NA .	49,67	Taz Peninsula	pen		076-00E	16,17,RM
Srednevasyugan Sredneyamal	oilf gasf	59.25N 69.21N	078 24E . 071 05E .	16 16.66	Tazhigali Tazovskiy	oilf		053 15E. 078 42E	21 RM
Sredniy Urgal coal deposit	coal	51.13N	132 59E	34	Tbilisi	ppl	. 41 42N	044 45E	21,32,55,56,79,
Sretensk Stakhanovo	ppl oilf	52 15N 54 24N	117 43E 053 43E	R M 20	Tbilisi	thep	NA	NA	RM 49,67
Stanovoy Range	mts	56.20N 53.30N	126 00E 115 00E	11,RM RM	Tedzhen	. ppl . gasf	37 23N 37 09N	060 31E 060 46E	56.RM 21
Stanovoy Upland Staraya Russa	mts ppl	58.00N	031-23E	RM	Tekeli Temirtau	. ppl	44.48N	078-57E	RM
Starobeshevo Starobeshevo	ppl thep	47 44N	038 03E	RM 49.67	Temirtau Tenge	ppl	50.05N 43.15N	072 56E 052 48E	RM 21,RM
Staryy Nadym	ppl	65.35N	072 42E	16,17,18,RM	Tenge	gasf	. 43.04N	052 41E 053 27E	21
Staryy Oskol Stavropol'	ppl	51 17N 46 37N	037.51E 042.15E	RM 21,55,56,79,RM	Tengiz Tengutinskoye	oilf oilf	46 01 N 45 33 N	053 27E 046 01E	21
Stavropol	thep	NA 45.00N	NA 044.00E	49,67 21,79	Teplov	oilf	60.41N 53.09N	072 12E 055 55E	16 . 20
Stavropol'skiy Kray Stepanakert	admd ppi	39.50N	044 00E	RM	Teren'uzyuk	oilf	46.25N	053 43E	21
Stepanovo Stepnogorsk uranium deposit	oilf u/t	53 40N NA	052 15E NA	20 42.43	Termez Termez tar sands deposit	ppl tars .	. 37 14N 37 56N	. 067 16E. 066 34E	79,RM 45
Sterlitamak	ppl	53.37N	055 58E	56.RM	Ternopol'	. ppl	49.33N	025 35E	79,RM
Stolbovoy, Ostrov Strelka	is] ppl	74 05N 58 05N	136.00E .093.01E	RM RM	Ternopol'skaya Oblast' Tevlin	. admd	. 49 30N . 62 33N	025-30E 073-26E	79 16
Strêva	stm	54.48N	024.15E	50,67	neu onan	mts	42.00N	080 00E	RM 21.32.56.RM
Strezhevoy Sukhona	ppl stm	60.42N 60.46N	077.34E 046.24E.	16,17,19,RM RM	Tikhoretsk Tikhvin	ppl	45 51 N 59 39 N	040 07E 033 31E	21,32,56,KM 56,RM
Sukhumi	ppl stm	43 00N 43 20N	041 02E 047 34E	56,79,RM 50,67	Tiksi Timan Ridge	rdge		128 48E 051 00E	57,59,RM RM
Sulak Sultangulovo	oilf	53.33N	. 052 47E	20	Timan-Pechora oil and gas region	reg	65 00N	056-00E	14,20,25,32
Sulyukta coal deposit Sumgait	coal ppl	39.51N . 40.36N	069 35E 049 38E	34 RM	Timashevsk Timpton	ppl stm	45 37N 58 43N	038 57E 127 12E	RM 11
Sumsar	ppl	41 18N	071-19E	RM	Tiraspol'	. ppl	. 46 50N	029.3715	RM
Sumsar uranium deposit Sumskaya Oblast'	u/t admd	NA 51.00N	NA 034 00E	42,43 79	Tisul' Tkibuli coal deposit	ppl coal		088 19E 042 59E	60,RM 34
Sumy	ppl	50.54N	034 48E	56,79,RM	Tkvarcheli coal deposit	coal stm	42 51 N 58 10 N	041 41E 068 12E	34 R M
Suntar Supsa	ppl oilf	62 10N 41 51N	117 40E 042 00E	57,59,RM 21	Tobol'sk	. stm . ppl	58.12N	068-16E	18,32,56,RM
