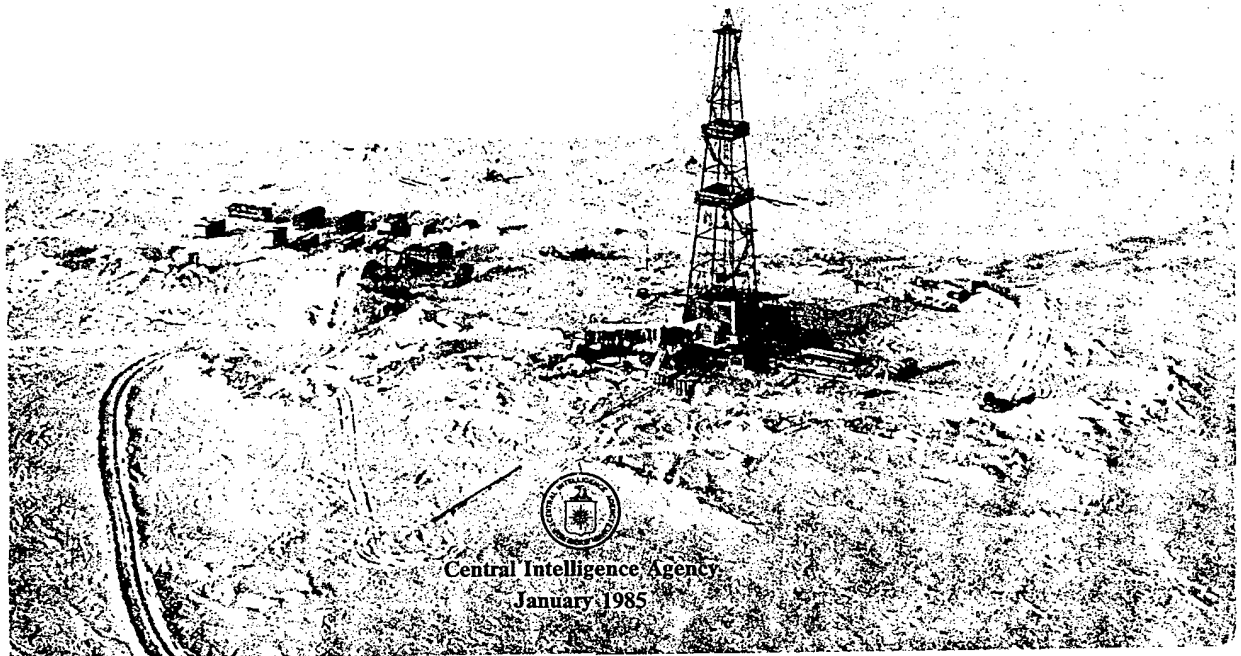


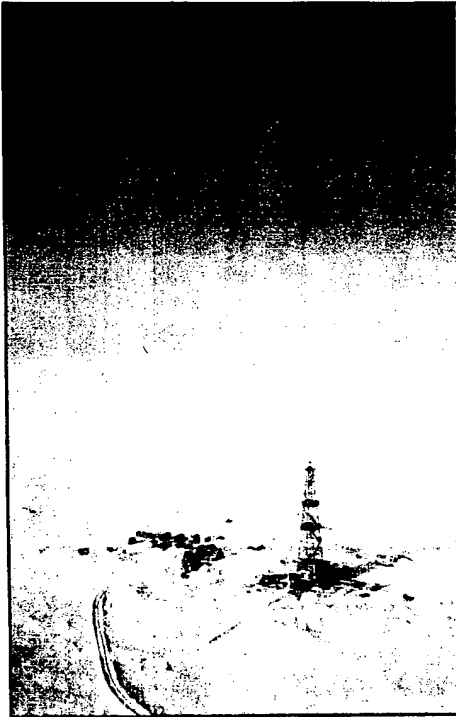
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USSR Energy Atlas

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January 1985



**USSR Energy
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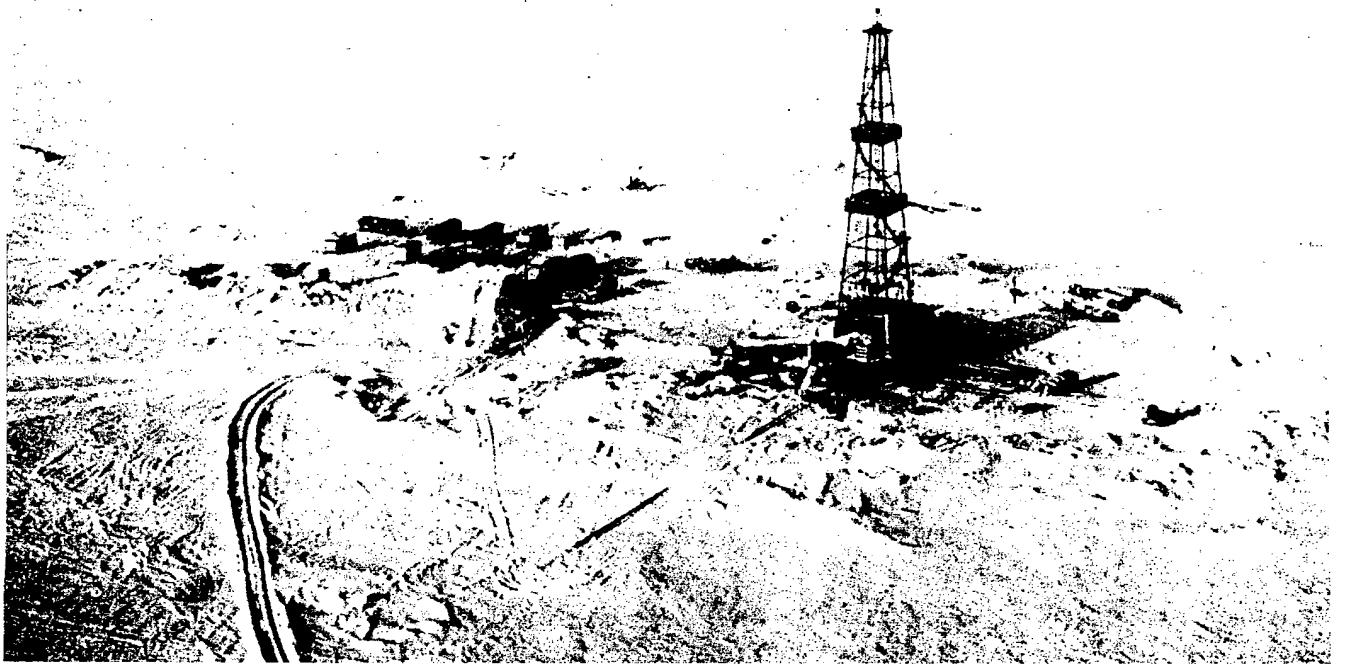
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USSR Energy Atlas

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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A nationwide quest for new energy sources has rapidly outdated Soviet energy maps.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.

The representation of international boundaries on the maps is not necessarily authoritative. The United States Government has not recognized the incorporation of Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania into the USSR. The southern islands of the Kurils-Ostrov Iturup, Ostrov Kunashir, Shikotan-To, and Habomai Islands are occupied by the USSR but claimed by Japan.

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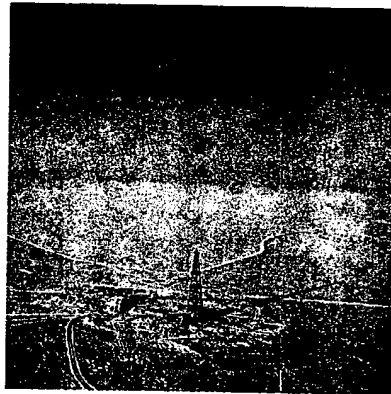
USSR: Energy Overview

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.

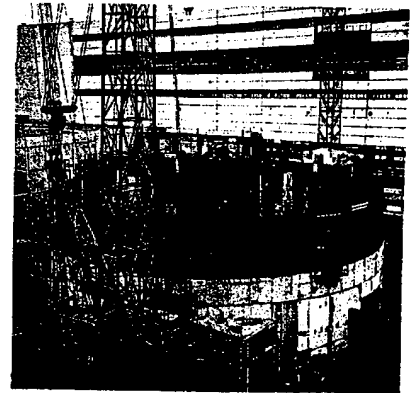
Moscow's desire to maintain steady economic growth requires an expanding energy resource development program as reflected in the 11th Five-Year Plan (1981-85). The focus of the current effort is to continue the expansion of West Siberian oil and gas development, accelerate nuclear power plant construction 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.

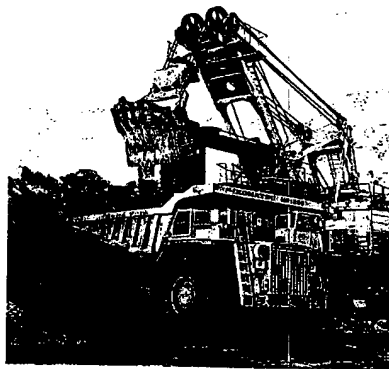
Energy investment is surging as the Soviets attempt to meet growing energy demand through investments in new production areas and maintenance and enhancement of production from established regions. Costs are rising as exploration and production move into the more remote eastern regions of the USSR and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



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



Construction of nuclear power reactor in the Ukrainian SSR.



Foreign equipment being used to mine Central Siberian brown coal.

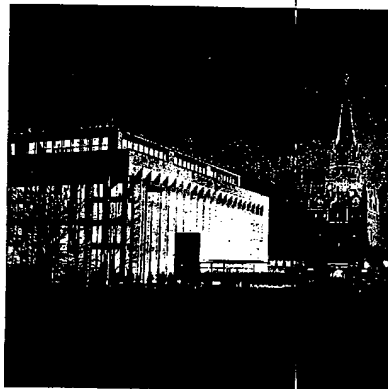


Offshore drilling technology is acquired from energy export revenues.

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.



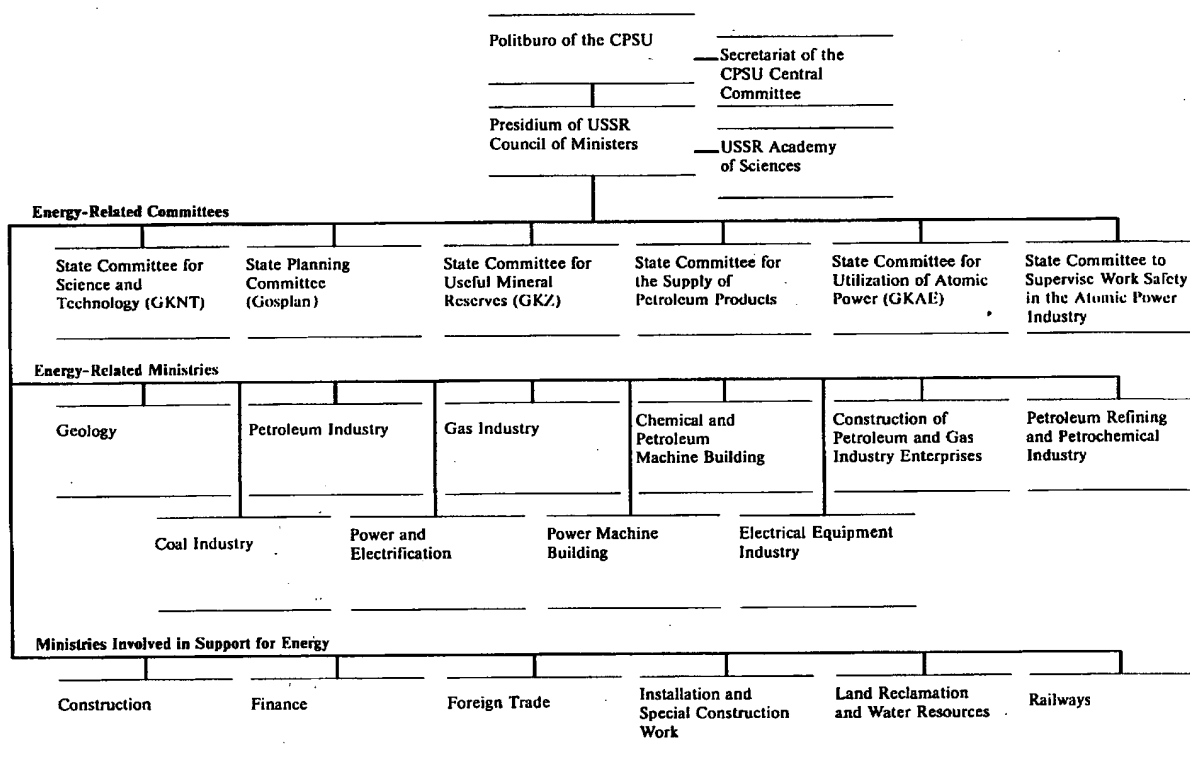
Kremlin Palace of Congresses, Moscow.

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.

Energy Decisionmaking in the Soviet Union



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-Related Committees

State Committee for Science and Technology (GKNT) (A-U). Sets energy research and development priorities; 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 five-year 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 (rates 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 and fuels.

State Committee for the Supply of Petroleum Products (U-R). Oversees the procurement, storage, and distribution of petroleum products including those destined for export; administers petroleum pipelines and storage bases; monitors industrial use of petroleum products.

State Committee for the Utilization of Atomic Power (GKAE) (A-U). Administers civilian 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 disposal.

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

* All-Union (A-U) organizations have no regional counterparts; union republic (U-R) 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

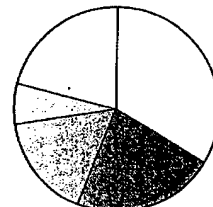
Production of major fuels (oil, natural gas, and coal) accounts for more than 90 percent of the Soviet energy mix. Oil production has begun to level off after three decades of steady growth. Output in 1983 was 12.33 million barrels per day (b/d), just 300,000 b/d more than in 1980. The production of 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

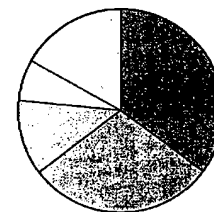
Oil, 1983*

	Million barrels per day	Percent of total
OPEC ^b	17.55	33.4
USSR	11.82	22.5
United States	8.68	16.5
Western Europe	3.39	6.4
Other	11.15	21.2
Total	52.59	100.0



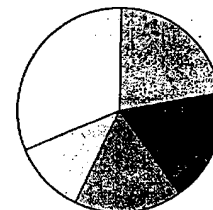
Gas, 1983

	Billion cubic meters	Percent of total
USSR	535.7	34.9
United States	452.3	29.5
Western Europe	183.4	12.0
OPEC ^b	100.2	6.5
Other	262.0	17.1
Total	1,533.6	100.0



Coal, 1983

	Quadrillion (10 ¹⁵) Btu	Percent of total
United States	17.29	21.8
China	14.39	18.1
USSR	13.44	16.9
Western Europe	9.18	11.6
Other	25.12	31.6
Total	79.42	100.0



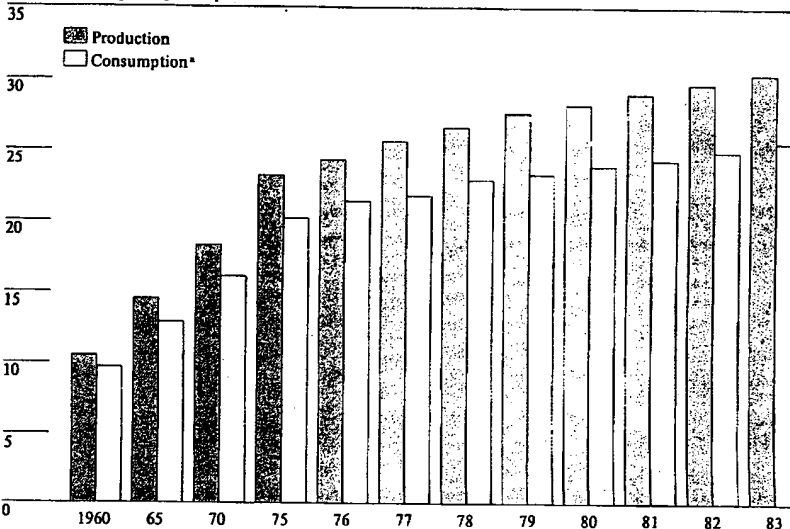
* Excludes natural gas liquids.

^b Includes Algeria, Ecuador, Gabon, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Kuwait, Libya, Nigeria, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Venezuela, and United Arab Emirates.

Source: Energy Information Administration, US Department of Energy.

USSR: Primary Energy

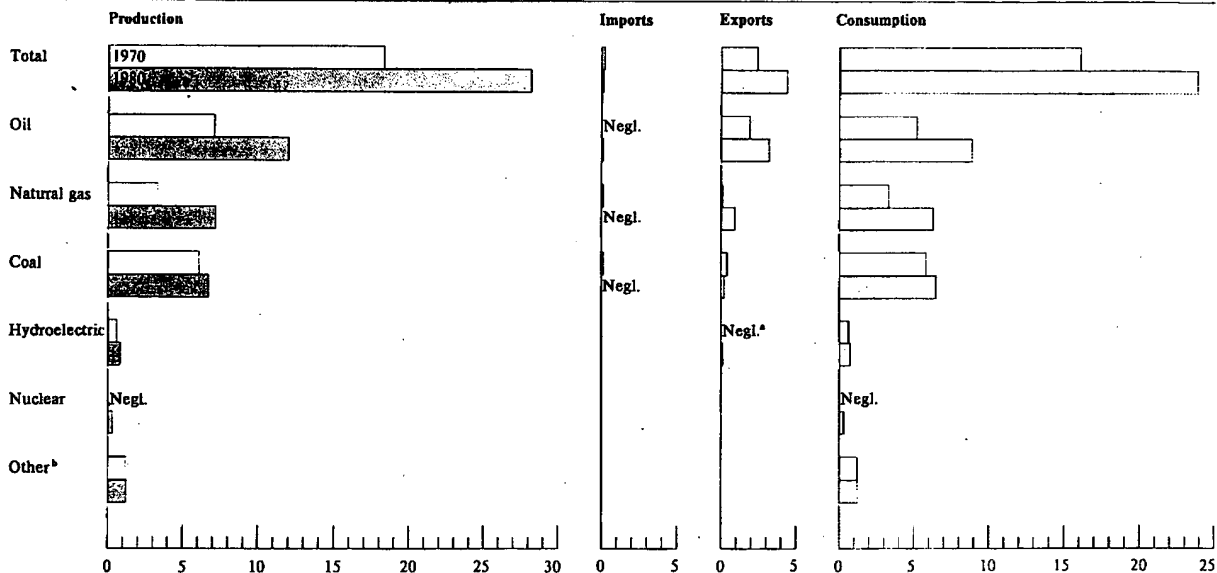
Million barrels per day oil equivalent



* Including changes in stocks.

USSR: Energy Balances

Million barrels per day oil equivalent



* Including electricity exports.

^b Including peat, oil shale, fuelwood and other renewable energy resources.

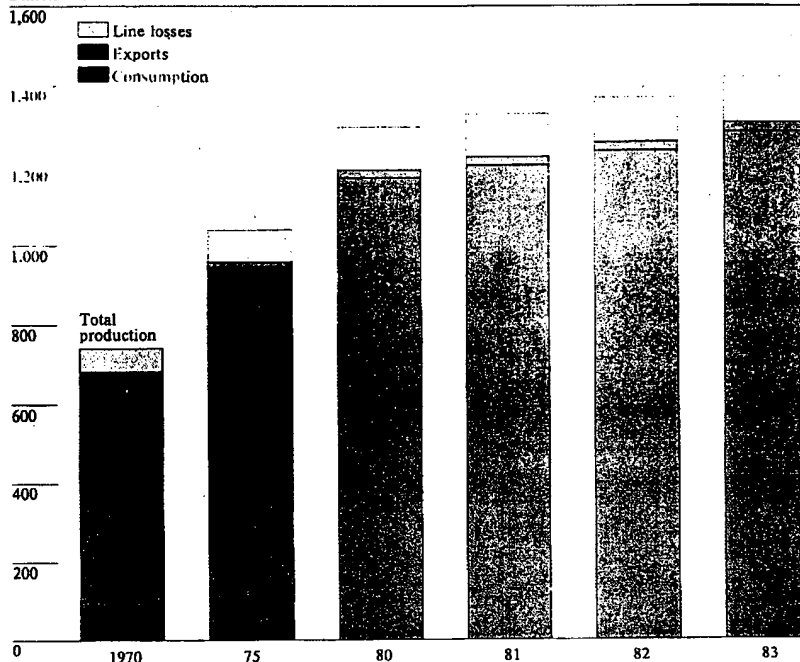
Conservation and Substitution

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, artificially 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

Billion kilowatt-hours



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 currency 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.

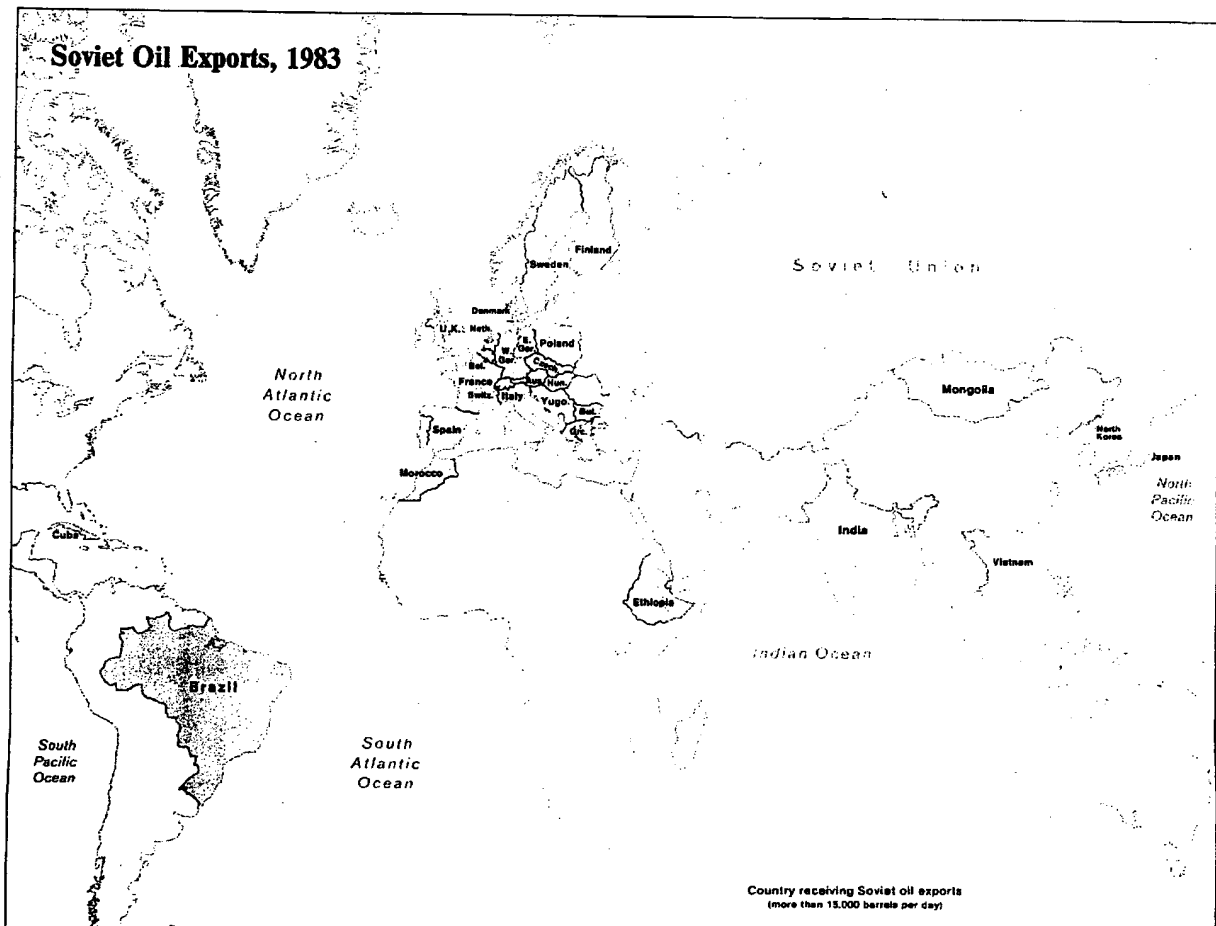
Trading Partners

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 three-

fourths 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.



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 transmission 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-sufficiency 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 sales from the principal exported com-

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,

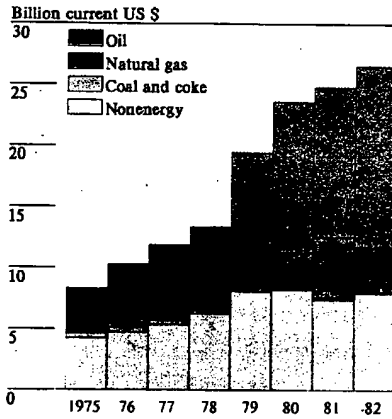
in which future sales or delivery of a Soviet product are linked to an advance sale or delivery of Western equipment or technology. In exchange for providing technological help in constructing the Soviet gas pipeline system, the Europeans receive guaranteed supplies of natural gas.

Japan

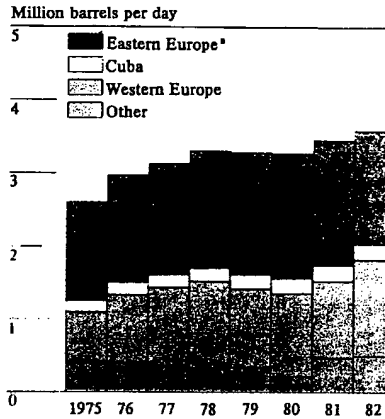
Energy trade with Japan will play an important role in the development of East Siberian resources. Joint Soviet-Japanese development of Sakhalin Island oil and gas and of East Siberian coal reserves is now under way. Progress has been slow, however, as a result of financial problems and harsh climatic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

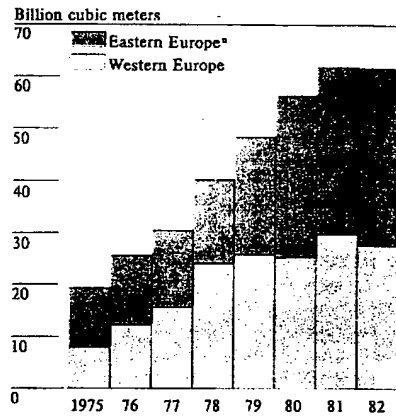


USSR: Oil Exports



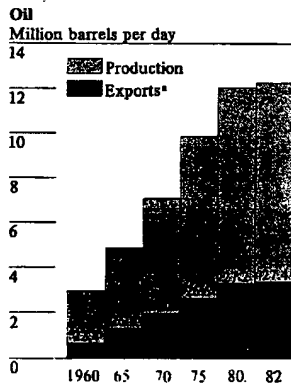
* Including Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, East Germany, Hungary, Poland, Romania, and Yugoslavia.

USSR: Natural Gas Exports

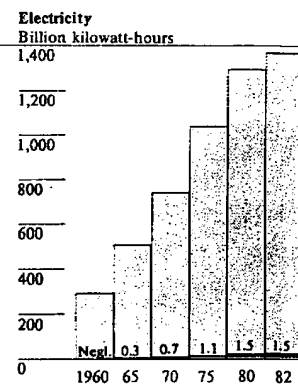
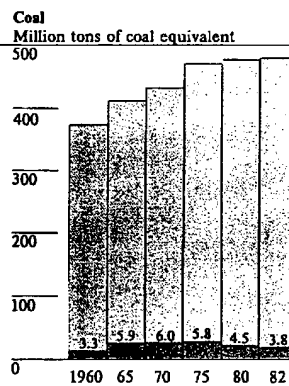
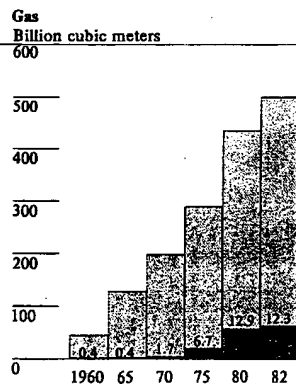


* Including Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, East Germany, Hungary, Poland, Romania, and Yugoslavia.

USSR: Energy Production Exported



* Exports as a percent of total production.



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.

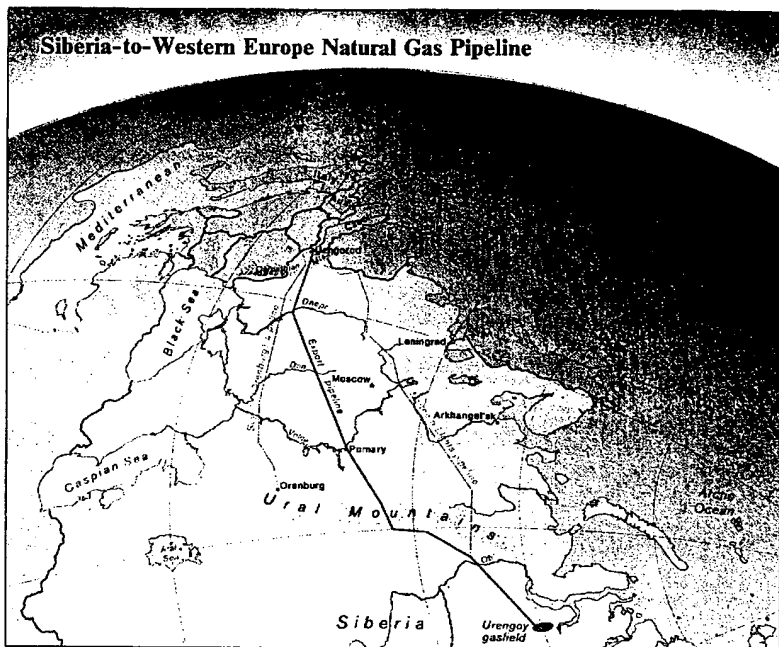
Two widely publicized liquefied natural gas (LNG) projects of the mid-1970s were the North Star project to ship Urengoy gas to the US east coast and the joint USSR-US-Japanese venture to develop Yakutia gas. Although both projects have lost US support, the Japanese still have some interest in Yakutia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

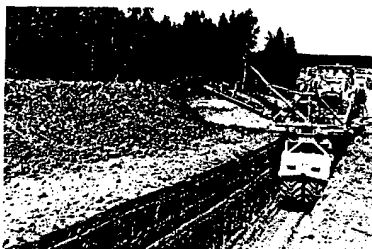
The USSR will be able to use a combination of the existing Soyuz (Orenburg) pipeline, domestic trunklines, and East European transit lines to supplement the initial throughput of the export pipeline which began in early 1984. With the completion of the new 32-billion-cubic-meter-capacity export pipeline,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



Imported large-diameter pipe sections at Lenin-grad port.



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



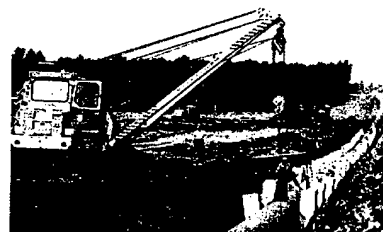
Soviet-made excavator being used to dig pipeline trench.



Pipe sections being welded by manual, arc-welding 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 at 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 Ural 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 Riv-

er 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

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.

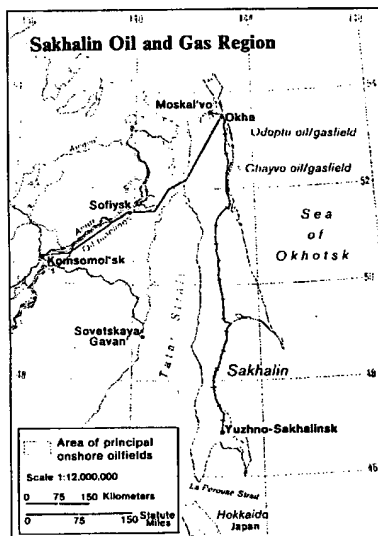
The joint Soviet-Japanese venture to exploit Sakhalin offshore oil resources is similar in many respects to the Siberia-to-Western Europe natural gas pipeline project. It includes the purchase of Western petroleum equipment financed through credits guaranteed by Western governments in exchange for Soviet 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.

The Pipeline at a Glance

Length	4,451 kilometers (Urengoy-Uzhgorod)
Capacity	32 billion cubic meters per year
Pipe	2.7 million tons, 1,420-mm diameter
Operating pressure	75 atmospheres
Compressor stations	41 (40 with three 25-MW gas- turbine compressors each; one with five 10-MW gas-turbine compressors)
Total cost	\$22 billion (\$7 billion in hard currency)
Completion	1983 (pipelaying) 1984 (compressor stations)

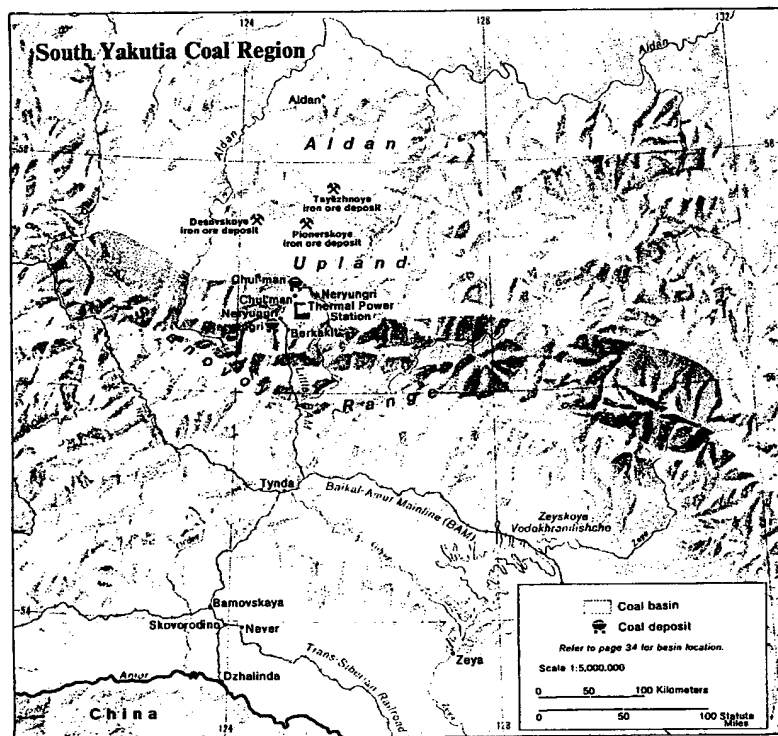


South Yakutia Coal Project

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.

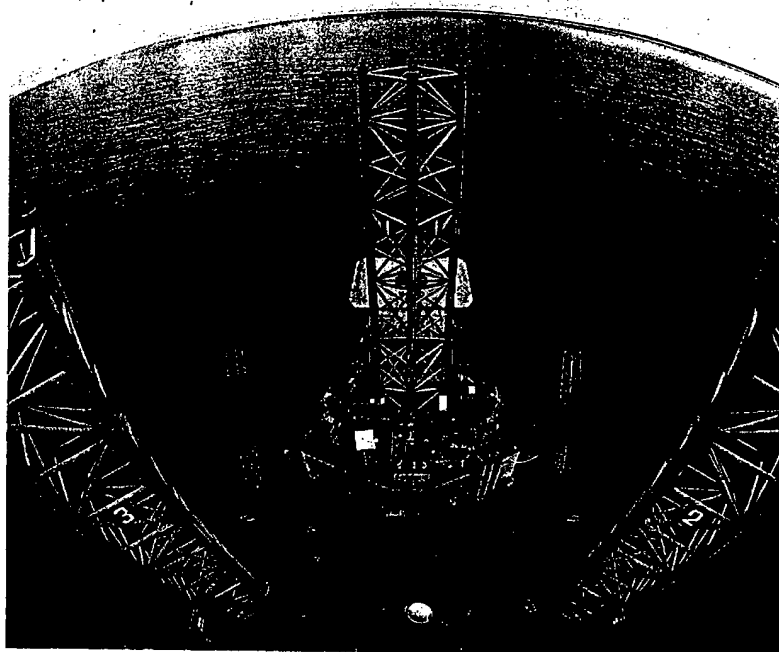


Fuel Resources

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.

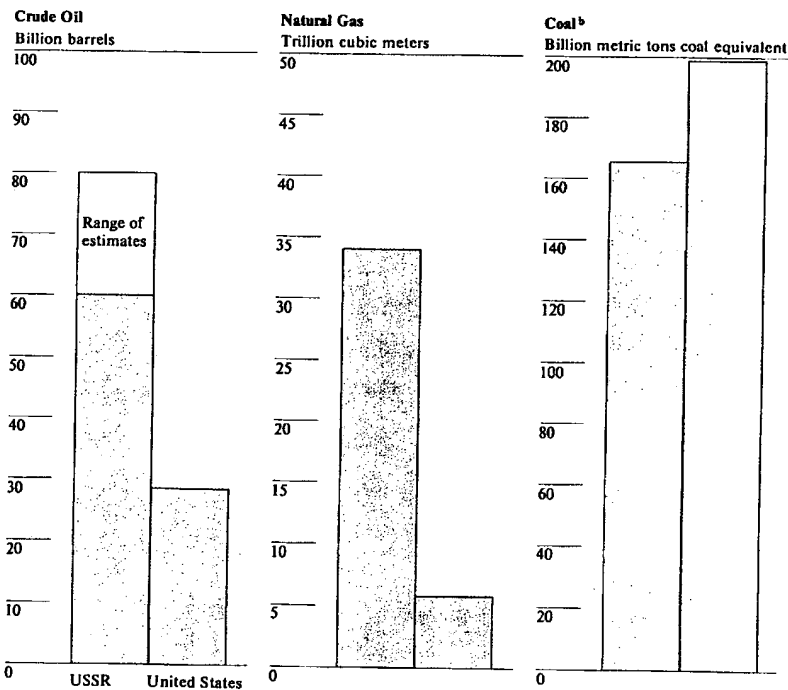
Historically, the large urban and industrial centers west of the Urals were almost totally dependent on plentiful nearby fuel resources. These western resources now provide only about 50 percent of the energy needs of the European USSR; the rest come from newly discovered reserves in Central Asia, Kazakhstan, 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, C₁, C₂, D₁, and D₂—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*



* The portion of total resources assessed as exploitable under local economic conditions and available technology.
^b Yearend 1980.

Soviet Union: Reserve Classification System

Soviet Reserve Classification	Western Reserve Classification
Explored/Commercial Reserves A + B + 30% of C ₁	Proved
A	
B	
C ₁ (30%)	Probable
Prospective Reserves The remaining 70% of C ₁ plus C ₂ + D ₁ + D ₂	
C ₁ (70%)	
C ₂	Possible
D ₁	
D ₂	

"A" Category

- 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 capacity

"C₁" 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

"C₂" 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

"D₁" Category

- Speculative reserves presumed to exist on the basis of geologic analogy to reference areas
- Some will shift to "C₂" category

"D₂" Category

- Speculative reserves presumed to exist on the basis of geologic analogy to reference area
- Less geologically and geophysically evaluated than "D₁" category
- Some will shift to "D₁" 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:

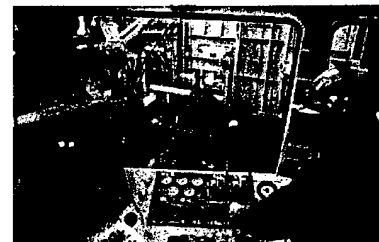
- In undiscovered areas analogous to other known resource-bearing areas
- Recoverable under existing economic and operating conditions



Oil and gas 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 Muravlenko.



Construction workers study blueprints for Urengoy gas turbines.

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

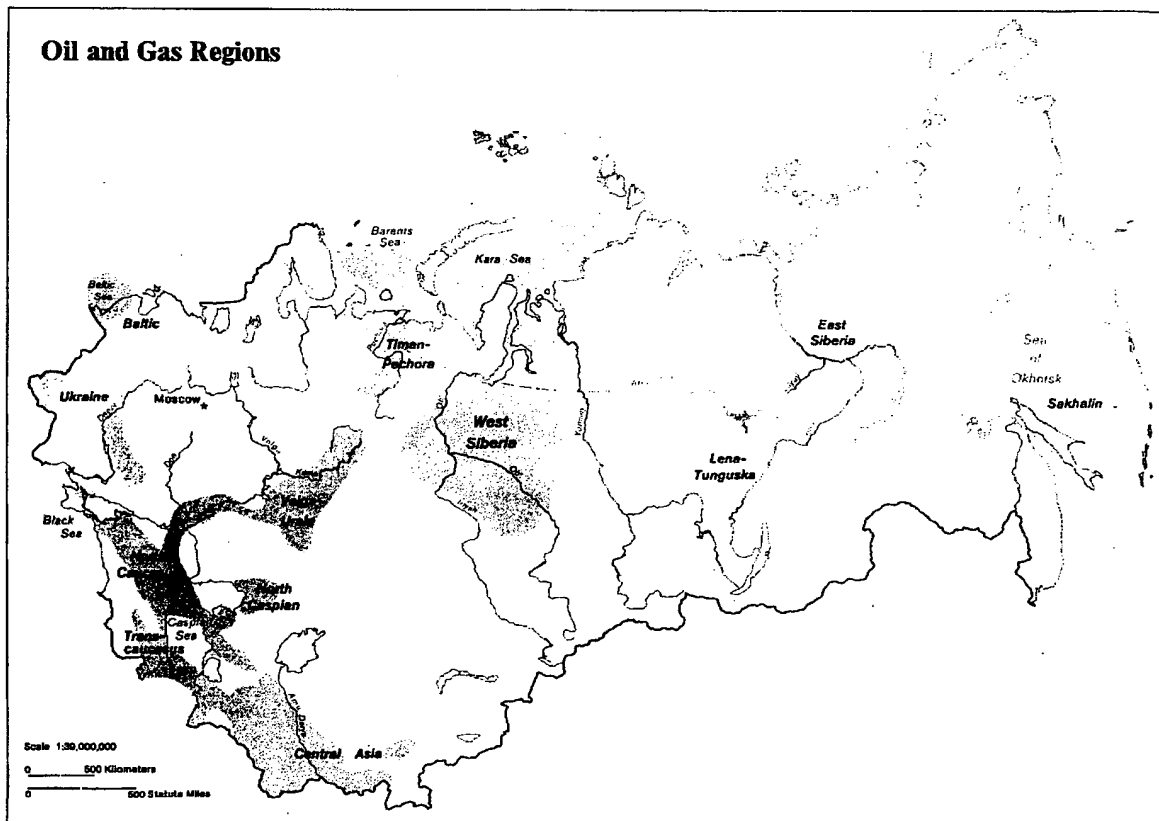
Since 1947 Moscow has treated the size and location of its oil reserves as a state secret, publishing only occasional, fragmentary, and inconsistent data. Most US and West European oil experts believe that Soviet proved reserves are in the range of 60-80 billion barrels, about 10 to 12 percent of the 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 hydrocarbon 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.

