

Review Article

Shrinking of the Aral Sea - causes, effects, possibilities of revitalization

Abstract. The Aral Sea, which a few dozen years ago was the fourth largest lake in the world, currently exists only in a rudimentary form. The drastic reduction in the flow of water from the two great rivers feeding the Aral Sea, caused by the Soviet plan to irrigate cotton-growing areas, caused enormous economic, social and health problems and a decline in biodiversity. The main natural consequences of disturbing the water balance are: a significant decrease in biodiversity, local climate changes, an increase in the salinity of remaining waters and dry bottom soils. The social consequences discussed include: the decline of fishing and fish processing and the disappearance of tourism, which results in unemployment and increased poverty of the local population. A very important problem are dust storms that arise on a dry bottom and spray salty and toxic dust throughout the Aral Sea basin, which results in different negative health effects for the people living there. The article also discusses the possibilities of minimizing the price paid for shrinking a large body of water. A return to the pre-1960 state is very unlikely in the foreseeable future, but a relatively simple, although partial, solution to the problem, is to reduce soil erosion by introducing vegetation. The research proposed and conducted by a group from the National University of Uzbekistan is aimed at correlating soil parameters with the possibilities of effectively introducing plants into existing habitats. The importance of the selection of species was pointed out not only because of their adaptation possibilities, but also because of their economic importance and phytoremediation possibilities.

1. Introduction

The dynamically growing world population after the end of World War II brought about the development of a number of problems previously unknown to humanity. Technological, social and urban requirements and the need to secure food have led to an imbalance in many ecosystems. In some cases, the cause of the disruption of the environmental balance lies in ill-considered political decisions that do not take into account the possibilities of homeostasis of natural habitats. In some parts of the world, disruption of

35 the environmental balance causes irreversible consequences, and the price to pay for ill-
36 considered decisions is very high. An excellent example of such a situation are the changes in
37 the Aral Sea basin, often called in the scientific literature the greatest ecological disaster
38 caused by humans. In other words, the Aral Sea tragedy is well known throughout the world
39 as an example of the destructive impact of humans on nature.

40 Scientists from all over the world are trying to understand the negative effects of the
41 drying up of the Aral Sea. As a result of the implementation of many projects, more and more
42 works are being created proposing more or less comprehensive methods of limiting the
43 negative effects of the almost complete disappearance of this large body of water. Many
44 ideas, are also emerging on how to, at least to a limited extent, reduce the effects of the
45 ecological disaster related to the drastic change in water conditions in the region.

46 One of the elements of such research is a new project entitled "Creation of scientific
47 bases for grouping of sites planting plants depending on salinity, physico-chemical and
48 biological properties of soils spread on the dry bottom of the Aral Sea", which will be carried
49 out by a team of scientists from the National University of Uzbekistan and the University of
50 Warsaw (Poland).

51 The aim of this article is to present an outline of the causes of drastic hydrological
52 changes in the Aral Sea basin, the broadly understood natural consequences of this event, and
53 to analyze the possibilities of their minimization.

54



55

56 Fig. 1. Moynaq ship cemetery – the symbol of Aral Sea disaster (Photograph by Bogusław
57 Wilkomirski)

58

59 **2. The origin of the problem**

60

61 Although the geographical concept of Central Asia is understood in different ways, a
62 common feature of this region is its climatic description. Central Asia has a distinctive
63 continental arid and semi-arid climate with hot, dry and cloudless summers as well as moist,
64 relatively warm winters in the south and cold winters with severe frosts in the north of this
65 area.

66 In an area with a clearly continental climate and a deficit of rainwater, any
67 disturbance of the hydrological balance is particularly strongly felt. It is safe to say that the
68 existence of millions of people depends on water from rivers fed by rainfall and glaciers in the
69 mountains and carrying these water resources to lower regions. Among the many global
70 threats, the water deficit crisis is one of the most visible and urgent to solve (Editorial Nature,
71 2023).

72 In world public opinion, one of the most famous areas affected by the water crisis is
73 the Aral Sea Basin (Toderich et al., 2024). The Aral Sea basin occupies a huge area of about
74 1,300,000 square kilometers and covers the entirety of Uzbekistan and Tajikistan, much of
75 Turkmenistan and Kyrgyzstan, and southern Kazakhstan. In a narrower, but more frequently
76 used sense, the Aral Sea basin is defined as the basins of two large rivers, the Amu Darya
77 originating in Tajikistan and the Syr Darya originating in Kyrgyzstan, together with the
78 surface of the Aral Sea itself. This area, far away from the ocean and separated from the main
79 moisture-bearing winds, is characterized by an extremely continental climate (Ivanov et al.
80 1996).

81 On a geological time scale, the Aral Sea is a relatively young body of water. Its
82 history has been described by many researchers, for example (Boomer et al., 2009; Burr et al.,
83 2019; Krijgsman et al., 2019). However, although over the last several dozen thousand years
84 the water level in the Aral Basin has changed many times, due to tectonic reasons, this is only
85 of significance to researchers of the planet's past history.

86 However, from the point of view of modern man, his economic, health and social
87 needs, as well as for current environmental research, what is significant is the catastrophically
88 rapid decline in the water level in the Aral Sea over the last few decades (Yang et. al.,
89 2024) Although the year 1960 is considered to be the starting date of the noticeable shrinkage
90 of the Aral Sea, the beginnings of this situation should be sought in the early days of Soviet
91 power. It was then decided that the territories of present-day Uzbekistan would become an
92 area of intensive production of "white gold", as cotton was called. Cotton was and still is a
93 strategic raw material not only because of its great importance in the clothing industry, but
94 also as a substrate for the production of nitrocellulose, which is an important component in
95 the explosives industry.

96 Cotton is a plant that requires a warm climate and a lot of sun, and these conditions
97 are met in the Aral Sea basin. Unfortunately, cotton also requires a lot of water during growth,
98 which could not be easily obtained in the steppe and desert areas. The natural source of much
99 water seemed to be the two great Central Asian rivers, the Amu Darya and the Syr Darya. The
100 first irrigation canals were built in the 1930s. They were built without following the principles
101 of hydrological engineering, but their scale was small enough not to significantly disturb the
102 water level in the Aral Sea.

103 The situation worsened after the end of World War II. In accordance with Stalin's
104 "Great Plan for the Transformation of Nature," irrigation was scaled up to impose a cotton
105 monoculture in the Aral Sea basin. A huge portion of the Amu Darya's water was diverted

106 through extensive canal networks. Despite Stalin's death in 1953, this irrigation network
107 continued to grow at an even faster pace (Brain, 2010; Peterson, 2019).

