

ӘЛ-ФАРАБИ атындағы ҚАЗАҚ ҰЛТТЫҚ УНИВЕРСИТЕТІ УНИВЕРСИТЕТ имени АЛЬ-ФАРАБИ NATIONAL UNIVERSITY

КАЗАХСКИЙ НАЦИОНАЛЬНЫЙ

AL-FARABI KAZAKH

# ХАБАРШЫ

ГЕОГРАФИЯ СЕРИЯСЫ

# ВЕСТНИК

СЕРИЯ ГЕОГРАФИЧЕСКАЯ

# BULLETIN

GEOGRAPHY SERIES

2(41) 2015

### ӘЛ-ФАРАБИ атындағы ҚАЗАҚ ҰЛТТЫҚ УНИВЕРСИТЕТІ

# ҚазҰУ ХАБАРШЫСЫ

География сериясы

КАЗАХСКИЙ НАЦИОНАЛЬНЫЙ УНИВЕРСИТЕТ имени АЛЬ-ФАРАБИ

## ВЕСТНИК КазНУ

Серия географическая

AL-FARABI KAZAKH NATIONAL UNIVERSITY

### KazNU BULLETIN

Geography series

№2 (41)

Алматы «Қазақ университеті» 2015



# ХАБАРШЫ



ГЕОГРАФИЯ СЕРИЯСЫ №2 (41)

2(41) 2015

25.11.1999 ж. Қазақстан Республикасының Мәдениет, ақпарат және қоғамдық келісім министрлігінде тіркелген

Куәлік №956-Ж.

Журнал жылына 2 рет жарыққа шығады

жауапты хатшы

Нысанбаева А.С., г.ғ.к. (Қазақстан)

#### РЕДАКЦИЯ АЛҚАСЫ:

Сальников В.Г., г.ғ.д, проф. – ғылыми редактор (Қазақстан)

Асылбекова А.А., PhD докторы – ғылыми редактордың орынбасары (Қазақстан)

Бексентова Р.Т., г.ғ.д., профессор (Қазақстан)

Бобушев Т., г.ғ.д., Орта Азиядағы Американдық университетінің профессоры (Қырғызстан)

Вилесов Е.Н., г.ғ.д., профессор (Қазақстан)

Гальперин Р.И., г.ғ.д., профессор (Қазақстан)

Ердавлетов С.Р., г.ғ.д., профессор (Қазақстан)

Медеу А.Р., г.ғ.д., География институтының

директоры (Қазақстан)

Молдахметов М.М., г. ғ. к., доцент (Қазақстан)

Надыров Ш.М., г.ғ.д., профессор (Қазақстан)

Нюсупова Г.Н., г.ғ.д., доцент (Қазақстан)

Родионова И.А., г. г. д., Экономика жоғары мектебінің профессоры (Ресей)

Севастьянов В.В., г. ғ.д., Томск мемлекеттік ұлттық зерттеу университетінің профессоры

(Peceŭ) Таланов Е.А., г.ғ.д., профессор (Қазақстан)

Béla Márkus (Белла Маркус), Шығыс-Венгр университетінің профессоры

Burghard C. Meyer (Бургхард Мейер), Лейпциг университетінің профессоры

### **УНИВЕРСИТЕТІ**

#### Ғылыми басылымдар бөлімінің басшысы

Гульмира Шаккозова Телефон: +77017242911

E-mail: Gulmira.Shakkozova@kaznu.kz

#### Редакторлары:

Гульмира Бекбердиева, Қарлыға Ибрагимова

#### Компьютерде беттеген:

Айша Қалиева

#### Жазылу мен таратуды үйлестіруші

Мөлдір Өміртайқызы Телефон: +7(727)377-34-11

E-mail: Moldir.Omirtaikyzy@kaznu.kz

#### ИБ №9106

Басуға 21.12.2015 жылы қол қойылды.

Пішімі 60х84 1/8. Көлемі 35,0 б.т. Офсетті қағаз. Сандық басылыс.

Тапсырые №4022. Таралымы 500 дана. Бағасы келісімді.

Әл-Фараби атындағы Қазақ ұлттық университетінің

«Қазақ университеті» баспа үйі.

050040, Алматы қаласы, әл-Фараби даңғылы, 71.

«Қазақ университеті» баспа үйінің баспаханасында басылды.