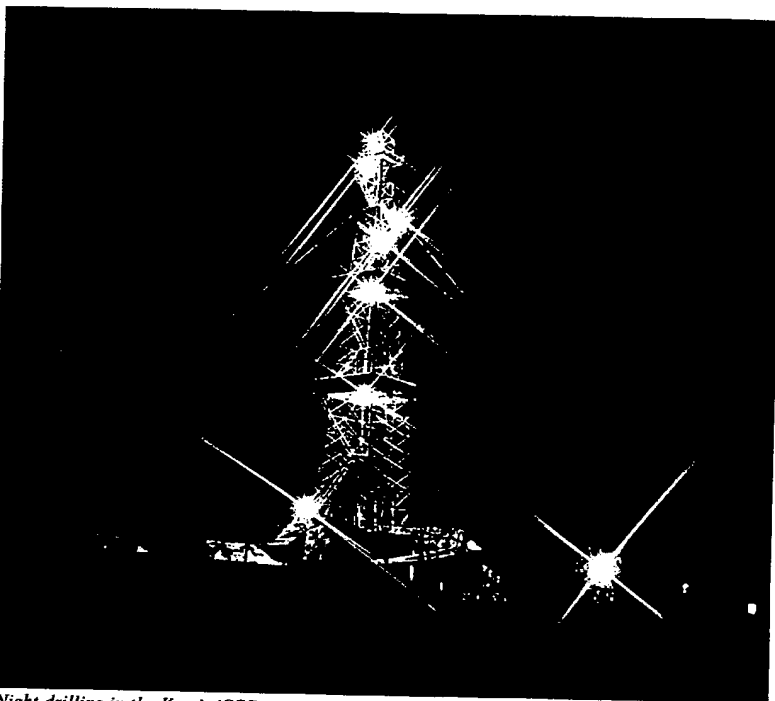
Soviet natural gas production, like that of oil, has increased through the successive development of newly discovered reserves. By the time the North Caucasus region, which was predominant in the early postwar years, reached its peak in the late 1960s, the Ukrainian gasfields had been developed and accounted 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, Zapolyaroye, Medvezh'ye, Kharasavey, and Bovanenko—together hold more than three-fourths 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.

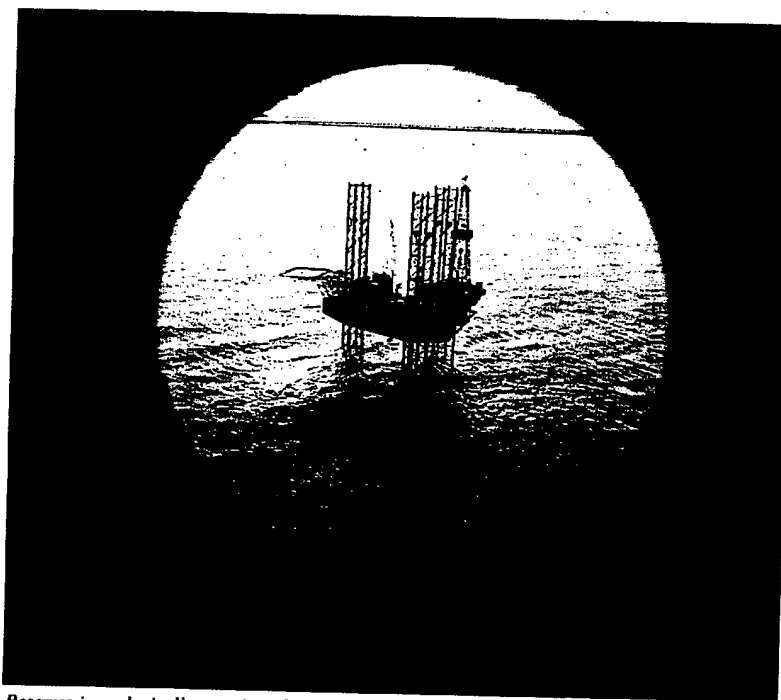
Gas Condensate

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 hydrocarbon 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°C and below substantially reduce workers' productivity; Soviet work regulations prohibit outdoor work when temperatures reach -40°C and wind speeds exceed 15 meters per second. This produces a windchill effect comparable to -110°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.

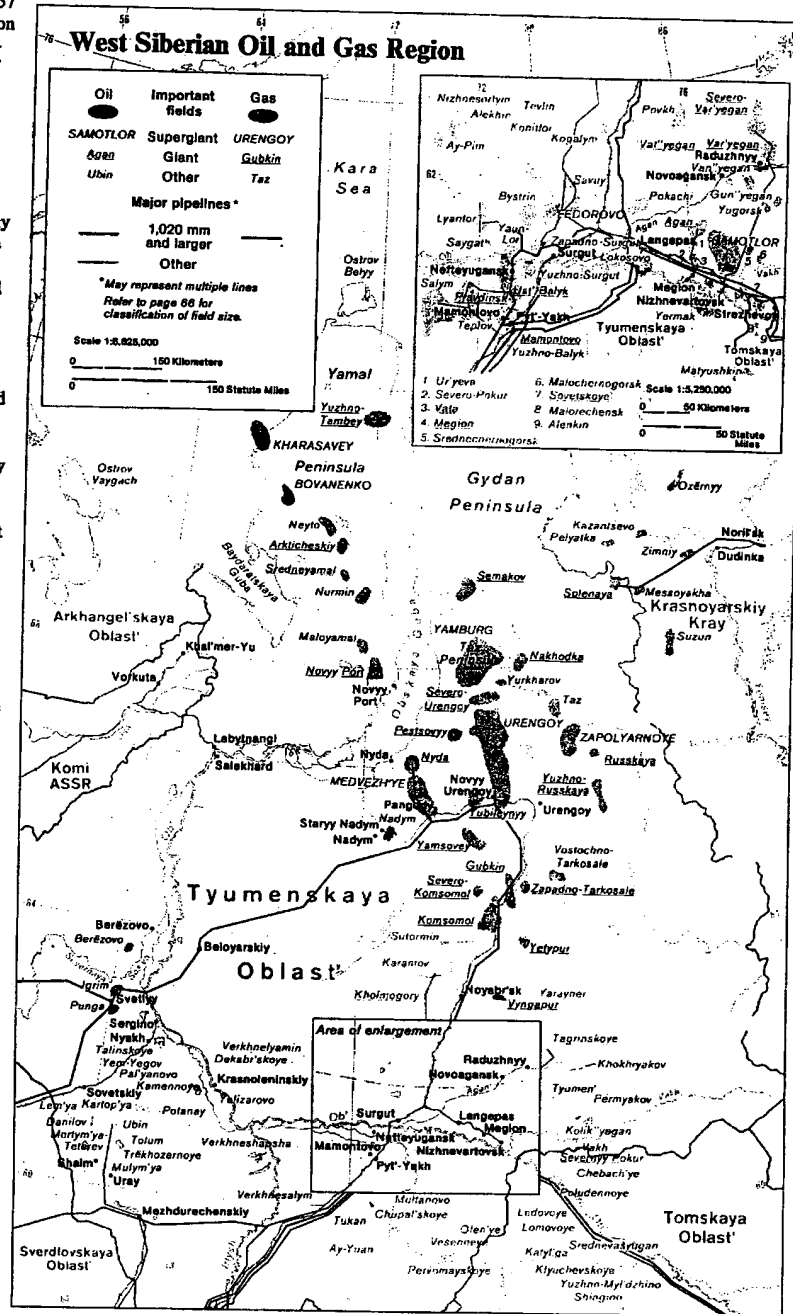
Geologically, the basin deepens to the north, where the sediments generally range up to 6 to 8 kilometers in thickness. In the southern and central parts of the basin, the sediments are 3 to 5 kilometers thick. The sedimentary cover of the basin consists of marine and continental deposits of the Jurassic, 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 Berezhovo 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

Most 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 the region. They now serve as the focuses of the region's expanding pipeline and petroleum processing facilities.

Labytnangi (66°39'N/66°21'E) Population: est. 11,000. From this railhead on the lower Ob', cargo is transferred to rivercraft bound for gas exploitation areas.

Mamontovo/Pyt'-Yakh (60°46'N/72°47'E, 60°45'N/72°50'E) Population: est. 10,000. Housing and storage areas at Mamontovo settlement and the adjacent Pyt'-Yakh rail station support Mamontovo oilfield.

Megion (61°03'N/76°06'E) Population: est. over 10,000. Megion provides housing and logistic support for surrounding oilfields. All-weather roads lead to these fields and to Nizhnevartovsk.

Nadym (65°32'N/72°32'E) Population: est. 50,000. One of the largest urban centers in the northern gas development area has schools, stores, and community services for workers of the surrounding gas region. Its population is expected to increase to about 150,000.

Nefteyugansk (61°56'N/76°38'E) Population: est. 72,000 (1984). This is the primary port and supply base for the Mamontovo and Ust-Balyk oilfields. It is linked to them by all-weather roads.

Nizhnevartovsk (60°56'N/76°38'E) Population: est. 178,000 (1984). Nizhnevartovsk supports the Samotlor oilfield and smaller fields nearby. It has extensive port facilities on the Ob' River, a rail tie with Surgut, all-weather roads, and an airport.

Novogansk (61°57'N/76°41'E) Population: est. 7,000. Located at the western edge of the Var'yegan oil-producing area, Novogansk is a support base for oil exploitation and transport.

Novyy Urengoy (66°06'N/76°35'E) Population: est. 52,000 (1984). Novyy Urengoy, served by rail and air, is the main support city for the Urengoy natural gasfield. Industries and high-rise apartments are under construction.

Noyabr'sk (63°08'N/75°22'E) Population: est. 55,000 (1984). Noyabr'sk, a new urban center for the Kholmogory oilfield and other oil and gas exploitation, has a rail-served storage area covering 3.5 square kilometers.

Pangody (65°51'N/74°30'E) Population: est. 6,000. Pangody is the supply base of the Medvezh'ye gasfield.

Raduzhnyy (62°06'N/77°31'E) Population: est. 5,000. Raduzhnyy supports nearby oilfields and is the terminus of an all-weather road from Nizhnevartovsk, 140 km to the south.

Sergino (62°30'N/65°38'E) Population: est. 6,000. Sergino is a rail terminus where cargo is transferred to rivercraft or to trucks plying the winter road to the Urengoy gasfield.

Staryy Nadym (65°35'N/72°42'E) Population: est. 2,000. This expanding port serves the city of Nadym (11 km southwest) and the Medvezh'ye and Urengoy gasfields.

Strezhevoy (60°42'N/77°34'E) Population: est. 10,000. This port, 60 km southeast of Nizhnevartovsk supports the Sovetskoye oilfield and may support new oil exploration along the Vakh River.

Surgut (61°14'N/73°20'E) Population: est. 188,000 (1984). Surgut is the key housing, industrial, and supply center of the middle Ob' oil region; it has large mechanized port facilities, an all-weather airport, and rail facilities.

Uray (60°08'N/64°48'E) Population: est. 20,000. Uray, which supports an oil exploitation area west of the Ob', is served by rivercraft and an all-weather airport; a dirt road connects to a railhead at Mezhdurechenskiy.

Urengoy (65°58'N/78°25'E) Population: est. 9,000. Development of Urengoy gasfields stimulated construction of port facilities and storage areas. These facilities are expanding along the left bank to the site of the railway 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.

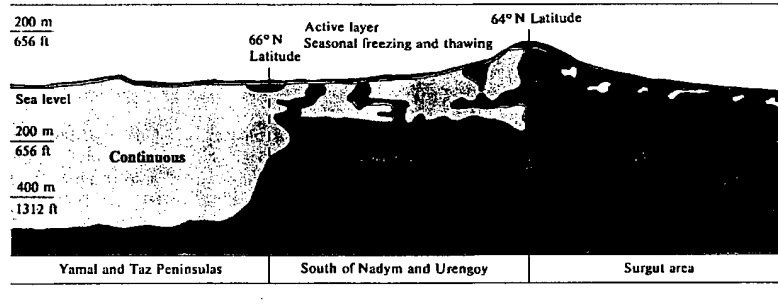
Explored natural gas deposits in West Siberia are concentrated in the Arctic regions of the Tyumen' Oblast. Production from Medvezh'ye, which began in 1972, and from Urengoy, which began in 1978, is to be followed by Yamburg and ultimately extend to other supergiants—Zapolyaroye, Kharasavcy, and Bovanenko.

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

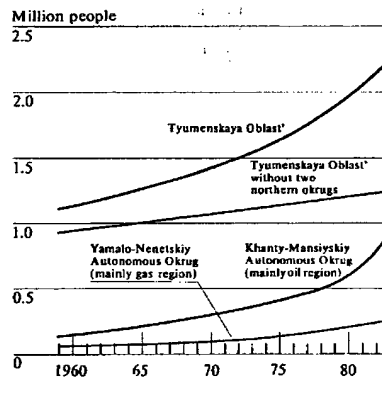


Population and Settlement

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 four-fifths 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.

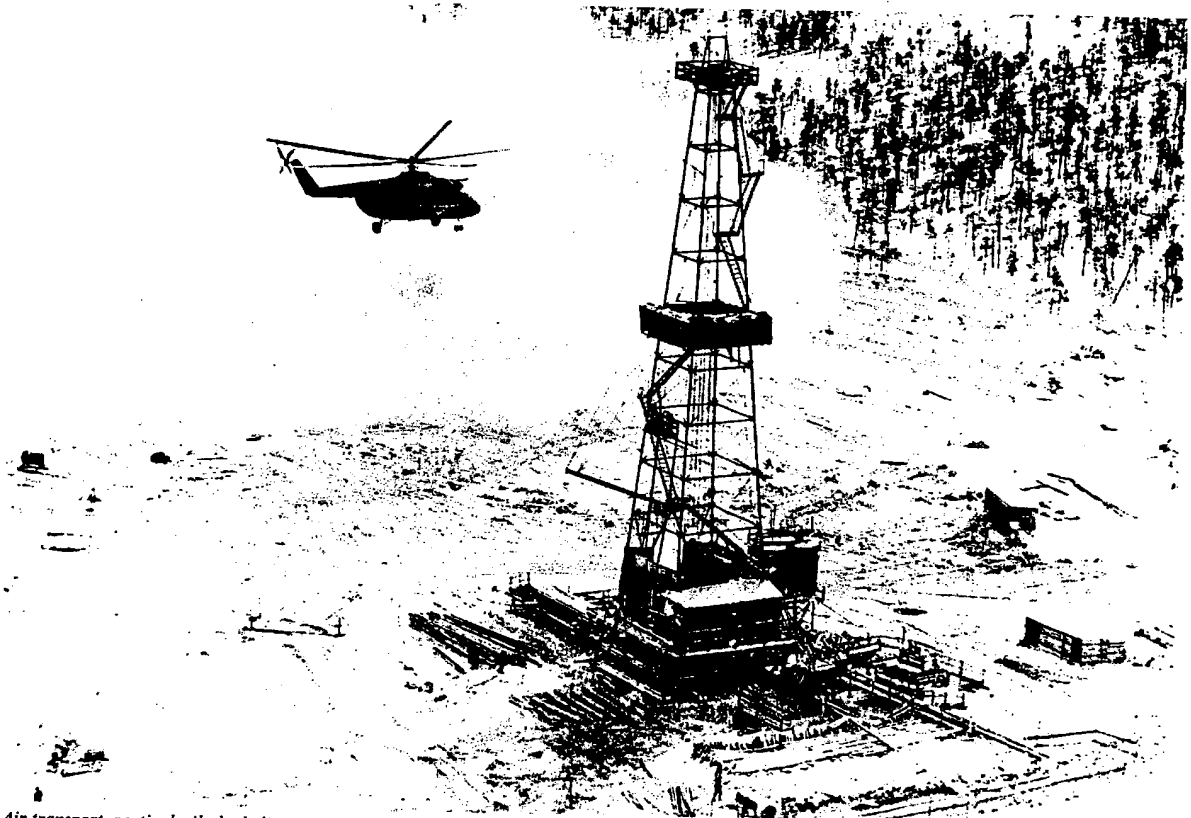
After 20 years of building, the region's road network is still poorly developed, and the demand for roads grows faster than they are built. The situation is similar to the one faced by the United States in exploiting Alaska's energy

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 700-kilometer winter road linking the Sergino rail terminus to Novyy 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, particularly by helicopters, is commonly used to augment road, rail, and water transport in West Siberia.

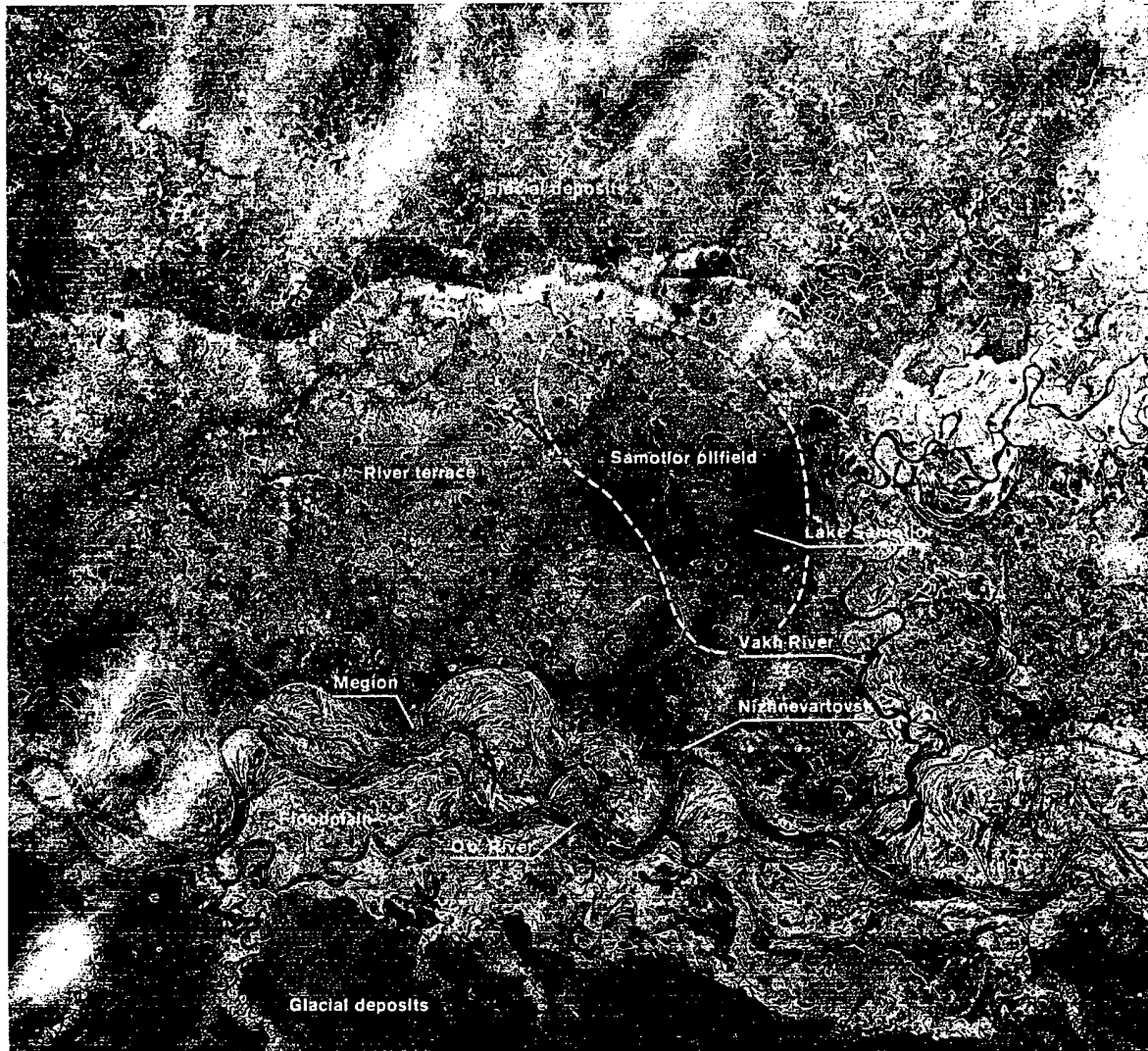
one month at the extreme northern port of Nyda. During this season, much of the freight is transferred to small ships and barges for transport up small rivers, such as the Agan in the middle Ob' region and the Nadym and Pur farther north.

While air 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. Year-round air links have been established between major Soviet cities, such as Moscow and Chelyabinsk, and the larger cities 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, hauling 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.

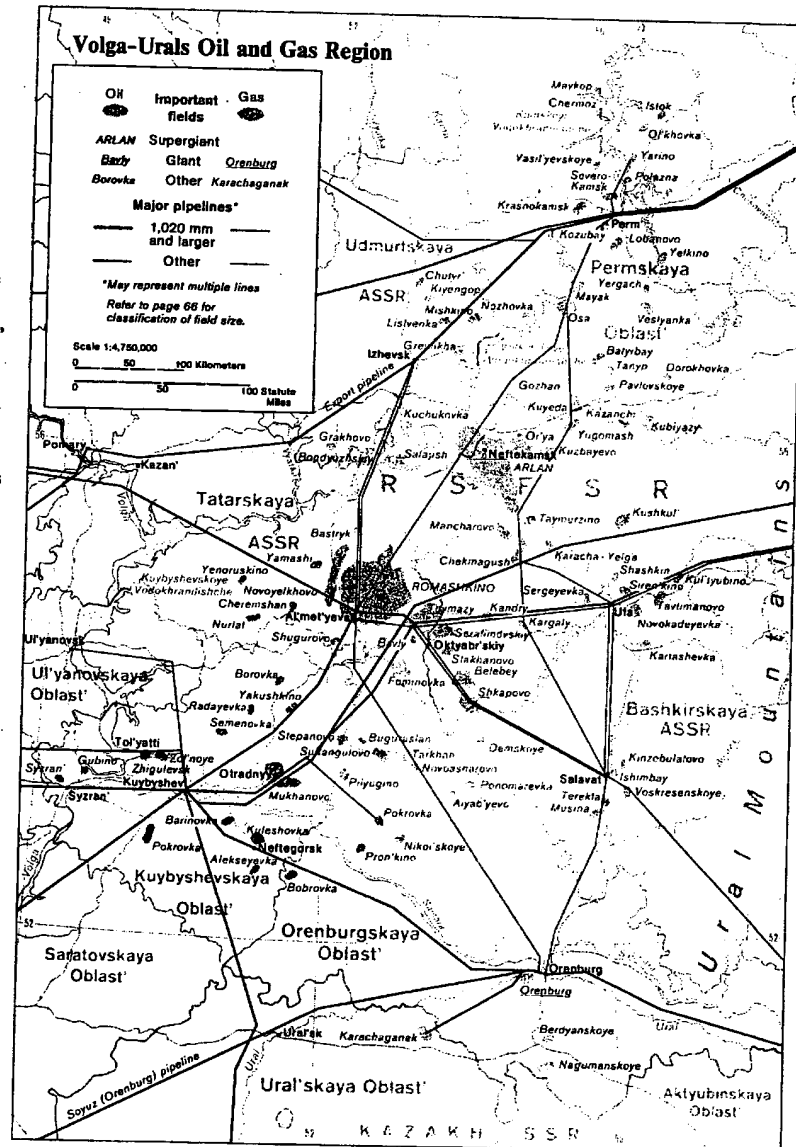
Output from all major producing areas of the Volga-Urals has been declining since it peaked at 4.5 million b/d in 1975. Many fields have been producing for 20 to 30 years and their easily obtainable reserves are nearly depleted. Production wells are lifting increasing amounts of water with the remaining 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 Udmurt 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)

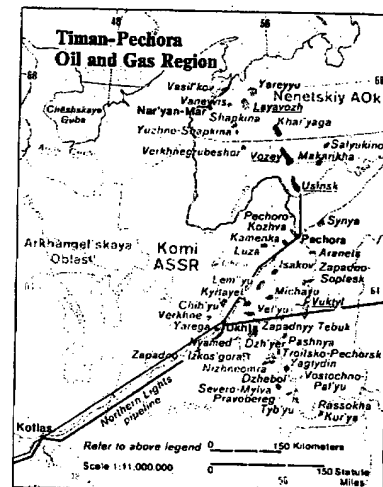
The Timan-Pechora basin is a sedimentary basin of 350,000 square kilometers in the northeastern part of the European USSR. It is part of two administrative subdivisions: the Komi ASSR and the Nenets Autonomous Okrug. Development of the petroleum basin occurred in two phases. The first phase was from 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 Vozzy, 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.



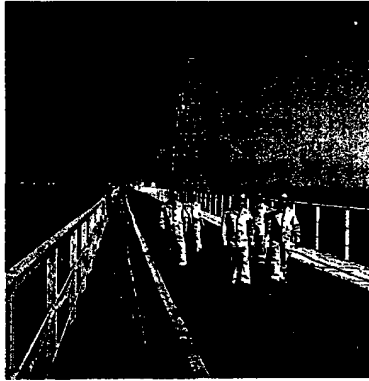
North Caucasus-North Caspian

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—Stavropol' 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 Mangyshlak 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

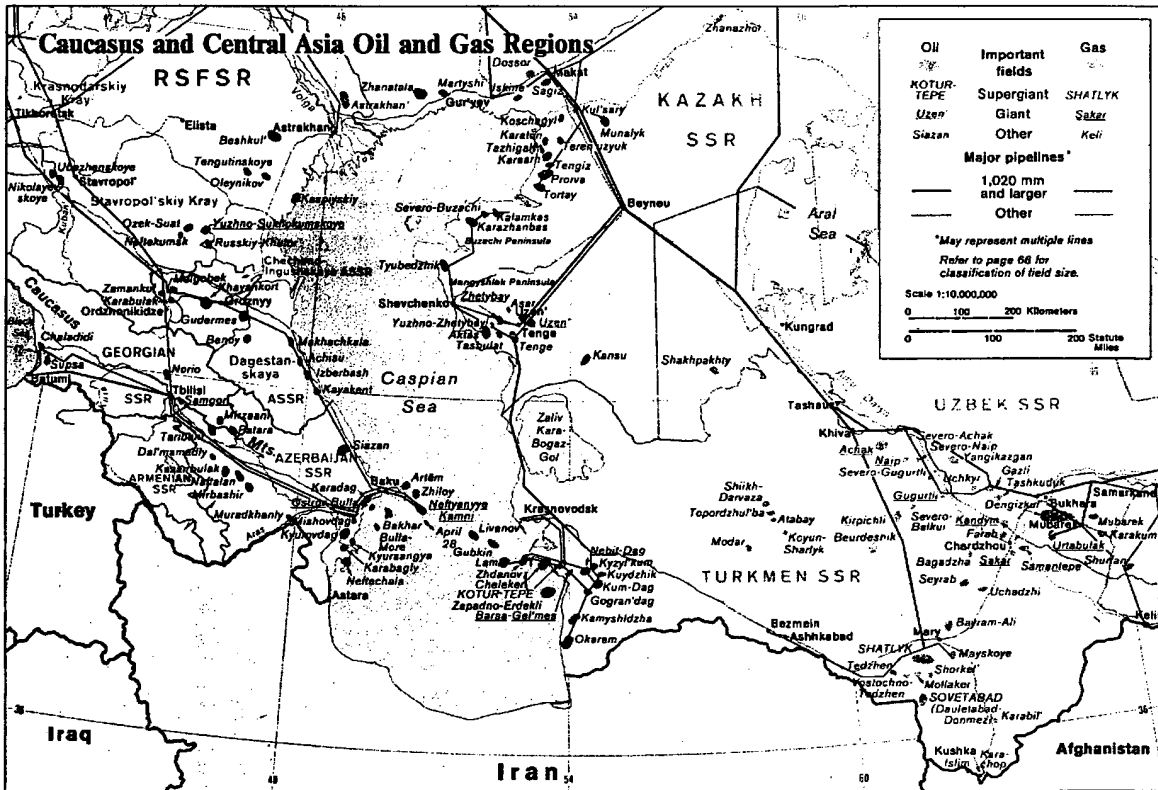
The Transcaucasus-Central Asia oil and gas regions extend from the Georgian and Azerbaijan SSRs in the Caucasus Mountains under the southern Caspian Sea across Central Asia's Turkmen and Uzbek SSRs.

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 12.6 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 year.

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 eastern 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.

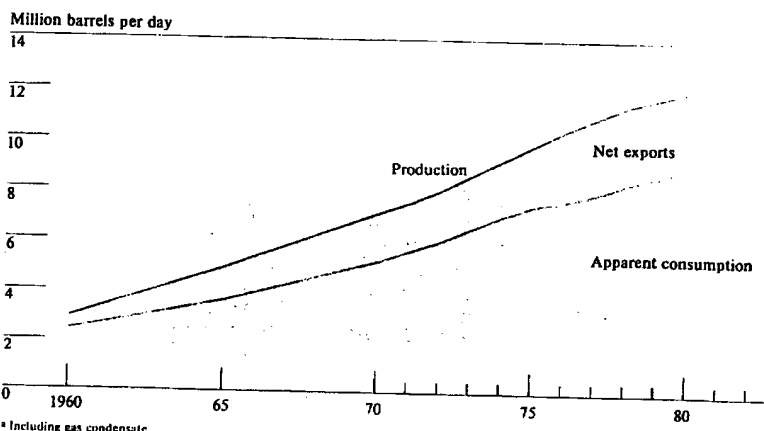
The USSR's first-place position in world oil production is primarily the result of its abundant resource base, massive investment, and sheer persistence rather than of any unique technical and managerial effort on the part of its oil industry. Although accorded high-priority status in the civilian economy, 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-

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

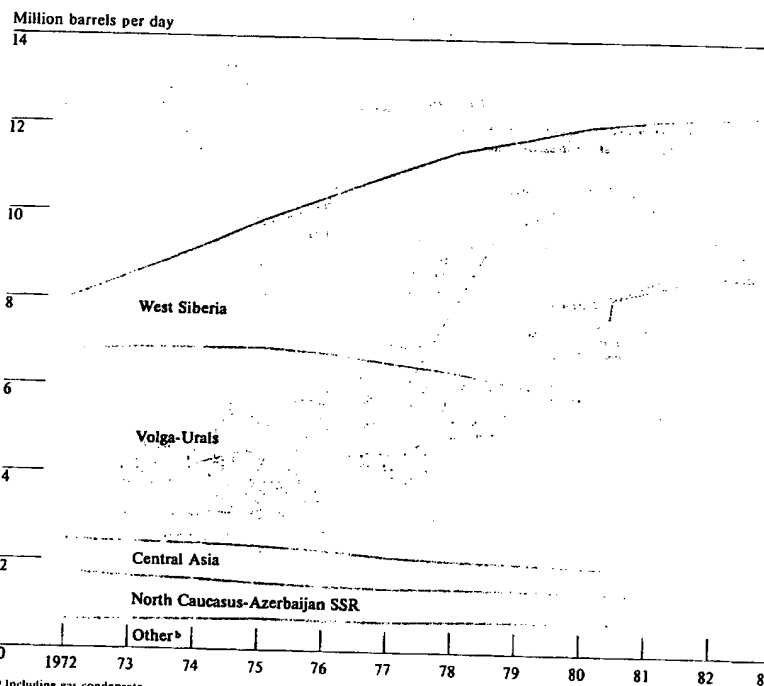
Some 70 percent of oil consumption in the Soviet Union takes place in three sectors of the economy: electric power, transportation, and industry. Although Soviet oil consumption during the last 25 years has consistently grown faster than total energy consumption, in recent years the rates of both have 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* and Apparent Consumption



USSR: Oil Production by Region*



Natural Gas

Natural gas, rather than oil, has paced the growth in 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 the USSR surpassed the United States as the world's largest producer of natural gas. Soviet gas 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. By 1983 West Siberia was providing nearly all of the gas industry's growth and accounted for one-half of the nation's gas production.

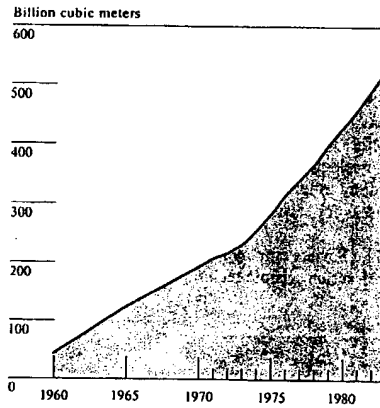
The first gasfields to be developed in West Siberia were located along the lower Ob' River, near Berezovo, where production began in 1966. The center of the West Siberian deposits, however, is located much farther to the north and east near the Arctic Circle. Of the six large fields there—Medvezh'ye, 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 about 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 years. 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 natural 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.

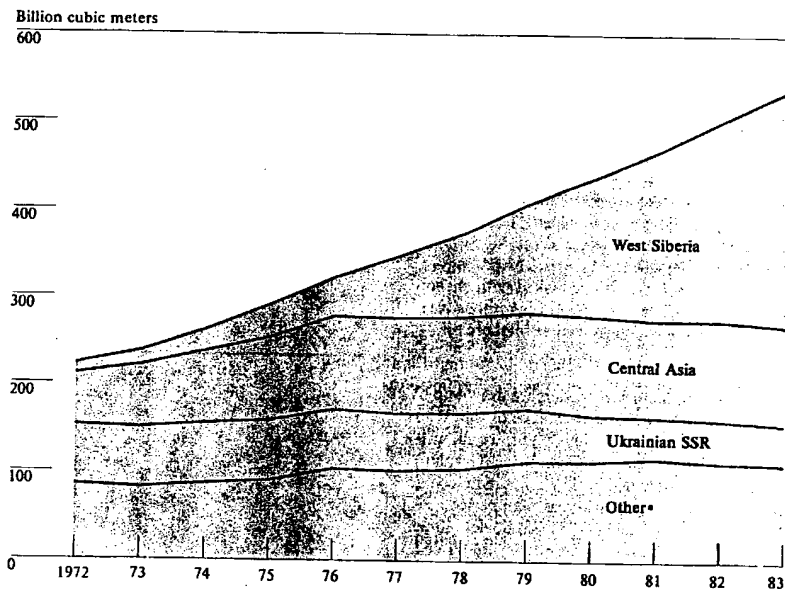
Significant production of condensate was not achieved until the early 1970s, when the Soviets

first began to add condensate totals to their crude 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 crude 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.

USSR: Natural Gas Production by Region



* Includes the Azerbaijan SSR, Komi ASSR, North Caucasus, Volga-Urals and other producing regions in the RSFSR.

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

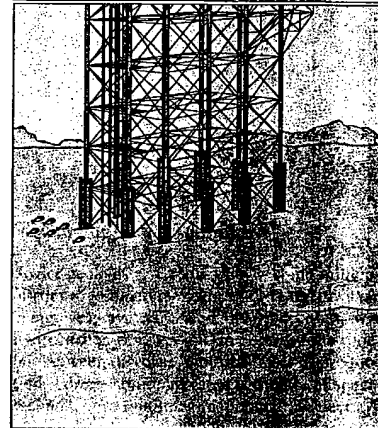
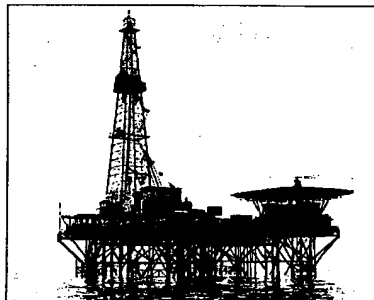
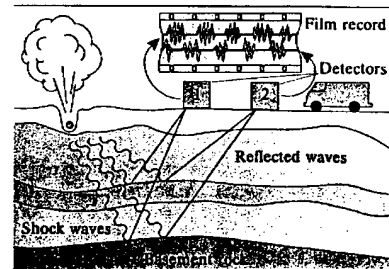
are hampered by technology shortcomings. Refraction studies can locate large amplitude structures—like Romashkino or Samotlor—but lack the higher resolution to identify smaller deposits. Seismic equipment in the USSR is rated to depths of about 3,000 meters, and there is little chance that this equipment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

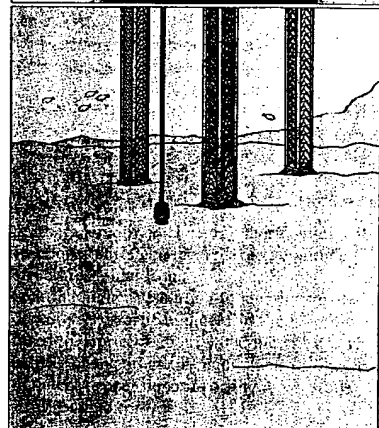
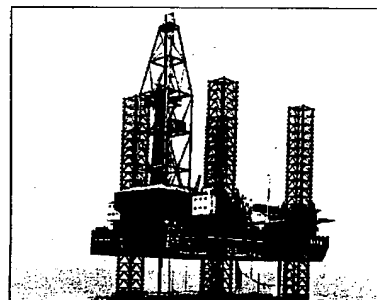


Exploration for oil and gas in the Soviet Arctic.

Seismic Exploration

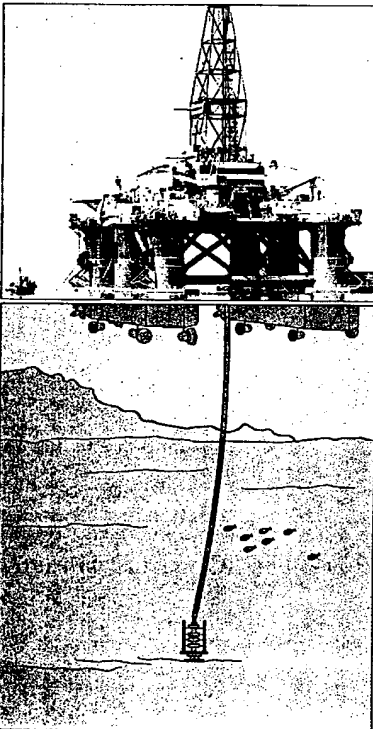
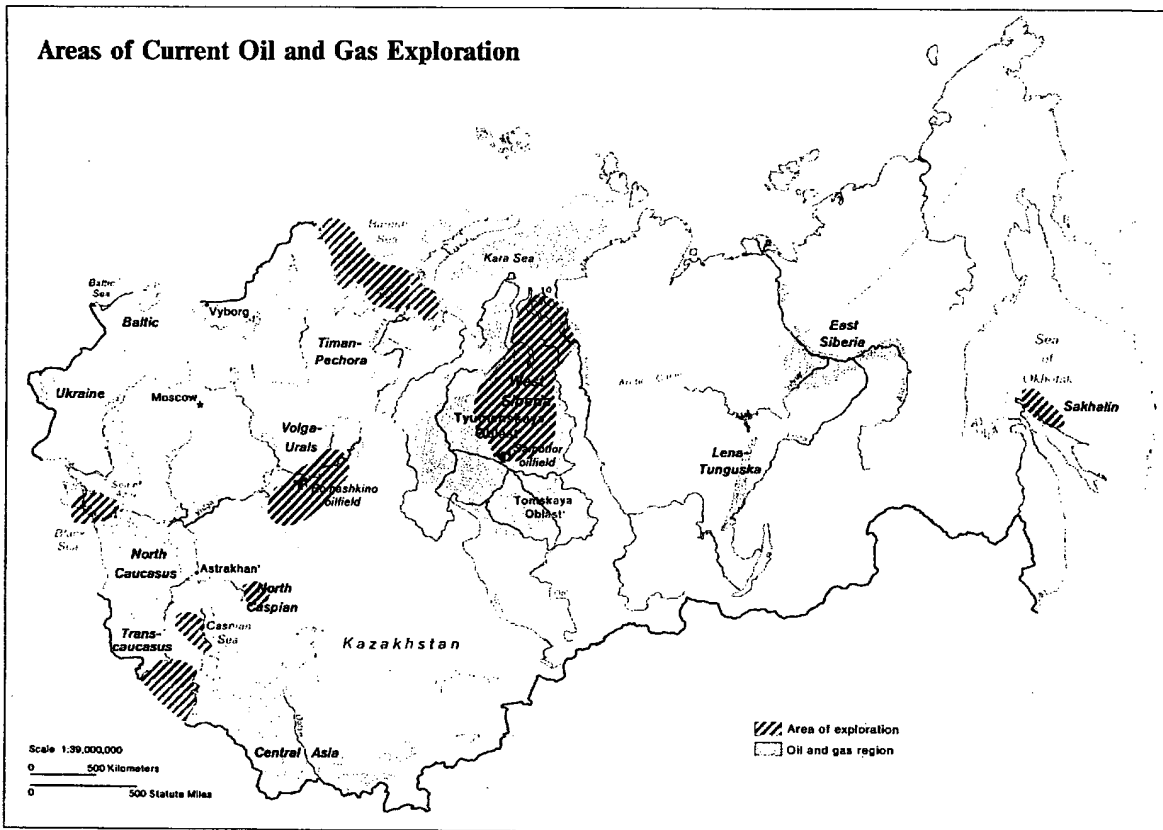


Fixed drilling platform in the "April 28" oil-field, Caspian Sea.

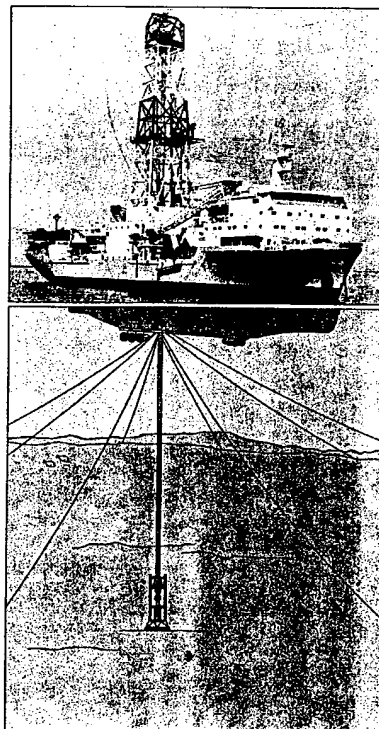


"Baky" mobile jack-up drilling platform in the Caspian Sea.

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.

equipment and technology were delayed by prolonged discussions and negotiations which postponed actual deliveries.

The USSR plans to concentrate offshore exploratory drilling for the next few years in the Caspian Sea, the Sea of Okhotsk near Sakhalin, and the Barents and Baltic Seas. Fabrication yards at Astrakhan' on the Caspian and Vyborg on the Gulf of Finland are now producing mobile offshore drilling platforms. The first Soviet-built, semisubmersible platform—Shelf 1—began Caspian operations in early 1982. A second semisubmersible platform—Shelf 2—was completed in 1982. As of mid-1984 the USSR had 11 mobile offshore drilling platforms in operation—eight jack-ups and three semisubmersibles. Three semisubmersible and one jack-up drilling rig are being constructed at Astrakhan' and Vyborg. To begin exploration of the Arctic offshore region, the Soviets have bought three drill ships from Finland.

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

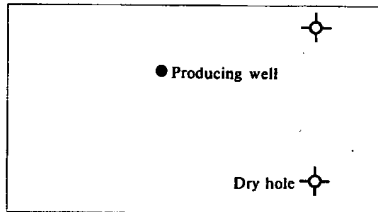
Although Soviet drilling technology lags considerably that of Western countries, most of the drilling equipment, including rigs, pipes, casing, and bits, is produced in the Soviet Union. The Soviets rely on Western imports to fill specific

needs such as additional drill pipe, high-pressure blowout preventers, and offshore drilling and logging equipment.