108 In 1954, the USSR began its largest project on the Amu Darya - the Karakum
109 Canal. Without regular water replenishment, the very large lake began to evaporate, water
110 levels began to drop rapidly, and the receding lake left behind increasingly salty soil in which
111 most plants could not grow. The year 1960 is considered to be the beginning of drastic
112 changes in the water level in the Aral Sea.

113 Until the 1960s, river discharge provided on average 56 km³/year of fresh water to
114 the Aral Sea. Such volume represented about half of their total runoff capacity flow and was
115 sufficient to keep the balance between income and evaporation and maintain the lake level at
116 +53 m above ocean level (Bortnik, 1999).

117 From 1960 until the collapse of the Soviet Union, thousands of kilometers of canals
118 were built along the Amu Darya and, on a smaller scale, along the Syr Darya. These canals
119 were built without regard to the disastrous consequences for the Aral Sea, although Soviet
120 engineers and biologists were well aware of the ecological consequences of such water
121 exploitation.

122

123 **3. Characteristics of the Aral Sea and the shrinking of the water body.**

124

125 The Aral Sea, formally a lake, is located in the northern part of the Central Asian
126 deserts, on the territory of two countries, Uzbekistan and Kazakhstan. Its surface area of 68
127 thousand square kilometers placed it fourth among the world's lakes. Only the Asian Caspian
128 Sea, the American Lake Superior and the African Lake Victoria were larger (Micklin, 2016).

129 The water surface of the Aral Sea was located at a height of about 50 meters above
130 the level of the World Ocean, the volume of water was about 1,060 cubic kilometers, with a
131 maximum depth of 69 meters. The water salinity of 10-12 g/dm³ placed the reservoir in the
132 group of brackish seas and was comparable to the current salinity of the Baltic Sea. Before
133 1960, water salinity was maintained at a constant level due to the balance between
134 evaporation and the inflow of freshwater from the Amu Darya and Syr Darya rivers. The
135 surface water temperature in summer ranged from 26-30°C, while in winter it dropped below
136 0°C due to salinity. Water transparency was very high, reaching up to 25 m, which favored
137 the development of fishing and tourism.

138 There were several islands in the Aral Sea, the most important of which, due to the
139 consequences associated with the drying up of the water body, was Vozrozhdeniya Island. A

140 secret biological weapons research centre began operating on this island in 1948. The falling
141 water level connected the island to the mainland, creating a threat of the expansion of
142 pathogenic microorganisms.

143 The two main ports on the Aral Sea were Aralsk in the north and Moynaq in the
144 south. As the water area shrank, both ports moved further and further away from the coastline.
145 At the turn of the 20th and 21st centuries, as a result of the water level dropping by several
146 meters, the port of Aralsk moved about 100 km away from the water surface.

147

148



149

150 Fig.2. Moynaq Museum. Boards illustrating the shrinking of the Aral Sea (Photograph by
151 Bogusław Wilkomirski)

152

153 As already mentioned, the conventional beginning of the rapid shrinking of the Aral
154 Sea was 1960. The direct cause of this state of affairs was the enormous acceleration during
155 the decade of 1950-1960 of irrigation of the surrounding desert areas using the constantly
156 expanded network of canals receiving the waters of two great Central Asian rivers.

157 It seems that the political leaders of the Soviet Union were aware of the potential risk
158 of disrupting the flow of river waters into the Aral Sea, but they agreed to it in the name of
159 illusory economic gains. The local population borne the multiple costs of this reasoning
160 (Micklin, 1988, White, 2014).

161 Political decisions meant that over the next 30 years (until the collapse of the Soviet
162 Union), the water level in the lake dropped to around 13 m. In 1989, when the lake level
163 decreased to about +40 m, the northernmost part of the lake, known as the Small Aral Sea,
164 separated from the principal water body (Aladin et al., 1995; Izhitskiy et al., 2016).

165 The moment of division, as a result of the drying of the Berg Strait, of a large body
166 of water into two smaller parts caused them to evolve in two ways. The Small Aral located at
167 the north on the territory of Kazakhstan continues to be slightly fed by the Syr Darya and its
168 level decreased more slowly in the 1990s than the level of the Big Aral located on the south,
169 mostly in Uzbekistan, where the discharge of the Amu Darya to the Aral Sea has nearly
170 ceased (Aladin et al., 2005).

171 The process of the disappearance of the Big Aral was much more interesting. The
172 progressive decline in the level in the 1990s resulted in the expansion of the Vozrozhdeniya
173 Island, which in 2001 turned into a peninsula. This meant the division of the reservoir into a
174 shallower eastern part and a deeper western part.

175 After 2001, the shallower eastern part retreated rapidly over the next several years.
176 Especially large retreats in the eastern lobe of the Big Aral appear to have occurred between
177 2005 and 2009, when drought limited and then completely cut off the flow of the Amu Darya.
178 Water levels then fluctuated annually between 2009 and 2018 in alternately dry and wet years.
179 In 2014, the eastern lobe of the Big Aral completely disappeared. Only a small, deeper
180 western lobe remains (Singh et al., 2018). Fig. 3 shows a particularly drastic shrinking of the
181 waters of the remnant Aral Sea in the last ten years.

182 The dry bottom formed in the place of a former water body, especially the eastern
183 part of the South Aral, began to be referred to in scientific literature as Aralkum (the “Aral
184 Desert”) (Breckle, Wucherer, 2012; Löw et al., (2021)). This desert covers an area of
185 approximately 60,000 square kilometers (Banks et al., 2024).