Sura Surgut	stm ppl	56 06N 61 14N	046 00E 070 32E .	RM 16,17,18,19,31,	Tokmak	ppl hydp	42.52N	075-18E	RM 50,51,67
-				32,33,55,56,RM	Tol`yatti	ppl	. 53 31N	049-26E .	RM
Surgut-1 Surgut-2	thep thep	NA NA	NA	49,67 49,67	Tolum Tom'	oilf stm	. 60 41 N 56 50 N	065 10E . 084 27E .	16 60
Surkhandar'inskaya Oblast'	admd	38.00N	067 30E	79	Tom'-Usa	thep	NA 58 58 N	NA 126-19E	49,67 57,RM
Susuman	ppl	62 47N	148 10E	57,RM	Tommot	ppl	20.20.8	120 171	277, IN 194

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Name	Feature	Latitude	Longitude	Page	Name	Feature	Latitude	Longitude	Page
E (continued)					U (continued)				
Lomsk	ppl	56.30N	084 58E	56,60,79,RM	Ust'-Barguzin	ppl	53.27N	108 59E	RM
Lomskava Oblast' Lopordzhuľba	admd gasf	58.00N 40.00N	083 00E 058 27E	16.24.79 21	Ust'-Ilimsk	ppl hydp	58.03N NA	102-39E Na	55,57,RM 50,67
Lortax	oilf	45.38N 57.03N	053-13E 034-58E	21	Ust'-Kamehatsk Ust'-Kureyka	pp] pp]	56-15N 66-30N	162.30E 087.15E	RM RM
Torzhok Trans Siberian Railroad	ppl rr	57.30N	111-00E	32.RM 11.RM	Ust'-Kut	ppl	56.46N	105-40E	57.RM
Franscaucasus eil and gas region Franscaucasus cower system	reg	40.00N 41.00N	048-00E 046-00E	14.21.25.32 46.55	Ust'-Maya Ust'-Nera	ppl ppl	60.25N 64.34N	134 32F 143 12E	R M 57,59,R M
I ranscaucasus I conomic Region	reg	41.00N	046-00E	79	Ust'-Olenëk	ppl	73.00N 61.09N	119.48E 149.38E	RM 57.RM
Trekhozernoye Tripol'ye	oilf ppl	60.28N 50.07N	064 57E 030 46E	16 R.M	Ust'-Omchug Ust'-Ordynskiy	րը  իզ	52.48N	104 45E	RM
Enpol'se Frontsk	thep ppl	NA 54.06N	NA 061-35E	49,67 55,56,RM	Ust'-Ordynskiy Buryatskiy AOk Ust'-Port	. admd ppl	53-30N 69-40N	104.00E 084.26E	79 RM
Lioitsk	thep	NA	NA	49.67	Ust'-Taskan Ust'-Uda	ppl	62 40N 54 24N	150 52E 103 17E	57.RM 57.RM
Lioitsko-Pechorik Lioitsko-Pechorik	ppl gasf	62 42N 63 00N	056-13E 056-01E	R M 20	Ustinov	թթi թթi	56.51N	053-14E	20,79,RM
Froitskove Tselmograd	ppl ppl	52.58N 51.10N	084-40E 071-30E	RM 55,56,79,RM	Ustyurt Plateau Uzbek SSR	upld admd	43.00N 41.00N	056-00E 064-00E	RM 21,79
Eselmogradskava Oblasť	admd	51.00N	070-00E	79	Uzen'	ppl	43.27N	053-10E	21.56.RM
Eskhuvalı Luapse	ppl ppl	42 14N 44 05N	043 57E 039 06E	RM 56.RM	Uzen' Uzhgorod	oilf	43.20N 48.37N	052 59E 022 18E	21,29,66 10,11,32,79,RM
Luapse	petr	NA 54.00N	NA 137.00E	31,66	Uzhur	ppl	55 18N	089-50E	RM
Lugurskis Zaliv Lukan	bay oilf	59.52N	072-25E	16	x				
Tuliskava Oblast' Tula	admd ppl	54.00N 54.12N	037-30E 037-37E	79 79,RM	, Vakh	stm	60.45N	076.45E	16,19,RM
Lula coal deposit	coal	53.53N	037-43E	34	Vakh	oilf	60.52N	078 56E	16