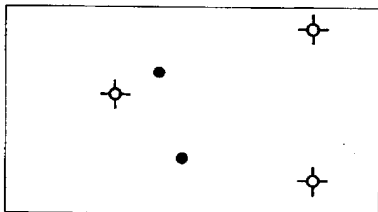
The USSR produced oil and gas drilling rigs of all types at a rate of about 500 per year in the last decade. The average service life of a Soviet rig is about six to 10 years, compared with 15 to 20 years for rigs built in the United States. Until recently, nearly all Soviet rigs were built at two plants—the 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 Verkhnaya 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-

Stages in Field Development

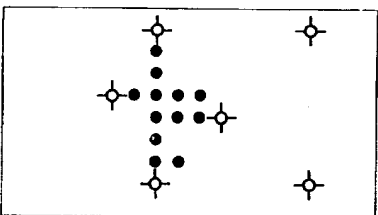
Exploration Drilling



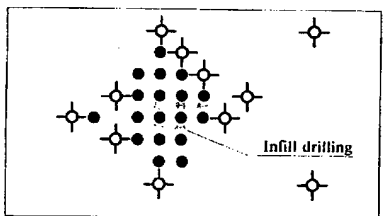
Confirmation Drilling



Delineation Drilling



Development Drilling*



* Based on field development plan.

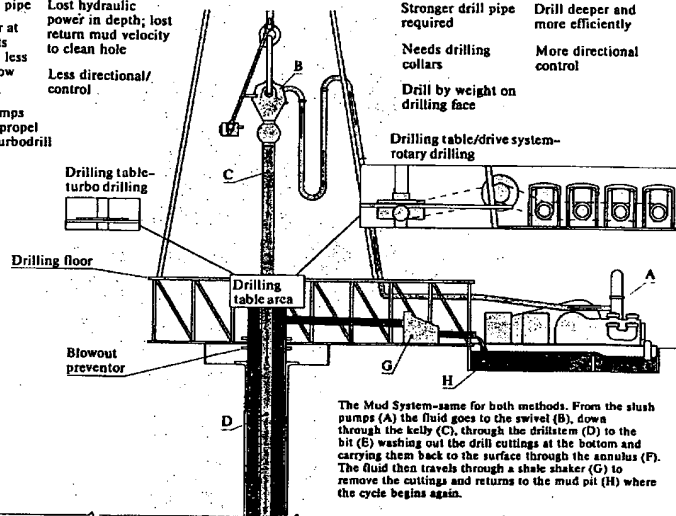
Drilling Methods

Turbo

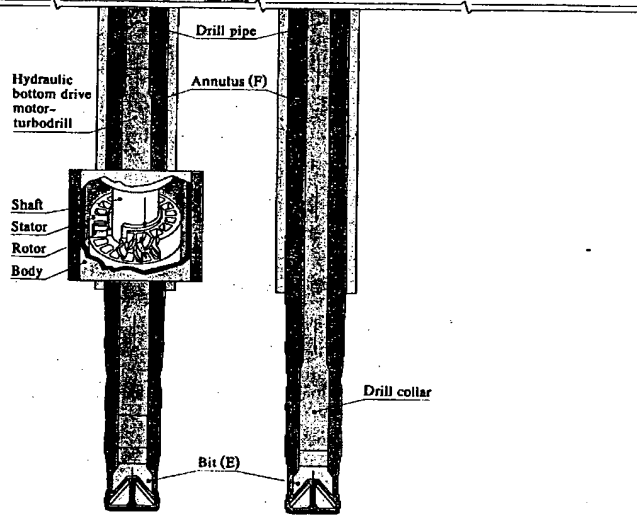
Lighter drill pipe
Turbo motor at bottom limits drilling rate; less efficient below 3,000 m.
Stronger pumps required to propel mud, turn turbodrill
Lost hydraulic power in depth; lost return mud velocity to clean hole
Less directional/control

Rotary

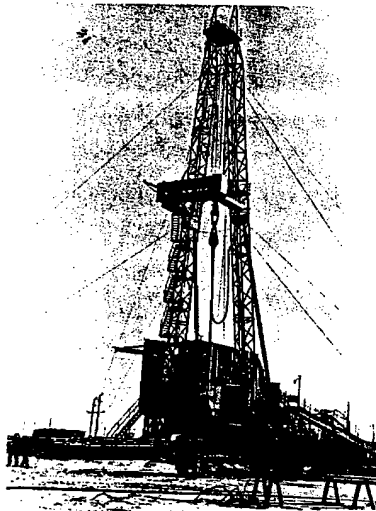
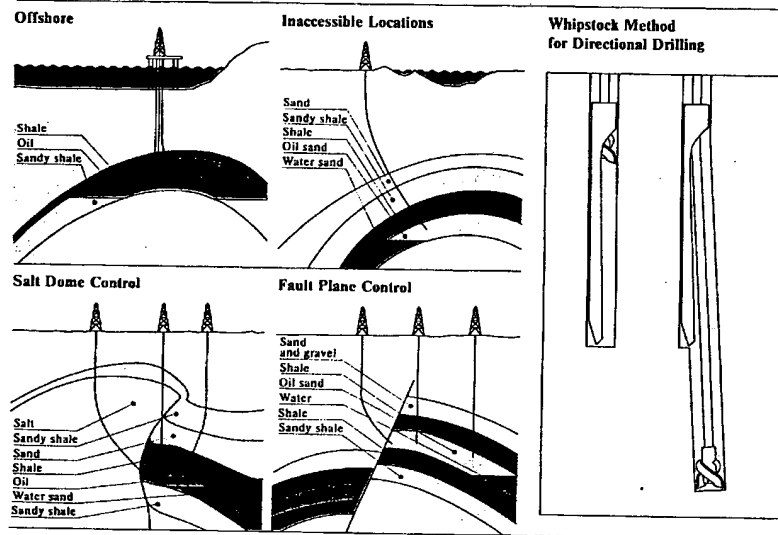
Stronger drill pipe required
Needs drilling collars
Drill by weight on drilling face
Drill deeper and more efficiently
More directional control



Each stage of the turbodrill includes a stator, rigidly connected to the turbodrill body, and rotor, secured on the turbodrill shaft. In the stator and rotor the direction of the mud fluid stream changes. Mud flowing from one stage to another gives up some of its hydraulic power at each stage. As a result, the power or torque generated by the rotors in all the stages is applied to the shaft of the turbodrill and is transmitted to the bit. The torque developed in the stators is taken up by the turbodrill body and the drilling string, while an equal, but oppositely directed torque arising in the rotors is transmitted to the bit via the turbodrill shaft.



Directional Drilling



A turbodrilling 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.

Turbodrills 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 poor-quality 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 turbo-

drills, 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.

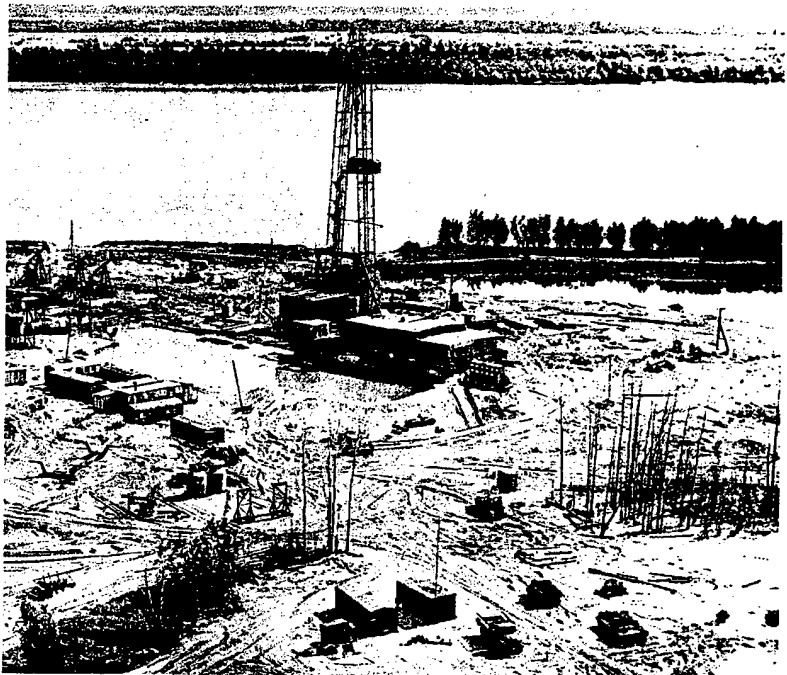
By 1985 the USSR plans to boost offshore drilling activity 50 percent above the level attained in 1980. New drill ships and platforms from foreign yards and new construction in Soviet yards are part of a major effort to explore the offshore Arctic and Far East. Much of this increased emphasis on offshore 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.

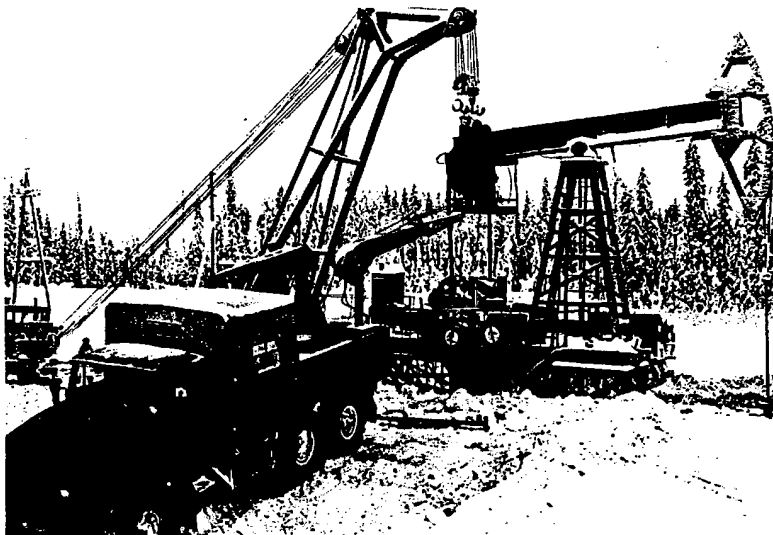
As a result of domestic production inadequacies, the USSR made selective purchases of Western equipment and technology in the 1970s. Among those oil recovery items imported were high-capacity electric submersible pumps; gas-lift equipment, including compressors and treatment units; well completion units;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



Workmen waiting to lower sucker rods into well.

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 maintain 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 amount of water in the produced fluid becomes too high. Rod pumps are used for low-flow-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 Union 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 high-capacity, submersible pumps, although it costs considerably more to install. Soviet petroleum officials have become more interested in the use of the gas-lift process for lifting fluids in the oilfields 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 high-pressure 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.

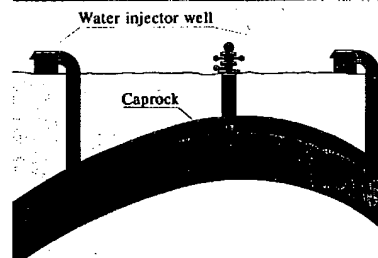
Enhanced oil recovery (EOR) refers to recovery of oil from a petroleum reservoir beyond that economically recoverable by conventional primary and secondary methods. Three general categories of EOR are chemical flooding, carbon dioxide miscible flooding, and thermal methods.

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 at present. This yield has primarily come from the application of steam or hot water injection and in situ combustion.

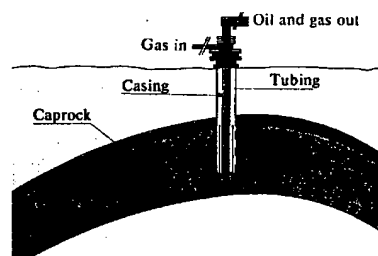
Soviet EOR efforts have been hampered by severe shortages of equipment and chemicals. The Soviets have not as yet been able to build the steam generators needed for thermal recovery or to produce sufficient amounts of surfactants or polymers for chemical and polymer flood programs. Continued efforts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

Recovery Methods

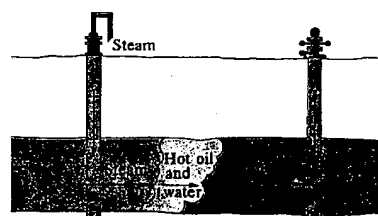
Waterflooding



Gas Lift



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 gas-processing 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 gas-processing 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.

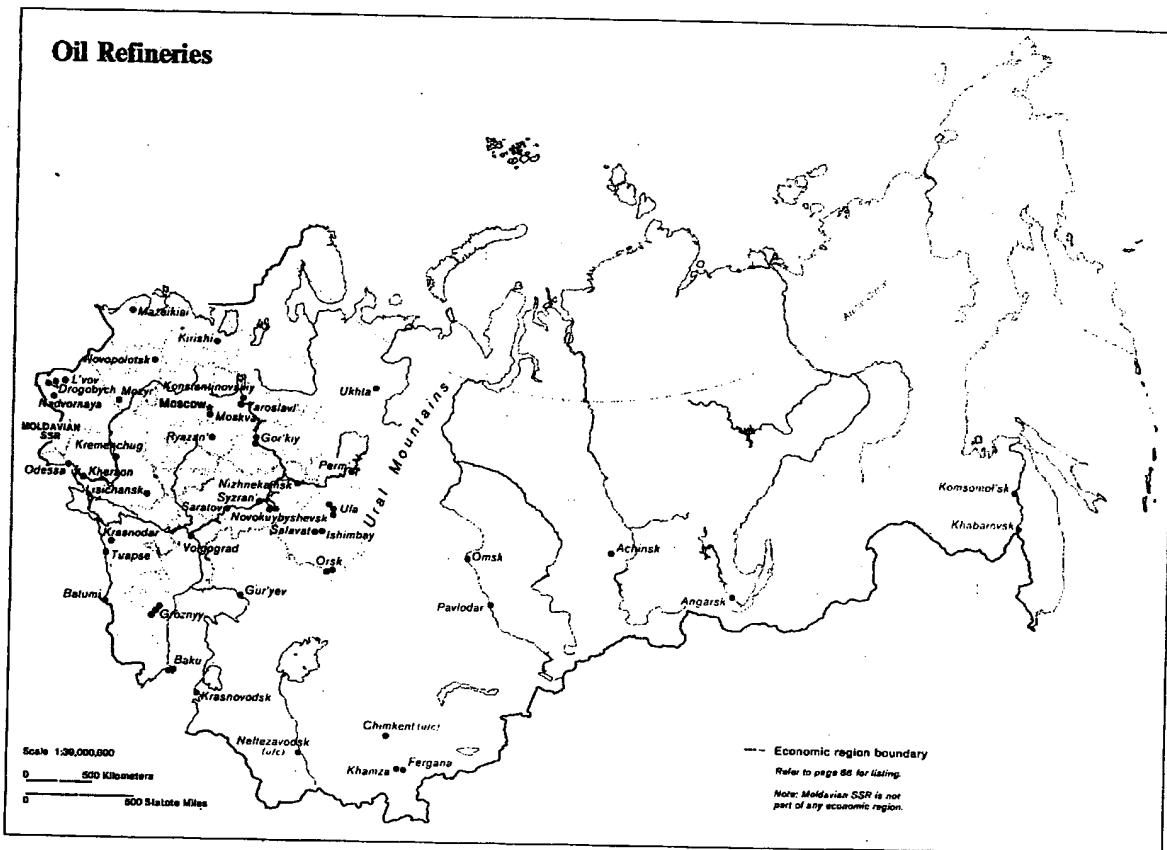
Since 1970 required increases in primary distillation capacity have been obtained through modernization or expansion of existing refineries and the construction of at least five new refineries. Modernization of refineries has included the dismantling of old, small refining units and replacing them with 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 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 fuel consumption by converting these plants to coal and natural gas.

All crude oil processed by refining must pass through an 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 products.

Soviet refineries contain three basic types of crude 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 oil fields—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.

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.

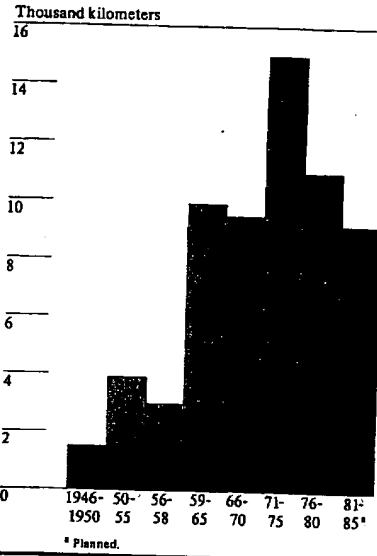
Oil Pipelines

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.

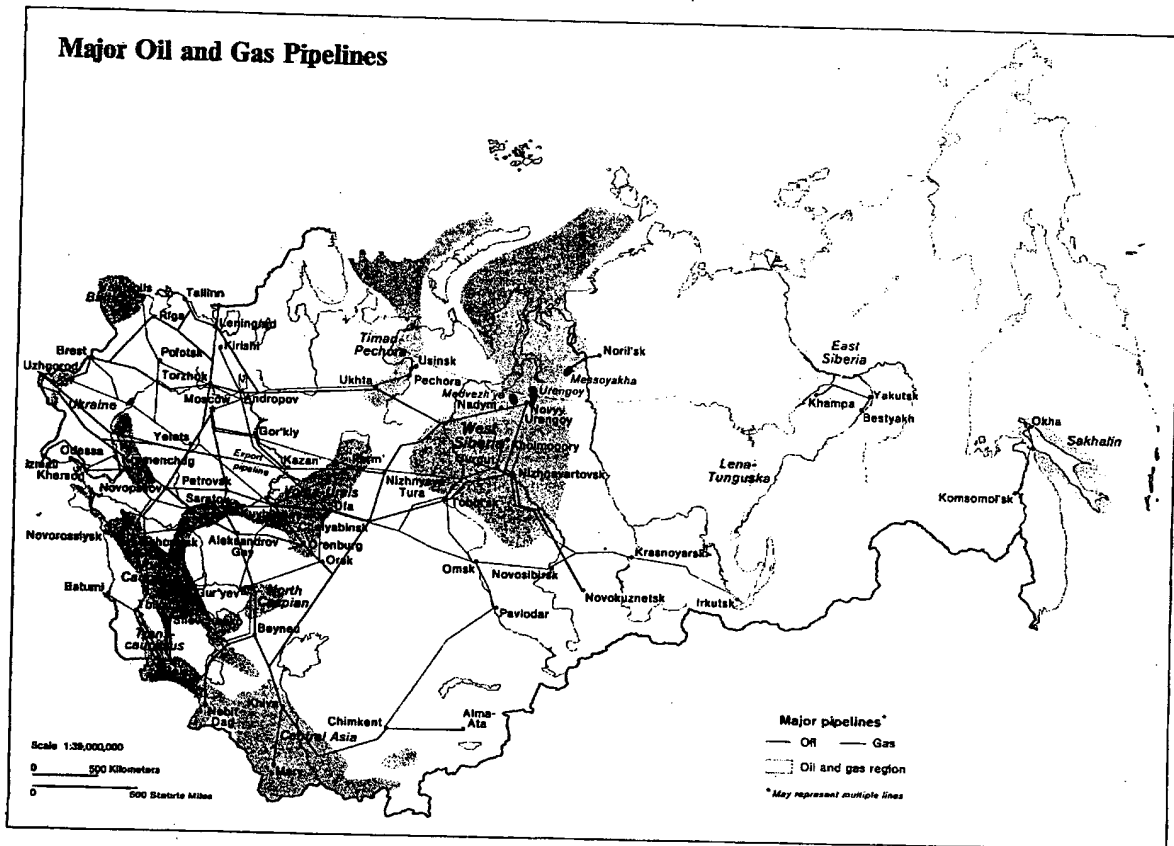
Crude oil pipeline construction has slackened appreciably in the 1980s, primarily as a result of slower growth in oil production. Only 9,200 km are scheduled for completion in the 1981-85 plan, and just two of the 16 planned pipelines are large-diameter interregional oil transmission lines: one from 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 self-sufficient and does not depend on Western



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 Glance

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

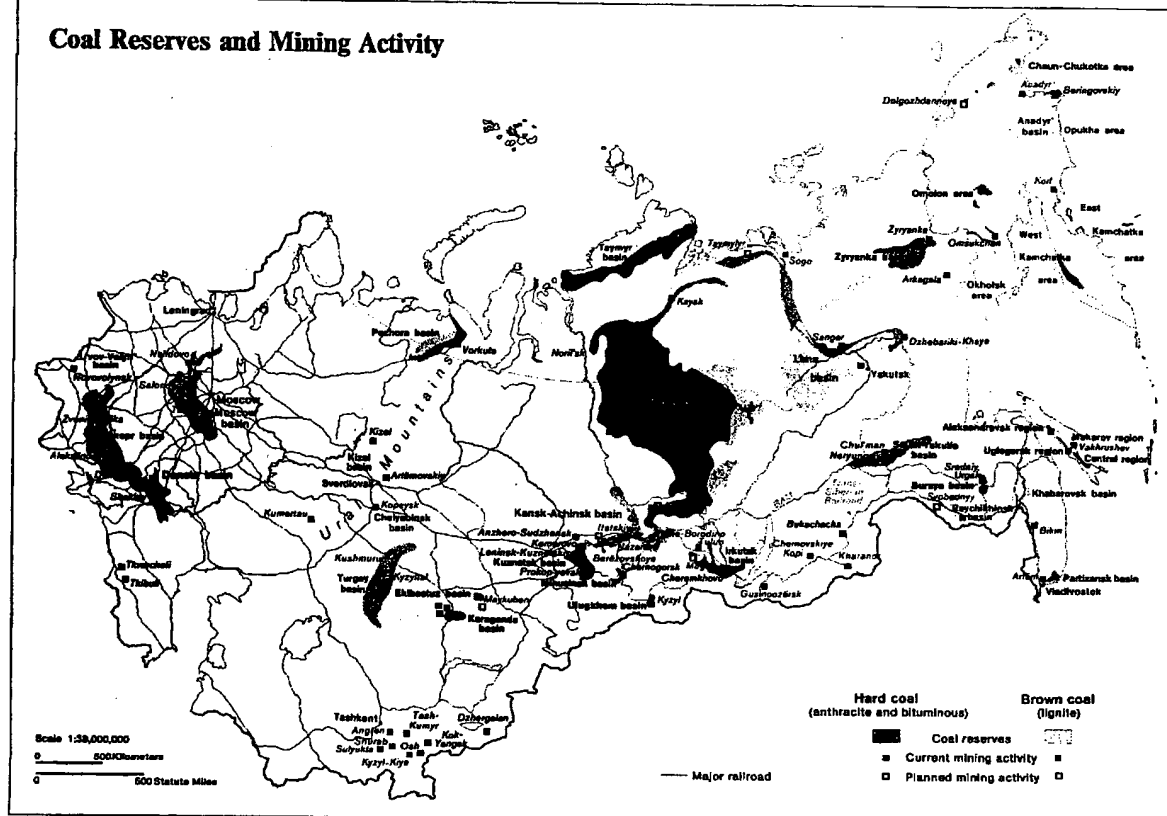
As of 1 January 1983 the Soviet Union estimated its coal resources at 6.8 trillion tons, about half of the world's total and nearly twice that of the United States. Only 4 percent of this total has been explored. Although the Soviets estimate the energy potential of their 281-billion-ton explored coal 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

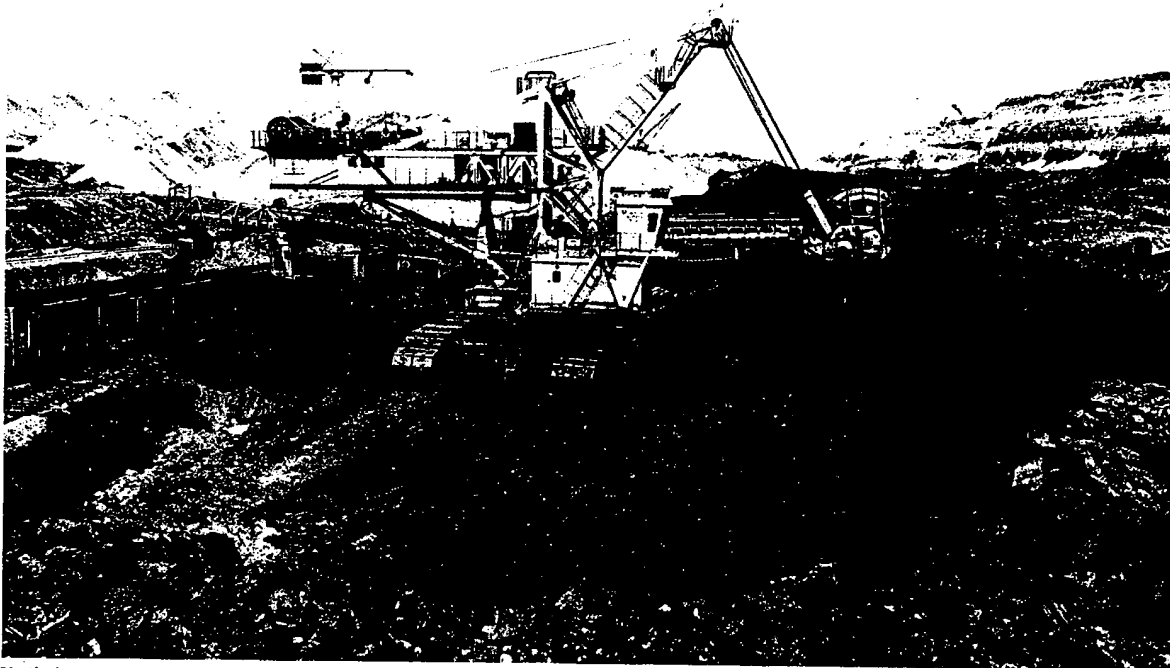
seriously depleted and the remote Siberian reserves are proving to be much more expensive to develop. The portion of total reserves comprised by coking coal is also enormous—estimated at 65-70 billion tons.

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 mine-to-market transportation problems involved, the quality of many of these remote coal reserves is poor because of undesirable levels of ash, water, and sulfur.

Coal Reserves and Mining Activity





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

Coal Resources

Billion metric tons

	Geological Resources	Economically Exploitable Reserves ^a	
		Probable/Possible	Explored
Total USSR	6,806	5,609	281
Hard coal ^b	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
Lignite	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
Irkutsk basin	77	33	7
Kansk-Achinsk basin	638	484	75
Kuznetsk basin	637	548	66
Lena basin	1,647	1,539	4
South Yakutia basin	44	40	4
Tunguska basin	2,299	1,967	2

^a With present technology.

^b Includes anthracite and bituminous coal.

Source: *Zapasy Ugley 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 coal-producing 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.

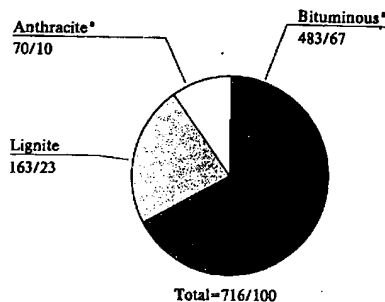
With the notable exception of the Ekibastuz basin in northern Kazakhstan, coal production from all major Soviet basins has been stagnant or in decline during much of the past decade. Production in the Donets basin—the country's largest producer of high-quality steam and met-

allurgical 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.

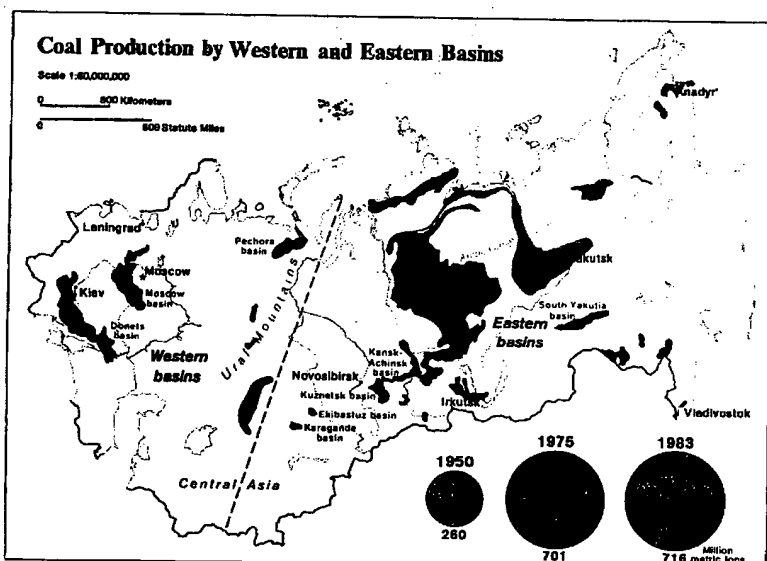
Soviet planners had not anticipated a decline in production from the older basins so soon. The 1976-80 plan called for production to increase at the Donets basin by 10 million tons and at the Kuznetsk basin by 25 million tons; scheduled production at the Moscow and Karaganda basins was to remain unchanged. 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 Production Rank, 1980

Million metric tons/Percent

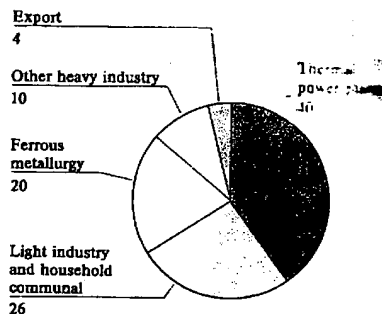


* Anthracite/bituminous breakdown is estimated.



USSR: Coal Consumption, 1980*

Percent



* Estimated.

Coal Production, by Basin*

Million metric tons

Basin	1950	1955	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984
Total	260	390	510	578	624	701	716	704	718	716	725
Western USSR	171	255	327	351	355	366	338	326	330	324	343
Donets	95	141	188	206	217	223	204	198	200	196	210
Moscow	31	40	43	41	36	34	25	22	23	21	20
Pechora	9	14	18	18	21	24	28	28	28	28	28
Urals	33	47	59	62	54	45	44	43	44	44	41
Other	3	13	19	24	27	40	37	35	35	35	38
Eastern USSR	89	135	183	227	269	335	378	378	388	392	434
Ekibastuz		2	6	14	23	46	67	68	70	72	84
Karaganda	16	25	26	31	38	46	48	49	49	49	56
Kuznetsk	38	58	84	96	113	138	144	144	148	147	154
Kazak-Achinsk	2	4	9	14	18	28	35	35	37	40	44
South Yakutia						0	3	3	4	4	12
Other	33	46	58	72	77	77	81	79	80	80	84

* 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.
 † Soviet five-year plan.

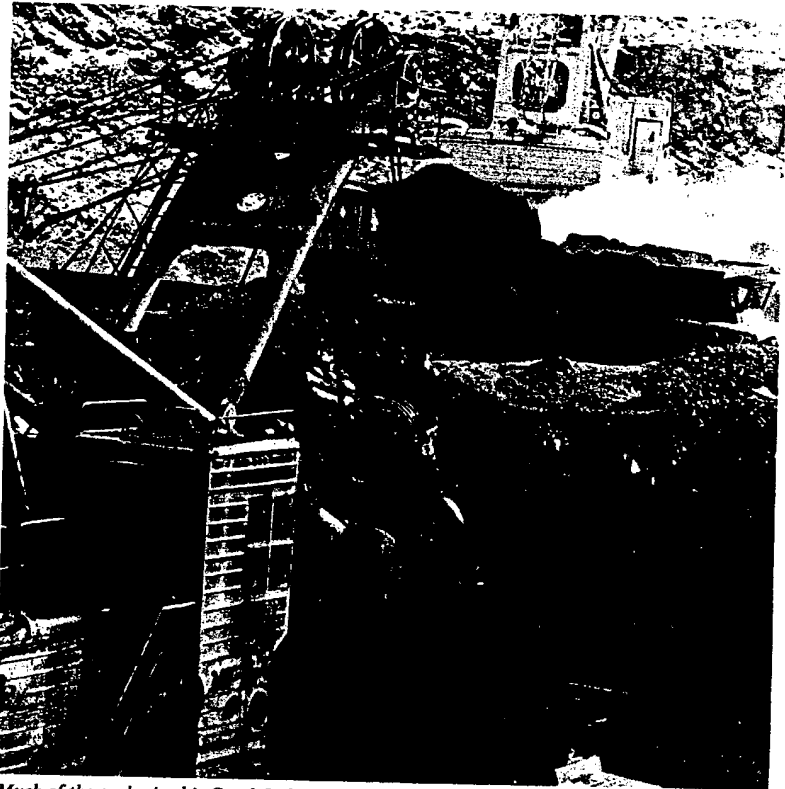
tion. Moscow must now recognize that its planned 1985 output of 775 million tons is overly optimistic.

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.
- Development 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: Metallurgical or Coking Coal Production, by Basin ^a

Million metric tons

Basin	1950	1955	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980
Total	52.0	78.0	110.0	139.0	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

^a 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 (meters)	Average Depth of Mine (meters)	Average Calorific Value (kilocalories/kilogram)	Moisture Content (percent)	Ash Content (percent)
Donets	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.

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

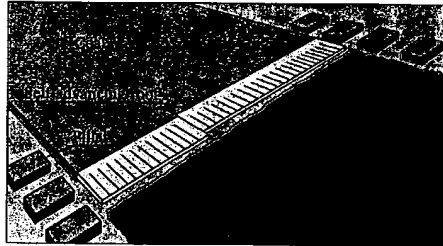
Although the level of mechanization is fairly high, Soviet coal-mining technology is generally less advanced than that in the West. This is especially true of surface-mining technology; for example, the largest domestically produced dragline buckets, trucks, and transporters are much smaller than their Western counterparts. For this reason, substantial amounts of surface-mining 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 foreign-made 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.

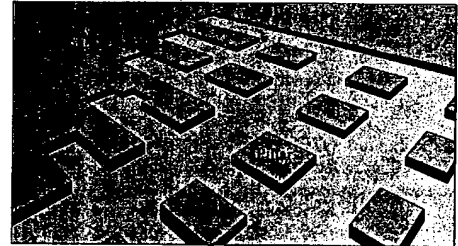
Mining Methods

Underground Mining
Longwall Mining

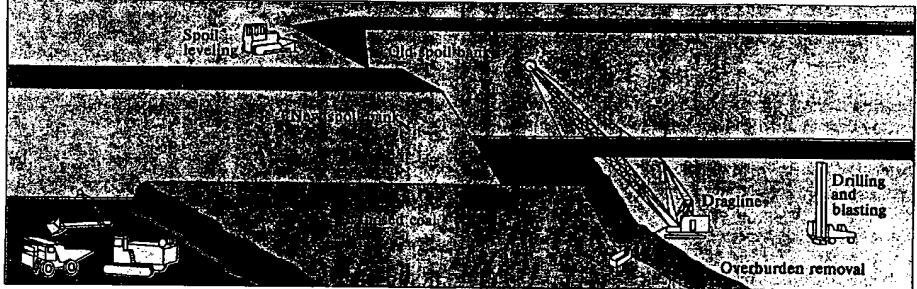


The longwall mining system is the principal underground technique used in the Soviet Union.

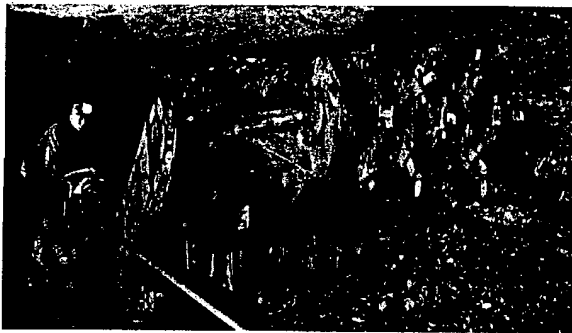
Room-and-Pillar Mining



Surface Mining



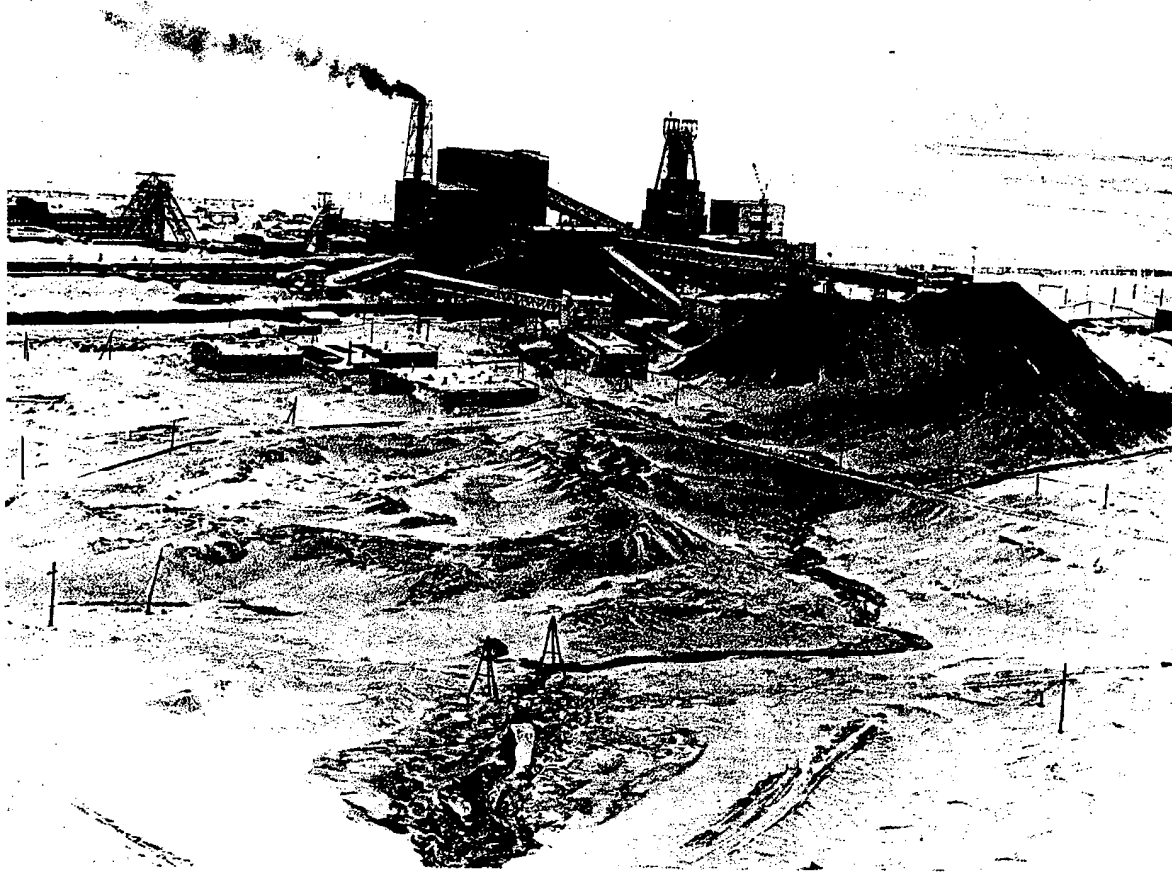
In surface mining, the earth is excavated to uncover the coal seam. The overburden is dumped in a previously mined area. In open pit surface mining, the overburden is piled beyond the actual mining area.



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



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



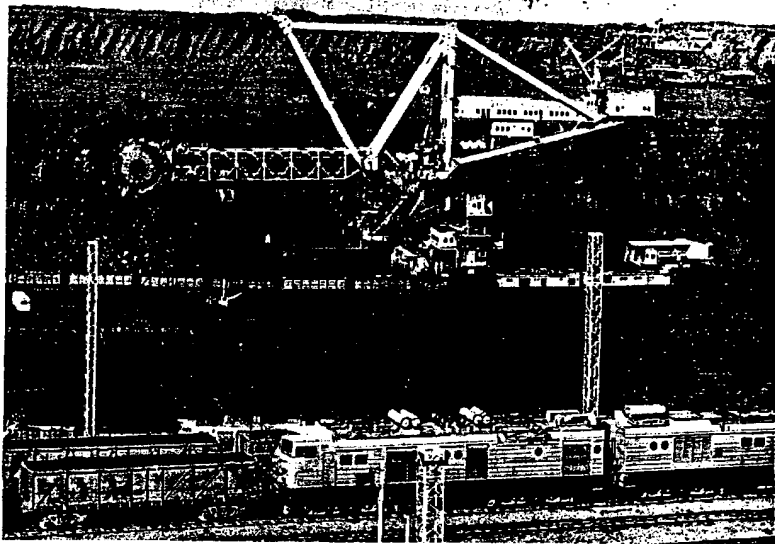
Processing and shipping facilities above the Pechora underground Vorgashor coal mine, Komi ASSR.



A rotor excavator at the Ekibastuz coal basin.



P-1600 belt reloader being assembled at Ekibastuz.



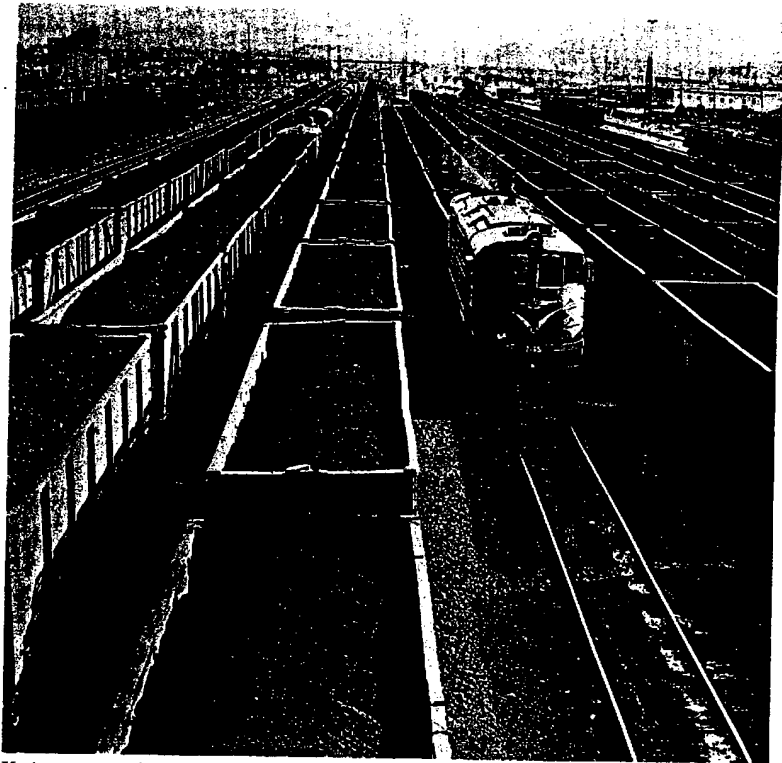
Surface mining in Ekibastuz basin. The East German ERSRD-5000 powerful bucket-wheel excavator can remove 5,000 tons of coal per hour.