186

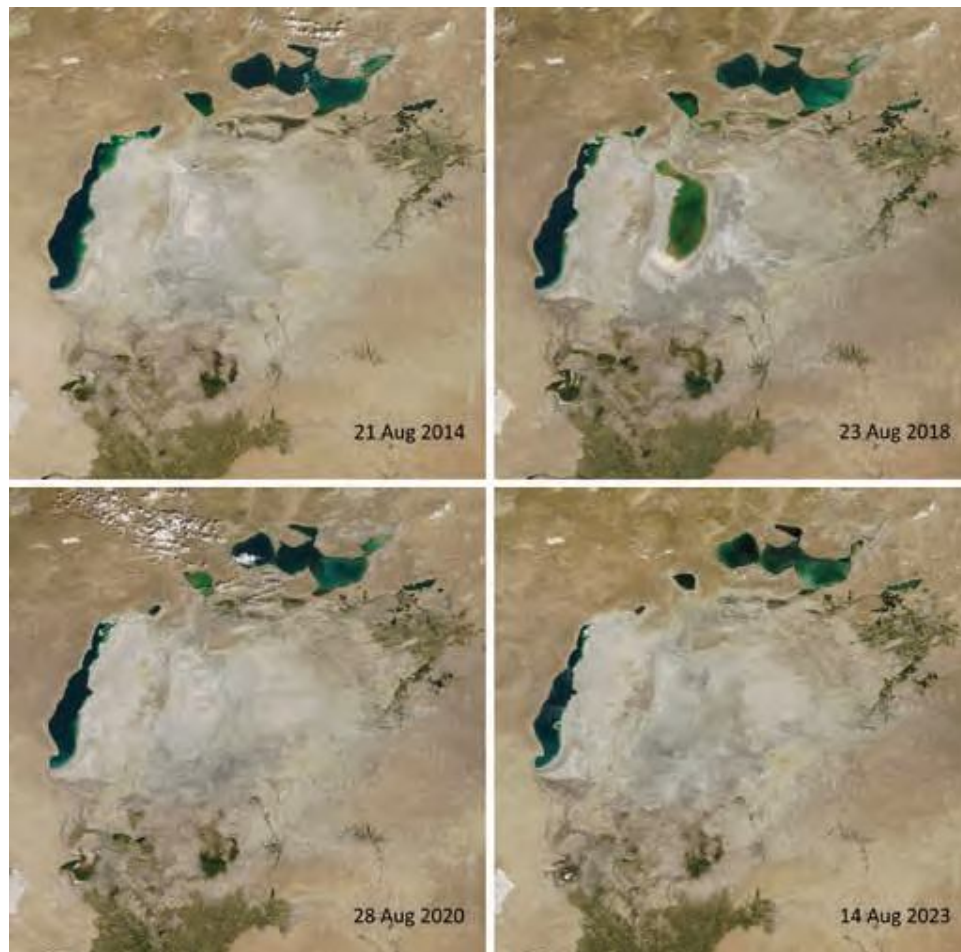


Fig3. The Aralkum Desert, which forms in the area of the former Aral Sea:

Source NASA, Terra MODIS (True Color)

4. Various consequences of the disappearance of water in the Aral Sea and the formation of Aralkum.

4. 1Increasing salinity of water and soil

The first six decades of the 20th century, during which the water level and volume in the Aral Sea were stable at an altitude of approximately 53 m above the level of the world ocean, with a volume slightly exceeding 1000 km³, were characterized by relatively low water salinity, at the level of 10 g/dm³.

In 1989, when the reservoir was divided, the salinity of water in the Small Aral Sea and the Large Aral Sea increased three times, up to 30 g/dm³. In 2007, after several years of operation of the Kokaral dam, thanks to which the waters of the Syr Darya fed only the Small Aral Sea, the salinity in this water body decreased to approximately 14 g/dm³. However, the

205 water salinity increased significantly in the Large Aral Sea, reaching 100 g/dm³ in its deeper
206 western part and even 120 – 160 g/dm³ in its shallower eastern part (Aladin et al., 2009).

207 Presently, salinity levels have reached around 140 g/dm³ in the western part and
208 exceeded 210 g/dm³ in the remaining water residues of eastern part. In contrast, the Small Aral
209 Sea has transitioned into a brackish lake with salinity levels no higher than 12 g/kg, with the
210 restoration of its water body (Ma et al., 2024).

211 The increasing salinity of water and the shrinking of the reservoir are related to the
212 salinity of soils appearing on the dry bottom of the Aral Sea. As a result of the lake drying up,
213 salts contained in the water appeared in the soil, resulting in high salinity of the exposed
214 seabed. The main salts found in Aralkum soils are sodium chloride, magnesium sulphate and
215 calcium sulphate. The strongly and extremely saline areas were mainly located in the
216 northeastern part of the eastern basin of Large Aral Sea and western part of former
217 Vozrozhdeniya Island (Duan et al., 2022).

218

219

220 **4. 2 Erosion and dust aerosols**

221

222 The new dry land emerging from the shrinking Aral Sea was easily susceptible to
223 wind erosion (Song et al., 2023). Harsh climatic and weather conditions in the Aral Sea area
224 favour wind erosion of the dry bottom. The severe wind erosion areas within the dry lakebed
225 are most probably where salt dust storms occur (Song et al., 2024).

226 Salty dust spread by the wind, containing not only salt particles but also organic and
227 inorganic pollutants, is not only an important factor in atmospheric chemical changes and
228 biogeochemical cycles, but also a threat to human health. The Aral Sea basin has become an
229 important "hot spot" on the global map of dust storms, with all their health and economic
230 consequences (Indoitu et al., 2015).

231 Between 1984 and 2015, dust emissions from the growing desert almost doubled
232 from 14 to 27 million tons. The Aralkum Desert is now considered one of the most significant
233 man-made sources of dust on earth (Banks et al., 2024a, 2024b). Although the Aralkum is
234 much smaller than the neighboring natural deserts of Karakum to the south in Turkmenistan
235 and Kyzylkum to the southeast in Uzbekistan and Kazakhstan, the dust from the Aralkum is
236 considered much more dangerous because it contains residues of fertilizers and pesticides
237 from former agriculture.

238 The cotton monoculture is connected with strong toxic pollution. The Aral Sea basin
239 was sprayed high amount pesticides such as lindane and DDT regularly. Due to the large area

240 of cotton cultivation, spraying was carried out using airplanes, which also resulted in
241 contamination of inhabited rural areas, including fruit and vegetable crops at home.

242 The scale of the dust storm phenomenon is enormous. The main source of dust was
243 found to be in the eastern part of Large Aral Sea. The total source area in the Aral Sea region
244 exceeds 27,000 km², with annual average dust emission of up to 87.6 million metric tons from
245 2010 to 2020 (Chen et al., 2022). PM₁₀ dust emitted from the dry bottom of the Aral Sea area
246 can be transported over 4,000 km, and the area of land surface affected was more than
247 6.21×10^6 km². The zone most severely impacted by polluted aerosols from the Aralkum
248 region was mainly distributed in the vicinity of the Aral Sea region, including western
249 Kazakhstan, and most of Uzbekistan and Turkmenistan. The size of dust storms around the
250 Aral Sea is among the largest in the world, and the pollution content they carry significantly
251 exceeds WHO standards (O'Hara et al., 2000; Törnqvist et al., 2011).