Fulun Fulun coal deposit	ppl coal	54.35N 54.30N	100.33E 100.43E	57,60, <b>R M</b> 34	Vakhrushev Vakhrushev coal deposit	ppl coal	48 59N 49 01N	142 58E 142 48E	57,59,RM 34
tunguska coal tasin Tuostakh	coal stm	64 00N 67 50N	100.00E 135.24E	34,35,40 R M	Vakhsh Valdai Hills	stm hlls	37.06N 57.00N	068-18E 033-30E	50,51,67 RM
Lura	ppl	64.17N	100-15E	RM	Valmiera	ppl	57.33N	025-24E	56,R M
tura Turae	stm ppl	57 12N 52 08N	066 56E 093 55E	RM RM	Valuyki Van''yegan	ppl oilf	50 14N 61 52N	038 08E 077 11E	R.M 16
Luran Lowland	pln	42.00N	061-00E	RM	Vaneyvis	gasf	67.43N	054 02E 140 15E	20 B M
Lurgay Lurgay coal basin	ppl coul	49.38N 51.00N	063-30E 065-00E	56,RM 34,35,40	Vanino Vankarem	ppl ppl	49.05N 67.51N	175.50W	RM
Lurgay Plateau Lurgayskaya Oblast	plat admd	50-30N 50-20N	061-50E 066-00E	R M 79	Var'yegan Varzino	oilf ppl	62.06N 68.21N	077-34E 038-23E	16,66 56,RM
Lurmsk	ppl	58.03N	063.42E	RM	Vashka	stm	64.53N	045 47E	20.RM
Lurix Rog Lurka	ppl ppl	45 14N 52 57N	131.58E 108.13E	R M R M	Vasil'kov Vasil'vevskove	gasf oilf	68 00N 58 23N	053-46E 055-56E	20 20
Lurkestan	ppl	43.20N	068-15E	56.RM	Vasyugan	stm	59.07N	080-46E	16.R M
Luckmen SSR Lucsenzade	adınd ppl	40.00N 38.30N	060 00E 068 14E	21,79 56,RM	Vat"yegan Vata	oilf oilf	62 19N 61 12N	074 55E 076 05E	16,66 16,66
Lurukhansk Lurukhansk tar sands deposit	ppl tars	65.49N 66.11N	087 59E 089 29E	R M 45	Vaygach, Ostrov Veľšk	isl ppl	70.00N 61.05N	059-30E 042-08E	R M R M
Luvinskava ASSR	admd	51.30N	095-00E	79	Veľyu	oilf	63.37N	056-16E	20
Luvmazy Lyb'yu	oilf gasf	54.42N 62.01N	053-22E 056-36E	20,66	Velikiy Ustyug Velikiye Luki	ppl	60.48N 56.20N	046-18E 030-32E	56.RM RM
Exgda	bbj	53.07N 50.51N	126-20E 142-39E	57,RM RM	Ventspils Verkhne	ppi oilf	57 24N 63 37N	021.31E 053.06E	32.56.R M 20
Lymovskove Lynda	ppl ppl	55.10N	124-43E	км 11,57.RM	Verkhne-Anabar tar sands deposit	tars	69.57N	112.22E	45
Evidentik Evidentijsk	oilf ppl	44 13N 55 52N	050 59E 072 12E	21 RM	Verkhnegrubeshor Verkhnelyamin	oilf oilf	66 52N 62 14N	054 45E 070 27E	20 16
Lyumen'	ppl	57.09N	065 26E	18,56,58,59,79,	Verkhnesalym	oilf	60.01 N	071.01E	16
Lyumen'	off	61.36N	078-08E	R M 16	Verkhneshasha Verkhniy Tagil	oilf ppl	60.51N 57.22N	070-20E 059-56E	L6 RM
Evunienskava Oblast' Evuva Muvun i.ranium deposit	admd	63.00N	072-00E	15,16,17,24,79 42,43	Verkhniy Tagil Verkhnyaya Salda	thep	NA 58.02N	NA 060-33E	49,67 RM
11-18/21 Mosenergo Heat and Power	u/t thep	NA NA	NA	49,67	Verkhnyaya Taymyra	stm	74.15N	099.48E	RM
11:18-22 Mosenergo Heat and Power 11:18-23 Mosenergo Heat and Power	thep thep	NA NA	NA NA	49,67 49,67	Verkhoyansk Verkhoyansk Range	ppl mts	67.35N 67.00N	133.27E 129.00E	57.RM RM