Transportation

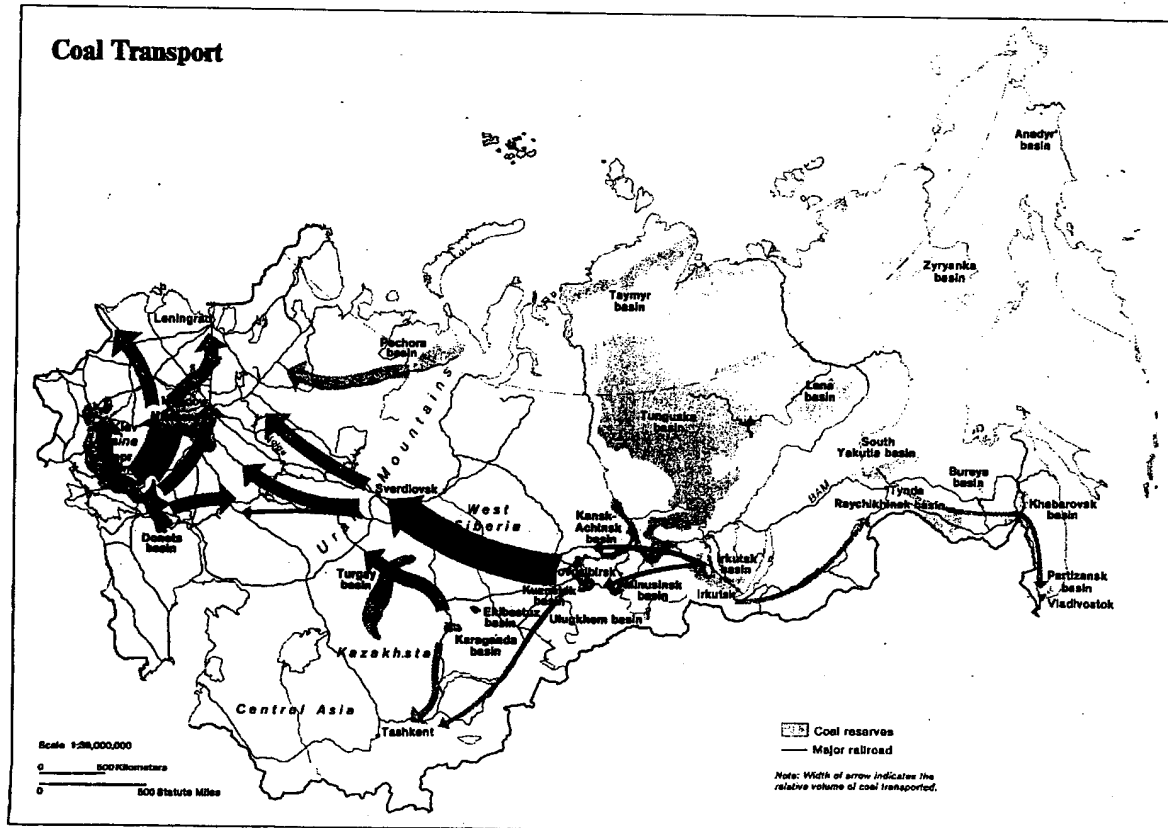
The transport of coal from mining to consuming areas is a major problem for the Soviet Union. As coal reserves located near industrial centers in the western USSR have been increasingly depleted and the Soviets have been forced to go farther east to develop new reserves, the burden on the rail network 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



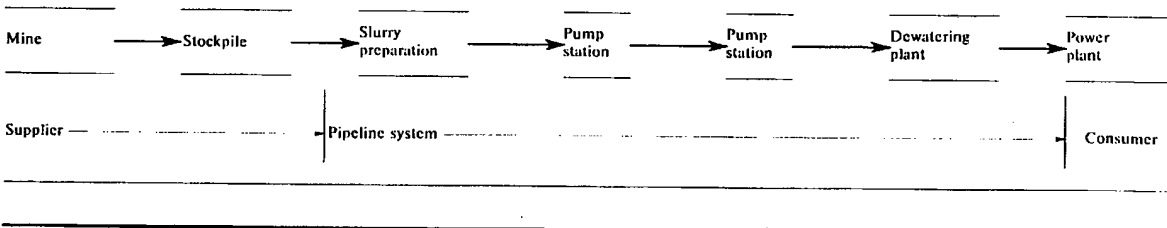
Various sizes and grades of coal are awaiting shipment to consumers at the Karaganda coal-yard, Kazakhstan.





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.

Inefficient 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 east to west.

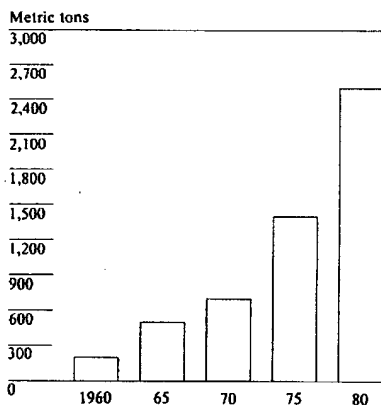
Uranium and Thorium

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 (U₃O₈) Production for Nuclear Power



* Western estimates.

roughly of equal importance as a uranium resource.

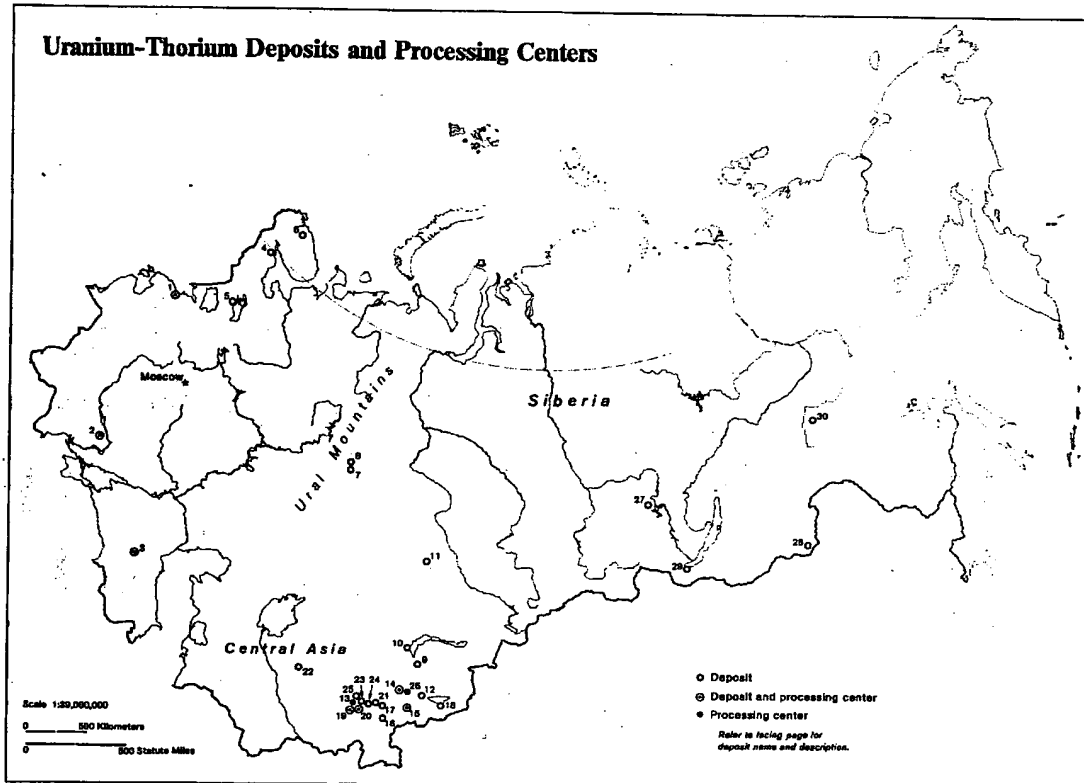
Uranium exploration and mining methods in the Soviet Union are essentially the same as those applied in the West. Exploration methods include geologic, geophysical, geochemical, aerial radiometric, and magnetic surveys. Mining methods include:

- 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.

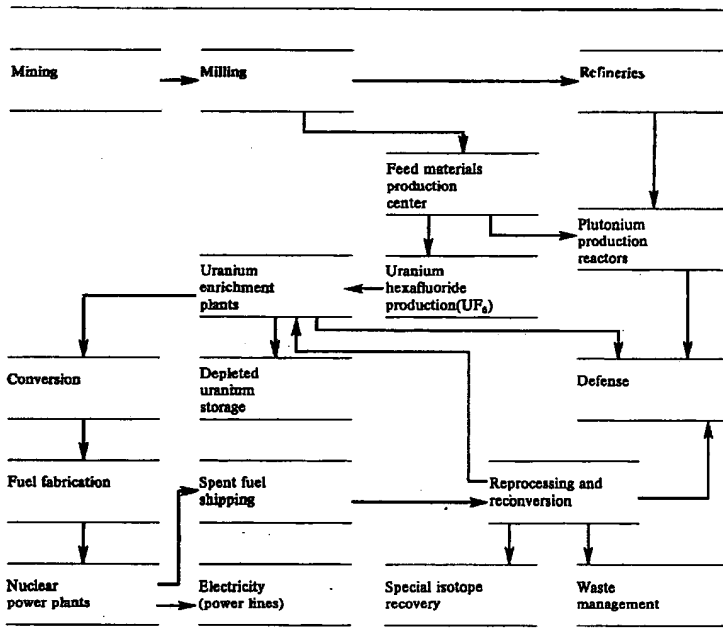
USSR: Uranium-Thorium Deposits and Processing Centers

Deposit	Description
European USSR	
1-Sillamäe	Uranium-phosphate rare earth association in clays with detrital fishbones. Uranium mining and milling operations.
2-Zheltye Vody-Tery	Precambrian uranium-iron ore formation. Irregular stratiform albitized uranium bodies. Uranium in association with conglomerates. Uranium minerals include uraninite, pitchblende and nenadkevite.
3-Lermontov	Uranium mining and milling. Uranium-molybdenum associated with volcanic rocks.
4-Chupa District	Mining and milling operations. Uraniferous pegmatites in Precambrian gneisses.
5-Lake Onega	Uranium mineralization in paleovolcanic and intrusive rocks of Baltic shields. 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-Aksuyck-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 ₃ O ₈ extraction plant.
20-Chkalovsk	Possible uranium extraction and hexafluoride conversion site for Taboshar mine ore.
21-Sumaar	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.

Uranium-Thorium Deposits and Processing Centers



Production of Fissionable Materials for Electric Power Production and Military Defense



- In situ leaching techniques that use sulfuric-acidified 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_3O_8 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_3O_8 at or near the mining site.
- Conversion of U_3O_8 to uranium tetrafluoride (UF_4) by reaction with fluoride.
- Reduction of UF_4 to metal for direct use in weapons or reactor fuel or for conversion to gaseous hexafluoride (UF_6) 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.¹ 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.

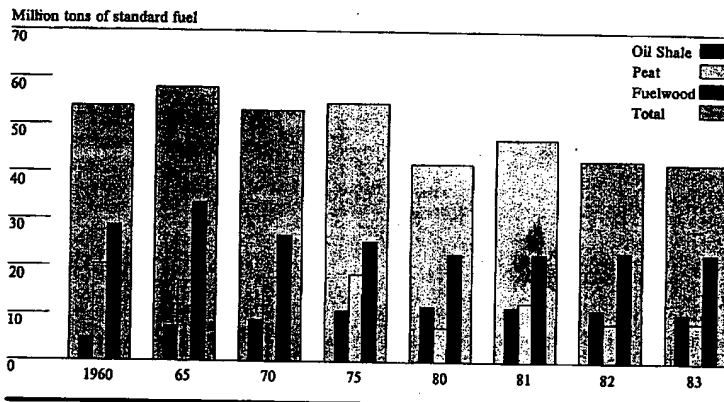


Loading oil shale at Oktyabr' mine, Estonia.

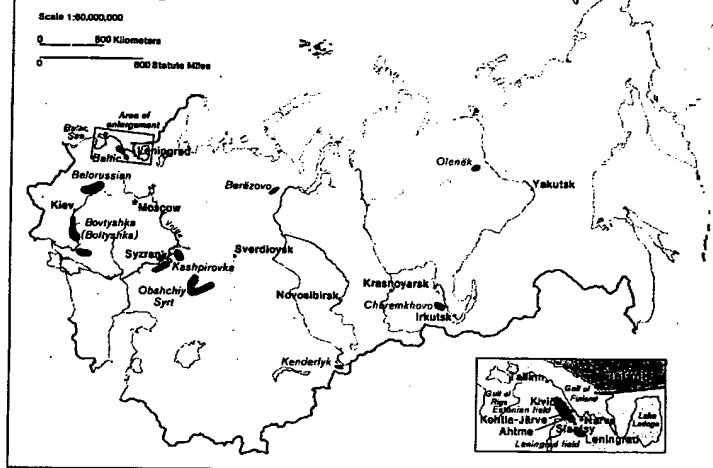
In Estonia, oil shale has been used since the 1920s as fuel in various types of industrial furnaces and in locomotives. Today, approximately 70 percent of the shale produced in the USSR is burned directly as fuel in the furnaces of boiler units at power plants in Kiviõli, Tallinn, and near Narva. The 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,

¹ Oil shale is sedimentary rock rich in kerogen, a fossil organic substance that yields oil, gas, and tar when heated.

USSR: Minor Fuels Production



Oil Shale Deposits



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 condition-

cr. 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 Olenok tar sand deposit near the Lena River. Because of their remote location, the Soviets do not anticipate exploiting the Olenok or other East Siberian tar sands in the near future.

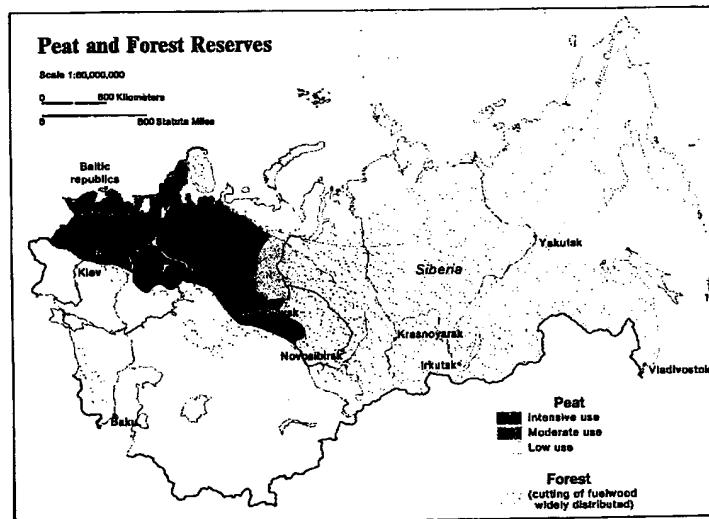
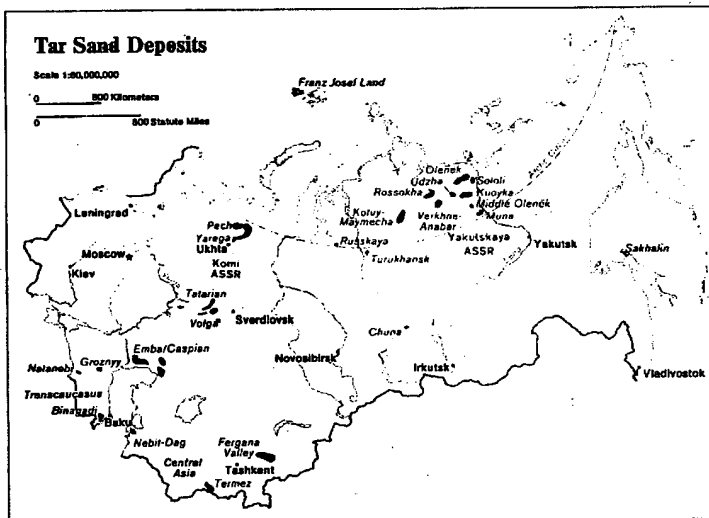
Currently, the Soviets have limited experimental development of tar sands to deposits in the Volga, Pechora, Transcaucasus, and Central Asia regions. The only significant Soviet oil production from tar sands comes from the Yarga field near Ukhta in the Pechora basin of northern Komi ASSR. Here, the Soviets 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.



Fuelwood

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.² 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.

² 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 feedstock 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.

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 hydro-

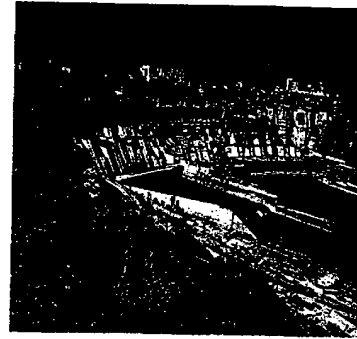
power resources and the costs and difficulty of transporting fuel from elsewhere. As the growth rate of the labor force declines, economic growth is becoming more and more dependent on electric power to help increase labor productivity.

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

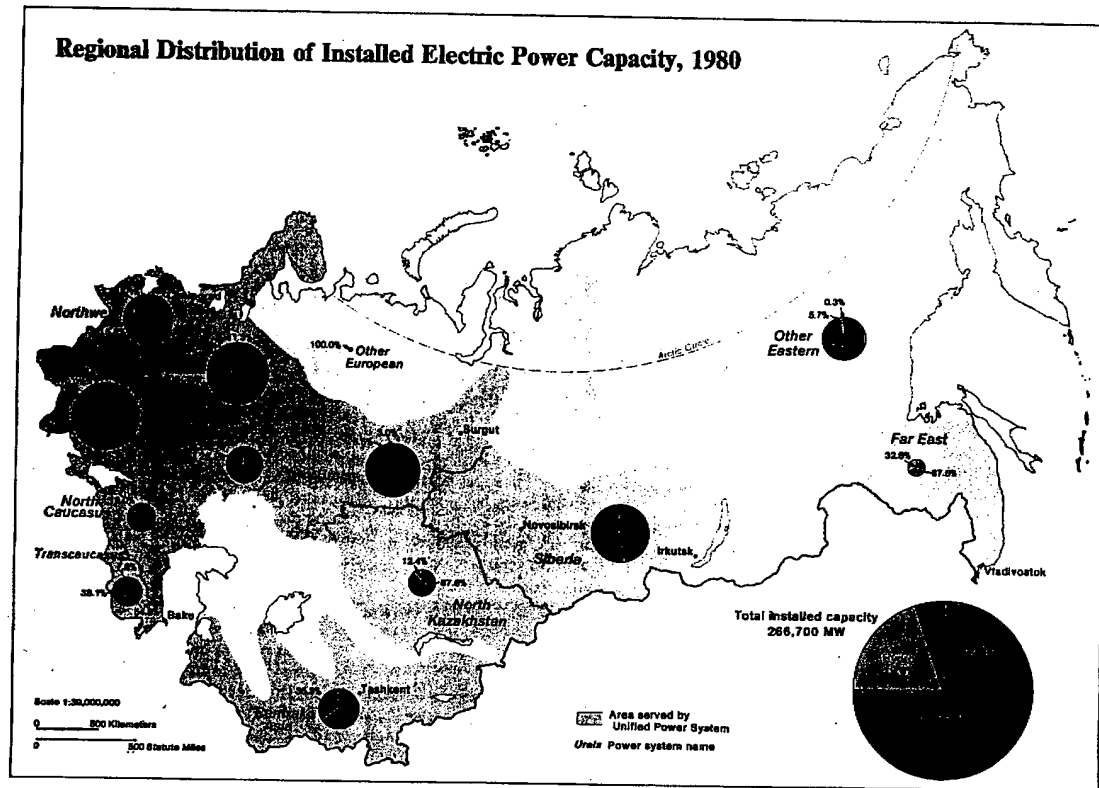
and Electrification. Like other energy ministries, the Ministry of Power and Electrification has an extensive array of subordinate enterprises and institutes, almost all of which are headquartered in Moscow.



The 6,400-MW Sayan-Shushenskoye Hydro-power 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

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.

Power generation	
AES	Atomic/nuclear electric power plant
AKES	Atomic condensation electric power plant
AST	Atomic heat supply plant
ATETs	Atomic heat and electric power plant
DES	Diesel power plant
GAES	Pumped-storage electric power plant
GeoTES	Geothermal electric power plant
GES	Hydroelectric power plant
GRES	State regional electric power plant (thermal) Gas-turbine electric power plant
GTU	Gas-turbine installation
KES	Condensation electric power plant
MHD	Magneto-hydrodynamic generators
MINENERGO	USSR Ministry of Power and Electrification
PES	Tidal electric power plant
PGU	Steam gas-turbine units
SES	Solar power plant
TETs	Heat and electric power plant
Power transmission	
AC	Alternating current
CEMA	Council for Mutual Economic Assistance
DC	Direct current
EHV	Extra-high-voltage (330- to 750-kV AC and 800-kV DC)
ES	District power system
GOELRO	State Plan for Electrification of the Soviet Union (1920)
GOSTANDART	State Committee for Standards
HV	High voltage (35- to 220-kV AC)
kV	Kilovolt
kWh, kWh	Kilowatt, kilowatt-hours
LEP	Long-distance transmission line
MW	Megawatt
OES	Consolidated regional power system
VL	Overhead line
TEK	Fuel and power complex (KATEK—Kansk-Achinsk Fuel and Power Complex)
UHV	Ultrahigh voltage, voltages greater than 750-kV AC or 800-kV DC (1,150-kV AC and 1,500-kV DC)
LEP-500	Overhead transmission line (number indicates voltage)
USSR YeES	Unified Power System of the Soviet Union

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 4-percent 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 generating units. (Large power plants are generally more cost effective than small plants in both construction and operation.) The 6,000-MW Krasnoyarsk Hydroelectric Plant on the Yenisey River in Siberia is currently the largest hydro-

electric power plant in the world, and the Sayan-Shushenskoye 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 Refinskiy Thermal Power Plant in the Urals, and the slightly smaller Zaporozh'ye and Ulegorsk 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.

Installed Capacity of 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

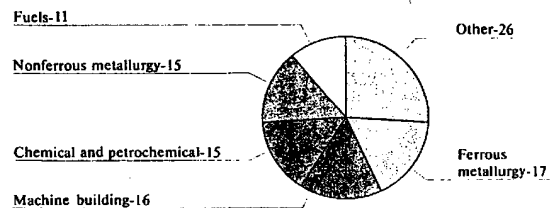
Electricity Consumption

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
Industry (including construction)	216.4	361.3	503.4	678.0	799.2	NA	927
Transport	17.6	37.1	54.4	74.2	102.8	115.5	128
Communal and municipal	30.5	50.6	81.0	119.1	155.0	NA	190
Agriculture	10.0	21.1	38.6	73.8	110.9	126.6	157
Exports	NEGL	1.5	5.2	11.3	19.1	23.9	25
Line losses	17.8	35.1	58.3	82.2	106.9	115.3	128

Principal Industrial Consumers of Electric Power, 1980

Percent



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.

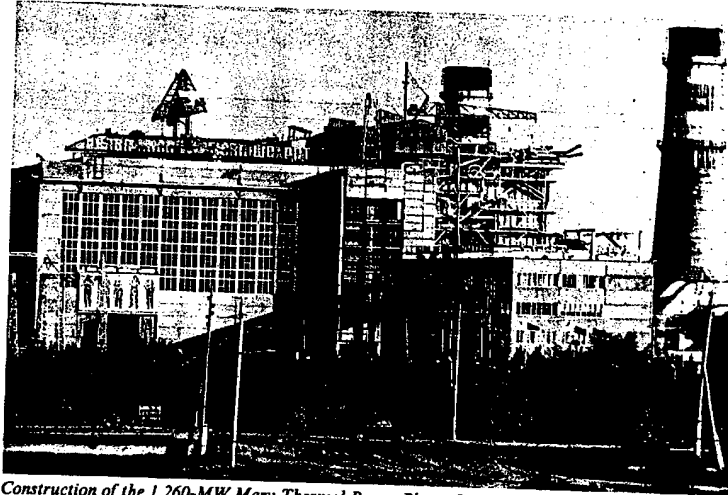
State regional electric power plants (GRESs) provide central thermal power generation for large areas and for areas of high demand. At the beginning of 1983 there were 51 large GRESs with capacities of more than 1,000 MW; together they comprised almost half of the national thermal power generating capacity. 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.

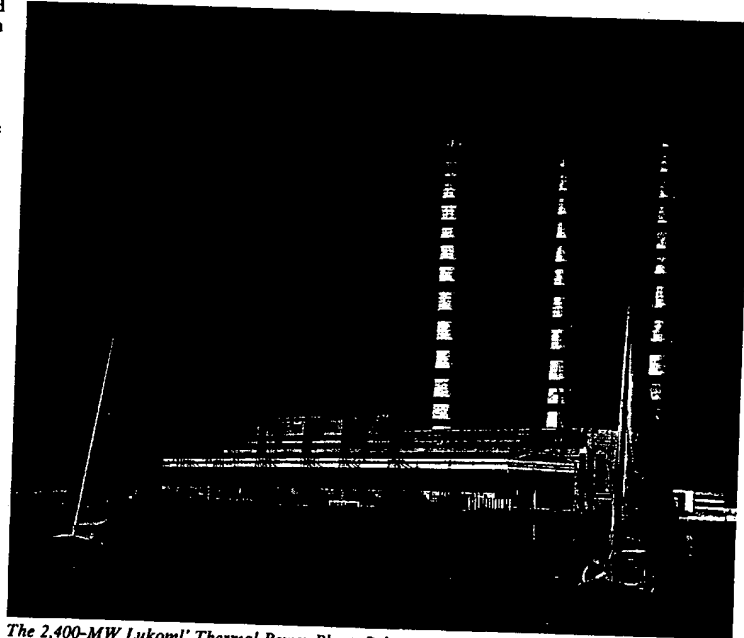
At the end of 1983 the total electric power generating capacity of all TETs in the Soviet Union was about 75,000 MW or 35 percent of total thermal power plant capacity. The TETs produced about 375 billion kWh of electricity and 1,200.3 million gigacalories of heat, the latter fulfilling 40 percent of 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.

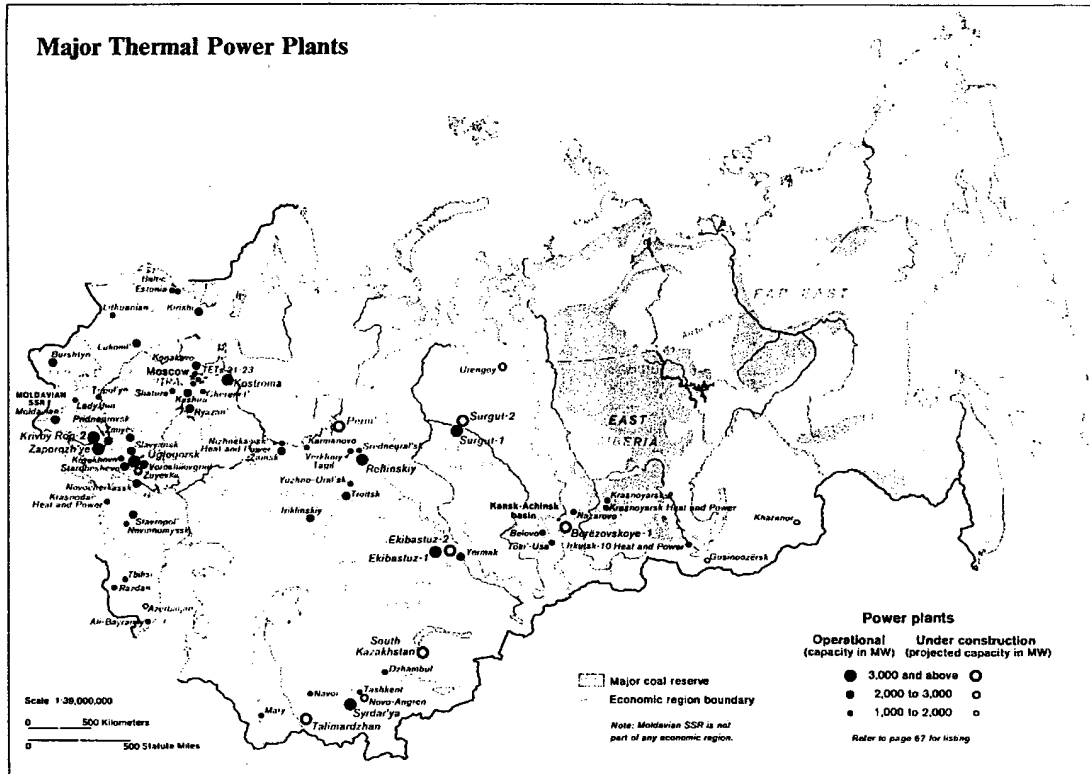


Construction of the 1,260-MW Mary Thermal Power Plant, Central Asia.



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

Major Thermal Power Plants

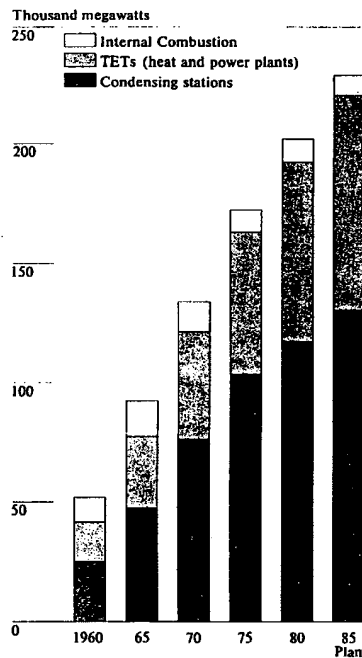


The average consumption of fuel at thermal power plants of the Ministry of Power and Electrification has been reduced through improved efficiency. This improvement in efficiency has been achieved through the replacement of many small, old generating units with fewer larger, modern units and the increased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



Consumption of Fuel at Thermal Power Plants



* Peat, oil shale and fuelwood.

Hydroelectric Power

Resources

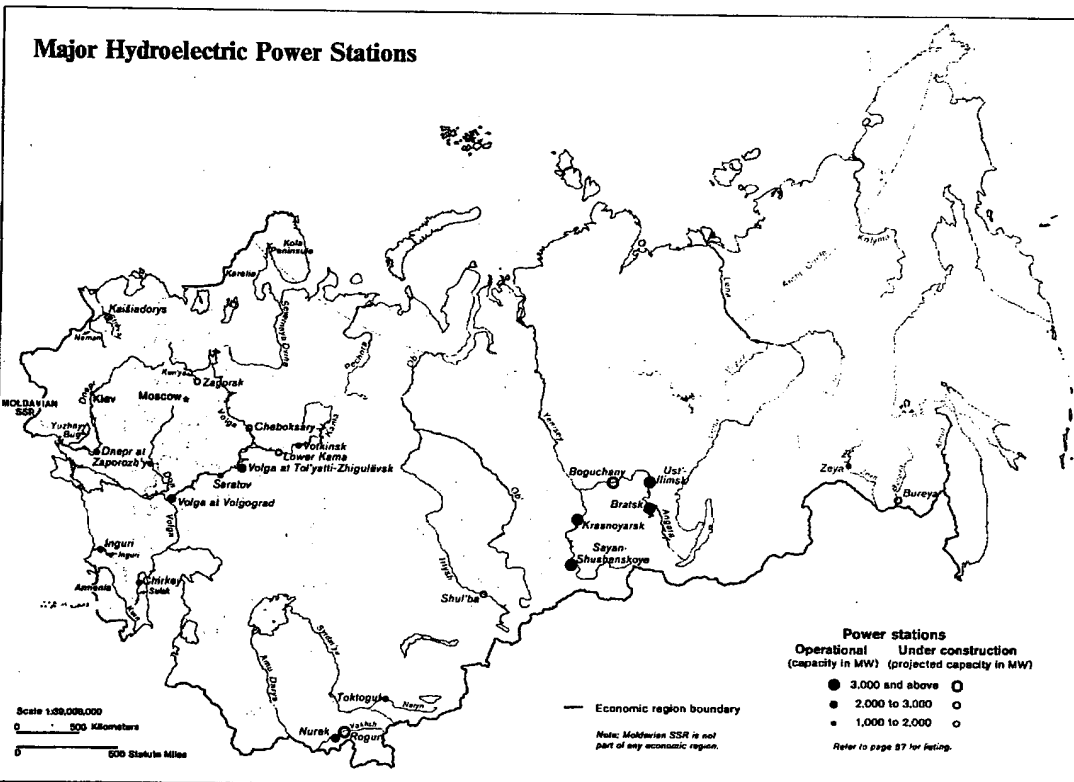
The Soviet Union has huge hydroelectric resources; only China has more. The Soviets have calculated that the economically exploitable portion of these resources has a potential generating capacity of 270,000 MW that could theoretically provide 1,095 billion kWh of electricity

USSR. The European share, however, is decreasing as large new hydropower plants are completed in the eastern regions. About two-thirds 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

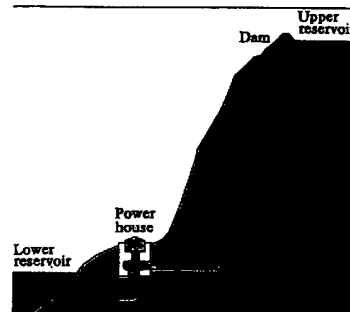
part of the country, and 16 percent is located in Kazakhstan and Central Asia. In size from 6,000 to less than 5 MW, are 14 with capacities of 1,000 MW or more that by themselves account for more than 60 percent of total hydroelectric capacity.

Power Production

Power output from Soviet hydroelectric plants amounted to 180.4 billion kWh in 1983, more than 14 times output in 1950. From 1950 to 1970 production grew at an average annual rate of 12 percent, but since 1970 output of hydropower plants has grown much more slowly, at an average of 2.9 percent a year. During the 1960s hydropower plants provided about 17 percent of total electric power output, but by 1983 that share had dropped to less than 13 percent. The hydroelectric share of total electric power output is expected to remain stable for the rest of the decade.

In recent years, the growth of Soviet hydro-

Schematic of a Conventional Pump-Storage Facility



Pump-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.

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 five 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

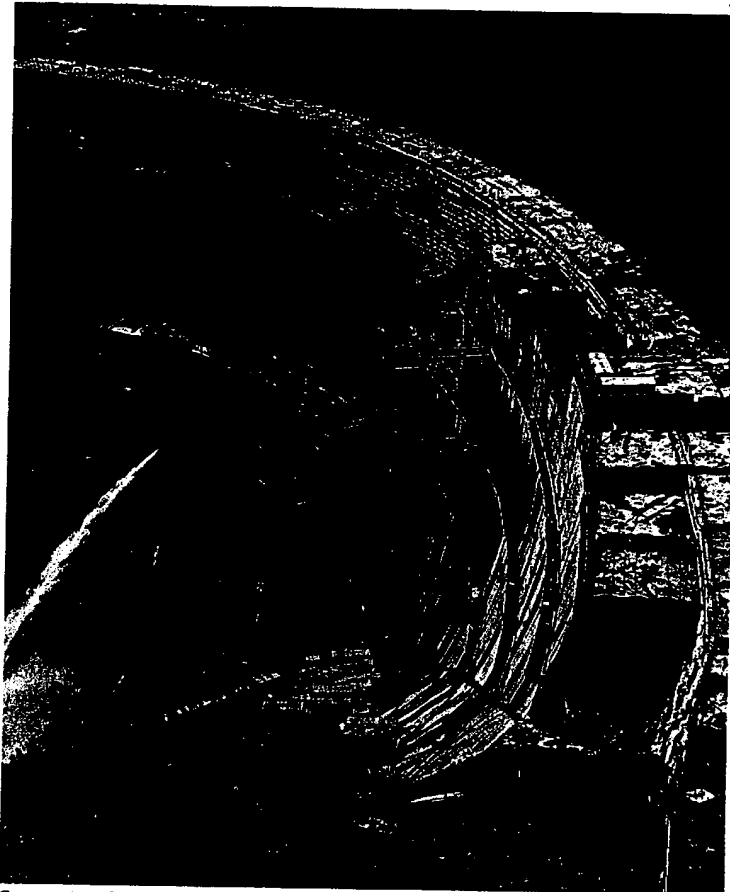
The Siberian regions contain two-thirds of the total USSR hydropower potential, but little of it had been tapped until recently. In the past 20 years, however, massive construction projects in this remote, environmentally inhospitable area have led to steady growth in hydropower output.

The Angara-Yenisey basin in eastern 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.



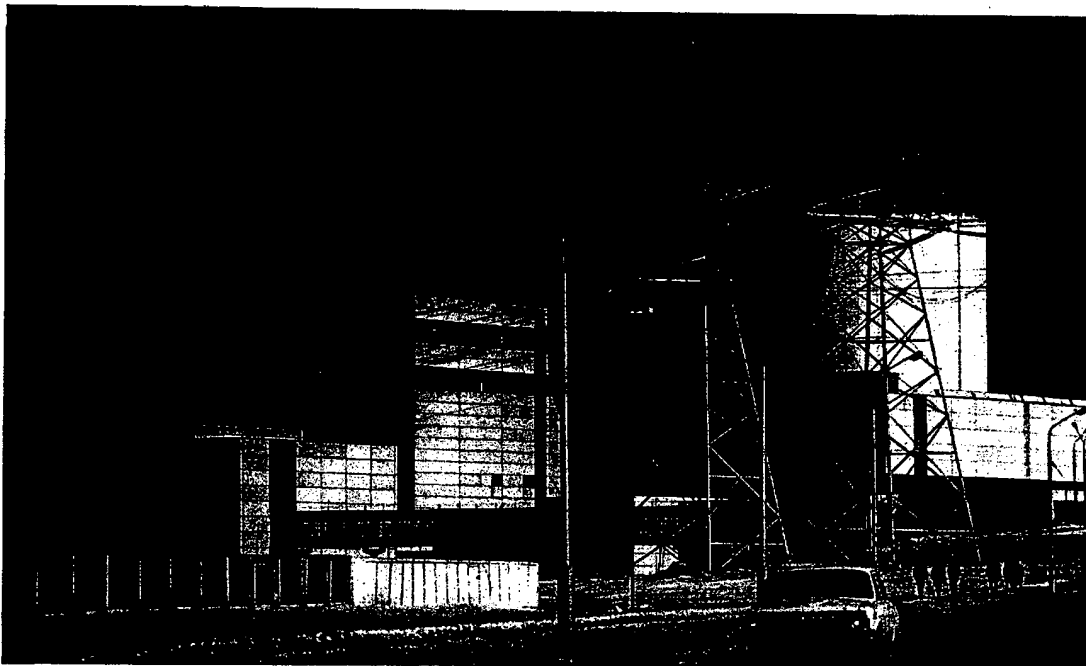
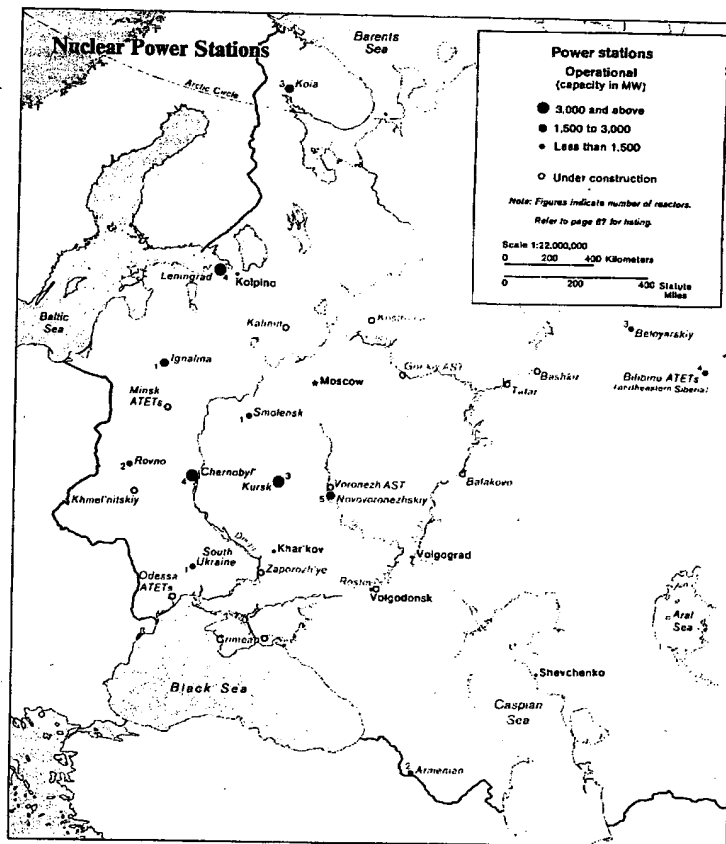
Construction of 1,325-MW Inguri Hydropower Dam across Inguri River in the Caucasus Mountains, Georgian SSR.

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



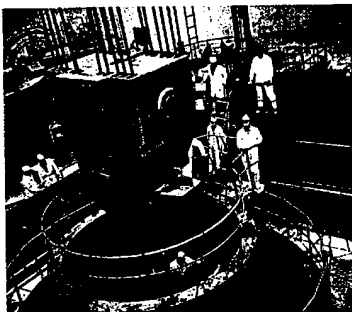
Exterior view of 2,455-MW Novovoronezhskiy Atomic Power Station.

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 Belyarskiy, 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 CEMA-member 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.



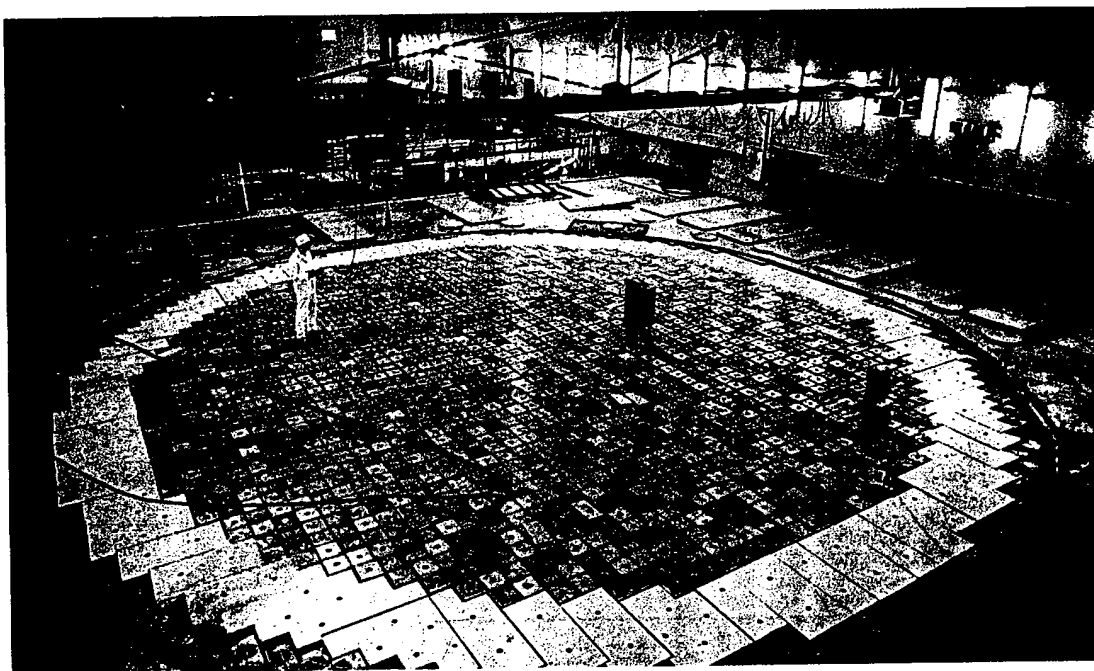
Reactor being readied for startup at South Ukraine Nuclear Power Station.

To meet its goals for domestic nuclear power growth and, at the same time, honor its commitments to CEMA partners, the Soviet Union is continuing to increase its capacity for manufacturing nuclear reactors, components, and equipment. The recently expanded Izhor'skiy Heavy

Equipment Plant at Kolpino near Leningrad and the newly constructed Volgogradsk Heavy Machine Plant, known as Atom Mash, are two of the largest nuclear component fabrication plants in the world. The location of the much-publicized Atom Mash 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 Soviet-designed 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

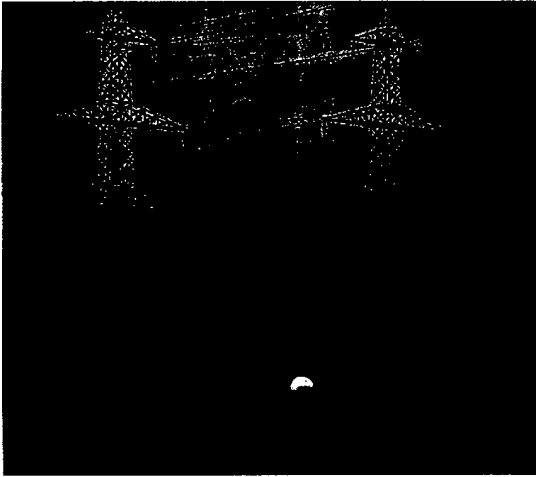
The USSR's unified power transmission system covers more area than any other power transmission system in the world. In 1983, 852,000 kilometers of high-voltage transmission lines interconnected more than 90 percent of the country's generating capacity. The basic units of the USSR's electricity transmission 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.