252
253
254

4. 3 Loss of biodiversity and creation of new ecosystems



255
256
257
258

Fig.4. The dry bottom of the Aral Sea at the research surfaces of a new scientific project from the National University of Uzbekistan.(Photograph by Bogusław Wilkomirski)

259 Medieval scholars from the Khorezm Academy of Mamun in Khorezm, located near
260 the Aral Sea, claimed that the presence of water meant the existence of life. The increasingly
261 disappearing water surface confirmed this old wisdom. Both invertebrates and ichthyofauna
262 began to visibly disappear. This situation has become noticeable since the 1960s, when
263 changing water salinity became the main factor affecting the fauna and flora of the Aral Sea,
264 especially its fish communities.

265 The crisis among invertebrate fauna began about a decade later, when in the 1970s
266 the salinity level began to exceed the limit of 13 g/dm^3 , considered the limit for the
267 development of freshwater species. The second water salinity limit (approximately 30 g/dm^3)
268 was reached in 1987 and since then only marine species, euryhaline species of marine origin,
269 and representatives of euryhaline halophilic fauna of inland saline waters were present. The
270 transformation of the Large Aral into a hyperhaline water body led to a further significant
271 reduction of biodiversity. Even the majority of surviving representatives of marine fauna
272 became extinct. Only some invertebrate species which are the most resistant to high salinity,
273 have survived (Aladin et al., 2019).

274 In the Aral Sea before 1960, the physical and chemical parameters of the water
275 allowed development of a variety of plant communities in all parts of the reservoir, i.e. in
276 deeper waters, along the shores as well as in the river delta regions. The main factor of
277 changes in the reservoir's flora (as in the case of fauna) was the increasing salinity of the
278 water.

279 The causes and resulting changes in the biodiversity of the reservoir itself seem
280 quite obvious. The former water areas turned into a desert called Aralkum. Therefore, it is
281 worth focusing on changes in habitats around the lake's shoreline before the shrinking process
282 begins, i.e. in the Aral Sea basin.

283 The plant form characteristic for Uzbekistan river valleys is tugai forest, In a narrow
284 sense it refers to river forests composed mainly of the two poplar species
285 *Populus euphratica*, *Populus pruinosa* and *Eleagnus* spp. associated with shrubs (*Tamarix*
286 spp.) and herbaceous species, distributed along rivers in Asian deserts (Khaydarov et al.,
287 2014). Some of the most valuable tugai ecosystems are located in the lower reaches of the
288 Amu Darya. This area of tugai vegetation was degraded during the shrinking of the Aral Sea
289 and this process is still ongoing. It seems that valley poplar forests are one of the most
290 threatened vegetation types (Korolyuk et al., 2024).

291 Most authors describing changes in ecosystems in the Aral Sea basin focus on the
292 degradation and disappearance of specific habitats. However, there are fewer works on

293 diametrically different situations, when a completely new ecosystem is created and developed,
294 with diametrically different characteristics.

295 This situation arose on a large natural depression in the Syr Darya basin, which is
296 bordered by the Kyzyl-Kum desert, the foothills of the North-Nuratau mountains and
297 extensive irrigated areas of the Golodnaya steppe. A system of lakes called the Aydarkul-
298 Arnasay Lake System was created in this area. The beginning of a new human-made
299 ecosystem was the emergency release of excess water from the Shardara reservoir with a
300 volume of over 20 km³ in 1969.

301 In the following years, water from the Shardara retention reservoir supplemented the
302 water resources of the lake system and eventually a new lake ecosystem was formed,
303 approximately 300 km long and approximately 50 km wide.

304 Over the course of half a century, a very large reservoir with rich biological
305 diversity has developed. Water, according to the old maxim, brought life, and the symbol of
306 this was the inclusion of AALS in the Ramsar Convention in 2008. Now it is one of wetlands
307 of international importance, which, according to environmental experts, will attract the
308 attention of the world community to the problem of preserving and improving the ecological
309 state of this unique biological system (Wilkomirski et al., 2014; Erkabaev et al., 2024).

310

311 **4. 4 Economic, social and medical implications**

312

313 The Aral Sea region, in the times of the Soviet Union well known for its thriving
314 fisheries, has a rich and deeply rooted fishery culture that has evolved over centuries
315 (Ermakhanov et al., 2012). The fishery culture served as the economic backbone of many
316 communities in the region and provided income and employment for fishermen and their
317 families. Low salinity of water meant that both fresh and saltwater fish lived there.

318 In the two most important ports in the Aral Sea, Muynaq and Aralsk, fish was
319 landed and transported further or processed in local processing plants. More than 40 species
320 of fish (19 was native) lived in the lake and the rivers flowing into it, some were endemic,
321 such as the Amu Darya pseudo-shovelnose (sturgeon fish nicknamed “mousetail”, which the
322 Muslims did not eat because of its long and thin tail) and the Aral barbel, and some, for
323 example, silver carp, flounder and grass carp were artificially added (Plotnikov et al., 2023).

324 Fishing has been a vital source of sustenance and economic activity for generations
325 of people living along the sea’s shores. The region’s fishery culture was characterized by
326 traditional fishing techniques, such as using nets and small boats, which were passed down

327 through families and communities. Fishery culture in the Aral Sea region extended beyond
328 economic importance (Glantz, Figueroa, 1997; Alieva et al., 2023).

329 Initially, fishermen tried to enter the waters of the rapidly shrinking lake by digging
330 canals connecting the port areas with the water surface, but this strategy soon turned out to be
331 insufficient. The desiccation and subsequent salinization of the Aral Sea have led to the
332 collapse of its once-thriving fishing industry. Most of the fish species that once lived in the
333 Aral Sea have perished as the salinity of the lake has significantly increased over the past
334 decades. The Aral Sea has practically lost all of its commercial and most of its ecological
335 importance as a fishery. Of course, the situation has become different in the Small and Large
336 Aral Sea areas.

337 In Kazakhstan territory after the completion in 2005 of a dam that attempted to
338 revive a part of the Aral Sea, a small fishing industry was revived. The reservoir (Small Aral
339 Sea) filled up, salinity decreased, and fish stocks rebounded (Smurov 2022). The full revival
340 of the Small Aral is still being discussed, but with less optimism than before due to the
341 diminishing waters of the Syr Darya River.

342 In the dried-up Large Aral Sea in Uzbekistan, the situation is much worse. Muynaq
343 district, has suffered the most from the Aral disaster. Some time ago local residents used to
344 fish for a living, but now the majority of the region are plains, deserts, salt marshes and the
345 dried-up sea.

346 As the Aral Sea has dried up, fisheries and the communities that depended on them
347 collapsed. The increasingly salty water became polluted with fertilizer and pesticides. The
348 blowing dust from the exposed lakebed, contaminated with agricultural chemicals, became a
349 public health hazard. The associated socio-economic processes involved decline in the
350 standard of living, deterioration of health, growth of unemployment and outmigration from
351 the affected region. Unfavourable economic trends have brought with them social problems.
352 In the Aral Sea basin, the region most affected by social problems is Karakalpakstan, an
353 autonomous region located in the former Amu Darya delta.