					Vesenneye	oilf	59.22N 57.12N	076-24E 056-41E	16 20
t					Veslyanka Vidim	oilf ppl	56.25N	103-12E	RM
Ubezhenskove Ubin	oilf oilf	45.01N 60.56N	041-20E 064-48E	21 16	Vikhorevka Vikhorevka uranium/thorium deposit	ppl u/t	56.05N NA	101-15E NA	RM 42.43
1 chadzhi	gasf	38.30N	062 58E	21	Viktoriya, Ostrov	isl	80.10N	036-45F	RM
Uchkuduk Uchkuduk uramum deposit	ppl u/t	42.10N NA	063.31E NA	RM 42,43	Vikulovo Viľkitskogo, Proliv	ppl strt	56 49N 77 55N	070.37E 103.00E	56,RM RM
Uchkyi Uchur	gasf stm	40.03N 58.48N	063-00E 130-35E	21 11,RM	Vilnius Vilyuy	ppl stm	54 41 N 64 24 N	025-19E 126-26E	56,79,R M 50,51,R M
l da	stm	54.42N	135-14E	RM	Vilyuy	hydp	NA	NA	58
U dachiyy Udmurtskaya A SSR	ppl dmd	62.33N 57.00N	113-53E 053-00E	57,59,R M 20,79	Vilyuysk Vilyuyskoye Vodokhranilishche	ppl resv	63 45N 62 55N	121.35E 111.00E	RM RM
Udzha tar sands deposit	tars	70.13N	117-40E	45	Vinnitsa	ppl	49 14N 49 00N	028-29F 029-00F	56,79, <b>R M</b> 79
Uelen Ufa	ppl ppl	66 10N 54 44N	169.48W 055.56E	RM 20,32,79,RM	Vinnitskaya Oblast' Vishera	admd stm	59.55N	056-251	RM
Ufa Novo Cherrikovsk Ufa Novo Ufimskis	petr petr	NA	NA NA	31,66 31,66	Vishnëvogorsk Vishnëvogorsk uranium deposit	ppl u/t	56.00N NA	060-40E	RM 42.43
Ufa Starvo Ufin skiy	petr	NA	NA	31,66	Vitebsk	ppl	55.12N	030 111:	56,79,RM 79
t glegorsk t glegorsk	ppl ppl	49.05N 48.19N	142.02E 038.17E	57,RM 56,RM	Vitebskaya Oblast' Vitim	admd ppl	55.00N 59.28N	029.30E 112.34E	RM
Uglegorsk Uglegorsk coal region	thep coal	NA 49.00N	NA 142-15E	47,49,67 34	Vitim Vize, Ostrov	stm isl	59.26N 79.30N	112.34E 077.00E	RM RM
Ukhta	ppl	63.33N	053-40E	20,32,56,59,RM	Vladimir	ppl	56.10N	040-25E	56,79,RM
Ukhta Ukraine oil and gas region	petr reg	NA 49.00N	NA 030.00E	31,66 14,15,23,25,32	Vladimirskaya Oblast' Vladivostok	admd ppl	56.00N 43.08N	040-30E 131-54E	79 57,59,79, <b>RM</b>
Ukraine Leonon ic Region Ukranian SSR	reg admd	49.00N 49.00N	032/00E 032/00E	79 79	Vol'sk Volga	ppl stm	52.02N 45.55N	047-23E 047-52E	RM 20,21,50,51,67,
Ul'vanovsk	ppl	54.20N	048-24E	20,79.RM					RM
Ulivanovskava Oblasť Ulan Uliv	admd ppl	54.00N 51.50N	048 00E 107 37E	79 57,79,RM	Volga at Tol'yatti-Zhigulëvsk Volga at Volgograd	hydp hydp	NA NA	NA NA	50,67 50,55,67
Ulugkhem coal basin	coal	51.15N	094-30E	34,40	Volga Economic Region	reg	52.00N	046-00E	79
Ungeny Upper Kama Upland	ppl upld	47.12N 58.30N	027-48E 054-00E	56,RM RM	Volga Upland Volga-Urals oil and gas region	upid reg	52.00N 55.00N	053-00E	RM 14,15,20,22,25,32