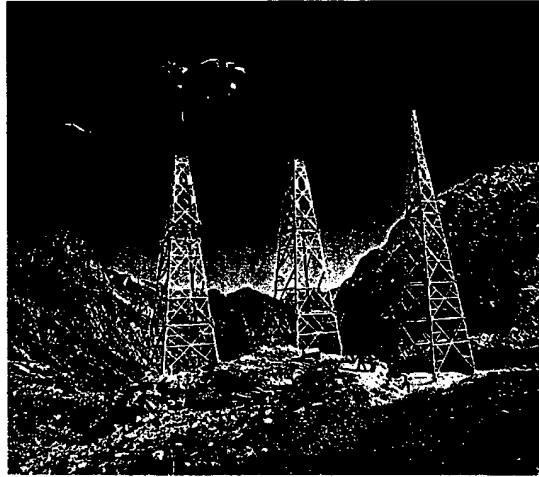
The integration of the OES into the USSR YeES has increased the flexibility of Soviet power supply; power can now be transferred between the linked systems, albeit at present only in small amounts. For example, only a

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 ultra-high-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.

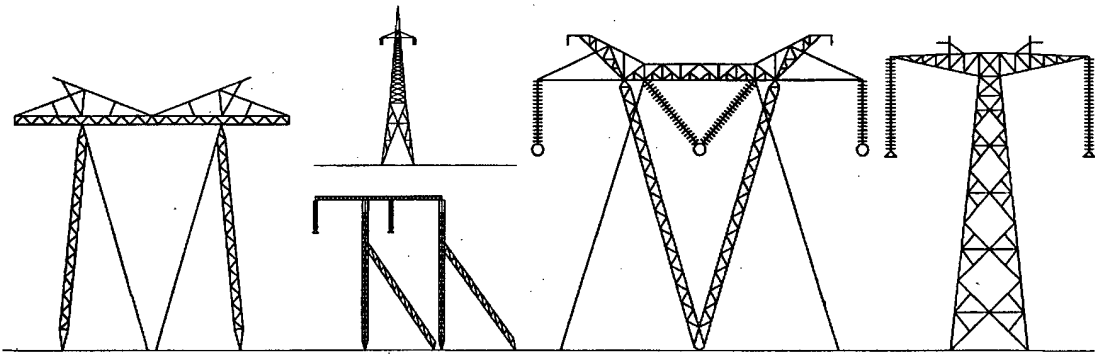
Selected Types of Towers for Extra-High (EHV) and Ultrahigh-Voltage (UHV) Transmission

750-kV AC

800-kV DC

1,150-kV AC

1,500-kV DC



consuming centers and of deposits of brown coal whose calorific 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 also 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 eastward 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

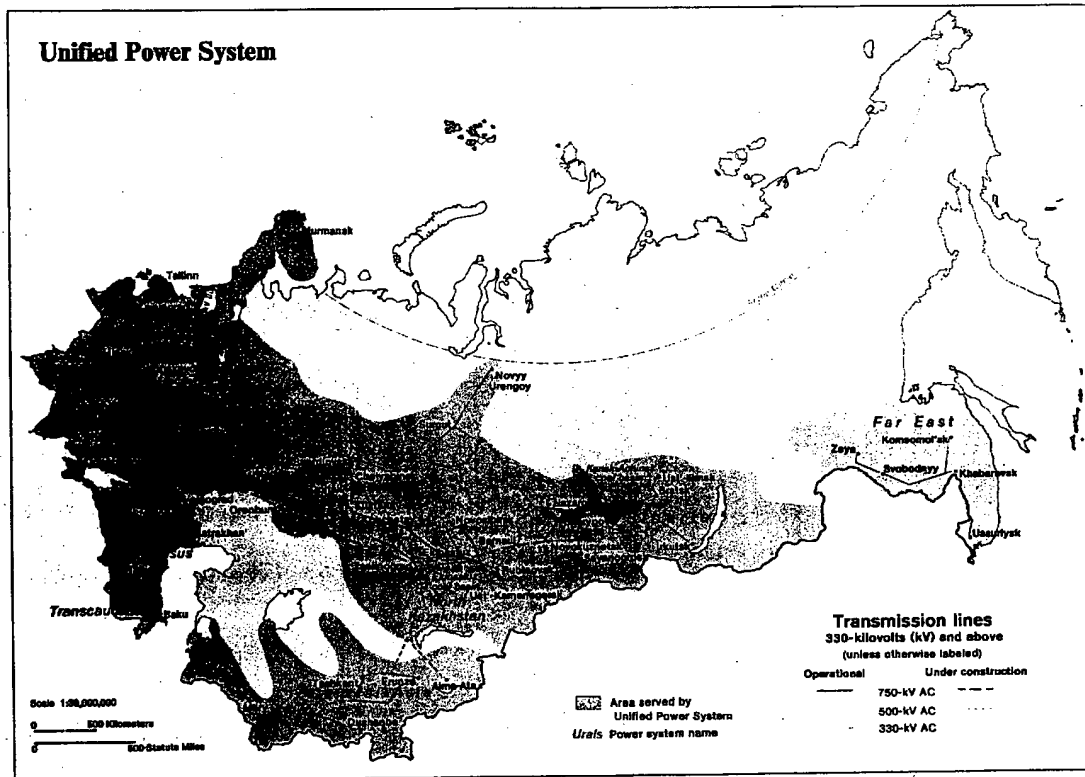
the Volgograd Hydropower Station some 473 kilometers away; it began operating in 1962. This line, which carries 750 MW, linked the OES of the Center and the South regions. The experience gleaned from this 800-kV DC line led the Soviets to begin construction in early 1980 of a 1,500-kV DC line from Ekibastuz 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.



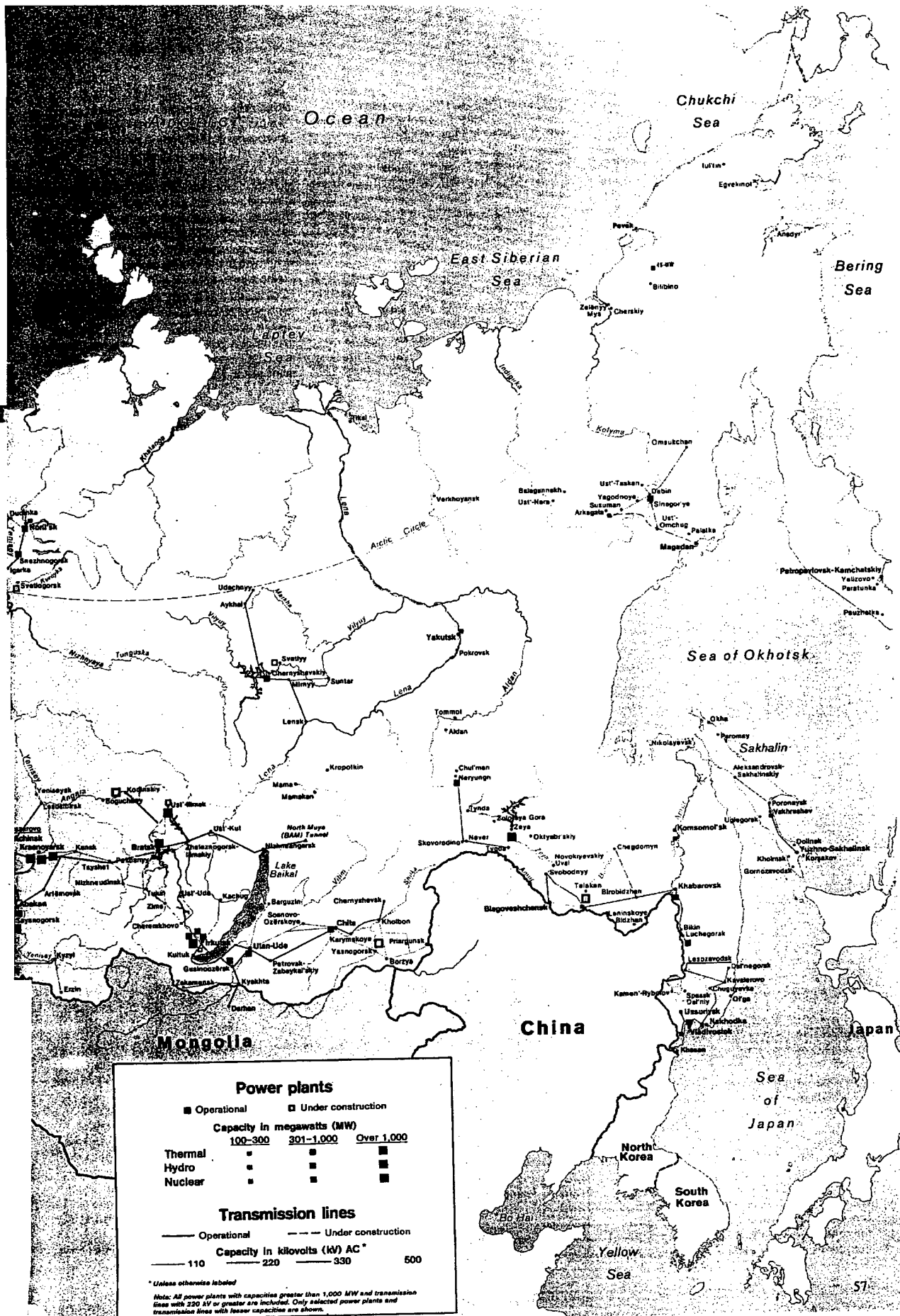
Workmen installing 1,150-kV AC transmission lines between Kazakhstan and the Urals.



Power Plants and Transmission Lines



Scale 1:17,000,000
0 500 Kilometers
0 500 Statute Miles



Power plants

■ Operational □ Under construction

Capacity in megawatts (MW)

	100-300	301-1,000	Over 1,000
Thermal	■	■	■
Hydro	■	■	■
Nuclear	■	■	■

Transmission lines

— Operational - - - Under construction

Capacity in kilovolts (kV) AC *

—	110	220	330	500
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* Unless otherwise labeled

Note: All power plants with capacities greater than 1,000 MW and transmission lines with 220 kV or greater are included. Only selected power plants and transmission lines with lesser capacities are shown.

Power for Remote Areas

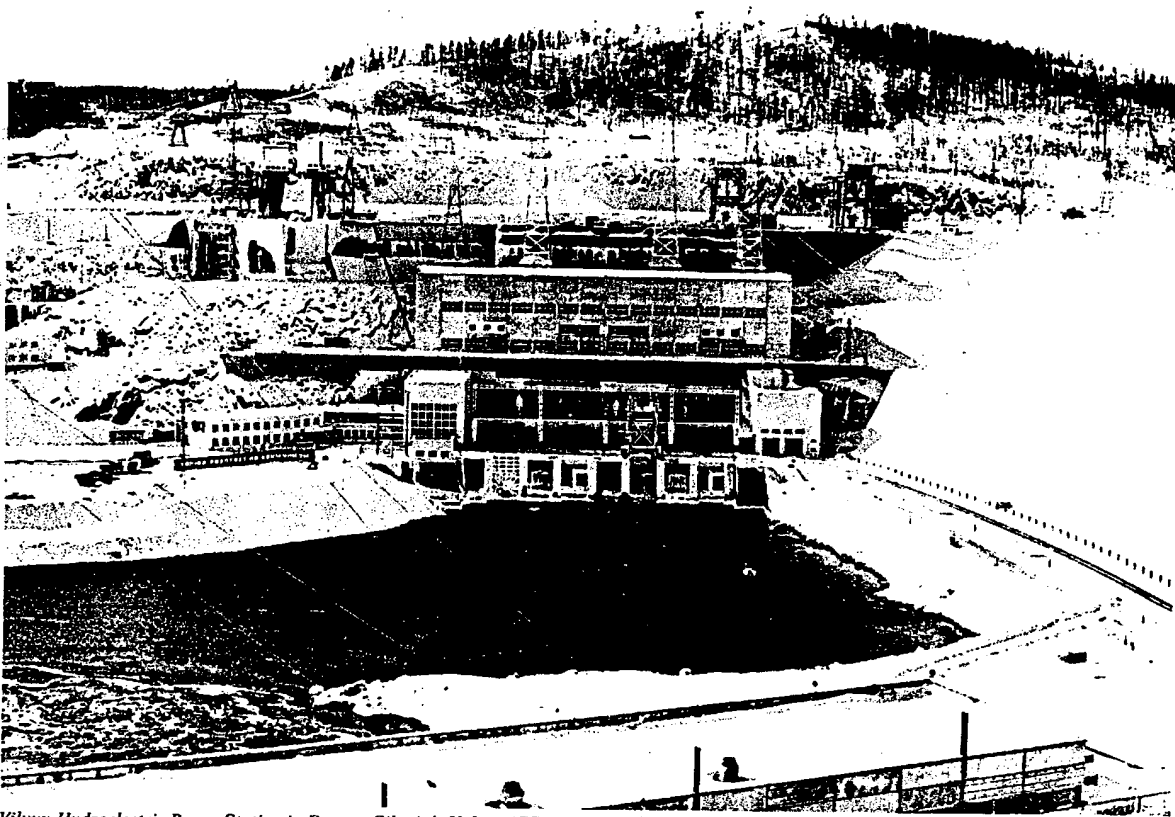
Economic activity in the Soviet Union is concentrated mainly in the European part of the country and along narrow bands of relatively well-developed territory flanking major transportation routes such as the Trans-Siberian Railroad. These areas comprise far less than half of the total Soviet landmass. 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 gas-turbine 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 incor-

porating 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

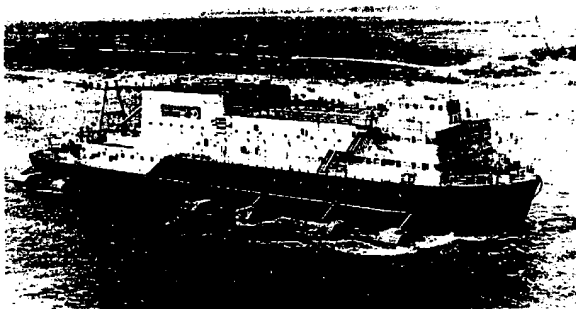
generators, while the fourth and fifth ships were equipped with two 12-MW gas-fueled generators. Subsequent power ships in this series are to have 48-MW generating capacities.

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

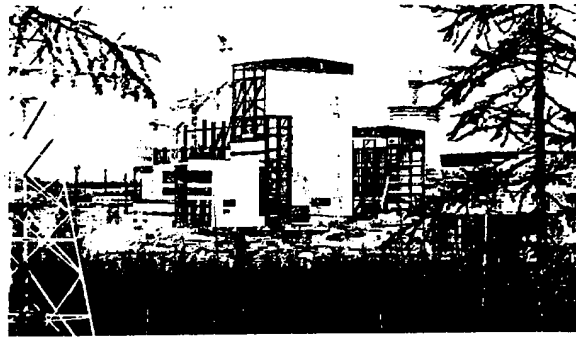
plant at the port of Pevek was initially augmented by some diesel generators and a power train (delivered by ship). Then in 1970 Severnoye Siyaniye-1 arrived at the port of Zelenyy Mys on the lower Kolyma River. The floating power station provided more power for mining but also supported construction 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 wind-driven power unit that can be carried by pack-horse has been developed for prospectors, shepherds, and mountain farmers. Solar power units have also been developed for such users. A

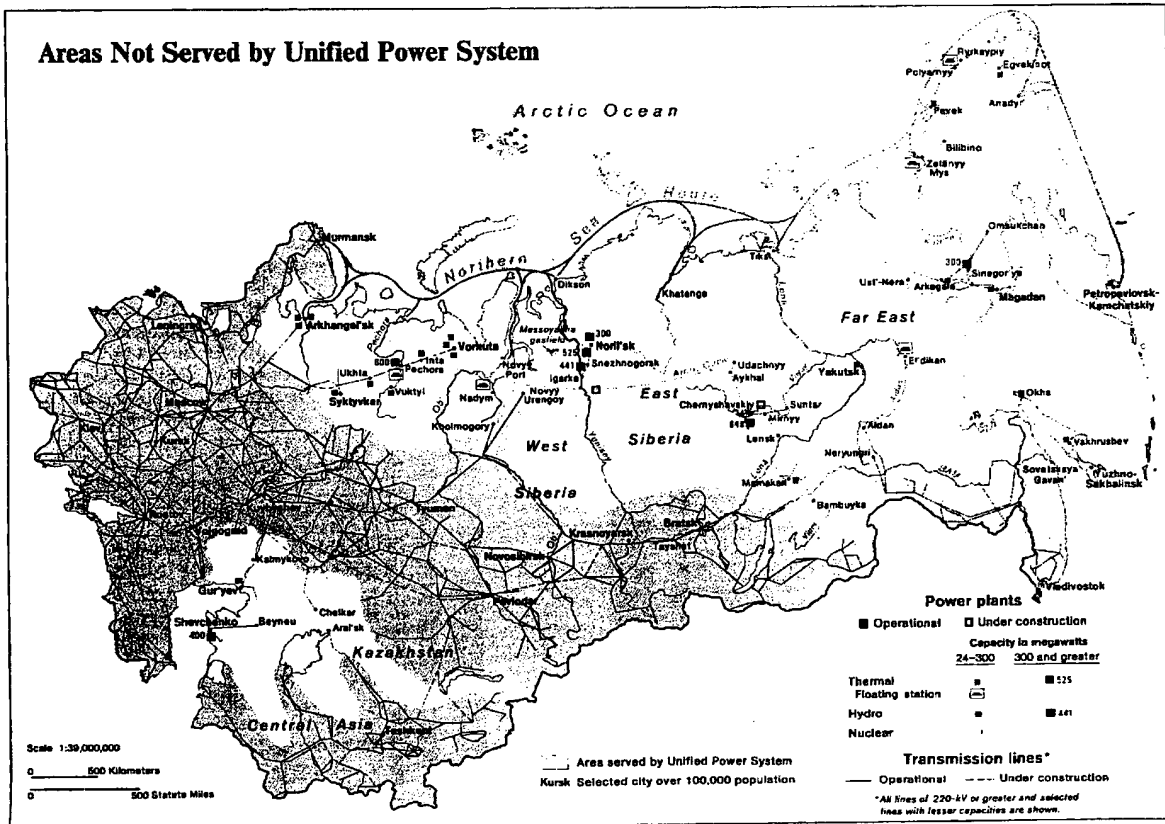
modular nuclear power station specifically designed for use in remote areas is probably now in the testing stage. Its 15-ton modules are air transportable. Its reactor, which supplies steam to a 1.5-MW turbine generator, can operate five years on a single fueling of slightly enriched uranium.



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.



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 term (0 to 10 years)	Building and greenhouse heating, water heating, crop drying	Low-temperature geothermal heat, solar radiation	Heat exchangers, absorption devices
		Water pumping	Low-velocity wind
	Cooking	Solar radiation	Solar steam engines
		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 geothermal heat, solar radiation	Heat exchangers, solar concentrators driving binary-cycle generators
			High-velocity wind
		Vehicular propulsion	Hydrogen, LNG, alcohol
New types of engines			
Medium term (10 to 20 years)	Electricity (hundreds of MW) (feasibility to be demonstrated)	Fossil fuels, especially coal	Magnetohydrodynamic (MHD) generators
		High-temperature geothermal heat, solar radiation	Heat exchangers, solar concentrators driving steam turbines
	Electricity (hundreds of MW) (feasibility to be demonstrated)	Deuterium (isotope of hydrogen obtained from water)	Thermonuclear fusion reactors driving steam turbines
Long term (beyond 20 years)	Electricity (hundreds of MW) (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

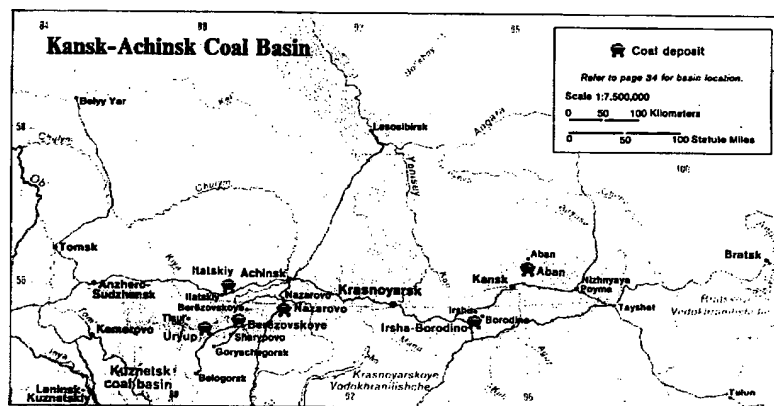
moisture content (35 percent), low-heating value (3,300 kilocalories per kilogram), and variable physical and chemical characteristics render its direct shipment to power plants in European USSR highly uneconomical. Kansk-Achinsk brown coal also subject to spontaneous combustion in storage and transit 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 semi-coke (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 Belkovskaya 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

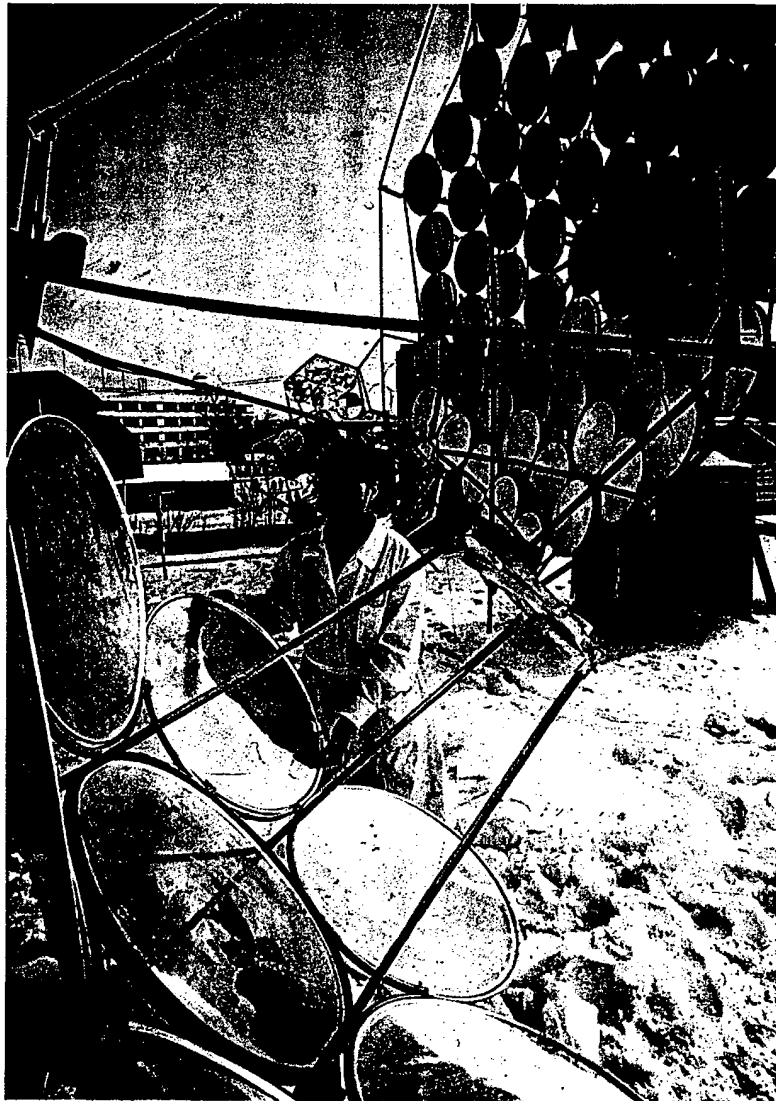
The USSR is developing solar energy for a wide variety of small-scale uses, such as heating and desalinating water, heating and cooling buildings, cooking food, and powering small steam engines, water pumps, and electric generators to serve consumers scattered throughout rural areas in the southern USSR. 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.

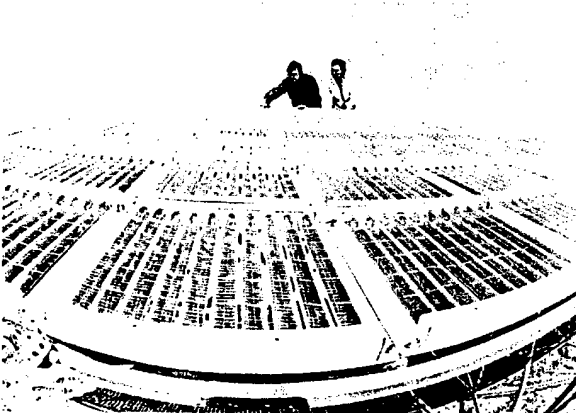
Solar research is coordinated by the State Committee for Science and Technology and by the USSR Academy of Sciences. Research and testing are done primarily in institutes in the areas of the USSR south of the 50 degrees N latitude, where the technologies will be most used.

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.

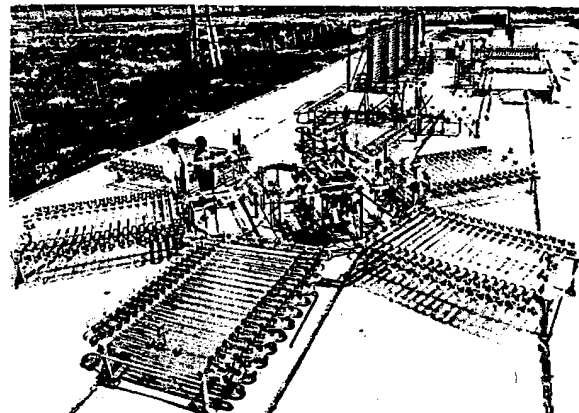
The Uzbek SSR is the only republic reported to have officially directed that solar equipment be installed in some public buildings. In 1980 the Uzbek city of Chirchik claimed to have the nation's first residential building using solar energy to supply its hot water and heat. A small factory at Bukhara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



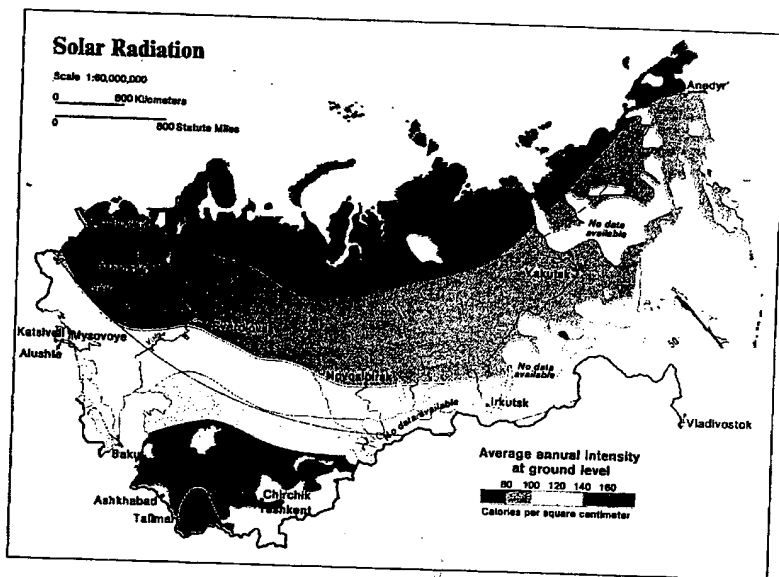
Transforming solar energy into thermal and electric power is studied by workers at the Uzbek SSR Academy of Sciences.



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



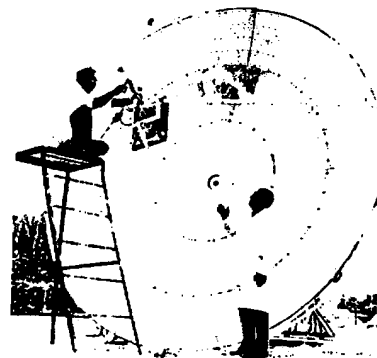
Solar power station at Bikrova, Turkmen SSR.



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 city 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 long-standing 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 thermolectric 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.

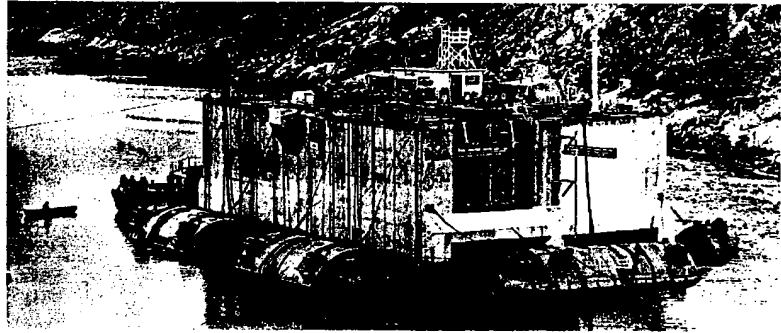
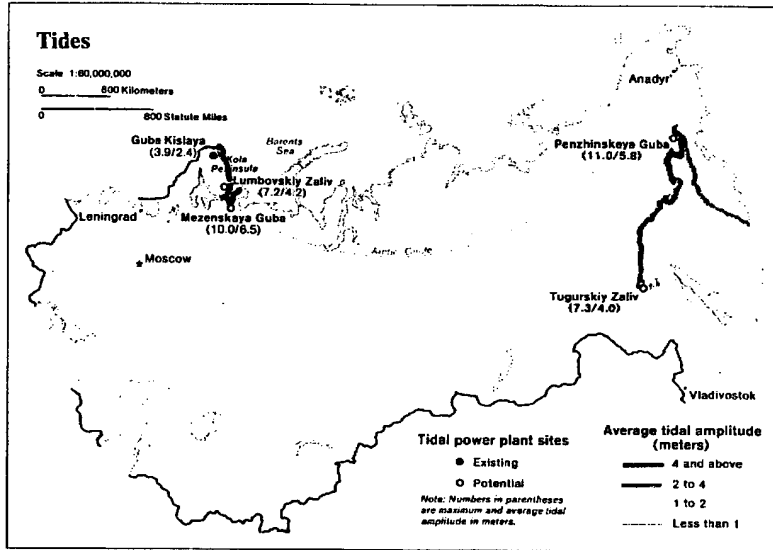
Because wind is only an intermittent energy source, windpowered generators must be integrated with other forms of generating equipment, such as diesel generators. Tsiklon is beginning to design such packages, but none is yet in serial production.

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*. Tsiklon-developed 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 Lumbovskiy 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.



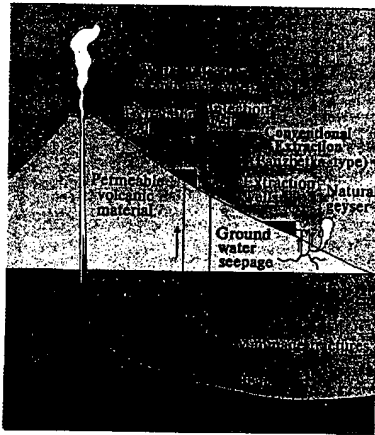
Another view of the Kislaya Guba tidal power station.

Geothermal 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

Geothermal Extraction Methods



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.

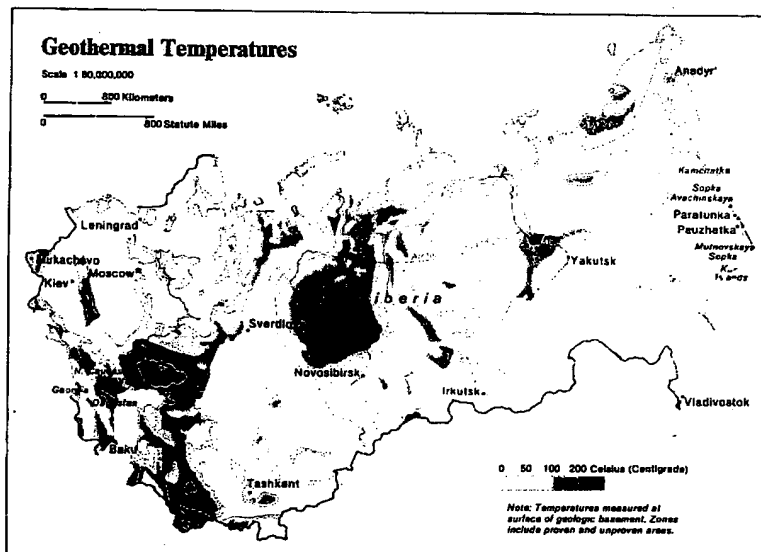
The only large-scale project now under consideration is a 200-MW installation at Mutnovskaya volcano in Kamchatka. Other ongoing geothermal projects include the development of small power plants at Kayasula (near Neftekumsk) and in Dagestan, a region where hot springs are common and where thermal waters 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



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 Kamchatka, 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

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.)

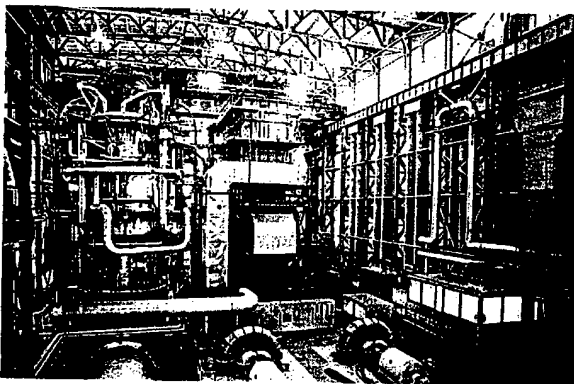
The results of these investigations will help guide the design of the U-500, a large, natural-gas-fired commercial-demonstration facility. The plant design combines MHD with a conventional steam power plant now being built in Ryazan' jointly by the Institute of High Temperatures and the Ministry of Power 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.

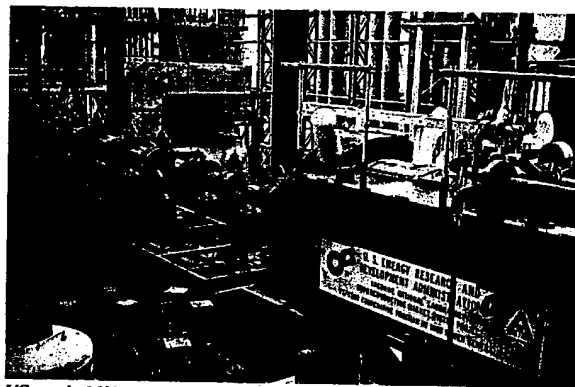
After the current studies on coal-fired MHD technology have been completed, a 500- to 1,000-MW, coal-fired demonstration plant is to be built. If successful, the plant could serve as the prototype for large numbers of such plants to be built throughout the country. In mid-1983 the Soviets announced that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

ly, 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.

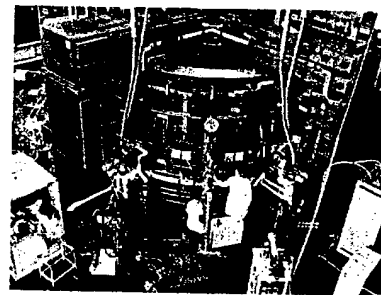
Many of the early advances in fusion research were made in the USSR; lately, however, the Soviet program has lost momentum and much of its high-level support, probably owing to the

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 (doughnut-shaped) 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	2.204622
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 "super-giant" and "giant" are commonly used to quantify large oil and gas fields, there are no internationally accepted definitions of field sizes.

Super-giant fields			Giant fields			Gas (3 to 10 trillion cubic feet)		
Oil (>5 billion barrels)			Oil (500 million to 5 billion barrels)					
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	Bera-Gel'mes	Central Asia	1962	Arkticheskiy	West Siberia	1968
Kotar-Tepe	Central Asia	1956	Bavly	Volga-Urals	1946	Gasil	Central Asia	1956
Romashkino	Volga-Urals	1948	Kholmogory	West Siberia	1973	Gobkin	West Siberia	1965
Surozhor	West Siberia	1966	Mamontovo	West Siberia	1965	Gugardi	Central Asia	1965
			Megion	West Siberia	1961	Kandyn	Central Asia	1966
			Mukhanovo	Volga-Urals	1945	Kirpichii	Central Asia	1972
			Nebit-Dag	Central Asia	1934	Komsomol	West Siberia	1966
			Neflyayyye Kasmi	Transcaucasus	1949	Laysvoh	Timan-Pechora	1971
			Novoyelkhoro	Volga-Urals	1955	Naisp	Central Asia	1970
			Onrov Bulla	Transcaucasus	1959	Nakhodka	West Siberia	1974
			Pokachi	West Siberia	1970	Neyto	West Siberia	1975
			Pravdinsk	West Siberia	1964	Novyy Port	West Siberia	1964
			Samgori	Transcaucasus	1974	Nyda	West Siberia	1972
			Severyy Pokar	West Siberia	1964	Orenburg	Volga-Urals	1966
			Severo-Var'yegan	West Siberia	1971	Polyaika	West Siberia	1969
			Sikapovo	Volga-Urals	1953	Petsovyy	West Siberia	1974
			Sovetskoye	West Siberia	1962	Ruskaia	West Siberia	1968
			Tuymazy	Volga-Urals	1937	Sakar	Central Asia	1966
			Usinsk	Timan-Pechora	1963	Samantepe	Central Asia	1964
			Ust'-Balyk	West Siberia	1961	Senakov	West Siberia	1971
			Uzun'	North Caspian	1961	Severo-Komsomol	West Siberia	1969
			Var'yegan	West Siberia	1970	Severo-Urengoy	West Siberia	1970
			Vata	West Siberia	1961	Selenays	West Siberia	1969
			Vat'yegan	West Siberia	1971	Sredneyamal	West Siberia	1972
			Vazny	Timan-Pechora	1972	Urtabulak	Central Asia	1963
			Yuzhno-Sukhobumskoye	North Caspian	1963	Vaktyl	Timan-Pechora	1964
			Zhetysay	North Caspian	1960	Vyngapur	West Siberia	1968
						Yamovyy	West Siberia	1970
						Yotyayr	West Siberia	1971
						Yubileynyy	West Siberia	1969
						Yuzhno-Ruskaia	West Siberia	1969
						Yuzhno-Tambey	West Siberia	1974
						Zapadno-Tarxanale	West Siberia	1972

Petroleum Refineries, 1 January 1984

Economic Region	Refinery Name	Economic Region	Refinery Name	Economic Region	Refinery Name
Baltic	Maizkiai	North Caucasus (continued)	Groznyy No. 2	Urals (continued)	Pern'
Northwest	Kirishi		Groznyy No. 3		Sabavat
Northern	Ukhta		Krasnodar		Ufa Novo Chernikovsk
Belorussia	Mozyr'		Tusape		Ufa Novo Ufimskiy
	Novopolotsk	Transcaucasus	Baku No. 2		Ufa Staro Ufimskiy
Central	Konstantinovskiy		Baku Waterfront Group	Kazakhstan	Chimkent (under construction)
	Moskva (Moscow) Lyubertsy		Batumi		Gum'yev
	Ryazan'	Volga	Nizhnekavkaz		Pavlodar
	Yaroslavl'		Novokuybyshevsk Lead Lease 3	Central Asia	Fergana
Ukraine	Drogobych No. 1		Novokuybyshevsk No. 2		Khemza
	Drogobych No. 2		Saratov		Krasnovodsk
	Kberon		Syzran'		Nefteazovsk (under construction)
	Kremenchug		Volgograd	West Siberia	Orsk
	Lichansk	Volga-Vysika	Gov'liy 26 Bakinskikh	East Siberia	Achinsk
	L'vov		Gov'liy (Kislov)		Angarsk
	Nadornaya	Urals	Izhimbay	Far East	Khabarovsk
	Odessa		Orsk		Komsomol'sk
North Caucasus	Groznyy Group		Orsk 421		

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

Operational			Under Construction			
Economic Region	Plant Name	Gross Installed Capacity (MW)	Economic Region	Plant Name	Gross Installed Capacity (MW)	
Baltic	Lithuanian	1,800	Transcaucasus	Nevinnomyssk	1,380	
	Estonian	1,610		Krasnodar Heat and Power	1,105	
	Baltic	1,435		Tbilisi	1,280	
Northwest	Kirishi	2,120		Razdan	1,210	
Belorussia	Lukoml'	2,400		Ali-Bayramly	1,100	
Central	Kostroma	3,600	Volga	Zaink	2,400	
	Ryazan'	2,800		Lower Kama-1 Heat and Power	1,100	
	Konakovo	2,400	Urals	Refinskiy	3,800	
	Kashira	2,000		Troitsk	2,500	
	Chepets'	1,500		Irkutskiy	2,400	
	TETs-23 Mosenergo Heat and Power	1,400		Karmanovo	1,800	
	TETs-22 Mosenergo Heat and Power	1,250		Verkhniy Tagil	1,575	
	TETs-21 Mosenergo Heat and Power	1,180		Sredneral'sk	1,198	
	Slavuta	1,020		Yuzhno-Ural'sk	1,000	
	Ukraine	Zaporozh'ye	3,600	Kazakhstan	Ekibastuz-1	3,500
		Uglegorok	3,600		Yermak	2,400
		Krivoy Rog-2	3,000		Dzhambul	1,230
		Burshtyn	2,400	Central Asia	Syrdar'ya	3,000
Zimiyev (Gosval'd)		2,400		Tashkent	1,950	
Pridneprovsk		2,400		Mary	1,260	
Voroshilovgrad		2,300		Navoi	1,250	
Staroboshevo		2,300	West Siberia	Surgut-1	3,345	
Slavyansk		2,100		Tom'-Uss	1,300	
Ladyzhin		1,800		Belovo	1,200	
Tripol'ye		1,800	East Siberia	Krasnoyarsk-2	1,340	
Moldavia	Kurukhovo	1,460		Nazarovo	1,300	
	Moldavian	2,480		Irkutsk-10 Heat and Power	1,160	
North Caucasus	Novocherkassk	2,400		Krasnoyarsk Heat and Power	1,115	
	Stavropol'	2,100				

* Currently operating at a capacity under 1,000 MW.

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

Operational				Under Construction		
Station Name	Installed Capacity (MW)	River	Economic Region	Station Name	River	Economic Region
Krasnoyarsk	6,000	Yenisey	East Siberia	Boguchany	Angara	East Siberia
Bratsk	4,500	Angara	East Siberia	Bureya	Bureya	Far East
Sayan-Shushenskoye (expansion under way)	3,840	Yenisey	East Siberia	Cheboksary *	Volga	Volga-Vyatka
Us'-Ilimsk	3,840	Angara	East Siberia	Kalindarys (pump storage)	Neman, Stréva	Baltic
Nurek	2,700	Vakhsh	Central Asia	Rogun	Vakhsh	Central Asia
Volga at Volgograd	2,541	Volga	Volga	Saul'ba	Irtysk	Kazakhstan
Volga at Tolyatti-Zhigul'sk	2,300	Volga	Volga	Zagorsk (pump storage)	Kun'ya	Central
Dnepr at Zaporozh'ye	1,538	Dnepr	Ukraine			
Saratov	1,360	Volga	Volga			
Inguri	1,325	Inguri	Transcaucasus			
Zeya	1,290	Zeya	Far East			
Toktogul'	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 capacity under 1,000 MW.