354 A separate group of problems generated by the drying up of the Aral Sea are
355 disturbances in the health of the population living near the former borders of the water
356 body. Drinking water that meets sanitary standards has become a scarce commodity, and
357 storing its limited resources poses an additional risk of contamination.

358 A natural consequence of this state of affairs is the increased transmission of
359 foodborne infections, such as hepatitis A and various diarrheal diseases (Small et al. 2003). It

360 is worth remembering that diarrheal diseases are one of the main causes of mortality in young
361 children (Wolf et al., 2014; Jabborova et al. 2024).

362 Although various types of inorganic salts, including those containing sodium ion,
363 play a significant role in the human body, their excess may lead to serious health
364 consequences. In the Aral Sea basin, an increased incidence of hypertension, cardiovascular
365 diseases, skeletal disorders and kidney diseases is observed (Anchita et al., 2021; Jabbarov et
366 al. 2019).

367 Another type of threat, although partially removed, are the potential remains of
368 secret research centre on Vozrozhdeniya Island, where biological weapons were tested in the
369 laboratory named Aralsk-7 in the secret town Kantubek. The island was suitable for a secret
370 laboratory, it was located in a very secluded place; practically only accessible by air.

371 During the Cold War, the possibility of infecting people with diseases such as
372 plague, anthrax, smallpox, tularemia and brucellosis were tested there. As the Aral Sea began
373 to shrink, the island grew larger, and when it became a peninsula, there was a great danger of
374 animals spreading dangerous materials.

375 In the years 1995 - 2002, several expeditions were carried out with the participation
376 of American scientists, which disposed of pathogenic microorganisms. In 2021, the
377 authorities decided to completely destroy the remains of the city of Kantubek. Despite all the
378 safety measures taken, it cannot be guaranteed that some virus or bacteria won't escape from
379 the burial sites on Vozrozhdeniya Island.

380

381 **5. What's next? - i.e. possible scenarios for minimizing the costs** 382 **incurred for disturbing the balance.**

383

384 **5. 1 General comments**

385

386 According to the general consensus of scientists dealing with the ecological
387 catastrophe in Central Asia, the direct cause of the drying up of the Aral Sea was the
388 excessive and uncontrolled use of the waters of two large rivers, the Amu Darya and the Syr
389 Darya, to irrigate the surrounding desert areas.

390 Ill-considered decisions dictated by short-sighted political interests led to the virtual
391 disappearance of water over a huge area. It must be remembered that this area was so large
392 that its disappearance was associated with comprehensive, dangerous consequences, described
393 in the current article.

394 Since the drying up of the Aral Sea is called the greatest ecological disaster caused
395 by humans, the restoration of the water body would seem to be a natural reversal of this
396 situation. Reversal, that is, filling the dried-up basin with water with a volume of about 1,000
397 km³, leading to the recovery of a water surface exceeding 60,000 km². The question remains:
398 where to get such a huge amount of water?

399 Theoretically, there would be two possibilities. The first one involves pumping
400 water from the Mediterranean Sea, which connects to the world ocean, through the Black Sea
401 and the Caspian Sea. A variant of this idea is to obtain water from the great Siberian rivers Ob
402 and Irtysh through a system of canals and pumps. While technically possible, both variants of
403 the project of refilling the Aral Sea involve considerable engineering challenges, ecological
404 risks, and they are unimaginably expensive, hence should be considered unrealistic in the
405 foreseeable future.

406 The second option is to restore the water supply from local rivers, especially the
407 Amu Darya. This could be done by eliminating, or at least drastically reducing, irrigation of
408 the surrounding agricultural areas. This is technically much simpler than long-distance
409 pumping of water, but it has further serious economic and social consequences (Micklin
410 2016). Lack of irrigation of cotton fields will cause serious economic consequences for local
411 residents.

412 Since it seems impossible to restore the water level of the Aral Sea before 1960,
413 what can be done to improve the natural and social situation in the areas of the dry bottom of
414 the dry lake and in the areas surrounding the former reservoir?

415

416 5. 2 The use of plants to reduce the consequences of the drying up of the Aral Sea.

417

418

419 The comprehensive and sustainable use of plants to minimize the negative effects of
420 Aralkum is natural, relatively effective and simple to implement. It seems natural, if only
421 because of the presence of vegetation effective mitigation of the occurrence of wind erosion
422 within these areas is possible.

423 In addition, some plant species can be effectively used in the phytoremediation
424 process. Certain plants are also of economic importance. Of course, it is crucial to determine
425 which plant species and under what conditions will be able to adapt to the unfavourable
426 habitat parameters in Aralkum. It is not enough to pay attention to halophytes, because even
427 representatives of this group of plants have different habitat requirements and economic
428 usefulness.

429 One of the leading research centres dealing with the possibilities of introducing
430 appropriate plant species is the National University of Uzbekistan. The university has just
431 started leading a new research project entitled: “Creation of scientific bases for grouping of
432 sites planting plants depending of salinity, physico-chemical and biological properties of soils
433 spread on the dry bottom of the Aral Sea”.

434 The research group conducted pilot experiments at the university research site in Moynaq.
435
436



437
438 Fig5. The entrance to the university research site in Muynaq, on the dry bottom of the Aral
439 Sea.(Photograph by Bogusław Wilkomirski)
440
441
442
443
444



445

446 Fig.6. *Haloxylon* seedlings growing during pipe experiments at the university research site in
447 Muynaq(Photograph byZafarjonJabbarov)

448

449 During pilot experiments, for the first time it was possible to obtain satisfactory
450 seedlings of the *Haloxylon* genus (Jabbarov et al. 2024; Jabbarov, Abdrakhmanov, et al.
451 2024;). The success of plant growth in the conditions of the experimental training ground is
452 not synonymous with the possibility of growing plants on large areas. In addition to the
453 appropriate amount of water, soil parameters are of key importance for large-scale plant
454 cultivation. Therefore, the primary goal of the new project is to group areas for planting plants
455 based on the study of salinity, chemical, physical, biological, and microbiological properties
456 of sand dunes scattered in the dry bottom of the Aral Sea (Jabbarova et al. 2023; Eshova et al.
457 2024).

458

459 According to one of the definitions given by Flowers and Colmer (2008), halophytes
are plants that, thanks to certain biochemical mechanisms, are able to regulate high salt

460 concentrations in their tissues and therefore adapt to life in a highly saline environment. In
461 other words, halophytes are remarkable plants that tolerate salt concentrations that kill 99% of
462 other species.