Uriveva Ural	oilf stm	61.20N 47.00N	076-05E 051-48E	16 20,RM	Volga-Vyatka Economic Region Volgodonsk	reg ppl	57.00N 47.32N	048-00E 042-09E	79 52,53,RM
Ural Mountains	ints	60.00N	060.00E	20,RM	Volgograd	ppl	48.45N	044-25E	26,52,53,55,56,
Ural'sk Ural'skava Oblast	ppl admd	51-14N 50-00N	051-22E 050-00E	20,56,79,R M 20,79	Volgograd	petr	NA	NA	59,79,RM 31,66
Urals power system	reg	57.00N	062 00E	46,55 79	Volgogradskaya Oblast'	admd	49.00N 59.55N	044 00F 032 20E	79 RM
Urals Economic Region Uray	ppl	56 00N 60 08N	059 00E 064 48E	16,17,RM	Volkhov Volochayevka Vtoraya	ppl	48.35N	134-34E	RM
Urengoy Urengoy	ppl gasf	65 58N 66 54N	078-25E 076-45E	16,17,56,RM 10,11,15,16,17,	Vologda Vologodskava Oblast	ppl admd	59 13N 60 00N	039 54E 042 00E	56,79,RM 79
				18,23,32,33,66	Volynskaya Oblast'	admd	51.00N	025 00E	79
Urengov Urgal	thep ppl	NA 51-12N	NA 132.58E	49,67 RM	Volzhsk Volzhskiy	ppl ppl	55 53N 48 49N	048-20E 044-44E	R M R M
Urgench Urtabulak	ppl gasf	41.33N 39.08N	060-38E 064-32E	56,79,RM 21,66	Vorkuta Vorkuta coal deposit	ppl coal	67-30N 67-13N	064 00F 063 35F	16,56,59,RM 34
Urup, Ostrov	isl	46.00N	150.00E	RM	Voronezh	ppl	51.38N	039-12E	56,79,RM
Urvupinsk Usa	ppl stm	50.47N 65.57N	042.00E 056.55E	RM 16,20,RM	Voronezh AST Voronezhskaya Oblast'	nucp admd	NA 51.00N	NA 040.00E	52,53,67 79
Ushakova, Ostrev	isl	80.48N 65.55N	079-25E 057-25E	RM 32,56,RM	Voroshilovgrad Voroshilovgrad	ppl thep	48.34N NA	039-20F NA	79,RM 49,67
U sansk U sansk	ppl oilf	66.07N	057.11E	20,66	Voroshilovgradskaya Oblast'	admd	49.00N	039-00F	79
Usoľ ve Sibirskove Ussuri	ppl stm	52 45N 48 28N	103.41E 135.02E	RM RM	Voskresenskoye Vostochno-Kazakhstanskaya Oblast`	oilf admd	53 14N 49 00N	056 12F 084 00F	20- 79
Ussurivsk	ppt	43.48N	131-59E	55,57,RM	Vostochno-Pal'yu	gasf	62 30N 64 56N	056 55E 078 54E	20
Ust Kamenogorsk Ust Balyk	ppl off	49.58N 61.03N	082 40E 072 33E	55,56,79, <b>R M</b> 16,66	Vostochno-Tarkosale Vostochno-Tedzhen	gasf gasf	64 56N 37 05N	078-54E 061-05E	16 21

Name	Feature	Latitude	Longitude	Page
V (continued)				
Votkinsk	ppl	57 03N	053 59E	56.RM
Votkinsk	hydp		NA	50,67
Voyvozh Vozey	ppl oilf	64 21N 66 42N	055 06E 056 47E	RM 20,66
Vuktyl	. ppl	63 40N	057 20E	59,RM
Vultyl Vvatka	gasf stm	63 49N 55 36N	057 18E 051 30E	15,20,23,66 20,RM
Vyaz'ma	ppl	55 13N	034 18E	RM
Vyborg Vychegda	ppl stm	60 42N 61 18N	028 45E 046 36E	25,RM 20,RM
Vyksa	. ppl		042 11E	33,RM
Vym' Vyngapur	stm. gasf	62 13N 63 10N	050 25E 076 46E	20 16,23,66
Vyshniy Volochek	ppl	57.35N	034 34E	RM
Vytegra	ppl	61 00N	036 27E	56,RM
w				
w West Kamchatka coal area		57 30N	162.305	