© Әл-Фараби атындағы ҚазҰУ, 2015

Джангулова Г.К., Жеребко Л.Н., Куанышкызы $A$ . Влияние обширных зон обрушения на состояние и поведение поверхности в результате ведения подземных горных работ
Касымканова Х.М., Нурпеисова М.Б., Киргизбаева Г.М Изучение структурных и механических свойств пород при оценке устойчивости откосов
Кожаев Ж.Т, Салкынов А.Т., Байгурин Ж.Д., Имансакипова А.Б. Управление рисками при изучении вопросов сдвижения горных пород
Кожаев Ж.Т., Салкынов А.Т., Спицын А.А., Байгурин Ж.Д., Алтаева А. Теоретический аспект эффекта кинематического разрыхления при выпуске руды
Джангулова Г.К., Куанышқызы А. Инженерно-геодезическое обеспечение на нефтяных месторождениях
5-бөлім Раздел 5 Табиғи және антропогендік геожүйелер Природные и антропогенные геосистемы
Рыспеков Т.Р. Подходы к оценке текущего состояния на времнно естественных ландшафтах
Михели С.В. Персоналии украинского ландшафтоведения
Берденов Ж.Г., Керимбай Н.Н., Джаналеева Г.М. Ландшафтно-геохимические особенности зон техногенного загрязнения Актюбинской агломерации296
Көшім А.Г., Сергеева А., Умирзакова Ж., Байдрахманова Г. Геоэкологическое состояние месторождения Хромтау и ее картографирование по разновременным космоснимкам Landsat
Issanova G.T., Bazarbayeva T.A., Ustemirova A.M., Saparov A.S. Shrinking lakes in Central Asia and environment changes
Джолдасбаева А.М. Проблемы загрязнения поверхностных вод Южно-Казахстанской области
Жиембаев Ж.С. Современные принципы энергосбережения на основе концепции «Зеленого офиса»
Tokzhanova M, Suleimenova S. Reasons for reducin gradiation at Semipalatinsk Nuclear test site
Сатубалдин А. Б., Базарбаева Т. А. О проблеме загрязнения бытовыми отходами
<i>Тастанбекова Р.Е.</i> Қазақстан Республикасындағы ерекше қорғалатын табиғи аумақтардың қазіргі жағдайы
6-бөлім Раздел 6 Рекреациялық геоморфологиялық жүйелер: зерттеу, пайдалану, қорғау изучение, использование, охрана
Ердавлетов С.Р., Актымбаева А.С., Мукатова Д.М. К вопросу активизации сельских территорий Казахстана посредством развития разновидностей агротуризма
Турсинбаева К.С., Абдреева Ш.Т., Артемьев А.М. Туристские возможности степных регионов Казахстана
Абдреева Ш.Т. Калменова У.А., Турсинбаева К.С. Оценка водных ресурсов Карагандинской области для развития рекреации и туризма 376
Сапиева А.Ж., Актымбаева А.С. «Бұйратау» мемлекеттік табиғи ұлттық саябағының туризм дамуына мүмкіншілігін талдау

Issanova G.T., Bazarbayeva T.A., Ustemirova A.M., Saparov A.S.

Shrinking lakes in Central Asia and environment changes

Central Asia is rich in many continental lakes. The Aral Sea belonged to the category of large water reservoirs on Earth. Due to the unscientific and uncontrolled extraction of water for irrigation in Central Asia and Kazakhstan, which began in the 50-60s of last century, the water flow has shrunk in the Aral Sea, and in the 1980s has ceased. As a result of anthropogenic impacts on the basin ecosystem has led to negative consequences: soil salinization, desertification process and environmental changes. The article describes the change in the water balance in the Aral Sea basin related to anthropogenic impact, leading to negative environmental effects.

Key words: lakes, Aral Sea, water balance, Central Asia, desertifica-

Исанова Г.Т., Базарбаева Т.А., Устемирова А.М., Сапаров А.С.

Орта Азия жеріндегі көлдердің тартылуы және қоршаған ортаның өзгеруі Орта Азия жері көптеген континенттік көлдерге бай. Арал теңізі Жер шарындағы ірі су қорларының бірі болып табылған. Өткен ғасырдың 50-60 жылдардың басында Орта Азия мен Қазақстанның жерлерін суару кезінде суды ғылыми негізсіз және бақылаусыз қолдануынан Арал теңізіне келетін су ағысы кенет азайып, 1980 жылдары мүлдем тоқтап қалды. Алаптың экожүйесіне антропогендік әсерлерінің нәтижесінде жағымсыз салдар орын алды: топырақтың тұздану, аймақтың шөлге айналуы және қоршаған ортаның өзгеруі. Мақалада антропогендік әсерлердің нәтижесінде Арал теңізі алабы су балансының өзгеруі және олардың жағымсыз экологиялық салдары қарастырылған.