463 Since salinity, apart from the lack of adequate substrate moisture, is the most
464 important factor limiting the growth of plants on the dry bottom of the Aral Sea, attention of
465 researchers from the research group obviously focuses on halophytes. Of course, variable
466 salinity is related not only to the concentration, but also to the type of salt, in other words, to
467 the variability of cations and anions. In addition to salinity, other factors must be taken into
468 account, which is why the innovative nature of this project consists in grouping dry bottom
469 regions in terms of salinity, physical, chemical and biological properties of sand dunes.

470 If we take into account the factor of pollution, especially with heavy metals, it is
471 worth looking for plants that can survive in salty and polluted areas and are able to reduce the
472 level of heavy metals in the substrate. Heavy metals are among inorganic pollutants of soils
473 that have been the most intensively investigated and frequently found (Wilkomirski et al.,
474 2012; Jabbarov et al. 2024).

475 Phytoextraction (a type of phytoremediation), uses metal-accumulating plants to
476 remove toxic elements from contaminated soil. The effect of phytoextraction depends mostly
477 upon the selection of a proper plant species, able to accumulate the selected elements in
478 specific environmental conditions. Plants that could reduce nickel and copper concentration in
479 saline soils are sunflower (*Helianthus annuus*) and corn (*Zea mays*). Both species prefer a
480 warm climate, so they could be suitable for growing in Aralkum. Laboratory tests have shown
481 that both corn and sunflower can be used for phytoremediation of soils polluted with nickel
482 and copper and with a high NaCl content. Soil salinity facilitates high accumulation of heavy
483 metals. Both species are also of agricultural importance, which would further increase their
484 reclamation value (Rogacheva et al., 2018).

485

486 **Conclusion**

487

488 Sandra Postel, founding director of the Global Water Policy Project, organization
489 whose purpose isto promote the preservation of Earth's freshwater through research, writing,
490 outreach and public speaking, said:“The Aral Sea tragedy provides the most strikingexample
491 of the interconnections between the health of an ecosystem and that of theeconomy,
492 community, and people dependent on that ecosystem”(Postel 2000).

493 The review of the literature carried out in this article shows that the fateful decision
494 to reverse the course of the rivers feeding the Aral Sea in order to turn the desert into a large
495 oasis of farmland resulted in a disastrous disturbance of the water balance in the entire region,
496 with all its consequences.

497 The consequences of this decision have been far-reaching and profound. A region
498 with a once thriving fishing industry and well developed tourism has fallen into disrepair,
499 causing economic hardship, unemployment and physical and mental health problems for the
500 local population (Wæhler, Dietrichs, 2017). Moreover, environmental pollution with
501 pesticides and other toxic organic and inorganic derivatives spread during dust storms causes
502 many diseases that ruin the health of people living around the shores of the former reservoir.

503 Since a complete or even significant restoration of balance seems unrealistic, the
504 efforts of politicians and scientists should be directed towards rapid development of Aralkum
505 that will eliminate the worst problems, such as erosion, dust storms and ground pollution. It
506 seems that the easiest way to do this is through plant reintroduction. First of all, those that are
507 able to grow in the conditions existing on Aralkum, and then a selection of those that not only
508 belong to halophytes, but also have economic and phytoremediation importance. Therefore,
509 the research of scientific team from the National University of Uzbekistan seems to be
510 promising.

511 What is important for solving Aralkum's problems is that President Mirziyoyev and
512 the government of the Republic of Uzbekistan have directed far more attention towards the
513 Aral Sea Crisis than any previous one. Proposal of transformation the Aralkum into a zone of
514 new ecological solutions was enacted by the UN General Assembly in 2021.

515
516 **Funding Statement:** This article is based on the following project funded by the
517 Agency for Innovative Development of the Republic of Uzbekistan: FL-8323102111-R1 on
518 topic "Creating a scientific basis for grouping areas for planting plants according to the
519 salinity, physical, chemical and biological properties of the soils distributed in the dry bottom
520 of the Aral Sea".

521

522

523

524 **Disclaimer (Artificial intelligence)**

525 Author(s) hereby declare that NO generative AI technologies such as Large Language
526 Models (ChatGPT, COPILOT, etc.) and text-to-image generators have been used
527 during the writing or editing of this manuscript.

528 **References**

529

530 1. Aladin N. V., Plotnikov I. S., Potts W.T. W. (1995) The Aral Sea desiccation and
531 possible ways of rehabilitating and conserving its Northern part. *Environmetrics* 6,
532 17-29.

533

534 2. Aladin N. V., Crétaux J-F., Plotnikov I. S., Kouraev A. V., Smurov A. O., Cazenave
535 A., Egorov A. N., Papa F. (2005) Modern hydro-biological state of the Small Aral
536 Sea, *Environmetric*, 6, (4), 375 - 392.

537

538 3. Aladin N. V., Plotnikov I. S., Micklin P., Ballatore T. (2009) Aral Sea: Water level,
539 salinity and long-term changes in biological communities of an endangered
540 ecosystem-past, present and future, *Nat. Res. Environ. Issues*: Vol. 15, Article 36.

541

542 4. Aladin N.V., Gonta V.I., Zhakova L.V. , Plotnikov I. S., Smurov A. O., Rzymiski P.,
543 Klimaszyk P. (2019) The zoocenosis of the Aral Sea: six decades of fast-paced
544 change. *Environ Sci Pollut Res* 26, 2228–2237.

545

546 5. Anchita Z. A., Khaibullina Z., Kabiyevev Y., Persson K. M., Tussupova K. (2021)
547 Health Impact of Drying Aral Sea: One Health and Socio-Economical Approach.
548 *Water*. 13(22):3196.

549

550 6. Banks J. R., Heinold B., Schepanski K. (2024a) Impacts of the Desiccation of the
551 Aral Sea on the Central Asian Dust Life-Cycle. *Atmos. Chem. Phys.* 24(20) 11451–
552 11475.

553

554 7. Banks, J. R., Heinold, B., and Schepanski, K.: (2024b) Dust aerosol from the Aralkum
555 Desert influences the radiation budget and atmospheric dynamics of Central Asia,
556 *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, 24, 11451–11475, <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-24-11451-2024>.,

557

558 8. Boomer I., Wünnemann .B, Mackayc A. W., Austinc P., Sorreld P., Reinhardt C.,
559 Keyser D., Guichard F., Fontugne M. (2009). Advances in understanding the late
560 Holocene history of the Aral Sea region. *Quatern. Int.* 194:79–90.