West Siberia oil and gas region	reg		157 30E 075 00E	. 34
Wind Pillania Programia Barria	-	60.00N	07/ 005	19,22,23,25,32,33
West Siberia Economic Region	reg pln	60 00N	076 00E 075 00E	
White Sea	sea	65 30N	038 00E	RM
Wrangel Island	isl	71.00N	179 30W	RM
Y				
Yabionovyy Range	mts	53 30N	115 00E	RM
Yagodnoye	ppl	. 62.33N		57,RM
Yagtydin Yakushkino	oilf	62 38N 53 54N	056 18E 051 31E	. 20
Yakutsk	ppl	62.00N	129 40E	32,57,58,59,79,
Yakutskaya ASSR	admd	65 00N	130 00E	RM . 79
Yalta	ppl	44 30N	034 10E	
Yamal Peninsula Yamalo-Nenetskiy AOk	pen admd	70 00N 	070 00E 076 00E	16,17,RM 17,79
Yamarovka	ppl	50.38N	110 16E	RM
Yamashi Yamburg	oilf gasf	55 05N 68 06N	051 47E 076 18E	20 15,16,17,23,66
Yamsovey	gasf	65 30N	075 56E	16,66
Yana Yangikazgan	stm gasf	71 31N 40 38N	136 32E 062 37E	RM 21
Yangiyul	ppl	41.06N	069 03E	RM
Yanskiy Zaliv Yaransk	gulf		136 00E	RM
Yarayner	oilf	. 57 19N 63 09N	047 54E 077 48E	. RM . 16
Yarega	oilf	63 24N	053 28E	
Yarega tar sands deposit Yareyyu	gasf	65 43N 67 59N	056 41E 055 15E	45
Yarino	oilf	58 26N	056 31E	
Yarkino Yaroslavť	ppl	59 08N 57 37N	099 23E 039 52E	RM 56,79,RM
Yaroslavl	. petr	NA	. NA	31,66
Yaroslavskaya Oblast' Yasnogorsk	admd	58 00N 50 51N	039 30E 115 45E	
Yaun-Lor	oilf		072 43E	. 16
Yefremov Yegindybulak	ppl ppl	53 09N 49 45N	038 07E 076 23E	RM 56,RM
Yelets	ppi		038 30E	
Yelizarovo Yelizovo	oilf	61 27N 53 11N	067 42E 158 23E	
Yelkino	. ppl . oilf	53 H N	056 56E	57.RM 20
Yem-Yegov	oilf	61 58N	066 06E	16
Yenisey	stm		082 40E	
Yeniseysk Yenoruskino		58 27N 54 56N	092 10E 050 45E	57,RM 20
Yeraliyev	oilf ppl	54 56N 43 12N	051 39E	
Yerevan	ppl	40 11N	044 30E	56,79,RM
Yergach Yermak	oilf	57 23N 52 02N	056 39E 076 55E	20 
Yermak Yermak	oilf .	60 47 N	076 10E	16
Yermakovo	thep ppl	66.37N	NA 086 13E	49.67 RM
Yermentau Yesil'	. ppl	. 51.38N	073 10E	RM
Yetypur	. ppl. . gasf	51 28N 64 01N	066 24E 077 42E	56.RM 
Yevpatoriya	ppl	45 I 2N	033 22E	56,RM
Yevreyskaya AO Yeysk	admd ppl	48 30N 46 42N	132 00E 038 17E	
Yoshkar-Ola	ppl	56 40N	047 55E	
Yubileynyy Yugo-Osetinskaya AO	gasf admd	66 05N 42 20N	075 56E 044 00E	16,66
Yugomash	oilf.	56 16N	055 31E	20
Yugorsk Yurga	oilf ppl		077 27E 084 51E	
Yurkharov	gasf	67 47 N	077 19E	16
Yushkozero Yuzhno-Balyk	. ppl. oilf	64 45N 60 29N	032 07E 072 28E	RM
Yuzhno-Myl'dzhino	oilf	58 45N	078 05E	16
Yuzhno-Russkaya Yuzhno-Sakhalinsk	gasf	66 04N 46 57N	080 36E 142 44E	
Yuzhno-Shapkina	oilf	67 11N	054 25E	11,57,59,79,RM
Yuzhno Sukhokumskoye Yuzhno Surgut	oilf	. 44 30N	045 13E	21,66
Yuzhno-Surgut Yuzhno Tambey	oilf gasf	61 08N 71 37N	072 57E 071 57E	