Nuclear Power Stations, 1 January 1984

Operational						Under Construction	
Station Name	Gross Installed Capacity (MW)	Date of First Operation	Type	Operating Reactors	Soviet Designation	Station Name	
Leningrad	4,000	1973	GMPTK	4	RBMK-1000	Balakovo	
Chernobyl'	4,000	1977	GMPTK	4	RBMK-1000	Beshkir	
Kursk	3,000	1976	GMPTK	3	RBMK-1000	Crimean	
Novovoronezhskiy	2,455	1964	PWR	1	VVER-210	Gar'tsy AST	
			PWR	1	VVER-365	Kalini (started up in 1984)	
			PWR	2	VVER-440	Khimfinskiy	
			PWR	1	VVER-1000	Kostroma	
Ignalina	1,500*	1983	GMPTK	1	RBMK-1500*	Minsk ATETs	
Kola	1,320	1973	PWR	3	VVER-440	Odessa ATETs	
Smolensk	1,000	1982	GMPTK	1	RBMK-1000	Rostov	
South Ukraine	1,000	1983	PWR	1	VVER-1000	Tatar	
Rovno	880	1979	PWR	2	VVER-440	Voronezh AST	
Armenian	815*	1976	PWR	2	VVER-440*	Zaporozh'ye (started up in 1984)	
Beloyarskiy	900	1964	GMPTK	1	RBMK-100		
			GMPTK	1	RBMK-200		
			LMFBR	1	BN-600		
Bilibino ATETs	48	1974	GMPTK	4			
Total	20,168*						

* The RBMK-1500 represents full nameplate capacity. Of this, only one 750-MW turbo-generator was operational at the beginning of 1984.

* The two VVER-440 reactors are operating at 405 and 410 MW.

* Does not include experimental development reactors, such as Obninsk and Dimitrograd, or the Siberian AES and the Shevchenko AES, which do not produce commercial electric power.

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.

Abbreviations

AO	Autonomous Oblast'
AOK	Autonomous Otrug
ASSR	Avtonomnaya Sovetskaya Sotsialisticheskaya Respublika
SSR	Sovetskaya Sotsialisticheskaya Respublika

Glossary

The following terms appear as generic parts of names in this atlas. The meanings are derived from the BGN gazetteer on the Soviet Union.

gry	mountain, mountain range
suh	bay
kanal	canal, channel, distributary
krvbet	mountains, mountain range, ridge
krvzh	ridge, hill, mountains
more	sea, sound
nagor'ye	upland, plateau, mountain range
nizmennost'	plain, lowland
ostrova(-)	island(s)
ozero	lake
peki	desert, sands
plato	plateau, upland
pobozhrov	peninsula, spit
proliv	strait
sopka	volcano, mountain, mound, hill
stolovaya strana	plateau
svyaly	hills
vodokhranilishche	reservoir
vovyshebnost'	ridge, upland, plateau
zaliv	gulf, bay, inlet, lagoon
zemya	land, island(s)

Feature Designations

adml	administrative division	rdge	ridge
bay	bay	reg	region
can	canal	resv	reservoir
canl	canal basin/deposit	rr	railroad
dst	desert	sea	sea
gasf	gasfield	strm	stream
gulf	gulf	strl	strait
hills	hills	tar	tar sands deposit
hydp	hydroelectric power station	thep	thermal power plant
iron	iron ore deposit	upld	upland
isld(-)	island(s)	w/t	uranium/thorium deposit and processing center
lake	lake	volc	volcano
mts	mountains, mountain range		
nucp	nuclear power station		
oilf	oilfield		
oil	oil shale deposit/field		
pen	peninsula		
petr	petroleum refinery		
pipe	oil/gas pipeline		
plat	plateau		
pla	plain		
pop	populated place		

Simplified Names

Physiographic Features		Oblast-Level Administrative Divisions (continued)	
Simplified	BGN	Simplified	BGN
Alay Mountains	Alayskiy Khrbet	Khanty-Mansi AOK	Khanty-Mansiyskiy Avtonomnyy Otkrug
Aldan Upland	Aldanskoye Nagor'ye	Khar'kov Oblast	Khar'kovskaya Oblast'
Betpak-Dala Desert	Betpak-Dala	Kheron Oblast	Kheron'skaya Oblast'
Buzachi Peninsula	Polostrov Buzachi	Khond'zitskiy Oblast	Khond'zitskaya Oblast'
Byrranga Mountains	Gory Byrranga	Khorzsm Oblast	Khorzsm'skaya Oblast'
Caspian Lowland	Prikaspiyskaya Nizmennost'	Kirov Oblast	Kirov'skaya Oblast'
Central Range	Sredinnyy Khrbet	Kirovograd Oblast	Kirovogradskaya Oblast'
Cherukiy Range	Khrbet Cherukiy	Kiyev Oblast	Kiyev'skaya Oblast'
Chukotsk Upland	Chukotskoye Nagor'ye	Kokchetav Oblast	Kokchetavskaya Oblast'
Chukotsk Peninsula	Chukotskiy Polostrov	Komi ASSR	Komi Avtonomnaya Sovetskaya Sotsialisticheskaya Respublika
Deep Lowland	Pridneprovskaya Nizmennost'	Komi-Permyak AOK	Komi-Permyatskiy Avtonomnyy Otkrug
Dzhugdzhar Range	Khrbet Dzhugdzhar	Koryak AOK	Koryakskiy Avtonomnyy Otkrug
Gydan Peninsula	Gydan'skiy Polostrov	Kostroma Oblast	Kostrom'skaya Oblast'
Karakum Desert	Peaki Karakum	Krasnodar Krai	Krasnodarskiy Krai
Kazakh Upland	Kazakhskiy Mchhosopokhnik	Krasnovodsk Oblast	Krasnovodskaya Oblast'
Kolyma Lowland	Kolym'skaya Nizmennost'	Krasnoyarsk Krai	Krasnoyarskiy Krai
Kolyma Mountains	Kolymskoye Nagor'ye	Krym (Crimean) Oblast	Krym'skaya Oblast'
Koryak Mountains	Koryakskoye Nagor'ye	Kyzyl-Osk Oblast	Kyzyl-Osk'skaya Oblast'
Kyzylkum Desert	Kyzylkum	Kazansk Oblast	Kazanskaya Oblast'
Lake Balkhash	Ozero Balkhash	Kurgan-Tyube Oblast	Kurgan-Tyubinskaya Oblast'
Lena Plateau	Prilenskoye Plato	Kursk Oblast	Kursk'skaya Oblast'
Mangyshlak Peninsula	Polostrov Mangyshlak	Kustanay Oblast	Kustanayskaya Oblast'
Mayunkum Desert	Peaki Mayunkum	Kyrybino Oblast	Kyrybino'skaya Oblast'
North Siberian Lowland	Severo-Sibirskaya Nizmennost'	Kyzyl-Ordin Oblast	Kyzyl-Ordinskaya Oblast'
Northen Hills	Severnyye Uvlyi	Leninsk Oblast	Leninskaya Oblast'
Ola-Don Plain	Olak-Donskaya Nizmennost'	Leningrad Oblast	Leningradskaya Oblast'
Sikhote-Aliu' Range	Sikhote-Aliu'	Lipetsk Oblast	Lipetsk'skaya Oblast'
Stanovoy Upland	Stanovoye Nagor'ye	L'vov Oblast	L'vov'skaya Oblast'
Stanovoy Range	Stanovoy Khrbet	Magnitogorsk Oblast	Magnitogorsk'skaya Oblast'
Taymyr Peninsula	Ostrovo Taymyr	Mangyshlak Oblast	Mangyshlak'skaya Oblast'
Taz Peninsula	Tazovskiy Polostrov	Mari ASSR	Mariyskaya Avtonomnaya Sovetskaya Sotsialisticheskaya Respublika
Timan Ridge	Timanskiy Kryzh	Mary Oblast	Maryn'skaya Oblast'
Turan Lowland	Turan'skaya Nizmennost'	Moscow Oblast	Moskovskaya Oblast'
Turgay Plateau	Turgayskaya Stolovaya Strana	Mordva ASSR	Mordovskaya Avtonomnaya Sovetskaya Sotsialisticheskaya Respublika
Upper Kama Upland	Verkhnekamskoye Vovyshebnost'	Moscow Oblast	Moskovskaya Oblast'
Ustyurt Plateau	Plato Ustyurt	Murmansk Oblast	Murmansk'skaya Oblast'
Verkhoyansk Range	Verkhoyanskiy Khrbet	Nagorno-Karabakh AO	Nagorno-Karabakh'skaya Avtonomnaya Oblast'
Volga Upland	Privolzhskaya Vovyshebnost'	Nakhichevan' ASSR	Nakhichevan'skaya Avtonomnaya Sovetskaya Sotsialisticheskaya Respublika
Yablonovoy Range	Yablonovoy Khrbet	Namangan Oblast	Namangan'skaya Oblast'
Yamal Peninsula	Polostrov Yamal	Naryn Oblast	Naryn'skaya Oblast'
Oblast-Level Administrative Divisions			
Simplified	BGN	Simplified	BGN
Abkhaz ASSR	Abkhazskaya Avtonomnaya Sovetskaya Sotsialisticheskaya Respublika	Naryn Oblast	Naryn'skaya Oblast'
Adygey AO	Adygeyskaya Avtonomnaya Oblast'	Navoi Oblast	Navoi'skaya Oblast'
Adzhar ASSR	Adzhar'skaya Avtonomnaya Sovetskaya Sotsialisticheskaya Respublika	Nenets AOK	Nenetskiy Avtonomnyy Otkrug
Aginskii Buryat AOK	Aginskii Buryatskiy Avtonomnyy Otkrug	Nizhnyaya Oblast	Nizhnyaya Oblast'
Altynbinsk Oblast	Altynbinkaya Oblast'	Novgorod Oblast	Novgorod'skaya Oblast'
Alma-Ata Oblast	Alma-Atinskaya Oblast'	Novosibirsk Oblast	Novosibirskaya Oblast'
Altay Krai	Altayskiy Krai	Odesa Oblast	Odeska Oblast'
Amur Oblast	Amurskaya Oblast'	Orel Oblast	Orel'skaya Oblast'
Andizhan Oblast	Andizhanskaya Oblast'	Orenburg Oblast	Orenburg'skaya Oblast'
Arkhangel'sk Oblast	Arkhangel'skaya Oblast'	Osh Oblast	Oshskaya Oblast'
Ashkhabad Oblast	Ashkhabad'skaya Oblast'	Pavlodar Oblast	Pavlodar'skaya Oblast'
Astrakhan' Oblast	Astrakhan'skaya Oblast'	Penza Oblast	Penza'skaya Oblast'
Bashkir ASSR	Bashkirskaya Avtonomnaya Sovetskaya Sotsialisticheskaya Respublika	Perm' Oblast	Perm'skaya Oblast'
Belgorod Oblast	Belgorodskaya Oblast'	Poltava Oblast	Poltav'skaya Oblast'
Brest Oblast	Brest'skaya Oblast'	Primorskiy Krai	Primorskiy Krai
Bryansk Oblast	Bryansk'skaya Oblast'	Pskov Oblast	Pskov'skaya Oblast'
Bukhara Oblast	Bukharskaya Oblast'	Rostov Oblast	Rostov'skaya Oblast'
Buryat ASSR	Buryatskaya Avtonomnaya Sovetskaya Sotsialisticheskaya Respublika	Rybnoy Oblast	Rybnoy'skaya Oblast'
Chardzhou Oblast	Chardzhou'skaya Oblast'	Ryazan' Oblast	Ryazan'skaya Oblast'
Chechen-Ingush ASSR	Checheno-Ingushskaya Avtonomnaya Sovetskaya Sotsialisticheskaya Respublika	Sakhalin Oblast	Sakhalin'skaya Oblast'
Chebyansk Oblast	Chebyanskaya Oblast'	Samarkand Oblast	Samarkand'skaya Oblast'
Cherkassy Oblast	Cherkasskaya Oblast'	Saransk Oblast	Saransk'skaya Oblast'
Chernigov Oblast	Chernigovskaya Oblast'	Semipalatinsk Oblast	Semipalatinskaya Oblast'
Chernovitsy Oblast	Chernovitskaya Oblast'	Severo-Kazakhstan Oblast	Severo-Kazakhstan'skaya Oblast'
Chimkent Oblast	Chimkent'skaya Oblast'	Severo-Osetin ASSR	Severo-Osetinskaya Avtonomnaya Sovetskaya Sotsialisticheskaya Respublika
Chita Oblast	Chitinskaya Oblast'	Smolensk Oblast	Smolensk'skaya Oblast'
Chukotsk AOK	Chukotskiy Avtonomnyy Otkrug	Stavropol' Krai	Stavropol'skiy Krai
Chuvash ASSR	Chuvashskaya Avtonomnaya Sovetskaya Sotsialisticheskaya Respublika	Suny Oblast	Sunyskaya Oblast'
Dagestan ASSR	Dagestanskaya Avtonomnaya Sovetskaya Sotsialisticheskaya Respublika	Surkhanda'y Oblast	Surkhanda'y'skaya Oblast'
Dnepropetrovsk Oblast	Dnepropetrovskaya Oblast'	Sverdlovsk Oblast	Sverdlovsk'skaya Oblast'
Donetsk Oblast	Donetskaya Oblast'	Sydrin's Oblast	Sydrin'skaya Oblast'
Dzhambul Oblast	Dzhambul'skaya Oblast'	Tashkent Oblast	Tashkent'skaya Oblast'
Dzhezkazgan Oblast	Dzhezkazgan'skaya Oblast'	Taty-Karagan Oblast	Taty-Karagan'skaya Oblast'
Dzhizak Oblast	Dzhizak'skaya Oblast'	Tambov Oblast	Tambov'skaya Oblast'
Evrenk AOK	Evrenkiyskiy Avtonomnyy Otkrug	Tashkuz Oblast	Tashkuz'skaya Oblast'
Fergana Oblast	Ferganskaya Oblast'	Tashkent ASSR	Tashkent'skaya Avtonomnaya Sovetskaya Sotsialisticheskaya Respublika
Gomei' Oblast	Gomei'skaya Oblast'	Taymyr AOK	Taymyrskiy Avtonomnyy Otkrug
Gor'kiy Oblast	Gor'kovskaya Oblast'	Terapop' Oblast	Terapop'skaya Oblast'
Gorno-Altay AO	Gorno-Altayskaya Avtonomnaya Oblast'	Tomsk Oblast	Tomsk'skaya Oblast'
Gorno-Badkhashan AO	Gorno-Badkhashan'skaya Avtonomnaya Oblast'	Tselinograd Oblast	Tselinogradskaya Oblast'
Grodno Oblast	Grodenskaya Oblast'	Tula Oblast	Tul'skaya Oblast'
Gur'yev Oblast	Gur'yevskaya Oblast'	Turgay Oblast	Turgayskaya Oblast'
Irkutsk Oblast	Irkutsk'skaya Oblast'	Tuva ASSR	Tuvinskaya Avtonomnaya Sovetskaya Sotsialisticheskaya Respublika
Iz'yak-Kul' Oblast	Iz'yak-Kul'skaya Oblast'	Tyumen' Oblast	Tyumen'skaya Oblast'
Ivano-Frankovsk Oblast	Ivano-Frankovskaya Oblast'	Udmurt ASSR	Udmurtskaya Avtonomnaya Sovetskaya Sotsialisticheskaya Respublika
Izrael Oblast	Izraelskaya Oblast'	Ufa Oblast	Ufa'skaya Oblast'
Kabardin-Balkar ASSR	Kabardino-Balkarskaya Avtonomnaya Sovetskaya Sotsialisticheskaya Respublika	Ural' Oblast	Ural'skaya Oblast'
Kalinin Oblast	Kalininskaya Oblast'	Ural'-Ordynskiy Buryat AOK	Ural'-Ordynskiy Buryatskiy Avtonomnyy Otkrug
Kalininograd Oblast	Kalininogradskaya Oblast'	Vinnitsa Oblast	Vinnitskaya Oblast'
Kalmyk ASSR	Kalmyk'skaya Avtonomnaya Sovetskaya Sotsialisticheskaya Respublika	Vitebsk Oblast	Vitebsk'skaya Oblast'
Kaluga Oblast	Kaluzhskaya Oblast'	Vladimir Oblast	Vladimir'skaya Oblast'
Kamchatka Oblast	Kamchatka'skaya Oblast'	Volgograd Oblast	Volgogradskaya Oblast'
Karachiya-Chekiya AO	Karachiya-Chekiyskaya Avtonomnaya Oblast'	Vologda Oblast	Vologodskaya Oblast'
Karaganda Oblast	Karagandinskaya Oblast'	Volya Oblast	Volya'skaya Oblast'
Karakalpak ASSR	Karakalpak'skaya Avtonomnaya Sovetskaya Sotsialisticheskaya Respublika	Voronezh Oblast	Voronezh'skaya Oblast'
Karelian ASSR	Karel'skaya Avtonomnaya Sovetskaya Sotsialisticheskaya Respublika	Voroshilovgrad Oblast	Voroshilovgradskaya Oblast'
Kashkadar'y Oblast	Kashkadar'yinskaya Oblast'	Vostochno-Kazakhstan Oblast	Vostochno-Kazakhstan'skaya Oblast'
Kemerovo Oblast	Kemerovskaya Oblast'	Yakut ASSR	Yakutskaya Avtonomnaya Sovetskaya Sotsialisticheskaya Respublika
Khabarovsk Krai	Khabarovskiy Krai	Yamal-Nenets AOK	Yamal-Nenetskiy Avtonomnyy Otkrug
Khakas AO	Khakas'skaya Avtonomnyy Oblast'	Yaroslavl' Oblast	Yaroslavl'skaya Oblast'
		Yevrey AO	Yevreyskaya Avtonomnaya Oblast'
		Yugo-Osetin AO	Yugo-Osetinskaya Avtonomnaya Oblast'
		Zakarpatskaya Oblast	Zakarpatskaya Oblast'
		Zaporozh'ye Oblast	Zaporozh'skaya Oblast'
		Zhitomir Oblast	Zhitomir'skaya Oblast'

Name	Feature	Latitude	Longitude	Page
A				
Abakan	ppl	53 43N	091 26E	57,RM
Aban	ppl	56 41N	096 04E	60,RM
Aban coal deposit	coal	56 30N	096 00E	60
Abaza	ppl	52 39N	090 06E	56,RM
Abkhazkaya ASSR	adm	43 00N	041 30E	79
Achak	gasf	40 59N	061 02E	21,66
Achinsk	ppl	56 17N	090 30E	57,RM
Achinsk	pcir	NA	NA	31,66
Achiss	oilf	42 26N	047 45E	21
Adygeyskaya AO	adm	45 00N	040 00E	79
Adzharkaya ASSR	adm	41 40N	042 00E	79
Agan	stm	61 23N	074 35E	16,19
Agas	oilf	61 28N	076 11E	16,66
Agdas	ppl	39 59N	046 57E	56,RM
Aginskii Buryatskiy AOR	adm	51 00N	114 30E	79
Aginskoye	stm	55 44N	095 41E	60
Ahtrec	ppl	59 18N	027 28E	44,RM
Al-Dovrak	ppl	51 11N	090 36E	46,RM
Al-Tyuz-Bordovskiy uranum/thorium deposit	u/t	NA	NA	42,43
Alkhutinsk	u/t	48 16N	046 10E	RM
Alkhanovo-Zilovskoye	ppl	53 04N	117 32E	RM
Alks	ppl	52 30N	071 59E	56,RM
Alksayk	ppl	44 45N	074 21E	RM
Alksayk-Kiyatskiy uranum deposit	u/t	NA	NA	42,43
Alkinga	oilf	43 07N	051 37E	21
Alkylvatn	ppl	46 57N	079 40E	RM
Alkylvatn	ppl	50 17N	057 10E	56,79,RM
Alkylvatnskaya Oblast'	adm	48 00N	058 00E	79
Alkys	ppl	42 54N	076 07E	RM
Alksayk	ppl	54 53N	052 20E	20,RM
Alksayk	ppl	57 50N	061 41E	RM
Alksayk	ms	39 45N	072 00E	RM
Alksayk	stm	70 51N	153 34E	RM
Alksayk	ppl	50 37N	125 24E	11,57,59,RM
Alksayk	stm	63 28N	129 35E	11,RM
Alksayk uranum/thorium deposit	u/t	NA	NA	42,43
Alksayk Upland	upld	57 00N	127 00E	11,RM
Alksayk	oilf	62 26N	073 10E	16
Alksayk	ppl	48 40N	031 30E	RM
Alksayk	coal	48 39N	033 07E	34
Alksayk	ppl	50 09N	048 34E	32,56,RM
Alksayk	coal	50 00N	142 45E	34
Alksayk	ppl	50 54N	142 10E	57,RM
Alksayk	oilf	52 34N	051 07E	20
Alksayk	oilf	60 29N	077 10E	16
Alksayk	ppl	52 28N	082 45E	RM
Alksayk	ppl	39 55N	048 56E	RM
Alksayk	thep	NA	NA	49,67
Alksayk	ppl	43 15N	076 57E	52,55,56,79,RM
Alksayk	adm	44 00N	076 00E	79
Alksayk Oblast'	ppl	40 50N	069 35E	RM
Alksayk	ms	48 00N	090 00E	RM
Alksayk	adm	52 30N	083 00E	79
Alksayk	oilf	44 40N	034 25E	52,RM
Alksayk	oilf	51 15N	053 48E	20
Alksayk	ppl	54 24N	024 03E	RM
Alksayk	ppl	50 10N	065 13E	56,RM
Alksayk	ppl	69 45N	061 39E	RM
Alksayk	stm	62 38N	134 52E	11,RM
Alksayk	stm	52 56N	139 38E	11,RM
Alksayk	stm	43 40N	059 01E	21,RM
Alksayk	stm	52 56N	141 10E	11,RM
Alksayk	ppl	50 14N	136 54E	RM
Alksayk	adm	54 00N	128 00E	79
Alksayk	stm	73 00N	113 30E	34
Alksayk	ppl	64 45N	177 29E	57,59,RM
Alksayk	stm	64 54N	176 13E	RM
Alksayk	coal	65 00N	174 00E	34,40
Alksayk	coal	65 00N	177 30E	34
Alksayk	gasf	64 00N	178 00E	RM
Alksayk	ppl	40 45N	072 22E	56,79,RM
Alksayk	adm	40 45N	072 00E	79
Alksayk	ppl	58 03N	038 50E	32,RM
Alksayk	stm	54 06N	093 00E	50,51,60,67,RM
Alksayk	ppl	52 34N	103 54E	RM
Alksayk	pcir	NA	NA	31,66
Alksayk	ppl	41 01N	070 12E	60,RM
Alksayk	coal	41 09N	070 00E	34
Alksayk	ppl	54 07N	086 01E	60,RM
Alksayk	coal	56 10N	086 00E	34
Alksayk	ppl	67 34N	033 22E	RM
Alksayk	oilf	39 52N	050 50E	21
Alksayk	ppl	45 00N	060 00E	56,RM
Alksayk	stm	46 48N	061 40E	56,RM
Alksayk	stm	39 59N	048 20E	21
Alksayk	gasf	64 51N	057 43E	RM
Alksayk	stm	53 20N	121 28E	RM
Alksayk	ppl	45 09N	134 21E	57,RM
Alksayk	ppl	63 09N	146 47E	57,59,RM
Alksayk	coal	63 25N	147 00E	34
Alksayk	ppl	50 13N	066 50E	79,RM
Alksayk	ppl	64 34N	040 32E	56,59,79,RM
Alksayk	adm	64 00N	044 00E	79
Alksayk	gasf	69 48N	070 49E	16,66
Alksayk	oilf	55 59N	054 13E	20,22,66
Alksayk	ppl	45 00N	041 08E	RM
Alksayk	nucp	NA	NA	52,67
Alksayk	adm	40 00N	045 00E	21,79
Alksayk	ppl	44 10N	133 15E	RM
Alksayk	ppl	43 22N	132 13E	RM
Alksayk	oilf	40 28N	050 22E	21
Alksayk	coal	43 30N	132 19E	34
Alksayk	ppl	54 21N	093 26E	57,RM
Alksayk	coal	57 30N	061 30E	34
Alksayk	ppl	42 26N	068 48E	56,RM
Alksayk	ppl	55 23N	043 50E	56,RM
Alksayk	gasf	43 30N	052 33E	21
Alksayk	ppl	37 57N	058 23E	21,56,61,79,RM
Alksayk	adm	39 00N	059 00E	79
Alksayk	ppl	57 00N	086 09E	RM
Alksayk	ppl	53 08N	090 32E	56,RM
Alksayk	ppl	38 26N	048 53E	21,56,RM
Alksayk	gasf	46 21N	048 03E	21,25,55,56,79,RM
Alksayk	adm	48 16N	048 16E	21,23
Alksayk	adm	47 00N	048 00E	79
Alksayk	gasf	39 54N	058 33E	21
Alksayk	ppl	51 48N	068 20E	RM
Alksayk	oilf	46 01N	142 09E	RM
Alksayk	ole	53 15N	158 49E	64,RM
Alksayk	oilf	62 17N	071 06E	16
Alksayk	oilf	59 27N	072 45E	16
Alksayk	ppl	47 56N	080 23E	56,RM

Name	Feature	Latitude	Longitude	Page
A (continued)				
Ayhal	ppl	66 00N	111 30E	57,59,RM
Ayon, Ostrov	isl	66 50N	168 40E	RM
Aysarskiy	ppl	53 16N	071 46E	56,RM
Azərbaycan	thep	NA	NA	49,67
Azərbaycan SSR	adm	40 30N	047 30E	21,22,79
Azov, Sea of	sea	46 00N	036 00E	RM
B				
Bagadsha	gasf	39 00N	062 40E	21
Bagdarin	ppl	54 26N	113 36E	RM
Baikal-Amur Mainline (BAM)	rr	56 30N	118 00E	11,RM
Baikal, Lake	lake	54 00N	109 00E	RM
Bakams	ppl	44 50N	076 15E	56,RM
Bahas	oilf	40 00N	050 00E	21
Baku	ppl	40 23N	049 51E	21,32,55,56,79,RM
Baku No. 2	pcir	NA	NA	30,31,66
Baku Waterfront Group	ppl	NA	NA	31,66
Batagansk	ppl	64 30N	143 50E	57,RM
Batavov	ppl	52 02N	047 47E	RM
Batavov	nucp	NA	NA	52,67
Batavov	ppl	51 32N	043 08E	RM
Batkhakh, Lake	lake	46 50N	074 58E	56,RM
Batkhakh, Lake	lake	46 00N	074 00E	RM
Batlic	thep	NA	NA	49,67
Batlic oil and gas region	reg	55 00N	022 00E	14,25,32
Batlic oil shale deposit	oil	59 04N	028 17E	44
Batlic Economic Region	reg	56 00N	025 00E	79
Batlic Sea	sea	56 00N	025 00E	79
Batlyk	ppl	44 39N	019 55E	RM
Batlyk	ppl	55 48N	115 47E	59,RM
Batlyk	ppl	54 08N	123 42E	11,RM
Batlyk	ppl	55 21N	078 21E	RM
Batlyk	ppl	53 08N	026 02E	RM
Batlyk	ppl	74 06N	036 00E	RM
Batlyk	ppl	53 37N	109 37E	57,RM
Batlyk	oilf	52 58N	050 43E	20
Batlyk	ppl	53 22N	083 45E	55,56,79,RM
Batlyk	oilf	39 04N	054 00E	21,66
Batlyk	nucp	NA	NA	52,67
Batlyk	adm	54 00N	056 00E	20,79
Batlyk	oilf	55 23N	052 21E	20
Batlyk	ppl	67 38N	134 38E	RM
Batlyk	ppl	43 38N	041 38E	RM
Batlyk	ppl	NA	NA	31,66
Batlyk	oilf	56 49N	055 55E	20
Batlyk	oilf	54 30N	051 11E	20,66
Batlyk	bay	69 00N	067 30E	16
Batlyk	ppl	51 51N	104 47E	RM
Batlyk	ppl	47 50N	066 03E	54,RM
Batlyk	gasf	37 50N	062 06E	21
Batlyk	ppl	40 13N	069 14E	RM
Batlyk	ppl	41 34N	052 32E	56,RM
Batlyk	isl	75 32N	135 44E	RM
Batlyk	stm	47 46N	027 56E	20,RM
Batlyk	stm	55 54N	053 33E	20,RM
Batlyk	ppl	49 47N	030 07E	RM
Batlyk	oilf	54 10N	051 55E	20
Batlyk	ppl	50 36N	036 34E	79,RM
Batlyk	ppl	46 12N	030 21E	RM
Batlyk	adm	50 45N	037 30E	79
Batlyk	ppl	50 55N	128 28E	RM
Batlyk	ppl	53 02N	088 28E	60,RM
Batlyk	ppl	51 59N	084 29E	RM
Batlyk	ppl	64 32N	034 48E	RM
Batlyk	ppl	53 58N	058 34E	RM
Belarusian Economic Region	reg	53 00N	028 00E	79
Belarusian oil shale deposit	oil	53 46N	029 14E	44
Belarusian SSR	adm	53 00N	028 00E	79
Belovo	ppl	54 25N	086 18E	56,RM
Belovo	thep	NA	NA	49,67
Belovskiy	ppl	56 45N	061 24E	RM
Belovskiy	ppl	63 43N	066 40E	16,RM
Belovskiy	nucp	NA	NA	52,67
Belovskiy	ppl	58 26N	085 01E	60,RM
Belovskiy	isl	73 10N	070 45E	RM
Belovskiy	ppl	46 49N	029 29E	RM
Belovskiy	isl	76 21N	148 56E	RM
Belovskiy	oilf	42 42N	046 29E	21
Belovskiy	ppl	54 47N	083 02E	RM
Belovskiy	ppl	46 45N	036 47E	RM
Belovskiy	gasf	51 14N	055 05E	20
Belovskiy	ppl	59 24N	056 46E	RM
Belovskiy	ppl	63 56N	063 03E	16,23,RM
Belovskiy	gasf	63 36N	064 24E	16
Belovskiy	oil	65 32N	062 48E	44
Belovskiy	ppl	55 50N	089 34E	60,RM
Belovskiy	coal	55 45N	089 15E	34,60
Belovskiy	thep	NA	NA	49,66,67
Belovskiy	ppl	51 40N	135 42E	RM
Belovskiy	sea	60 00N	175 00E	RM
Belovskiy	str	66 00N	169 00E	RM
Belovskiy	ppl	63 03N	179 19E	RM
Belovskiy	ppl	64 35N	176 40E	34
Belovskiy	coal	63 00N	174 00E	11,RM
Belovskiy	oilf	46 13N	046 34E	21
Belovskiy	ppl	61 24N	128 50E	32,RM
Belovskiy	dst	46 00N	070 00E	RM
Belovskiy	gasf	39 17N	060 36E	21
Belovskiy	ppl	45 11N	055 06E	21,32,56,59,RM
Belovskiy	ppl	38 05N	058 12E	21,RM
Belovskiy	ppl	47 58N	131 56E	57,RM
Belovskiy	ppl	46 48N	134 16E	57,RM
Belovskiy	coal	46 53N	134 14E	34
Belovskiy	ppl	68 83N	166 20E	57,59,RM
Belovskiy	nucp	NA	NA	52,67
Belovskiy	lars	40 05N	048 57E	45
Belovskiy	ppl	48 48N	137 57E	57,RM
Belovskiy	stm	57 43N	095 24E	60
Belovskiy	stm	52 25N	083 00E	RM
Belovskiy	ppl	52 34N	085 15E	56,RM
Belovskiy	sea	43 00N	035 00E	RM
Belovskiy	ppl	50 16N	127 32E	79,RM
Belovskiy	ppl	63 25N	074 56E	RM
Belovskiy	oilf	52 52N	051 36E	20
Belovskiy	ppl	53 09N	029 14E	RM
Belovskiy	ppl	57 51N	114 10E	RM
Belovskiy	ppl	58 23N	097 29E	RM
Belovskiy	thep			

Name	Feature	Latitude	Longitude	Page
E (continued)				
Ebitas	ppl	46 16N	044 14E	21,56,79,8M
Emba	ppl	48 50N	058 08E	56,8M
Emba/Caspian tar sands deposit	stm	46 38N	053 14E	21
Egag'	tars	47 47N	050 10E	45
Erciyanay	ppl	51 30N	046 07E	RM
Erciyanay	ppl	65 46N	149 44E	RM
Erza	ppl	50 15N	095 10E	57,8M
Estonia	thep	NA	NA	44,49,67
Estonia oil shale field	oil	59 07N	027 23E	44
Estonian SSR	admnd	59 00N	026 00E	79
Evenkiyskiy AOk	admnd	65 00N	093 00E	79
Export pipeline	pipe	55 45N	049 00E	10,11,20,32,33

F				
Far East power system	reg	51 00N	134 00E	46,55
Far East Economic Region	reg	63 00N	143 00E	79
Farah	gasf	39 16N	063 27E	21
Fedorovo	oilf	61 40N	073 32E	16,17,22,29,66
Fergana	ppl	40 23N	071 46E	79,8M
Fergana	ppl	NA	NA	21,66
Fergana Valley tar sands deposit	tars	42 41N	073 21E	45
Ferganskaya Oblast'	admnd	40 30N	071 30E	79
Ferrol'	ppl	52 28N	130 43E	RM
Finland, Gulf of	stm	60 00N	027 00E	RM
Foinisovka	oilf	54 13N	053 09E	20
Fort-Shevcheko	ppl	44 31N	050 16E	RM
Fransz Josef Land	isls	81 00N	055 00E	RM
Fransz Josef Land tar sands deposit	tars	80 30N	049 00E	45
Fransz	ppl	49 46N	043 40E	RM
Fransz	ppl	49 54N	074 36E	55,56,79,8M

G				
Gayny	ppl	60 18N	054 10E	56,8M
Gayvoron	ppl	48 21N	029 51E	56,8M
Gazi	ppl	40 14N	063 24E	56,8M
Gazi	gasf	40 04N	063 21E	21,66
Georgiyevskiy Ostrov	isls	77 06N	156 30E	RM
Georgia, Zozulya	admnd	40 30N	049 00E	RM
Georgia SSR	admnd	42 00N	043 30E	21,79
Georgiu-Decb	ppl	50 59N	039 30E	56,8M
Georgiyevsk	ppl	44 09N	042 28E	RM
Gerard's, Ostrov	isls	71 23N	175 40W	RM
Gilyuy	stm	51 53N	127 28E	11,8M
Glasov	ppl	58 00N	052 40E	RM
Gogran'dag	gasf	38 44N	054 27E	21
Gomef'	ppl	52 25N	031 00E	56,79,8M
Gornost'kaya Oblast'	admnd	52 00N	030 00E	79
Gonim	stm	57 21N	131 14E	11
Gor'kiy	ppl	56 20N	044 00E	32,56,79,8M
Gor'kiy (Katovo)	petr	NA	NA	31,66
Gor'kiy AST	mucp	NA	NA	52,53,67
Gor'kiy 26 (Bakal'dika)	petr	NA	NA	31,66
Gor'kovskaya Oblast'	admnd	56 00N	045 00E	79
Gori	ppl	41 48N	044 07E	RM
Gorlovka	ppl	48 18N	038 03E	RM
Gorno-Altayskiy	ppl	51 58N	085 58E	56,8M
Gorno-Altayskaya AO	admnd	51 00N	086 00E	79
Gorno-Badkhabinskaya AO	admnd	38 00N	073 00E	79
Gornozyudsk	ppl	46 34N	141 49E	57,8M
Gornyyak	ppl	51 00N	081 29E	RM
Gorychegorsk	ppl	55 24N	088 55E	60,8M
Gova'd	oilf	49 41N	036 21E	RM
Gozban	oilf	56 31N	055 08E	20
Grakhovo	oilf	56 04N	051 55E	20
Gratiogorsk	oilf	42 44N	073 27E	RM
Gratiogorsk uranium deposit/processing center	u/r	NA	NA	42,43
Green-Izli, Ostrov	isls	81 10N	064 00E	RM
Gremitskiy	oilf	56 52N	053 40E	20
Grodnenskaya Oblast'	admnd	53 30N	024 30E	79
Grodno	ppl	53 41N	023 30E	79,8M
Groznyy	ppl	43 20N	045 42E	21,56,79,8M
Groznyy tar sands deposit	tars	44 23N	044 44E	45
Groznyy Group	petr	NA	NA	31,66
Groznyy No. 2	petr	NA	NA	31,66
Groznyy No. 3	petr	NA	NA	31,66
Gryzd	ppl	52 30N	040 00E	RM
Gubino	oilf	53 18N	048 41E	20
Gubkin	oilf	51 17N	037 12E	56,8M
Gubkin	gasf	64 45N	077 14E	15,66
Gubkin	gasf	39 33N	052 22E	21
Gudermes	oilf	43 05N	046 20E	21
Gugrui	gasf	40 04N	062 16E	21,66
Gulistan	ppl	40 29N	068 46E	79,8M
Gus'yegaa	oilf	61 41N	077 46E	16
Gus'yev	ppl	47 07N	051 53E	21,32,56,59,79,8M
Gus'yevskaya Oblast'	admnd	NA	NA	31,66
Gus'yevskaya Oblast'	admnd	45 00N	053 00E	RM
Gus'-Khrustal'nyy	ppl	55 17N	040 40E	RM
Gusinozotrik	ppl	51 17N	106 30E	57,8M
Gusinozotrik	thep	NA	NA	49,67
Gusinozotrik coal deposit	coal	51 30N	106 00E	34
Guzar	ppl	38 36N	066 15E	56,8M
Gydan Peninsula	pen	70 50N	079 00E	16,8M

H				
Haapsalu	ppl	58 56N	023 33E	56,8M
Habonai Islands	isls	43 30N	146 10E	RM
Hismaas	isls	58 50N	022 40E	RM

I				
Igarka	ppl	67 28N	086 35E	57,59,8M
Ignalina	ppl	55 21N	026 10E	53,8M
Ignalina	mucp	NA	NA	52,53,67
Igarka	gasf	62 58N	064 13E	16
Ily	stm	55 55N	052 34E	20
Ily'yarskiy	ppl	59 56N	164 10E	RM
Ili	stm	45 24N	074 08E	RM
Izrael Polnyi Oshpenko	ppl	52 25N	136 29E	RM
Inderborskiy	ppl	48 13N	051 47E	56,8M
Inderborskiy	stm	70 48N	148 54E	RM
Indigirka	stm	51 42N	115 48E	RM
Ingoda	stm	42 24N	041 33E	50,51,67
Ingu	stm	NA	NA	50,51,67
Inta coal deposit	coal	66 05N	060 08E	56,59,8M
Izba	stm	65 50N	059 46E	34
Izba	stm	54 59N	082 59E	60
Izba	ppl	53 51N	046 21E	RM
Izba	ppl	68 00N	039 41E	56,8M

Name	Feature	Latitude	Longitude	Page
I (continued)				
Iony, Ostrov	isls	56 26N	143 25E	RM
Irbit	ppl	57 41N	063 03E	RM
Irkutskiy	ppl	51 39N	058 38E	RM
Irkutskiy	thep	NA	NA	49,67
Irkutskiy	ppl	52 16N	104 20E	32,55,57,79,8M
Irkutsk coal basin	coal	53 00N	102 30E	34,35,40
Irkutsk-10 Heat and Power	thep	NA	NA	49,67
Irkutskaya Oblast'	admnd	56 00N	106 00E	79
Irsha	ppl	55 55N	094 48E	60,8M
Irsha-Borodino coal deposit	coal	55 45N	093 13E	34,60
Irtutsk	stm	61 04N	068 52E	16,50,67,8M
Irtutsk	thep	NA	NA	20
Isakov	ppl	56 09N	069 27E	56,8M
Ischim	stm	57 42N	071 12E	RM
Ischimay	ppl	53 28N	056 02E	RM
Ischimay	oilf	53 24N	065 01E	20
Ischimay	oilf	53 24N	065 01E	20
Ishtine	oilf	47 10N	052 38E	21
Iskitim	ppl	54 37N	083 24E	RM
Iskitim	gasf	35 30N	062 04E	21
Iskitim	isls	42 25N	077 15E	RM
Iskitim	admnd	42 30N	078 00E	79
Iskitim	oilf	58 47N	053 00E	20
Istara	ppl	55 55N	036 52E	60,8M
Istara	ppl	56 04N	089 05E	56,60,8M
Istara	coal	56 15N	089 00E	34,60
Istara	isls	45 00N	148 00E	RM
Isturup, Ostrov	ppl	67 50N	178 44W	57,8M
Izul'in	ppl	48 56N	024 43E	79,8M
Ivano-Frankovskaya Oblast'	admnd	48 30N	024 30E	79
Ivano-Frankovskaya Oblast'	ppl	57 00N	040 59E	79,8M
Ivano-Frankovskaya Oblast'	ppl	57 00N	042 00E	79
Ivano-Frankovskaya Oblast'	ppl	60 42N	040 24E	RM
Iya	stm	55 33N	102 07E	60
Izberbash	oilf	42 13N	047 58E	21
Izberbash	stm	65 19N	052 54E	20,8M
Izmail	ppl	45 21N	028 50E	32,56,8M
Izvestovyy	ppl	48 59N	131 33E	RM
Izum	ppl	49 12N	037 19E	RM

J				
Japan, Sea of	sea	43 30N	135 45E	RM
Jelgava	ppl	56 39N	023 42E	RM
Jurmala	ppl	56 58N	023 34E	RM

K				
Kabardin-Balkarskaya ASSR	admnd	43 30N	043 30E	79
Kachug	ppl	55 58N	105 52E	57,8M
Kachug	ppl	42 08N	077 10E	RM
Kachuzi-Say uranium deposit	u/r	NA	NA	42,43
Kafan	ppl	49 12N	046 24E	RM
Kairadorys	ppl	54 52N	024 27E	51,56,8M
Kairadorys	thep	NA	NA	50,47
Kairadorys	ppl	48 43N	043 31E	RM
Kalau-Khuzab	ppl	38 28N	070 46E	56,8M
Kalau-Khuzab	oilf	45 11N	052 07E	21
Kalau	ppl	56 52N	035 55E	56,79,8M
Kalau	mucp	NA	NA	52,67
Kalau	ppl	54 43N	020 30E	56,79,8M
Kalininskaya Oblast'	admnd	54 63N	021 30E	79
Kalininskaya Oblast'	admnd	57 00N	035 00E	79
Kalmykovo	ppl	49 02N	051 50E	56,59,8M
Kalmykovo ASSR	admnd	40 30N	045 30E	79
Kalmykovo	ppl	54 31N	036 16E	56,79,8M
Kaluzhskaya Oblast'	ppl	49 01N	034 22E	RM
Kaluzhskaya Oblast'	admnd	54 30N	035 30E	79
Kama	stm	55 25N	050 40E	20,50,51,67,8M
Kama	stm	56 15N	162 30E	RM
Kamchatkaya Oblast'	pen	56 00N	160 00E	64,8M
Kamchatka Peninsula	admnd	55 00N	160 00E	79
Kamchatka Peninsula	ppl	53 47N	081 30E	RM
Kamen'-Rybolov	ppl	44 45N	132 04E	57,8M
Kamenets-Podolskiy	ppl	48 40N	026 24E	RM
Kamenka	ppl	58 33N	095 51E	RM
Kamennoye	oilf	61 03N	056 31E	20
Kamennoye	oilf	61 13N	067 20E	16
Kamensk-Ural'skiy	ppl	56 25N	061 54E	RM
Kamshoye Vodokhranilishche	rcsv	58 52N	056 15E	20
Kamyshtzha	ppl	50 06N	045 24E	56,8M
Kan	stm	38 16N	054 07E	21
Kan	stm	56 31N	093 07E	60
Kandy	oilf	54 42N	054 15E	20
Kandym	gasf	39 27N	063 31E	21,66
Kanis, Puloostrov	pen	68 00N	045 00E	RM
Kansk	ppl	56 13N	095 41E	57,60,8M
Kansk-Achinsk coal basin	coal	56 30N	093 00E	34,35,36,37,38,40,41,60