561

- 562 9. Bortnik V. N. (1999). Alteration of water level and salinity of the Aral Sea, Creeping
563 Environmental Problems and sustainable development in the Aral Sea basin,
564 Cambridge University Press, pp 47-65.
- 565
- 566 10. Brain S. (2010). "The Great Stalin Plan for the Transformation of Nature".
567 Environmental History. **15** (4): 670–700.
- 568
- 569 11. Breckle S. W., Wucherer W. (2012). The Aralkum, a Man-Made Desert on the
570 Desiccated Floor of the Aral Sea (Central Asia): General Introduction and Aims of
571 the Book. In: Breckle, SW., Wucherer, W., Dimeyeva, L., Ogar, N. (eds) Aralkum - a
572 Man-Made Desert. Ecological Studies, vol 218. Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg.
- 573
- 574 12. Burr G, Kuzmin Y. V, Krivonogov S, Gusskov S. A, Cruz R. J. (2019). A history of
575 the modern Aral Sea (Central Asia) since the Late Pleistocene. Quaternary Sci. Rev.
576 206(1–2):141–149.
- 577
- 578 13. Chen Z., Gao X., Lei J. (2022) Dust emission and transport in the Aral Sea
579 region, Geoderma, Volume 428, 116177.
- 580
- 581 14. Duan Z, Wang X, Sun L. (2022) Monitoring and Mapping of Soil Salinity on the
582 Exposed Seabed of the Aral Sea, Central Asia. Water. 14(9):1438.
- 583
- 584 15. Editorial Nature. The water crisis is worsening. Researchers must tackle it together.
585 Nature. (2023) Jan;613(7945):611-612.
- 586
- 587 16. Erkabaev F., Madrimov R., Nurmatova V. (2024). Status quo analysis of the Aidar-
588 Arnasay Lake System. E3S Web of Conferences. 497.
- 589
- 590 17. Ermakhanov Z. K., Plotnikov I. S., Aladin N. V., Micklin P. (2012). Changes in the
591 Aral Sea ichthyofauna and fishery during the period of ecological crisis. Lakes
592 Reservoirs: Res. Manage. 17 (1), 3–9.
- 593

- 594 18. Flowers T. J., and Colmer T. D. (2008) Salinity tolerance in halophytes. *The New*
595 *Phytologist* 179: 945-963.
596
- 597 19. Glantz M. H., Figueroa R. (1997). Does the Aral Sea merit heritage status?. *Global*
598 *Environmental Change: Human and Policy Dimensions*, 7, 357-380.
599
- 600 20. Indoitu R., Kozhoridze G., Batyrbaeva M., Vitkovskaya I., Orlovsky N., Blumberg
601 D., Orlovsky L. (2015) Dust emission and environmental changes in the dried bottom
602 of the Aral Sea. *Aeolian Res.*, 17, 101-115.
603
- 604 21. Ivanov, Y.N., Chub, V.E., Subbotina, O.I., Tolkacheva, G.A., Toryannikova, R.V.
605 (1996). Review of the scientific and environmental issues of the Aral Sea basin. In:
606 Micklin, P.P., Williams, W.D. (eds) *The Aral Sea Basin*. NATO ASI Series, vol. 12.
607 Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg.
608
- 609 22. Izhitskiy A., Zavialov P., Sapozhnikov, P., Kirillin G. B., Grossart H. P., Kalina O.
610 Y., Zalota A. K., Goncharenko I. V., Kurbanyazov A. K. (2016) Present state of the
611 Aral Sea: diverging physical and biological characteristics of the residual basins. *Sci.*
612 *Rep.*6, 23906
613
- 614 23. Jabbarov Z., Abdrakhmanov T., Tashkuziev M., Abdurakhmonov N. ,
615 Makhmadiyev S., Fayzullaev O., Nomozov U., Kenjaev Y., Abdullaev S.,
616 Yagmurova D., Abdushukurova Z , Iskhakova S., Kováčik P (2004) *E3S Web of*
617 *Conferences*.
618
- 619 24. Jabbarov, Zafarjon, TokhtasinAbdrakhmanov, ShokhrukhAbdullaev, und
620 Dilafruzayagmurova. 2024. Changes in soil fertility indicators under the influence of
621 drought factor.
622
- 623 25. Jabborova, Dilfuza et al. 2023. Biochar improves the growth and physiological traits
624 of alfalfa, amaranth and maize grown under salt stress. *PeerJ* 11: e15684.
625

- 626 26. Eshova, Kholisa et al. 2024. Fauna and ecological composition of nematodes of
627 Cucurbitaceae family plants Hrsg. O. Tursunov und Y. Zhou. E3S Web of
628 Conferences 563: 03057.
- 629
630 27. Jabbarov, Zafarjon, TokhtasinAbdrakhmanov, AlimPulatov, Peter Kováčik, und
631 KhabibulloPirmatov. 2019. Change in the Parameters of Soils Contaminated by Oil
632 and Oil Products. Agriculture (Pol'nohospodárstvo) 65: 88–98.
- 633
634 28. Jabbarov Z, Abdrakhmanov T, Zakirova S, Abdushukurova Z, Sultanova N,
635 Abdullaev S, et al. Post-Reclamation Enhancement of Physical and Biological
636 Properties of Soils Contaminated by Oil and Petroleum Products. Foldvary L,
637 Abdurahmanov I, editors. E3S Web of Conf. 2024;590:01003.
- 638
639 29. Jabbarov, Zafarjon, TokhtasinAbdrakhmanov, NodirAbdurakhmonov, et al. 2024.
640 Sequence of research works to create a scientific basis for grouping plant cultivation
641 areas according to the salinity level, physical, chemical, and biological properties of
642 soil-grounds in the dried-up bottom area of the Aral Sea.
- 643
644 30. Khaydarov K. K., Kabulova F. D., Wilkomirski B. (2014) Current state of Zarafshan
645 tugay ecosystems and their protection. Rocznik Świętokrzyski, ser. B. 35: 51 – 59.
- 646
647 31. Korolyuk A., Shomurodov K., Khabibullaev B., Sadinov Z. (2024). Composition and
648 Structure of Tugai Communities in the Indication of Ecological Conditions in the
649 Lower Amu Dar'ya. Contemporary Problems of Ecology. 17. 131-138.
- 650
651 32. Krijgsman W, Tesakov A, Yanina T, Lazarev S, Danukalova G, Van Baak CGC,
652 Agustín J, Alçiçek M.C, Aliyeva E, Bistai D, Bruch A, Büyükmeriç Y, Bukhsianidze
653 M, Flecker E, Frolov P, Hoyle TM, Jorissen EL, Kirscher U, Koriche SA,
654 Kroonenberg SB, Lordkipanidze D, Oms O, Rausch L, Singarayer J, Stoica M, Van
655 de Velder S, Titov VV, Wesseling FP. (2019). Quaternary time scales for the
656 Pontocaspian domain: Interbasinal connectivity and faunal evolution. Earth Science
657 Reviews 188:1–40.
- 658
659