Yuzhno-Ural'sk	. ppl		061 15E	RM
Yuzhno-Ural'sk Yuzhno-Zhetybay	thep	43.15N	NA 052 09E	49,67
Yuzhnyy Bug	stm	46 59N	031 58E	50,51

Name	Feature	Latitude	Longitude	Page
z				
Z-havin-l'ab		49.38N	117 I9E	DM
Zabaykal'sk			038 08E	RM
Zagorsk				51,56,RM
Zagorsk			NA	50,67
Zainsk			052 04E	56,RM
Zainsk		50.23N	. NA 103.17E	49,67
Zakamensk	. ppł			57.RM 79
Zakarpatskaya Oblast`	admd	48 20N 43 18N	023 00E 044 20E	
Zamankul			053 33E	21
Zapadno-Erdekli	gasf	. 38 44N	053 33E	21
Zapadno-Izkos'gora				20
Zapadno-Soplesk	gasf	64 17N . 61 22N	057 14E 073 04E	20
Zapadno-Surgut Zapadno-Tarkosale	oilf	61 22N	077 49E	16.66
Zapadno-Tarkosale	gasf	. 64 47N .	054 54E	20
Zapadnyy Tebuk	oilf	66 55N	054 54E .	
Zapolyarnoye Zaporozh'ye	gasf .	47.53N	035 05E	15,16,17,23,6 79,RM
Zaporozn ye			. 035 05E	47.49.67
Zaporozh'ye	thep			
Zaporozh'ye	nucp	47.30N	NA .	52,67 79
Zaporozhskaya Oblast'		41 30N .	035 30E 064 15E	
Zarafshan			043 24E	56.RM RM
Zavolzh'ye				
Zaysan		47 28N	084 52E	RM
Zaysan, Ozero Zayskoye Vodokhranilishche	lake	48 00N	084 00E	RM
Zayskoye Vodokhranilishche	resv	54 25N	127 45E	11,RM
Zelenodol'sk	ppl	55 51N	048 33E	RM
Zelënyy Mys		. 68 48N	161 24E	57,59,RM
Zeya	ppl	53 45N	127 16E	11,55,RM
Zeya	stm		127-35E	11,50,51,57,6 RM
7				
Zeya		NA 47.10N	NA 050.09E	50,67 21
Zhanatala		43 34N	069 45E	56.RM
Zhanatas	ppl	43 34IN 48 35N	058 00E	21
Zhanazhol			158 00E	
Zhannetty, Ostrov Zharyk		48.52N	072.51E	RM
Znaryk Zhdanov		48.52N 47.06N	072 STE . 037 33E	RM
Zhdanov		39.16N	052 58E	21
			050 55E	RM
Zheleznodorozhnyy	. ppl	62 35N 52 19N	035 12E	56.RM
Zheleznogorsk	ppl	52 191N 56 34N	104 08E	57.RM
Zheleznogorsk-Ilimskiy Zhëltyye Vody			033 32E	RM RM
Zhëltyye Vody Zhëltyye Vody-Terny				R M
uranium deposit/ processing center	u/t	NA	NA	42.43
Zhetybay		43 20N	052 18E	21.27.66
Zhigalovo		54 48 N	105 08E	
Zhigansk			123 20E	RM
Zhigulevsk			049 30E	20
Zhiloy	oilf	40.21N	050 35E	20
Zhitomir		50 15N	028 40E	79.RM
Zhitomir Zhitomirskaya Oblast'	admd	50 30N	028 40E	79
Zhokhova, Ostrov	isl .	76 04N	152 40E	RM
Zima	ppl	53 55N	102 04E	57,RM
Zimniy			085 08E	16
Zlatoust			059 40E	56.R.M
Zmiyëv (Gotval'd)		NA	033 40E	49.67
Zol'noye			049 46E	20
Zolotava Gora	ppl	. 54 16N	126 38E	57.RM
		48 04N	038 15E	S7,KM RM
Zuyevka Zuyevka	thep			49.67
Zvenigorodka coal deposit	coal	48 58N	031 10E	34
Zvenigorodka coal deposit Zyryanka			150 SOE	. RM
Zyryanka Zyryanka coal basin			146 00E	. 34.40
			150 20E	34,40
Zyryanka coal deposit	coal			





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