K (continued)				
Kaspiy	gasf	42 45N	054 30E	21
Kapchagay	ppl	43 50N	077 05E	RM
Kapshin Yar	ppl	48 34N	045 45E	RM
Kara Sea	sea	76 00N	080 00E	RM
Kara-Balta uranium processing center	u/r	NA	NA	42,43
Kara-Baly	ppl	42 50N	073 52E	RM
Kara-Bogaz-Gol, Zaliv	gulf	41 00N	053 15E	RM
Karabagly	oilf	46 10N	053 23E	21
Karabagly	oilf	39 22N	049 05E	21
Karabagly	gasf	36 09N	062 46E	21
Karabulak	ppl	58 02N	097 27E	RM
Karabulak	oilf	43 12N	044 35E	21
Karabulak	ppl	49 59N	060 14E	56,8M
Karabulak	oilf	55 16N	055 09E	20
Karacha-Yelga	gasf	51 16N	053 27E	40,23
Karachaganak	admnd	44 00N	042 00E	79
Karachayvo-Cherkesskaya AO	gasf	35 20N	062 28E	21
Karadag	oilf	40 10N	049 33E	21
Karadag	ppl	49 50N	071 00E	56,79,8M
Karaganda coal basin	coal	49 45N	073 00E	79
Karagandinskaya Oblast'	admnd	48 00N	070 00E	79
Karagandy	ppl	49 22N	075 58E	56,8M
Karagandy	isls	38 50N	164 00E	RM
Karagandy Ostrov	admnd	43 00N	039 00E	79
Karakalpakskaya ASSR	gasf	39 03N	065 35E	RM
Karakum Desert	det	39 00N	060 00E	RM
Karakumskiy Kanal	can	37 35N	065 43E	RM
Karashaganak	oilf	63 37N	074 37E	16
Karashaganak	ppl	51 37N	053 25E	RM
Karatal	ppl	53 44N	078 02E	56,8M
Karatal	stm	46 26N	077 10E	RM
Karatal	oilf	46 25N	053 20E	21
Karatal	ppl	48 02N	070 49E	56,8M
Karabuzba	oilf	45 00N	051 35E	21

Name	Feature	Latitude	Longitude	Page	Name	Feature	Latitude	Longitude	Page
K (continued)					K (continued)				
Karelskaya ASSR	adm	64 00N	032 30E	79	Kizyl-Arvat	ppl	38 58N	056 15E	56, RM
Karjala	oil	54 37N	054 45E	20	Klaipeda	ppl	55 43N	021 07E	56, RM
Karjala	ppl	49 26N	075 30E	RM	Klia	ppl	56 20N	036 44E	RM
Karjala	ppl	56 14N	054 33E	RM	Kli	ppl	52 45N	032 14E	RM
Karmanovo	thep	NA	NA	49, 67	Klitskiy	oil	59 03N	077 29E	16
Karpinak	ppl	59 45N	060 01E	RM	Kokchetavskaya	ppl	54 20N	080 29E	57, RM
Karapogoy	ppl	43 59N	044 27E	RM	Kodinsk	ppl	58 40N	099 12E	56, RM
Karskaya	ppl	47 50N	066 45E	RM	Kogalym	ppl	62 24N	074 24E	16
Karskiye Vorota, Prov	str	38 53N	065 48E	56, 79, RM	Kokhla-Jilve	ppl	59 24N	027 15E	44, 63, RM
Kartaly	ppl	53 03N	069 40E	RM	Kokchetav coal deposit	coal	41 00N	073 19E	34
Kartashevka	oil	54 27N	056 31E	20	Kokland	ppl	40 30N	070 57E	RM
Kartop'ya	ppl	51 37N	114 21E	57, RM	Kokchetav	ppl	53 17N	069 30E	55, 56, 79, RM
Karymskoye	ppl	54 51N	038 10E	RM	Kokchetavskaya Oblast'	adm	53 00N	070 00E	79
Kashira	thep	NA	NA	49, 67	Kokshetay	ppl	48 45N	082 24E	56, RM
Kashkadar'staya Oblast'	adm	52 44N	049 20E	44	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	47 30N	070 54E	RM
Kashgrovka oil shale deposit	ppl	54 56N	041 24E	RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	o/t	NA	NA	42, 43
Kashino	oil	45 13N	047 15E	21	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 32N	081 39E	RM
Katagali	ppl	51 42N	143 14E	62, RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	34
Kataifin	ppl	49 25N	034 01E	56, RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	52, 67
Kattalvarga	stm	52 25N	085 00E	RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Kat'ya	oil	59 18N	077 08E	16	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Kaunas	ppl	54 54N	023 02E	RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Kavalerovo	ppl	44 14N	115 05E	57, RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Kayak coal deposit	oil	41 57N	048 12E	21	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Kayama	ppl	44 19N	045 00E	64, RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Kazanka	adm	48 00N	058 00E	20, 21, 22, 79	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Kazakh SSR	res	49 00N	072 00E	RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Kazakh Upland	res	48 00N	068 00E	79	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Kazakhstan Economic Region	ppl	55 45N	049 08E	20, 32, 56, 79, RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Kazant	oil	40 27N	046 19E	21	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Kazanbulak	oil	56 17N	056 22E	20	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Kazanchi	gasf	69 47N	081 18E	16	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Kazantsevo	ppl	37 21N	066 18E	21, RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Kelif	ppl	55 20N	086 05E	60, 79, RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Kemerovo	coal	55 30N	087 00E	34	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Kemerovo coal deposit	adm	55 00N	086 00E	79	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Kemerovskaya Oblast'	ppl	42 02N	118 37E	RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Kempedzoy	oil	47 15N	084 15E	44	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Kenderlyk oil shale deposit	ppl	43 32N	068 36E	56, RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Kenta	ppl	45 21N	036 28E	56, RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Kerch	ppl	37 50N	065 12E	56, RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Kerki	ppl	37 51N	065 14E	56, RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Kerkichi	stm	58 55N	081 32E	60, RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Ket'	ppl	48 30N	135 06E	55, 57, 79, RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khabarovsk	ppl	NA	NA	31, 66	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khabarovsk coal basin	adm	45 43N	135 00E	79	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khabarovsk Krai	ppl	41 28N	048 48E	56, RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khadzha	adm	53 00N	090 00E	79	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khadzhaskaya AO	ppl	67 58N	064 50E	16, RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khal'mer-Ya	ppl	63 43N	122 39E	RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khamra	ppl	49 25N	071 30E	RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khamza	ppl	NA	NA	31, 66	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzhaskiy	ppl	50 44N	092 03E	RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	ppl	62 40N	133 36E	RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	lake	45 00N	132 24E	58	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	hydp	61 00N	069 06E	RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	adm	62 00N	072 00E	17, 79	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	ppl	49 42N	112 24E	RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	ppl	50 00N	036 15E	79	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	ppl	49 30N	034 10E	79	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	ppl	67 10N	056 21E	20	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	thep	NA	NA	49, 67	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	coal	50 15N	117 00E	24	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	gasf	47 15N	064 32E	15, 16, 17, 23, 66	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	ppl	42 25N	130 40E	57, RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	ppl	43 15N	046 30E	RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	ppl	71 58N	102 30E	59, RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	stm	75 55N	106 00E	24	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	oil	43 15N	045 47E	51, RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	oil	46 38N	032 36E	32, 56, 79, RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	ppl	NA	NA	31, 66	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	adm	46 30N	034 00E	79	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	ppl	41 24N	060 22E	21, 32, RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	ppl	49 30N	027 00E	79	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	adm	49 25N	027 00E	79, RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	ppl	NA	NA	52, 67	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	oil	62 01N	079 28E	16	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	ppl	51 53N	116 15E	51, RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	oil	63 06N	074 18E	16, 66	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	ppl	47 03N	142 03E	57, RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	ppl	66 27N	143 06E	RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	stm	49 36N	042 19E	RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	ppl	47 30N	060 30E	79	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	adm	50 17N	058 27E	56, RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	ppl	50 26N	030 31E	55, 56, 59, 79, RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	ppl	53 14N	050 39E	56, RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	ppl	57 28N	042 07E	56, RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	oil	53 27N	058 10E	20	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	ppl	57 46N	108 08E	RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	adm	41 00N	075 00E	79	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	ppl	59 27N	032 02E	32, RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	thep	NA	NA	49, 67	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	ppl	58 33N	049 42E	55, 56, 79, RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	ppl	54 05N	034 20E	RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	ppl	40 41N	046 22E	RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	ppl	40 48N	044 30E	RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	ppl	58 13N	050 01E	RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	ppl	48 30N	032 18E	56, 79, RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	adm	48 30N	032 00E	79	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	ppl	67 37N	053 40E	79	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	adm	58 00N	050 00E	79	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	ppl	39 46N	061 14E	21, 66	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	ppl	54 00N	086 39E	RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	ppl	47 00N	028 50E	79, RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	bay	69 22N	033 04E	63	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	ppl	43 55N	042 43E	56, RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	stm	59 31N	026 57E	44, RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	ppl	56 52N	086 39E	60	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	oil	57 18N	053 20E	20	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	adm	50 15N	030 30E	79	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	ppl	59 03N	057 40E	56, RM	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	coal	58 30N	058 00E	34	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM
Khandzha	coal	59 02N	057 49E	34	Kokshetavskaya Oblast'	ppl	45 30N	081 39E	RM

Name	Feature	Latitude	Longitude	Page
K (continued)				
Kameriau coal deposit	coal	52 43N	055 39E	34
Kan'ya	stm	56 31N	038 12E	50,67
Kanashir, Ostrov	isl	44 10N	146 00E	RM
Kamergé	ppl	43 02N	058 49E	21,56, RM
Kangur	ppl	57 19N	056 49E	RM
Kaoyta tar sands deposit	tar	69 38N	121 22E	45
Kapino	ppl	54 22N	077 18E	RM
Kapyansk	ppl	49 42N	037 38E	RM
Kar'ya	gasf	61 46N	057 33E	20
Kara	stm	39 24N	049 19E	21,50,51, RM
Karakhovo	ppl	47 59N	037 16E	RM
Karakhovo	thep	NA	NA	49,67
Karoyta	stm	66 30N	087 12E	RM
Karuzha	ppl	55 26N	065 18E	56,79, RM
Kurgan-Tyube	ppl	37 50N	068 47E	79, RM
Kurgan-Tyubinskaya Oblast'	adm	37 40N	068 40E	79
Kurganskaya Oblast'	adm	55 30N	064 00E	79
Kuril Islands	isls	46 10N	152 00E	RM
Kurik	ppl	51 42N	036 12E	56,58,59,79, RM
Kurk	nsep	NA	NA	52,67
Kurkaya Oblast'	adm	51 30N	036 00E	79
Kushka	ppl	35 16N	062 20E	21,56, RM
Kushkat'	oilf	55 28N	056 13E	20
Kushkura coal deposit	coal	52 30N	065 00E	34
Kustanay	ppl	53 10N	063 35E	55,56,79, RM
Kustanayskaya Oblast'	adm	51 00N	064 00E	79
Kutaisi	ppl	42 15N	042 40E	RM
Kuybyshev	ppl	55 27N	078 19E	RM
Kuybyshev	ppl	53 12N	050 09E	20,27,32,55,56, 59,79, RM
Kuybyshevskaya Oblast'	adm	53 00N	050 00E	20,79
Kuybyshevskoye Vodokhranilishche	resv	53 40N	049 00E	20
Kyzylzhik	gasf	39 03N	054 42E	21
Kyzylzhik	oilf	56 24N	055 38E	20
Kzylbayev	oilf	56 03N	055 10E	20
Kazetski	ppl	53 07N	046 36E	RM
Kazetski coal basin	coal	54 30N	087 00E	34,35,36,37,38, 40,41,60
Kyabta	oilf	50 20N	106 30E	57, RM
Kyrtayev	ppl	63 53N	054 48E	20
Kyzyl-Syr	ppl	63 53N	122 46E	RM
Kyurdamir	ppl	40 21N	048 11E	56, RM
Kyurovdag	oilf	39 35N	049 04E	21
Kyurovdag	oilf	39 27N	049 16E	21
Kyzyl	ppl	51 42N	094 27E	57,79, RM
Kyzyl coal deposit	coal	51 28N	094 44E	34
Kyzyl-Dzhar uranium deposit	u/r	NA	NA	42,43
Kyzyl-Kiya coal deposit	coal	40 16N	072 15E	34
Kyzyl-Kiya	gasf	39 11N	054 32E	21
Kyzylman Desert	des	42 00N	064 00E	RM
Kyzyliak coal deposit	coal	51 30N	065 30E	34
Kyyl-Onda	ppl	44 48N	065 28E	56,79, RM
Kyyl-Ondsanskaya Oblast'	adm	45 00N	065 00E	79
L				
L'vov	ppl	49 50N	024 00E	55,56,79, RM
L'vov	petr	NA	NA	31,66
L'vov-Volya' coal basin	coal	50 30N	024 30E	34
L'vovskaya Oblast'	adm	50 00N	024 00E	79
La Perouse Strait	str	45 45N	142 00E	RM
Labytangi	ppl	66 39N	066 21E	16,17,18, RM
Ladoga, Lake	lake	61 00N	031 30E	RM
Ladzhzia	thep	48 40N	029 15E	RM
Ladzhzia	thep	NA	NA	49,67
Lagodskii	ppl	43 49N	046 16E	56, RM
Lake Omega uranium deposit	u/r	NA	NA	42,43
Lam	gasf	39 12N	052 31E	21
Lanepes	ppl	61 13N	075 17E	16, RM
Laptev Sea	sea	74 00N	126 00E	RM
Latvian SSR	adm	57 00N	025 00E	79
Layavozh	gasf	67 44N	054 51E	20,66
Lazarev	ppl	52 13N	142 32E	RM
Lodovoye	oilf	59 51N	076 34E	16
Lom'ya	oilf	64 15N	051 22E	20
Lem'ya	oilf	60 57N	063 12E	16
Lena	stm	72 25N	126 40E	RM
Lena coal basin	coal	63 00N	123 00E	34,35,40
Lena Plateau	upld	60 45N	125 00E	RM
Lena-Tunguska oil and gas region	oil	60 45N	107 00E	42,43
Leningrad	ppl	40 17N	069 37E	79, RM
Leningradskaya Oblast'	adm	40 00N	069 10E	79
Leningrad	ppl	40 48N	043 50E	56, RM
Leningrad	ppl	59 55N	030 15E	32,55,56,59,79, RM
Leningrad	nsep	NA	NA	52,53,67
Leningrad oil shale field	oil	59 01N	029 11E	44
Leningradskaya Oblast'	adm	60 00N	032 00E	79
Leningorsk	ppl	54 36N	052 30E	RM
Leningorsk	ppl	50 22N	083 32E	56, RM
Leningrad (Tyuratam)	ppl	45 40N	063 20E	56, RM
Leningrad-Kazetskiy	ppl	54 38N	086 10E	60, RM
Leningrad-Kazetskiy coal deposit	coal	54 45N	086 00E	34
Leningrskoye	ppl	47 45N	132 38E	57, RM
Lenk	thep	60 43N	114 55E	37,58,59, RM
Lermontov	ppl	44 06N	042 57E	RM
Lermontov uranium deposit/processing center	u/r	NA	NA	42,43
Lesosibirsk	ppl	58 20N	092 20E	57,60, RM
Lesosibirsk	ppl	45 24N	133 27E	57, RM
Lida	ppl	53 53N	025 18E	RM
Liepaja	ppl	56 31N	021 01E	56, RM
Lipetsk	ppl	52 37N	039 35E	56,79, RM
Lipetskaya Oblast'	adm	52 30N	039 00E	79
Lisakovsk	ppl	52 39N	062 45E	56, RM
Lisichansk	ppl	48 55N	038 26E	RM
Lisichansk	petr	NA	NA	31,66
Listvenska	oilf	57 08N	053 36E	20
Listvyanka	ppl	51 52N	104 51E	RM
Lituanian	thep	NA	NA	49,67
Lithuanian SSR	adm	56 00N	024 00E	79
Little BAM	rr	56 30N	124 50E	11
Livnaya	gasf	39 41N	051 58E	21
Lobanovo	oilf	57 45N	056 13E	20
Lodovoye Pole	ppl	60 44N	033 33E	56, RM
Lokosovo	oilf	61 11N	075 06E	16
Lomovoye	oilf	59 34N	077 09E	16
Longa, Froliv	stri	70 20N	178 00E	RM
Lovozero	ppl	68 00N	035 00E	RM
Lovozero Tundra uranium/thorium deposit	u/r	NA	NA	42,43
Lower Kama	hydr	NA	NA	50,67
Lower Kama-1 Heat and Power	thep	NA	NA	49,67
Luchegorsk	ppl	46 29N	134 12E	57, RM
Luga	ppl	58 44N	029 52E	RM

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L (continued)				
Lugovoy	ppl	42 56N	072 45E	RM
Lukoml'	ppl	54 42N	029 09E	RM
Lukoml'	dep	NA	NA	44,49,67
Lunbovskiy Zaliv	gasf	67 48N	040 27E	63
Lutsk	ppl	50 45N	023 20E	56,79, RM
Luz	ppl	60 39N	047 10E	56, RM
Luz	oilf	65 00N	055 33E	20
Lyantov	oilf	61 36N	072 01E	16
M				
Magadan	ppl	59 34N	150 48E	57,59,79, RM
Magadanaya Oblast'	adm	65 00N	160 00E	79
Magistogorsk	ppl	53 27N	059 04E	56, RM
Magy	ppl	53 15N	140 13E	RM
Makarika	oilf	66 34N	058 17E	20
Makarov coal region	coal	49 00N	143 00E	34
Makart	ppl	47 39N	053 19E	21, RM
Makayevka	ppl	48 02N	037 53E	RM
Makhachkala	ppl	42 58N	047 30E	56,79, RM
Makhachkala	gasf	42 46N	047 31E	21
Makinsk	ppl	52 37N	070 26E	56, RM
Makushino	ppl	55 13N	067 13E	56, RM
Makushino	ppl	49 42N	112 40E	21
Malocherogorsk	oilf	61 10N	077 17E	16
Malocherskiy	oilf	60 33N	077 08E	16
Maloyamal	gasf	68 20N	071 49E	16
Mama	ppl	38 18N	112 54E	57, RM
Mama	ppl	57 48N	114 01E	56, RM
Mamonovo	ppl	60 46N	072 47E	16,17, RM
Mamonovo	oilf	60 39N	072 37E	16,22,66
Mama	stm	55 57N	092 28E	60
Mancharovo	oilf	55 24N	054 28E	20
Mancharovo	ppl	49 42N	112 40E	21
Manzhyk Pinnacles	ppl	44 18N	051 00E	21, RM
Manzhyk Pinnacles	adm	44 00N	054 00E	79
Manzhyk Pinnacles	ppl	53 30N	106 04E	RM
Manzhyk Pinnacles	ppl	40 27N	071 42E	RM
Manzhyk Pinnacles ASSR	adm	46 30N	048 00E	79
Mayla	stm	63 28N	118 50E	RM
Markov	ppl	64 40N	170 25E	RM
Martynov	oilf	47 11N	050 44E	21
Mary	ppl	37 36N	061 50E	21,32,55,56,79, RM
Mary	thep	NA	NA	48,49,67
Maryskaya Oblast'	adm	37 00N	062 30E	79
Maryskaya Oblast'	oilf	60 08N	076 57E	16
Maryskaya Oblast'	stm	60 24N	134 30E	RM
Mayak	oilf	57 25N	055 40E	20
Mayak	ppl	44 35N	040 10E	56, RM
Mayak	oilf	59 00N	055 58E	20
Mayak coal deposit	coal	50 45N	076 00E	34
Mayak	ppl	53 00N	091 28E	RM
Mayak	gasf	37 20N	062 05E	21
Mateikiai	ppl	56 19N	022 20E	RM
Mateikiai	petr	NA	NA	31,66
Mecherchensk	isls	70 52N	161 26E	RM
Mecherchensk	gasf	66 08N	074 09E	15,16,17,18, 23,66
Mezhen	ppl	61 03N	076 06E	16,17,19, RM
Mezhen	oilf	60 58N	076 20E	16,66
Mezhen	oilf	64 50N	053 22E	RM
Mezhenyakh	gasf	68 59N	082 58E	16,32,59
Mezen'	ppl	65 50N	044 16E	RM
Mezha	stm	66 11N	043 59E	20, RM
Mezhenkaya Guba	bay	66 40N	49 43E	63
Mecherchensk	ppl	53 42N	058 03E	RM
Mecherchensk	ppl	59 36N	065 56E	16, RM
Mezha	ppl	54 59N	060 06E	RM
Michaps	oilf	64 00N	055 47E	20
Mikhomirsk	ppl	62 54N	040 30E	56, RM
Middle Volga power system	reg	54 00N	048 00E	46,55
Mikhaylovsk	ppl	50 04N	043 15E	RM
Mikhaylovskiy	ppl	51 49N	079 45E	RM
Mikhailovskiy	ppl	55 22N	120 06E	56, RM
Mis-Kash	ppl	41 41N	074 28E	RM
Mis-Kash uranium deposit/processing center	u/r	NA	NA	42,43
Mingchaur	ppl	40 45N	047 03E	RM
Minsk	ppl	53 54N	027 34E	55,56,79, RM
Minsk ATET	nsep	NA	NA	42,43
Minskaya Oblast'	adm	54 00N	028 00E	79
Minsk	ppl	53 43N	091 42E	RM
Minsk coal basin	coal	53 30N	091 15E	34
Mirny	oilf	40 12N	046 52E	21
Mirny	ppl	62 33N	113 53E	57,58,59, RM
Mirzani	oilf	41 19N	046 05E	21
Mishkino	oilf	57 08N	054 03E	20
Mishovdag	oilf	39 48N	049 11E	21
Modar	gasf	39 24N	057 55E	21
Mogil'ev	ppl	53 42N	030 21E	56,79, RM
Mogil'evskaya Oblast'	adm	54 00N	030 45E	79
Mogoyto	ppl	54 25N	110 27E	RM
Moldavian	thep	NA	NA	49,67
Moldavian SSR	adm	47 00N	029 00E	79
Moldochao	ppl	54 19N	026 51E	RM
Moldochao	ppl	67 56N	032 58E	RM
Mondy	ppl	51 40N	100 59E	RM
Mordovskaya ASSR	adm	54 30N	044 00E	79
Morozovsk	ppl	48 23N	041 51E	56, RM
Morskansk	ppl	53 26N	041 49E	RM
Mortym'ya-Teterov	oilf	60 33N	064 38E	16
Moscow	ppl	55 45N	037 35E	32,55,56,59,79, RM
Moscow coal basin	coal	54 30N	036 00E	34,35,36,37,40
Moskafvo	ppl	53 35N	142 30E	11, RM
Moskovskaya Oblast'	adm	55 45N	037 30E	79
Moskva	stm	55 05N	038 51E	RM
Moskva (Moscow) Liberty	petr	NA	NA	31,66
Mosryy	ppl	47 14N	073 20E	RM
Mozdok	ppl	43 44N	044 40E	56, RM
Mozyr'	ppl	52 03N	029 16E	RM
Mozyr'	petr	NA	NA	31,66
Mubark	ppl	39 12N	065 10E	21, RM
Mubark	gasf	58 29N	065 28E	16
Mugan coal deposit	coal	54 00N	100 30E	34
Mukachevo	ppl	48 27N	022 43E	56,64, RM
Mukachovo	oilf	53 21N	051 24E	20,66
Mukachovo	oilf	60 06N	073 14E	16
Mul'mya	oilf	60 15N	064 37E	16
Muna	stm	67 52N	123 06E	RM
Muna tar sands deposit	tar	67 07N	122 27E	45
Munalyk	oilf	46 45N	054 49E	21

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M (continued)				
Mardakhanly	oilf	39 46N	047 51E	21
Margab	stm	38 18N	061 12E	RM
Murmansk	gpl	68 58N	031 05E	55,56,59,79,8M
Murmanskaya Oblast'	admnd	68 00N	034 00E	79
Muron	ppl	55 34N	042 02E	RM
Musini	oilf	53 04N	055 45E	20
Mutnovskaya Sotka	voie	52 27N	158 11E	64,8M
Myasnikun Desert	dst	64 20N	070 00E	RM
Myr Shmitsa	ppl	68 56N	179 27W	RM
Mysovoye	ppl	45 27N	035 50E	62,8M
N				
Nadvornaya	ppl	48 38N	024 34E	RM
Nadvornaya	petr	NA	NA	31,66,8M
Nadyin	ppl	65 32N	072 32E	16,17,19,32,59,79
Nadyin	stm	66 12N	072 00E	RM
Nadyin	gasf	65 36N	073 00E	16,19,8M
Nafalaa	oilf	40 23N	046 38E	21
Nagorno-Karabakhskaya AD	admnd	40 00N	046 35E	79
Naganskoye	gasf	51 00N	055 02E	20
Naip	gasf	40 42N	061 31E	21,66
Nakhichevan	ppl	40 20N	045 24E	56,79,8M
Nakhichevanskaya ASSR	admnd	39 15N	045 30E	79
Nakhodka	ppl	42 48N	132 52E	57,8M
Nakhodka	gasf	68 04N	077 59E	16,66
Naf'chik	ppl	43 20N	043 57E	79,8M
Namangan	ppl	41 00N	071 40E	56,79,8M
Namangan'skaya Oblast'	admnd	41 00N	071 30E	79
Namty	ppl	62 43N	129 37E	RM
Naryn-Mar	ppl	67 39N	053 00E	20,8M
Narya	ppl	59 23N	028 12E	44,8M
Narya	ppl	41 26N	073 58E	56,79,8M
Narya	ppl	38 17N	068 55E	RM
Narya	stm	41 08N	072 05E	50,51,67,8M
Narynkol	ppl	42 43N	080 12E	RM
Narynkol'skaya Oblast'	admnd	41 30N	075 30E	79
Natanbik tar sands deposit	tars	42 44N	042 39E	45
Naugrazan uranium deposit	u/1	NA	NA	42,43
Naushki	ppl	50 22N	106 07E	RM
Navoi	ppl	40 09N	065 22E	56,79,8M
Navoi	thep	NA	NA	49,67
Naryn'skaya Oblast'	admnd	62 00N	064 30E	79
Nazarovo	ppl	56 01N	090 26E	57,60,8M
Nazarovo	thep	NA	NA	49,67
Nazarovo coal deposit	coal	55 50N	090 30E	34
Nebit-Dag	ppl	39 38N	054 22E	32,56,8M
Nebit-Dag	oilf	39 06N	054 18E	21,66
Nebit-Dag tar sands deposit	tars	40 23N	053 57E	45
Neftechala	oilf	39 06N	049 09E	21
Neftekumsk	ppl	56 05N	054 16E	RM
Neftekumsk	oilf	44 20N	044 37E	21
Nefteysugsk	ppl	61 05N	072 42E	16,17,19,8M
Nefteyevsk	petr	NA	NA	31,66
Neflyaynskaia	oilf	40 06N	050 43E	21,66
Nefudovo	ppl	56 13N	032 46E	56,8M
Nefudovo coal basin	coal	56 15N	033 04E	34
Neman	stm	51 15N	031 23E	50,67
Nemetskiy ADK	admnd	67 30N	054 00E	20,79
Nesozka	ppl	64 38N	039 11E	RM
Neryungri	ppl	56 41N	124 39E	11,57,59,8M
Neryungri	thep	NA	NA	11,59
Neryungri coal deposit	coal	56 40N	124 13E	11,54
Never	ppl	53 59N	124 10E	11,57,8M
Nevisonoyak	ppl	44 38N	041 57E	RM
Nevisonoyak	thep	NA	NA	49,67
New Siberian Islands	isls	75 00N	142 00E	RM
Neyto	ppl	62 01N	070 08E	16,66
Nezhik	ppl	51 03N	031 53E	56,8M
Nikol'	ppl	69 24N	030 12E	56,8M
Nikol'skiy	ppl	47 58N	067 33E	RM
Nikol'skoye	oilf	52 52N	053 05E	20
Nikol'yev	ppl	46 42N	032 02E	56,79,8M
Nikol'yevsk	ppl	53 08N	140 44E	57,8M
Nikol'yevskaya Oblast'	admnd	47 15N	032 00E	79
Nikol'yevskoye	oilf	44 56N	041 34E	21
Nikopst'	ppl	47 24N	034 24E	RM
Nizhny agarak	ppl	55 47N	109 33E	57,8M
Nizhnekamsk	ppl	55 36N	051 47E	RM
Nizhnekamsk	petr	NA	NA	31,66
Nizhnoomur	oilf	62 38N	056 20E	20
Nizhnoomur	oilf	62 39N	070 57E	16
Nizhnedinsk	ppl	54 54N	059 03E	57,8M
Nizhnevartovsk	ppl	60 56N	076 38E	16,17,18,19,31,32,56,8M
Nizhnyansk	ppl	71 26N	136 04E	RM
Nizhny Bystyakh	ppl	61 38N	129 56E	RM
Nizhny Tagil	ppl	57 55N	059 57E	RM
Nizhnyaya Poyra	stm	56 11N	097 13E	60,8M
Nizhnyaya Tunguska	stm	65 48N	088 04E	RM
Nizhnyaya Tura	ppl	58 37N	059 49E	32,8M
Noginsk	ppl	55 51N	038 27E	RM
Noelink	ppl	64 32N	091 10E	RM
Nori'k	ppl	69 20N	088 06E	16,32,57,58,59,8M
Nori'k coal deposit	coal	68 45N	087 30E	34
Norik	oilf	41 57N	044 45E	21
North Caspian oil and gas region	reg	57 00N	054 05E	14,21,25,32
North Caucasus oil and gas region	reg	45 00N	045 00E	14,15,21,22,23,32
North Caucasus power system	reg	46 00N	043 00E	46,55
North Caucasus Economic Region	reg	45 00N	042 00E	79
North Kazakhstan power system	reg	50 00N	073 00E	46,55
North Siberian Lowland	pln	72 00N	104 00E	RM
Northern Economic Region	reg	64 00N	045 00E	79
Northern Hills	hills	59 30N	049 00E	RM
Northern Lights pipeline	pipe	57 00N	035 00E	10,20
Northwest power system	reg	59 00N	031 00E	46,55
Northwest Economic Region	reg	59 00N	031 00E	79
Novaya Sibir', Ostrov	isl	75 00N	149 00E	RM
Novaya Zemlya	isls	74 00N	057 00E	RM
Novgorod	ppl	58 31N	031 17E	56,79,8M
Novokudayskaya Oblast'	admnd	58 30N	032 30E	79
Novokurovo	ppl	46 22N	143 22E	RM
Novo-Angren	thep	NA	NA	49,67
Novonizhny	ppl	61 57N	076 41E	16,17,8M
Novosadovsk	ppl	53 24N	083 55E	RM
Novosadovsk	oilf	53 27N	053 15E	20
Novocherkassk	ppl	58 08N	047 30E	RM
Novocherkassk	ppl	47 25N	040 06E	49,67
Novocherkassk	thep	NA	NA	49,67
Novogorodny	ppl	55 37N	060 47E	RM
Novogorodny uranium deposit	u/1	NA	NA	42,43

Name	Feature	Latitude	Longitude	Page
N (continued)				
Novokudayskaya	oilf	54 43N	056 24E	20
Novokuznetsk	ppl	45 50N	062 10E	RM
Novokuznetskiy Ural	ppl	51 40N	128 57E	57,8M
Novokuznetskiy	ppl	53 07N	049 58E	RM
Novokuznetskiy Land Lease 3	petr	NA	NA	31,66
Novokuznetskiy No. 2	petr	NA	NA	31,66
Novokuznetsk	ppl	53 45N	087 06E	32,55,56,8M
Novokuznetsk	ppl	54 05N	038 15E	RM
Novokuznetskiy	ppl	50 58N	042 22E	56,8M
Novopolotsk	ppl	55 32N	028 39E	RM
Novopolotsk	petr	NA	NA	31,66
Novopolotsk	ppl	49 33N	039 05E	32,8M
Novopolotsk	ppl	44 43N	037 47E	32,56,62,8M
Novosibirsk	ppl	47 47N	039 56E	RM
Novosibirsk	ppl	55 02N	082 55E	18,32,55,56,59,79
Novosibirskaya Oblast'	admnd	55 00N	080 00E	79
Novotroitsk	ppl	51 12N	058 20E	RM
Novovoronezhskiy coal deposit	coal	50 42N	024 13E	34
Novovoronezhskiy	ppl	51 19N	039 15E	RM
Novovoronezhskiy	ntcep	NA	NA	52,67
Novozybkovo	oilf	54 59N	052 02E	20,66
Noryn Port	ppl	67 40N	072 52E	16,59,8M
Noryn Port	gasf	67 53N	072 21E	16,66
Noryn Urengoy	ppl	64 05N	076 42E	16,17,18,19,32,55,56,59,8M
Novyy Uzza'	ppl	43 18N	052 48E	56,8M
Novaya'ik	ppl	63 08N	075 22E	16,17,8M
Novozhukovka	oilf	57 09N	054 49E	20
Novykh	ppl	42 25N	059 38E	56,79,8M
Nurek	stm	38 23N	069 29E	RM
Nurek	hydp	NA	NA	50,51,67
Nurkat	oilf	54 37N	050 54E	20
Nurmat	gasf	69 02N	071 41E	16
Nurmits	ppl	52 09N	065 27E	16,8M
Nurysk	gasf	63 16N	054 15E	RM
Nyamed	ppl	61 40N	040 12E	RM
Nyandama	ppl	66 36N	072 54E	16,19,8M
Nyda	gasf	66 37N	071 49E	16,66
Nyda	ppl	51 33N	140 38E	RM
Nyush	stm	56 35N	121 36E	RM
Nyuzha	ppl	63 17N	118 20E	RM
Nyurba	stm	60 32N	116 14E	RM
Nyura	stm	60 32N	116 14E	RM
O				
Ob'	stm	66 45N	069 30E	16,19,60,8M
Obinsk	ppl	55 05N	036 37E	RM
Obinsk	ntcep	NA	NA	67
Obinsk	ppl	63 29N	040 19E	RM
Obshchyy Syrt oil shale deposit	oilf	51 40N	055 53E	44
Obukaya Guba	bay	69 00N	073 00E	16,8M
Odessa	ppl	46 28N	030 44E	32,53,56,79,8M
Odessa	petr	NA	NA	31,66
Odessa	ntcep	NA	NA	52,67
Odesskaya Oblast'	admnd	47 00N	030 00E	79
Odopys	oilf	53 20N	143 49E	11
Oka	stm	56 42N	031 05E	RM
Oka-Don Plain	pla	53 00N	040 30E	RM
Oksarim	oilf	53 53N	053 57E	21
Okha	ppl	51 34N	142 56E	31,32,57,59,8M
Okhotsk	ppl	59 23N	143 18E	RM
Okhotsk coal area	coal	59 45N	147 00E	34
Okhotsk, Sea of	sea	55 00N	150 00E	11,8M
Oktyabr'skiy	ppl	49 28N	057 25E	RM
Oktyabr'skiy	ppl	53 10N	048 42E	RM
Oktyabr'skiy	ppl	52 40N	156 14E	RM
Oktyabr'skiy	ppl	39 06N	066 49E	RM
Oktyabr'skiy	ppl	54 28N	053 28E	RM
Oktyabr'skiy	ppl	53 01N	128 37E	57,8M
Oktyabr'skiy	ppl	79 30N	097 00E	RM
Oktyabr'skiy Revolyutsii, Ostrov	ppl	62 28N	066 01E	RM
Ol'oy	stm	53 33N	123 21E	11
Olga	ppl	43 45N	135 18E	57,8M
Olesovannaya	oilf	58 41N	056 41E	20
Olekma	stm	60 22N	120 42E	11,8M
Olekminsk	ppl	60 24N	120 24E	RM
Olea'ye	oilf	59 31N	076 30E	16
Olenok	ppl	68 33N	112 18E	RM
Olenok	stm	73 00N	119 55E	RM
Olenok oil shale deposit	tars	71 17N	122 32E	44
Olenokskiy Zaliv	gulf	73 20N	121 00E	RM
Oleynikov	oilf	45 31N	046 30E	21
Olyannaya	ppl	50 56N	115 35E	RM
Oloy	stm	66 29N	159 29E	RM
Oloy	stm	60 15N	170 15E	RM
Olyutorskiy Polostrov	pen	68 42N	158 36E	RM
Omolon	stm	64 45N	159 30E	34
Omolon coal area	coal	65 00N	073 24E	18,32,56,79,8M
Onsk	ppl	55 00N	073 24E	21,66
Onskaya Oblast'	admnd	56 00N	073 00E	79
Omsk	ppl	62 32N	155 48E	57,59,8M
Omsk	coal	62 30N	156 15E	34
Omsk	ppl	63 54N	038 08E	RM
Ongan, Lake	lake	61 30N	035 45E	RM
Onon	stm	51 42N	115 50E	RM
Opyukha coal area	coal	62 00N	173 30E	34
Or'y	oilf	56 06N	054 44E	20
Orsk	ppl	43 90N	044 40E	21,56,79,8M
Orsk	stm	52 55N	026 05E	56,79,8M
Orskburg	ppl	51 45N	055 06E	10,20,32,55,56,79,8M
Orskburg	gasf	51 45N	054 47E	15,20,23,66
Orsk	admnd	52 00N	056 00E	20,79
Orskaya Oblast'	admnd	53 00N	056 15E	79
Orsk	ppl	54 51N	030 26E	RM
Orsk	ppl	51 12N	058 34E	32,56,8M
Orsk 421	petr	NA	NA	31,66
Osa	petr	NA	NA	31,66
Osh	oilf	57 14N	055 25E	20
Osh coal deposit	coal	40 30N	073 00E	34
Oshmarino	ppl	71 47N	082 50E	RM
Oshskaya Oblast'	admnd	40 00N	073 00E	79
Osiniki	ppl	53 17N	087 21E	RM
Ostrov Bulla	oilf	40 04N	049 37E	21,66
Oymyakon	ppl	63 28N	142 49E	RM
Ozer-Seet	oilf	44 29N	044 47E	21
Ozernyy	gasf	70 29N	085 06E	16

Name	Feature	Latitude	Longitude	Page	Name	Feature	Latitude	Longitude	Page
P					R (continued)				
Pakhschi	ppl	60 34N	169 03E	RM	Rafinnyk	thep	NA	NA	47,49,67
Pajano	oilf	61 50N	066 41E	16	Rada	ppl	56 48N	059 57E	RM
Paina	ppl	59 07N	159 5E	57, RM	Riga, Gulf of	ppl	56 57N	024 06E	32,36,79, RM
Palaita	ppl	60 06N	170 45E	RM	Riga	ppl	57 30N	023 35E	RM
Palyaam	stm	38 00N	073 00E	RM	Riqa	ppl	38 47N	069 52E	50, 51, 67
Pamin	mta	55 44N	024 21E	56, RM	Rogon	hydp	NA	NA	RM
Panov	ppl	44 10N	074 30E	16, 17, RM	Rogon	ppl	53 14N	112 46E	17, 20, 22, 66
Panov	ppl	65 51N	155 50E	RM	Rogon	oilf	54 50N	033 28E	RM
Pangoy	oilf	50 55N	158 14E	56, RM	Romanovka	oilf	53 57N	032 52E	RM
Paranushir, Ouzon	ppl	58 24N	024 32E	57, RM	Romanovka	ppl	53 57N	032 52E	45
Paratunka	ppl	52 50N	143 03E	RM	Romanovka	ppl	51 07N	111 02E	RM
Paratunka	ppl	43 07N	133 00E	20	Romanovka	lars	50 12N	038 25E	55, 56, 59, 79, RM
Parosar	coal	43 15N	056 20E	21	Rosak	ppl	57 11N	039 25E	52, 57
Parizansk	oilf	41 09N	046 20E	57, 64, RM	Rosak	admp	NA	NA	042 00E
Parizansk coal basin	oilf	51 28N	156 48E	32, 56, 59, 79, RM	Rosak	admp	51 00N	026 30E	56, 79, RM
Pashaya	ppl	52 18N	074 57E	31, 66	Rosak	admp	50 37N	026 15E	52, 67
Patari	ppl	NA	NA	79	Rosak	admp	NA	NA	RM
Pavlovka	admp	47 00N	076 00E	RM	Rosak	admp	NA	NA	043 47E
Pavlovka	ppl	56 34N	056 06E	20	Rosak	ppl	52 15N	041 47E	RM
Pavlodarskaya Oblast'	oilf	69 33N	057 02E	20, 32, 56, 59, RM	Rosak	ppl	59 38N	041 15E	56, RM
Pavlovskoye	ppl	65 25N	051 02E	20, 50, 51, RM	Rosak	ppl	52 57N	053 07E	RM
Pecheng	ppl	68 13N	054 15E	34, 35, 36, 37, 39, 40	Rosak	ppl	60 00N	080 33E	16, 64
Pechora	stm	67 00N	062 00E	20	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	45
Pechora	coal	65 15N	056 58E	RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pechora coal basin	gasf	70 00N	054 00E	16, 66	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	16, 64
Pechora-Kozh	lake	68 42N	081 53E	RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pechoroye More	gasf	66 55N	033 45E	56, 79, RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Peipus, Lake	ppl	53 13N	045 00E	79	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pelyata	ppl	53 00N	044 30E	79	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Peno	admp	62 28N	165 18E	63, RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Penzhinskaya Oblast'	stm	61 00N	162 00E	RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Penzhinskaya Oblast'	bay	62 58N	065 05E	20, 32, 56, 59, RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Penzhinskaya Oblast'	ppl	58 00N	056 15E	49, 67	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Penzhinskaya Oblast'	thep	NA	NA	31, 66	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pern	admp	29 00N	056 00E	16	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pern	oilf	81 27N	079 30E	RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pern	oilf	48 03N	030 52E	RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Permskaya Oblast'	ppl	46 26N	141 57E	RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Permyak	ppl	59 09N	076 14E	16	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Permyak	ppl	56 54N	059 58E	16, 66	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Permyak	ppl	67 02N	075 21E	56, 79, RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Permyak	gasf	54 52N	069 00E	57, 59, 79, RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Permyak	ppl	53 01N	158 39E	32, RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Petrovsk	ppl	52 19N	045 23E	57, RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Petrovsk	ppl	51 15N	108 30E	56, 79, RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Petrovsk	ppl	61 49N	034 20E	57, 59, RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Petrovsk	ppl	69 42N	170 17E	RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Petrovsk	ppl	36 00N	083 42E	RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Petrovsk	ppl	53 23N	052 18E	20	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Petrovsk	oilf	64 00N	041 54E	56, RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	stm	52 07N	026 07E	11	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	ppl	57 30N	120 03E	RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	iron	62 43N	040 17E	RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	ppl	49 51N	142 49E	RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	ppl	61 36N	090 09E	RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	ppl	61 36N	090 18E	RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	stm	44 25N	131 24E	16, 66	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	ppl	61 42N	101 04E	57, RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	ppl	55 31N	074 59E	20	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	ppl	52 49N	049 39E	20	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	oilf	53 01N	052 47E	57, RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	oilf	61 29N	120 06E	20	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	ppl	58 15N	056 23E	20	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	reg	52 00N	027 00E	RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	ppl	56 26N	060 11E	32, 56, RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	ppl	55 29N	028 47E	79, RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	ppl	49 35N	034 00E	79	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	admp	49 30N	034 00E	16	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	admp	60 07N	078 09E	16	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	oilf	69 38N	178 44E	10, 20, RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	oilf	55 38N	048 21E	20	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	ppl	53 18N	054 04E	RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	stm	66 59N	041 17E	RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	stm	72 54N	106 36E	57, RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	stm	49 13N	143 07E	16	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	ppl	42 39N	130 48E	RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	ppl	61 15N	065 56E	RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	ppl	62 09N	041 40E	16	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	oilf	62 38N	051 51E	16	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	oilf	49 36N	128 41E	16, 29, 66	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	oilf	60 51N	071 47E	20	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	oilf	62 13N	056 30E	57, RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	gasf	50 24N	119 06E	57, RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	ppl	48 24N	035 07E	RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	thep	NA	NA	79	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	thep	50 36N	032 24E	79	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	admp	45 00N	133 00E	RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	admp	46 03N	038 10E	RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	stm	51 10N	030 30E	RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	ppl	44 15N	086 43E	34	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	ppl	67 33N	083 55E	21	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	oilf	52 47N	053 20E	20	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	oilf	45 51N	051 34E	RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	oilf	64 13N	173 18W	56, 79, RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	oilf	42 29N	052 34E	56, 79, RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	ppl	57 50N	028 20E	79	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	admp	57 30N	029 00E	RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	admp	57 30N	048 49E	RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	ppl	52 02N	064 11E	16, 19, RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	gasf	67 31N	077 55E	RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	stm	51 14N	046 59E	16, RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	ppl	73 30N	087 10E	56, RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	ppl	44 01N	043 05E	16, 17, RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
Pibhorka	ppl	60 45N	072 50E	RM	Rosak	admp	66 40N	080 33E	21
R	oilf	53 52N	050 57E	20	R	oilf	58 25N	022 30E	RM
R	oilf	62 06N	077 31E	20	R	ppl	55 09N	033 13E	56, RM
R	oilf	61 52N	057 19E	24, 40	R	oilf	53 15N	033 00E	34
R	oilf	51 30N	128 00E	RM	R	oilf	47 26N	063 33E	21, 66
R	oilf	40 29N	044 46E	49, 67	R	oilf	38 54N	143 00E	11, 14, 23, 37
R	thep	NA	NA	RM	R	oilf	51 00N	143 00E	45
R	thep	NA	NA	RM	R	oilf	52 00N	143 00E	79
R	thep	NA	NA	RM	R	oilf	53 38N	142 30E	79
R	thep	NA	NA	RM	R	oilf	52 00N	035 01E	56, RM
R	thep	NA	NA	RM	R	oilf	51 46N	041 33E	20
R	thep	NA	NA	RM					