- 660 33. Löw, F., Dimov, D., Kenjabaev, S., Zaitov, S., Stulina, G., Dukhovny, V. (2021).
661 Land cover change detection in the Aralkum with multi-source satellite datasets.
662 GIScience and Remote Sensing, 59(1), 17–35.
663 <https://doi.org/10.1080/15481603.2021.2009232>
664
- 665 34. Ma X., Huang S., Huang Y. Wang X., Luo Y., (2024) Evaporation from the
666 hypersaline Aral Sea in Central Asia, Sci. Total Environ., 908,168412.
667
- 668 35. Micklin F. (1988) Desiccation of the Aral Sea: A Water Management Disaster in the
669 Soviet Union. Science. Vol. 241: 1170-1176.
670
- 671 36. Micklin P. (2016). The future Aral Sea: hope and despair. Environ. Earth Sci. 75:1–
672 15.
673
- 674 37. O'Hara S. L, Wiggs G. F, Mamedov B, Davidson G, Hubbard R. B. (2000) Exposure
675 to airborne dust contaminated with pesticide in the Aral Sea region. Lancet. 2000 Feb
676 19;355(9204):627-8.
677
- 678 38. Peterson M. K. (2019). Pipe dreams: Water and empire in Central Asia's Aral Sea
679 basin. Cambridge University Press.
680
- 681 39. Plotnikov I. S., Aladin N. V., Zhakova L. V., Mossin J., Høeg J. T., (2023) Past,
682 Present and Future of the Aral Sea -A Review of its Fauna and Flora before and
683 during the Regression Crisis. Zool. Stud. May 12;62:e19.
684
- 685 40. Postel S. L., (2000) Entering an era of water scarcity: the challenges ahead. EcolAppl
686 10(4): 941–948
687
- 688 41. Rogacheva S., Gubina T., Pisarenko E., Zhutov A., Shilova N., Wilkomirski, B.
689 (2018). Phytoextraction of copper and nickel from soils characterized by different
690 degrees of chloride salinity. J. Elem.23(1): 119 – 135.
691

- 692 42. Singh A., Behrangi A., Fisher J. B., Reager J. T. (2018) On the Desiccation of the
693 South Aral Sea Observed from Spaceborne Missions. *Remote Sens.*, 10, 793.
694
- 695 43. Small I., Falzon D., van der Meer J. B., Ford N. (2003) Safe water for the Aral Sea
696 Area: could it get any worse? *Eur. J. Public Health.* Mar;13(1):87-9.
697
- 698 44. Smurov A. O., Plotnikov I., Aladin N. (2022). Present of fish resources of the Small
699 Aral sea (Kazakhstan). *Rybovodstvoirybnoehozjajstvo (Fish Breeding and Fisheries).*
700 652-660. 10.33920/sel-09-2210-01.
701
- 702 45. Song S., Chen X., Hu Z., Zan C., Liu T., De Maeyer P., Sun Y. (2023) Deciphering
703 the impact of wind erosion on ecosystem services: An integrated framework for
704 assessment and spatiotemporal analysis in arid regions. *Ecological Integrations.* 154:
705 110693, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolind.2023.110693>
706
- 707 46. Song Y, Xun X, Zheng H, Chen X, Bao A, Liu Y, Luo G, Lei J, Xu W, Liu T. (2024)
708 Modeling and Locating the Wind Erosion at the Dry Bottom of the Aral Sea Based on
709 an InSAR Temporal Decorrelation Decomposition Model. *Remote Sensing.*
710 16(10):1800.
711
- 712 47. Toderich K., Matsuo N., Khujanazarov T., Shomuradov K., Yamanaka N., Tanaka
713 K., Nishonov B., Adilov B., Kholmatjanov B. (2024). Halophytes of the Aralkum
714 Saline Desert.
715
- 716 48. Törnqvist R, Jarsjö J, Karimov B. (2011) Health risks from large-scale water
717 pollution: trends in Central Asia. *Environ Int.* 37(2): 435 – 442.
718
- 719 49. Wähler T. A., Dietrichs E. S., (2017) The vanishing Aral Sea: health consequences of
720 an environmental disaster. *Tidsskr Nor Lægeforen* 2017 Vol. 137.
721
- 722 50. White K. D. (2014) Nature and Economy in the Aral Sea Basin. In: *The Aral Sea.*
723 (eds. P. Micklin et al.), Springer Earth System Sciences, pp. 301-336
724

- 725 51. Wilkomirski B., Galera H., Sudnik-Wójcikowska B., Staszewski T., Tomasz &
726 Suska-Malawska M. (2012). Railway Tracks -Habitat Conditions, Contamination,
727 Floristic Settlement - A Review. *Environ NaturResour Res. Research.* 2(1) 86-95.
728
- 729 52. Wilkomirski B., Brzeziński M. Suska-Malawska M. (2014) AydarkulArnasay Lake
730 System (AALS) – ecological disaster or a new paradise. 2nd International Conference
731 on Arid Lands Studies. Innovations for sustainability and food security in arid and
732 semiarid lands. Samarkand, Uzbekistan,. Conference materials, p. 174.
733
- 734 53. Wolf J., Prüss-Ustün A., Cumming O., Bartram J., Bonjour S., Cairncross S., Clasen
735 T., Colford J. M. Jr., Curtis V., De France J., Fewtrell L., Freeman M. C., Gordon B.,
736 Hunter P. R., Jeandron A., Johnston R. B., Mäusezahl D., Mathers C., Neira M.,
737 Higgins J P. (2014) Assessing the impact of drinking water and sanitation on
738 diarrhoeal disease in low- and middle-income settings: systematic review and meta-
739 regression. *Trop. Med. Int. Health.* Aug;19(8):928-42.
740
- 741 54. Yang S., Sun L., He J., Li C., Yu Y. (2024) Evolution of the Aral Sea: Crisis and
742 present situation[J]. *Arid Land Geography*, , 47(2): 181-191
743 <https://doi.org/10.12118/j.issn.1000-6060.2023.710>
- 744
- 745 55. Alieva D., Usmonova G., Shadmanov S., Aktamov S. (2023) Fishery culture,
746 sustainable resources usage and transformations needed for local community
747 development: the case of Aral Sea. *Frontiers in Marine*
748 *Science* 10: <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmars.2023.1285618>
749