Name	Feature	Latitude	Longitude	Page
S (continued)				
Shakhinsk	ppl	49 41N	072 36E	RM
Shakhty	ppl	47 42N	040 13E	RM
Shakhty coal deposit	coal	47 37N	040 22E	34
Shantarskiy Ostrov	isla	55 00N	137 36E	RM
Shapkins	oilf	67 18N	054 17E	20
Sharyzovo	ppl	55 33N	089 12E	55,56,60,RM
Shashkin	oilf	55 01N	056 07E	20
Shatlyk	gasf	37 20N	061 27E	21,66
Shatern	thep	NA	NA	49,67
Shatsk	thep	NA	NA	49,67
Shchepchinsk	ppl	52 56N	070 12E	RM
Shelikhova, Zalyv	gulf	59 45N	158 00E	RM
Shevechko	ppl	43 39N	051 12E	21,32,52,53,56,59,79,RM
Shcherbenko AES	nucp	NA	NA	67
Shikh-Darvaza	gasf	40 09N	058 21E	21
Shkutan-T8	isl	43 47N	146 45E	RM
Shkiba	stm	53 20N	121 26E	RM
Shkigino	oilf	58 31N	078 23E	16
Shkigovo	oilf	55 02N	054 02E	70,66
Shkudits, Ostrov	isl	81 08N	090 48E	RM
Shkudits'	gasf	37 03N	061 40E	21
Shkudits'	ppl	51 52N	033 29E	RM
Shkurovo	oilf	54 28N	052 05E	20
Shkurovo	thep	NA	NA	50,67
Shurab coal deposit	coal	40 08N	070 27E	34
Shurtas	gasf	38 30N	066 02E	21
Shutkai	ppl	55 56N	023 19E	RM
Siachen	oilf	41 00N	048 54E	21,67
Siberia power system	reg	55 00N	097 00E	46,55
Siberian AES	nucp	NA	NA	67
Sibiryakova, Ostrov	isl	72 50N	079 00E	RM
Sikhote-Alin' Range	mts	48 00N	138 00E	RM
Sikhote-Alin'	ppl	59 24N	027 45E	RM
Sikhote-Alin' uranium deposit/processing center	w/t	NA	NA	42,43
Simefropol'	ppl	44 51N	034 06E	56,79,RM
Simefropol', Ostrov	isl	46 38N	152 02E	RM
Singor'y	ppl	62 04N	150 28E	57,59,RM
Siren kin	oilf	54 53N	056 15E	20
Skovrodno	ppl	53 59N	123 55E	11,57,RM
Slavitsy	ppl	59 06N	028 04E	44,56,RM
Slavgorod	ppl	53 00N	078 40E	RM
Slavyansk	ppl	48 52N	037 37E	RM
Slavyansk	thep	NA	NA	49,67
Slavyansk-Kubani	ppl	45 15N	038 08E	RM
Slobodskoy	ppl	58 42N	050 12E	RM
Slobodskoy	ppl	51 38N	103 42E	RM
Slobodskoy uranium deposit	w/t	NA	NA	42,43
Slobozhansk	ppl	49 14N	051 53E	RM
Smolesk	ppl	54 47N	032 03E	56,79,RM
Smolesk	nucp	NA	NA	52,67
Smoleskaya Oblast'	adm	55 00N	033 00E	79
Snezhnogorsk	ppl	68 10N	087 30E	57,58,59,RM
Sochi	ppl	43 55N	039 45E	56,60,RM
Sofyok	ppl	51 33N	139 54E	11,RM
Sogo coal deposit	coal	71 15N	128 15E	34
Sol'-Ilets'	ppl	51 10N	054 59E	RM
Solcansy	gasf	69 08N	081 56E	16,66
Soligorsk	ppl	53 48N	027 32E	RM
Solkhatok	ppl	59 38N	056 47E	RM
Solnechnyy	ppl	60 19N	137 35E	RM
Solnechnyy	ppl	50 35N	137 02E	RM
Solokh tar sands deposit	tars	70 36N	125 23E	45
Solov'yevsk	ppl	49 55N	115 42E	RM
Sonogorsk	ppl	63 37N	053 51E	RM
Sonovo-Ozhdsky	ppl	52 31N	111 34E	57,RM
South power system	reg	49 00N	032 00E	46,55
South Kazakhstan (Chigayak)	thep	NA	NA	49,67
South Ukraine	nucp	NA	NA	50,52,53,67
South Yakutia coal basin	coal	56 30N	126 00E	11,34,35,36,38,40
Sovetsk	gasf	36 41N	061 23E	21,66
Sovetsk	ppl	55 03N	021 53E	RM
Sovetskaya Gavan'	ppl	48 58N	149 18E	11,59,RM
Sovetskly	ppl	61 24N	063 31E	16,67
Sovetskoye	oilf	60 48N	077 05E	16,66
Soyuz (Orenburg) pipeline	pipe	49 46N	043 40E	10,20
Spassk-Dal'niy	ppl	44 37N	132 48E	57,RM
Srednechernogorsk	oilf	61 15N	077 06E	16
Srednechymysk	ppl	67 27N	153 41E	RM
Sredneuralsk	ppl	56 59N	060 28E	RM
Sredneuralsk	thep	NA	NA	49,67
Srednevolzhsk	oilf	59 25N	078 24E	16
Srednyamal	gasf	69 21N	071 05E	16,66
Srednyy Ural coal deposit	coal	51 13N	132 59E	34
Sterskiy	ppl	52 15N	117 43E	RM
Stakhanovo	oilf	54 24N	053 43E	20
Stanovoy Range	mts	56 20N	126 00E	11,RM
Stanoyny Upland	mts	53 30N	115 00E	RM
Staraya Russa	ppl	58 00N	051 23E	RM
Starobobchev	ppl	47 44N	038 03E	RM
Starobobchev	thep	NA	NA	49,67
Staryy Nadym	ppl	65 35N	072 42E	16,17,18,RM
Staryy Onkol	ppl	51 17N	037 51E	RM
Stavropol'	thep	NA	NA	21,55,56,79,RM
Stavropol'	thep	NA	NA	49,67
Stavropol'skiy Krai	adm	45 00N	044 00E	21,79
Stepanok	ppl	39 50N	046 46E	RM
Stepanovo	oilf	53 40N	052 15E	20
Stepanovsk uranium deposit	w/t	NA	NA	42,43
Strofanak	ppl	53 37N	055 58E	56,RM
Strobov, Ostrov	isl	74 05N	136 00E	RM
Strelka	ppl	58 05N	093 01E	RM
Strela	stm	54 48N	024 15E	50,67
Strelitsy	ppl	60 42N	077 34E	16,17,19,RM
Sukhona	stm	60 46N	046 24E	RM
Sukhoni	ppl	43 00N	041 02E	56,79,RM
Sulak	stm	43 20N	047 34E	50,67
Sultangalovo	oilf	53 33N	052 47E	20
Sul'yatskiy coal deposit	coal	39 51N	069 35E	34
Sungait	ppl	40 36N	049 38E	RM
Sunarsk	ppl	41 18N	071 19E	RM
Sunarsk uranium deposit	w/t	NA	NA	42,43
Sunarskaya Oblast'	adm	51 00N	034 00E	79
Sunya	ppl	50 54N	034 48E	56,79,RM
Suntar	ppl	62 10N	117 40E	57,59,RM
Sura	oilf	41 51N	042 00E	21
Sera	stm	56 06N	046 00E	RM
Sergut	ppl	61 14N	070 32E	16,17,18,19,31,32,33,55,56,RM
Sergut-1	thep	NA	NA	49,67
Sergut-2	thep	NA	NA	49,67
Serkhanda'r'skaya Oblast'	adm	38 00N	067 30E	79
Suzamaa	ppl	62 47N	148 10E	57,RM

Name	Feature	Latitude	Longitude	Page
S (continued)				
Sutorina	oilf	64 01N	074 58E	16
Suzan	ppl	53 47N	092 19E	56,RM
Suzan	ppl	64 10N	083 52E	RM
Sverdlovsk	gasf	56 51N	060 36E	26,55,56,79,RM
Sverdlovskaya Oblast'	adm	58 00N	062 00E	79
Svetlogorsk	ppl	52 38N	029 46E	RM
Svetlogorsk	ppl	66 55N	088 23E	57,RM
Svetloy	ppl	82 43N	064 17E	16,RM
Svetloy	ppl	63 13N	113 45E	57,RM
Svobodnyy	ppl	51 24N	128 08E	55,57,RM
Svobodnyy coal deposit	coal	51 30N	127 45E	34
Syktyvkar	ppl	61 40N	050 48E	56,59,79,RM
Sylva	stm	57 39N	056 54E	20
Syva	ppl	65 22N	058 02E	RM
Syva	gasf	65 25N	058 14E	20
Syrdar'skaya Oblast'	adm	41 00N	067 15E	79
Syrdar'ya	stm	46 03N	061 00E	RM
Syrdar'ya	thep	NA	NA	49,67
Syzran	ppl	53 10N	048 27E	20,44,56,79,RM
Syzran'	oilf	53 12N	048 20E	20
Syzran'	petr	NA	NA	31,66
T				
Talashov uranium deposit/processing center	w/t	NA	NA	42,43
Taganrog	ppl	47 12N	038 56E	RM
Taigrinskoye	oilf	62 23N	078 15E	16
Tajik SSR	adm	39 00N	071 00E	79
Tashita-Bazar	ppl	54 57N	062 01E	56,79,RM
Talatal	ppl	50 19N	130 22E	57,RM
Talas	ppl	42 32N	072 14E	56,79,RM
Talasskaya Oblast'	adm	42 20N	072 10E	79
Taldy-Kurgan	ppl	45 00N	078 24E	62,RM
Taldy-Kurgan'skaya Oblast'	adm	45 00N	079 00E	79
Talindardzhan	ppl	38 23N	065 37E	62,RM
Talindardzhan	thep	NA	NA	49,67
Talinskoye	oilf	62 05N	065 55E	16
Talinn	ppl	59 25N	024 45E	32,44,55,56,79,RM
Talinskoye	ppl	69 30N	088 11E	RM
Talon	ppl	59 48N	148 38E	RM
Tambov	ppl	51 43N	041 27E	55,56,79,RM
Tambovskaya Oblast'	adm	52 45N	041 30E	79
Tamp	oilf	56 43N	056 07E	20
Tara	ppl	56 54N	074 22E	56,RM
Taribani	oilf	41 08N	045 54E	21
Tarhan	oilf	53 34N	053 07E	20
Tarke-Sale	ppl	64 35N	077 49E	RM
Tarke-Sale	ppl	63 53E	126 43E	RM
Tas-Tumus	ppl	64 12N	126 37E	RM
Tas-Varyakh	ppl	61 47N	113 01E	RM
Tasbulat	gasf	43 05N	052 20E	21
Tasovoye	stm	58 06N	094 01E	60
Tas-Kumyr coal deposit	coal	41 16N	072 05E	34
Tashanta	ppl	49 43N	089 11E	RM
Tashauz	ppl	41 50N	059 38E	21,56,79,RM
Tashauzskaya Oblast'	adm	41 10N	058 50E	79
Tashkent	ppl	41 20N	069 18E	55,56,59,79,RM
Tashkent	thep	NA	NA	49,67
Tashkent'skaya Oblast'	adm	41 00N	069 30E	79
Tashkudut	gasf	39 54N	063 27E	RM
Tashtagol	ppl	52 47N	087 53E	21
Tatar	nucp	NA	NA	52,67
Tatar Strait	thep	NA	NA	141,00E
Tatarian tar sands deposit	tars	56 18N	055 48E	45
Tatar'ka	ppl	53 58N	075 03E	56,RM
Tatar'ka	ppl	55 13N	075 58E	56,RM
Tatar'skaya ASSR	adm	55 00N	051 00E	57,59,60,RM
Tavda	ppl	58 03N	065 15E	56,RM
Tavtanovoye	oilf	54 49N	056 45E	20
Tayzhnoye iron ore deposit	iron	57 41N	125 23E	11
Taymurny	ppl	55 29N	054 53E	20
Taymurny coal deposit	coal	78 23N	122 00E	34
Taymyr coal basin	coal	74 30N	097 00E	34,40
Taymyr Peninsula	pen	74 00N	104 00E	RM
Taymyr, Ozero	lake	74 30N	102 30E	RM
Taymyrskiy AOit	adm	72 00N	095 00E	79
Taysheh	ppl	55 57N	098 02E	57,59,60,RM
Taz	ppl	67 32N	078 40E	RM
Taz	gasf	67 23N	079 13E	16
Taz Peninsula	pen	68 35N	076 00E	16,17,RM
Tazhigali	oilf	46 17N	053 15E	21
Tazovskiy	ppl	67 28N	078 42E	RM
Tbilisi	ppl	41 42N	044 45E	21,32,55,56,79,RM
Tbilisi	thep	NA	NA	49,67
Tedzhen	ppl	37 23N	060 31E	56,RM
Tedzhen	gasf	37 09N	060 46E	21
Tekeli	ppl	44 48N	078 57E	RM
Temirtau	ppl	50 05N	072 56E	RM
Tenge	ppl	43 15N	052 48E	21,RM
Tenge	gasf	43 04N	052 41E	21
Tengiz	oilf	46 01N	053 27E	21
Tengizskoye	oilf	45 33N	046 01E	21
Terpol	oilf	60 41N	072 12E	16
Terckia	oilf	53 09N	055 55E	20
Terco'uzyuk	oilf	46 25N	053 43E	21
Termez	ppl	37 14N	067 16E	79,RM
Termez tar sands deposit	tars	37 56N	066 54E	45
Ternopol'	ppl	49 33N	025 35E	79,RM
Ternopol'skaya Oblast'	adm	49 30N	025 30E	79
Tevlin	oilf	62 33N	073 26E	16
Tien Shan	mts	42 00N	080 00E	RM
Tikhon	ppl	46 51N	040 07E	21,32,56,RM
Tikhvin	ppl	59 39N	033 31E	56,RM
Tikai	ppl	71 36N	128 48E	57,59,RM
Timan Ridge	rdge	65 00N	051 00E	RM
Timan-Pechora oil and gas region	reg	65 00N	056 00E	14,20,25,32
Titushchinsk	ppl	45 37N	038 57E	RM
Timpson	stm	58 43N	127 12E	11
Tirapopol'	ppl	46 50N	029 37E	RM
Tisul	ppl	55 45N	088 19E	60,RM
Tishuli coal deposit	coal	42 21N	042 59E	34
Tkvarcheli coal deposit	coal	42 51N	041 41E	34
Tobol	stm	58 10N	068 12E	RM
Tobol'sk	ppl	58 12N	068 16E	18,32,56,RM
Tokmak	ppl	42 52N	075 18E	RM
Tolgatopol'	hyp	NA	NA	50,51,67
To'lyatti	ppl	53 11N	049 26E	RM
Tolun	oilf	60 41N	065 10E	16
Tom'	stm	56 50N	084 27E	60
Tom'-Ula	thep	NA	NA	49,67
Tomot				

Name	Feature	Latitude	Longitude	Page
T (continued)				
Toms'k	ppl	56 30N	084 58E	56,60,79,8M
Toms'kaya Oblast'	admnd	58 00N	083 00E	16,24,79
Toponad's'ka	gasf	40 00N	059 27E	21
Tortay	oilf	45 38N	053 33E	21
Torz'ok	ppl	57 03N	034 58E	32,38,8M
Trans-Siberian Railroad	rr	57 30N	111 00E	11,8M
Transcaucasus oil and gas region	reg	40 00N	048 00E	14,21,25,32
Transcaucasus power system	reg	41 00N	046 00E	46,55
Transcaucasus Economic Region	reg	41 00N	046 00E	79
Trékhovskoye	oilf	60 28N	064 57E	16
Tripol'ye	ppl	50 07N	030 46E	RM
Tripol'ye	thep	NA	NA	49,67
Troitsk	ppl	54 06N	061 35E	55,56,8M
Troitsk	thep	NA	NA	49,67
Troitsko-Pechorsk	ppl	62 42N	056 12E	RM
Troitsko-Pechorsk	gasf	63 00N	056 01E	20
Troitskoye	ppl	52 58N	084 40E	RM
Tselinograd	ppl	51 10N	071 30E	55,56,79,8M
Tselinogradskaya Oblast'	admnd	51 00N	070 00E	79
Tskhvali	ppl	42 14N	043 57E	RM
Tuapse	ppl	44 05N	039 04E	56,8M
Tuapse	petr	NA	NA	31,66
Tugarskiy Zaliv	bay	54 00N	137 00E	63
Tulan	oilf	59 52N	072 23E	16
Tul'skaya Oblast'	admnd	54 00N	037 30E	79
Tula	ppl	54 12N	037 37E	79,8M
Tula coal deposit	coal	53 53N	037 43E	34
Tulun	ppl	54 35N	100 33E	57,60,8M
Tulun coal deposit	coal	54 30N	100 43E	34
Tunguska coal basin	coal	64 00N	100 00E	34,35,40
Tustal'ka	stm	67 50N	135 24E	RM
Tura	ppl	64 17N	100 15E	RM
Tura	stm	57 12N	066 56E	RM
Turana	ppl	52 08N	093 53E	RM
Turan Lowland	ppl	42 00N	063 12E	RM
Turgay	ppl	49 38N	063 30E	56,8M
Turgay coal basin	coal	51 00N	065 00E	34,35,40
Turgay Plateau	plat	50 30N	061 50E	RM
Turgayskaya Oblast'	admnd	50 20N	060 00E	79
Turinsk	ppl	58 03N	063 43E	RM
Tury Rog	ppl	45 14N	131 58E	RM
Turka	ppl	52 57N	108 13E	RM
Turkistan	ppl	43 20N	068 15E	56,8M
Turkmen SSR	admnd	40 00N	060 00E	21,79
Tursumzade	ppl	38 30N	068 14E	56,8M
Turukhansk	ppl	65 49N	087 59E	RM
Turukhansk tar sands deposit	tar	66 11N	089 29E	45
Tuvinskaya ASSR	admnd	51 30N	095 00E	79
Tuymazay	oilf	54 42N	053 22E	20,66
Ty's'ya	gasf	62 01N	056 36E	20
Tygda	ppl	53 07N	126 20E	57,8M
Tymovskoye	ppl	50 51N	142 39E	RM
Tynda	ppl	55 10N	124 43E	11,57,8M
Tyubodzhik	oilf	44 13N	050 39E	21
Tyulinsk	ppl	55 52N	072 12E	RM
Tyumen'	ppl	57 09N	065 24E	18,56,58,59,79,8M
Tyumen'	oilf	61 36N	078 08E	16
Tyumen'skaya Oblast'	admnd	63 00N	072 00E	15,16,17,24,79
Tyuz's-Mayan uranium deposit	u/r	NA	NA	42,43
TET-21 Moesergo Heat and Power	thep	NA	NA	49,67
TET-22 Moesergo Heat and Power	thep	NA	NA	49,67
TET-23 Moesergo Heat and Power	thep	NA	NA	49,67
U				
Ubezinskoye	oilf	45 01N	041 20E	21
Uda	oilf	60 56N	064 48E	16
Uchinsk	gasf	38 50N	062 58E	21
Uchinsk	ppl	42 10N	063 31E	RM
Uchinsk uranium deposit	u/r	NA	NA	42,43
Uch'yr	gasf	40 03N	063 00E	21
Uda	stm	58 48N	130 35E	11,8M
Udachnaya	stm	54 42N	135 14E	RM
Udachnyy	ppl	62 33N	113 53E	57,59,8M
Udmurtskaya ASSR	admnd	57 00N	051 00E	20,79
Udskan tar sands deposit	tar	70 13N	117 40E	45
Ufa	ppl	66 10N	169 48W	RM
Ufa	ppl	54 44N	053 56E	20,32,79,8M
Ufa Novo Chernikovsk	petr	NA	NA	31,66
Ufa Novo Ufimskiy	petr	NA	NA	31,66
Ufa Starvo Ufimskiy	petr	NA	NA	31,66
Ufalevsk	ppl	49 03N	142 02E	57,8M
Ufalevsk	ppl	48 19N	038 17E	56,8M
Ufalevsk	thep	NA	NA	47,49,67
Ufalevsk coal region	coal	49 00N	142 15E	34
Ukhta	ppl	63 33N	053 40E	20,32,56,59,8M
Ukhta	petr	NA	NA	31,66
Ukraine oil and gas region	reg	49 00N	030 00E	14,15,23,25,32
Ukraine Economic Region	reg	49 00N	032 00E	79
Ukrainian SSR	admnd	49 00N	032 00E	79
Uf'yanskoye	ppl	54 20N	048 24E	20,79,8M
Uf'yanskoye Oblast'	admnd	54 00N	048 00E	79
Ulan-Ula'	ppl	51 50N	107 37E	57,79,8M
Ulughem coal basin	coal	51 15N	094 30E	34,40
Unguy	ppl	47 12N	027 48E	56,8M
Upper Kama Upland	upld	58 30N	054 00E	RM
Ury's'ya	oilf	61 20N	076 05E	16
Ural	stm	47 00N	051 48E	20,8M
Ural Mountains	mts	60 00N	060 00E	20,8M
Ural's'ka	ppl	51 14N	051 22E	20,56,79,8M
Ural'skaya Oblast'	admnd	50 00N	050 00E	20,79
Ural's power system	reg	57 00N	062 00E	46,55
Ural's Economic Region	reg	56 00N	050 00E	79
Uray	ppl	60 08N	064 48E	16,17,8M
Urengoy	ppl	65 58N	078 25E	16,17,56,8M
Urengoy	gasf	66 54N	076 45E	10,11,15,16,17,18,23,32,33,66
Urengoy	thep	NA	NA	49,67
Uragal	ppl	51 12N	132 58E	RM
Uragen	ppl	41 33N	060 38E	56,79,8M
Urabulak	gasf	39 08N	064 32E	21,66
Urap, Ostrov	isl	46 00N	150 00E	RM
Urapinsk	ppl	50 47N	042 00E	RM
Ura	stm	65 57N	056 55E	16,20,8M
Ushakova, Ostrov	isl	80 48N	079 25E	RM
Usinsk	ppl	65 55N	057 25E	32,56,8M
Usinsk	oilf	66 07N	057 11E	20,66
Us'y's-Sibirskoye	ppl	52 45N	105 00E	RM
Usuri	stm	48 28N	135 02E	RM
Usuriysk	ppl	43 48N	131 59E	55,57,8M
Us'-Kamenogorsk	ppl	49 58N	082 40E	55,56,79,8M
Us'-Balyk	oilf	61 03N	072 33E	16,66

Name	Feature	Latitude	Longitude	Page
U (continued)				
Us'-Barguzin	ppl	53 27N	108 99E	RM
Us'-Il'mak	ppl	58 03N	102 39E	55,57,8M
Us'-Il'mak	bydp	NA	NA	50,67
Us'-Kamensk	ppl	56 15N	162 30E	RM
Us'-Kareyka	ppl	66 30N	087 15E	RM
Us'-Kui	ppl	56 46N	105 40E	57,8M
Us'-Maya	ppl	60 25N	134 32E	RM
Us'-Nera	ppl	64 34N	143 12E	57,59,8M
Us'-Oren'burg	ppl	53 00N	119 40E	RM
Us'-Oren'burg	ppl	61 09N	149 93E	57,8M
Us'-Ordynskiy	ppl	52 48N	104 45E	RM
Us'-Ordynskiy Buryatskiy AOK	admnd	53 30N	104 00E	79
Us'-Port	ppl	69 40N	084 26E	RM
Us'-Tulaan	ppl	62 40N	150 52E	57,8M
Us'-Uda	ppl	54 24N	103 17E	57,8M
Usinov	ppl	56 51N	053 14E	20,79,8M
Us'yuri Plateau	upld	43 00N	056 00E	RM
Uzbek SSR	admnd	41 00N	064 00E	21,79
Uzun	ppl	43 27N	053 10E	21,56,8M
Uzun	oilf	43 20N	052 92E	21,29,66
Uzhpord	ppl	43 37N	022 18E	10,11,32,79,8M
Uzher	ppl	55 18N	089 50E	RM
V				
Vakh	stm	60 45N	076 45E	16,19,8M
Vakh	oilf	60 52N	078 56E	16
Vakhshabev	ppl	48 59N	142 38E	57,59,8M
Vakhshabev coal deposit	coal	49 01N	142 48E	34
Vain	stm	37 06N	048 32E	50,51,67
Valdai Hills	hills	57 00N	033 30E	RM
Valmiera	ppl	57 33N	025 24E	56,8M
Valuyki	ppl	50 14N	038 08E	RM
Van'yegan	oilf	61 52N	077 11E	16
Vanyevsk	gasf	67 43N	054 02E	20
Vanino	ppl	49 05N	140 15E	RM
Vankarem	ppl	67 51N	175 50W	RM
Var'yegan	oilf	62 06N	077 34E	16,66
Varzino	ppl	68 21N	038 23E	56,8M
Vas'ko	stm	64 53N	045 47E	20,8M
Vasil'Yur	gasf	68 00N	053 46E	20
Vasil'yevskoye	oilf	58 23N	055 56E	20
Vasygan	stm	59 07N	080 46E	16,8M
Vat'yegan	oilf	62 19N	074 55E	16,66
Vata	oilf	61 12N	076 03E	16,66
Vaynakh, Ostrov	isl	70 00N	059 30E	RM
Vel'sk	ppl	61 05N	042 02E	RM
Vel's'ya	oilf	63 37N	056 16E	20
Velikiy Ustyug	ppl	60 48N	046 18E	56,8M
Velikiye Laki	ppl	56 20N	030 32E	RM
Vents'kiy	ppl	57 24N	021 31E	32,56,8M
Verkhne-Anzhar tar sands deposit	tar	69 57N	112 22E	45
Verkhnegrubeshov	oilf	66 52N	054 45E	20
Verkhneymys'min	oilf	62 14N	070 27E	16
Verkhneymys'min	oilf	60 01N	071 01E	16
Verkhneymys'min	oilf	60 51N	070 20E	16
Verkhnyy Tagil	ppl	57 22N	059 54E	RM
Verkhnyy Tagil	thep	NA	NA	49,67
Verkhnyaya Sakhla	ppl	58 02N	060 33E	RM
Verkhnyaya Taymyra	stm	74 15N	099 48E	RM
Verkhoyansk	ppl	67 35N	133 27E	57,8M
Verkhoyansk Range	mts	67 00N	129 00E	RM
Vesenoys'ye	oilf	59 22N	076 24E	16
Vesnoys'ka	oilf	57 12N	056 41E	20
Vidui	ppl	56 25N	103 12E	RM
Vikhorevka	ppl	56 05N	101 15E	RM
Vikhorevka uranium/thorium deposit	u/r	NA	NA	42,43
Vikhoriya, Ostrov	isl	80 10N	036 45E	RM
Vil'nyy	ppl	56 49N	070 32E	56,8M
Vil'nyy, Proliv	str	77 55N	103 00E	RM
Vihuz	ppl	54 41N	025 19E	56,79,8M
Vilyuy	stm	64 24N	126 26E	50,51,8M
Vilyuy	bydp	NA	NA	58
Vilyuy	ppl	63 45N	131 35E	RM
Vilyuy'skoye Vodokhranitel'shche	resv	62 55N	111 00E	RM
Vinnitsa	ppl	49 14N	028 29E	56,79,8M
Vinnitskaya Oblast'	admnd	49 00N	029 00E	79
Vishera	stm	59 55N	056 23E	RM
Vishnevskaya Yuzovsk	ppl	56 00N	060 40E	RM
Vishnevogorsk uranium deposit	u/r	NA	NA	42,43
Vitebsk	ppl	55 12N	030 11E	56,79,8M
Vitebskaya Oblast'	admnd	55 00N	029 30E	79
Vit'ye	ppl	59 28N	112 34E	RM
Vit'ye	stm	59 26N	112 34E	RM
Vize, Ostrov	isl	79 30N	077 00E	RM
Vladimir	ppl	56 10N	040 25E	56,79,8M
Vladimirskaya Oblast'	admnd	56 00N	040 30E	79
Vladivostok	ppl	43 08N	131 54E	57,59,79,8M
Vols'k	ppl	52 02N	047 23E	RM
Volga	stm	45 55N	047 52E	20,21,50,51,67,8M
Volga at Tol'yatli-Zhigul'skiy	bydp	NA	NA	50,67
Volga at Volgograd	bydp	NA	NA	50,53,67
Volga Economic Region	reg	52 00N	046 00E	79
Volga Upland	upld	52 00N	046 00E	RM
Volga-Ural's oil and gas region	reg	55 00N	053 00E	14,15,20,22,25,32
Volga-Vyatka Economic Region	reg	57 00N	048 00E	79
Volgodonsk	ppl	47 32N	042 09E	32,53,8M
Volgograd	ppl	48 45N	044 25E	26,52,53,55,56,59,79,8M
Volgograd	petr	NA	NA	31,66
Volgogradskaya Oblast'	admnd	49 00N	044 00E	79
Volzh'ok	ppl	59 53N	032 20E	RM
Volzhskaya Yuzovsk	ppl	48 35N	134 24E	RM
Volgod	ppl	59 13N	039 54E	56,79,8M
Volgodskaya Oblast'	admnd	60 00N	042 00E	79
Volynskaya Oblast'	admnd	51 00N	025 00E	79
Volynsk	ppl	55 53N	048 20E	RM
Volzhskiy	ppl	48 49N	044 44E	RM
Vorkuta	ppl	67 30N	064 00E	16,56,59,8M
Vorkuta coal deposit	coal	67 13N	063 35E	34
Voronezh	ppl	51 38N	039 12E	56,79,8M
Voronezh AST	nucp	NA	NA	52,53,67
Voronezhskaya Oblast'	admnd	51 00N	040 00E	79
Voronezhograd	ppl	48 14N	039 20E	79,8M
Voronezhograd	thep	NA	NA	49,67
Voronezhogradskaya Oblast'	admnd	49 00N	039 00E	79
Vostok	oilf	53 14N	056 13E	20
Vostochno-Kaz				

Name	Feature	Latitude	Longitude	Page
V (continued)				
Vatkinsk	pop	57 03N	053 59E	56,RM
Vatkinsk	hydp	NA	NA	50,67
Vozvuch	pop	64 21N	055 06E	RM
Vozvy	oilf	66 42N	056 47E	20,65
Vuktyl	pop	63 40N	057 20E	59,RM
Vuktyl	gasf	63 49N	057 18E	15,20,23,66
Vyska	stm	55 36N	051 30E	20,RM
Vyaz'noe	pop	55 13N	034 18E	RM
Vyborg	pop	60 42N	028 45E	25,RM
Vychegda	stm	61 18N	046 36E	20,RM
Vyska	pop	55 18N	042 11E	33,RM
Vym'	stm	62 13N	050 25E	20
Vyngapur	gasf	63 10N	076 46E	16,23,66
Vysniy Volochek	pop	57 35N	034 34E	RM
Vytrga	pop	61 00N	036 27E	56,RM
W				
West Kamchatka coal area	coal	57 30N	157 30E	34
West Siberia oil and gas region	reg	64 00N	075 00E	14,15,16,17,18,19,22,23,25,32,33
West Siberia Economic Region	reg	60 00N	076 00E	79
West Siberian Plain	pla	60 00N	075 00E	RM
White Sea	sea	65 30N	038 00E	RM
Wrangell Island	isl	71 00N	179 30W	RM
Y				
Yablonoyny Range	mts	53 30N	115 00E	RM
Yagofinoe	pop	62 33N	149 40E	57,RM
Yagudin	oilf	62 38N	149 00E	20
Yakubsk	oilf	53 54N	051 31E	20
Yakutsk	pop	62 00N	129 40E	32,57,58,59,79,79
Yakutskaya ASSR	adm	65 00N	130 00E	79
Yala	pop	44 30N	034 10E	56,62,RM
Yamal Peninsula	pen	70 00N	070 00E	16,17,RM
Yamalo-Nenetskiy AOK	adm	66 00N	076 00E	17,79
Yamarka	pop	50 38N	110 16E	RM
Yamashki	oilf	55 05N	051 47E	20
Yanberz	gasf	68 04N	076 18E	15,16,17,23,66
Yanovoy	gasf	65 30N	075 56E	16,66
Yana	stm	71 31N	136 32E	RM
Yangikarga	gasf	40 38N	062 37E	21
Yanigyl'	pop	41 06N	069 03E	RM
Yanitskiy Zaliv	gulf	71 50N	134 00E	RM
Yaransk	pop	57 19N	047 54E	RM
Yarasyer	oilf	63 09N	077 48E	16
Yaroga	oilf	63 24N	053 28E	20
Yaruga tar sands deposit	tar	65 43N	056 41E	45
Yarvya	gasf	67 59N	055 15E	20
Yarkino	oilf	58 26N	056 31E	20
Yarkino	pop	59 08N	099 23E	RM
Yaroslavl'	pop	57 37N	039 52E	56,79,RM
Yaroslavl'	pcr	NA	NA	31,66
Yaroslavl'skaya Oblast'	adm	58 00N	039 30E	79
Yaroslavl'	pop	50 51N	115 45E	57,RM
Yasn-Lor	oilf	61 27N	072 43E	16
Yefremov	pop	53 09N	038 07E	RM
Yegiyubinsk	pop	49 45N	076 23E	56,RM
Yelct	pop	52 37N	038 30E	32,RM
Yelitsino	oilf	61 27N	087 42E	16
Yelizovo	pop	53 11N	158 23E	57,RM
Yelkino	oilf	57 37N	056 56E	20
Yem-Yegov	oilf	61 58N	066 06E	16
Yenisey	stm	71 50N	082 40E	16,50,51,60,67,79
Yeniseysk	pop	58 27N	092 10E	57,RM
Yenorskiy	oilf	54 56N	050 45E	20
Yerabeyev	pop	43 12N	051 39E	56,RM
Yerovan	pop	40 11N	044 30E	56,79,RM
Yergach	oilf	57 23N	056 39E	20
Yermak	pop	52 02N	076 55E	RM
Yermak	oilf	60 47N	076 10E	16
Yermak	thep	NA	NA	49,67
Yermakovo	pop	66 37N	086 13E	RM
Yermensan	pop	51 38N	073 10E	RM
Yosif	pop	51 28N	066 24E	56,RM
Yotysar	gasf	64 01N	077 42E	16,66
Yozpatoriy	pop	45 12N	033 22E	56,RM
Yozpatoriy AO	adm	48 30N	132 00E	79
Yezsk	pop	46 42N	038 17E	RM
Yozhkar-Ola	pop	56 40N	047 55E	79,RM
Yubinyy	gasf	66 05N	075 56E	16,66
Yugo-Ostsiyskaya AO	adm	42 20N	044 00E	79
Yugorsk	oilf	56 16N	055 31E	20
Yugorsk	oilf	61 37N	077 27E	16
Yurga	pop	55 42N	084 51E	RM
Yurkharov	gasf	67 47N	077 19E	16
Yurkharov	pop	64 45N	032 07E	RM
Yuzhao-Balyk	oilf	60 29N	072 28E	16
Yuzhao-Myl'dzhino	oilf	58 45N	078 05E	16
Yuzhao-Russkaya	gasf	66 04N	080 36E	16,66
Yuzhao-Sakhalinsk	pop	46 57N	142 44E	11,57,59,79,RM
Yuzhao-Shupkina	oilf	67 11N	054 25E	20
Yuzhao-Sukhobarskaya	oilf	44 30N	045 13E	21,66
Yuzhao-Surgut	oilf	61 08N	072 57E	16
Yuzhao-Tambuy	gasf	71 37N	071 57E	16,66
Yuzhao-Ural'sk	pop	54 26N	061 15E	RM
Yuzhao-Ural'sk	thep	NA	NA	49,67
Yuzhao-Zhetybay	gasf	43 15N	052 09E	21
Yuzhnyy Bug	stm	46 59N	031 58E	50,51

Name	Feature	Latitude	Longitude	Page
Z				
Zabaykalsk	pop	49 38N	117 19E	RM
Zagorsk	pop	56 18N	038 08E	51,56,RM
Zagorsk	hydp	NA	NA	50,67
Zaisan	pop	55 18N	052 04E	56,RM
Zaitik	thep	NA	NA	49,67
Zakamensk	pop	50 23N	103 17E	57,RM
Zakarpatskaya Oblast'	adm	48 20N	023 00E	79
Zamensk	oilf	43 18N	044 20E	21
Zapadno-Erdikl'	gasf	38 44N	023 32E	21
Zapadno-Izko'yevsk	gasf	62 55N	054 41E	20
Zapadno-Sopkik	gasf	64 17N	037 14E	20
Zapadno-Surgut	oilf	61 22N	073 04E	16
Zapadno-Tarkonsk	gasf	64 47N	077 49E	16,66
Zapadnyy Tobuk	oilf	63 42N	054 54E	20
Zaporozhye	gasf	66 55N	079 14E	15,16,17,23,66
Zaporozh'ye	pop	47 53N	035 05E	79,RM
Zaporozh'ye	thep	NA	NA	47,49,67
Zaporozh'ye	uocp	NA	NA	52,67
Zaporozhskaya Oblast'	adm	47 30N	035 30E	79
Zaraisk	pop	41 31N	064 15E	56,RM
Zavolz'ye	pop	56 39N	043 24E	RM
Zaysan	pop	47 28N	064 52E	RM
Zaysan, Ozoro	lake	48 00N	064 00E	RM
Zayskoye Vodokhranilishche	resv	54 25N	127 45E	11,RM
Zaytsevsk	pop	55 51N	048 33E	RM
Zelbory Mys	pop	68 48N	161 24E	57,59,RM
Zeya	pop	53 45N	127 16E	11,55,RM
Zeya	stm	50 15N	127 35E	11,50,51,57,67,79
Zeya	hydp	NA	NA	50,67
Zhanatale	oilf	47 10N	050 09E	21
Zhanatas	pop	43 34N	069 45E	56,RM
Zhanatol	oilf	48 35N	058 00E	21
Zhanatyn	pop	76 43N	158 00E	RM
Zhanatyn, Ostrov	isl	48 52N	072 51E	RM
Zharyk	pop	47 06N	037 33E	RM
Zhaznov	gasf	39 16N	052 58E	21
Zhelezodorozhnyy	pop	62 35N	050 53E	RM
Zheleznogorsk	pop	52 19N	035 12E	56,RM
Zheleznogorsk-Ilimskiy	pop	56 34N	104 08E	57,RM
Zhilyys Vody	pop	48 21N	033 32E	RM
Zhilyys Vody-Terny uranium deposit/processing center	u/t	NA	NA	42,43
Zhilyys	oilf	43 20N	052 18E	21,27,66
Zhigalovo	pop	54 48N	105 08E	RM
Zhigansk	pop	66 45N	123 20E	RM
Zhigul'sk	oilf	53 27N	049 30E	20
Zhiloy	oilf	40 21N	050 33E	21
Zhitomir	pop	50 15N	038 40E	79,RM
Zhitomirskaya Oblast'	adm	50 30N	028 30E	79
Zhukhova, Ostrov	isl	76 04N	152 40E	RM
Zima	pop	53 55N	102 04E	57,RM
Zimnyy	gasf	69 24N	085 08E	16
Zhitomir	pop	53 10N	059 40E	56,RM
Zol'nyy (Gol'dal'd)	oilf	53 27N	049 46E	20
Zol'nyy	thep	NA	NA	49,67
Zolotaya Gora	pop	54 16N	126 38E	57,RM
Zayevka	pop	48 04N	038 15E	RM
Zayevka	thep	NA	NA	49,67
Zvezdovka coal deposit	coal	48 58N	031 10E	34
Zyryanka	pop	65 45N	150 90E	RM
Zyryanka coal basin	coal	66 00N	146 00E	34,40
Zyryanka coal deposit	coal	66 00N	150 20E	34
Zyryansk	pop	49 43N	084 20E	56,RM

Administrative Divisions



Note: The Ukraine Economic Region is normally divided into three regions—Donets-Dnestr, South, and Southwest—by the Soviets. These regions have been combined for simplification. Moldavian SSR is not part of any economic region.





USSR Energy
Atlas

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