**Түйін сөздер:** көлдер, Арал теңізі, су балансы, Орта Азия, шөлдену.

Исанова Г.Т., Базарбаева Т.А., Устемирова А.М., Сапаров А.С.

Высыхание озер в Центральной Азии и изменение окружающей среды Центральная Азия богата многочисленными континентальными озерами. Аральское море относилось к разряду крупных резервуаров воды на Земле. Из-за научно необоснованного и неконтролируемого забора воды на орошение земель в Средней Азии и Казахстане, начавшегося в 50-60-е годы прошлого века, сток воды в Арал резко уменьшился, а в 1980-е годы и прекратился вовсе. В результате антропогенное воздействие на экосистему бассейна привело к негативным последствиям: произошло засоление почвы, опустынивание территории и изменение окружающей среды. В статье рассмотрены изменения водного баланса в бассейне Аральского моря, связанные с антропогенным воздействием, приведшим к негативным экологическим последствиям.

**Ключевые слова:** озера, Аральское море, водный баланс, Центральная Азия, опустынивание.

UDC 502.656

#### <sup>1,2\*</sup>Issanova G.T., <sup>2</sup>Bazarbayeva T.A., <sup>1</sup>Ustemirova A.M., <sup>1</sup>Saparov A.S.

<sup>1</sup>U.U. Uspanov Kazakh Research Institute of Soil Science and Agrochemistry,
Kazakhstan, Almaty

<sup>2</sup>Al-Farabi Kazakh National University, Faculty of
Geography and Environmental Sciences, Department of Energoecology,
Kazakhstan, Almaty

\*E-mail: agamprit@gmail.com

SHRINKING LAKES IN CENTRAL ASIA AND ENVIRONMENT CHANGES

#### Introduction

There are thousands foothill lakes in Central Asia. The largest of the lakes is the Caspian and Aral Seas, Balkhash, AlakolEbinur, Lobnur, which are included in the list of the largest inland water reservoirs on Earth. The lakes are like a «crown of diamonds» in the steppes and deserts, surrounded by mountainsand they consists of linked and interacting system, which softens the arid or dry conditions surrounding areas. The Aral Sea is located amid the great deserts of Central Asia (Fig.1). Its drainage basin covers 1.8 million square kilometers within seven nations: Uzbekistan, Turkmenistan, Kazakhstan, Afghanistan, Tajikistan, and Iran. Only Kazakhstan and Uzbekistan are riparian on the sea proper, with each possessing an approximately equal length of shoreline. The entire Aral coastline within Uzbekistan lies within that nation's Karakalpakstan Republic [1]. A terminal lake, it has surface inflow but no surface outflow. Therefore, the balance between inflows from two rivers, the Amudarya and Syrdarya and net evaporation (evaporation from its surface minus precipitation on it) fundamentally determine its level. Net groundwater inflow, estimated at -1.3 to 3.4 km<sup>3</sup> year<sup>-1</sup>has been considered an inconsequential part of the water balance [2]. Although this part of the water balance has become a more important factor in the past several decades as surface inflow diminished.

At the beginning of the irrigation expansion program a number of scientists showed concern about the future of the Aral Sea basin, which was suffering a critical reduction of water inflow.

Owing to the sea's shrinkage, climate has changed in a band up to 100 km wide along the former shoreline in Kazakhstan and Uzbekistan [1, 3-4]. Maritime conditions have been replaced by more continental and desertic regimes. Summers have warmed and winters cooled, spring frosts are later and fall frosts earlier, humidity is lower, and the growing season shorter. Uzbekistani climatological experts also believe that the increase in the levels of salt and dust in the atmosphere are reducing surface radiation and thereby photosynthetic activity, as well as increasing the acidity of precipitation [5].

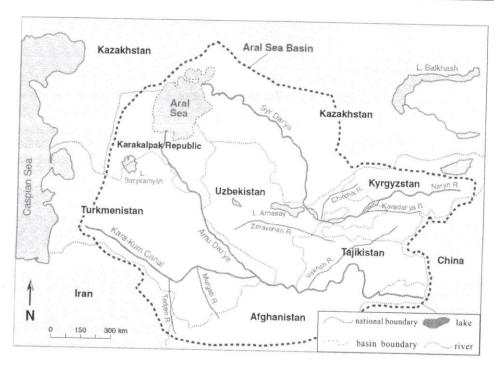


Figure 1 – Aral Sea basin [1]

The population living in the so-called ecological disaster zone around the sea suffers acute health problems. Some of these are direct consequences of the sea's recession (e.g., respiratory and digestive afflictions and possibly cancer from inhalation and ingestion of blowing salt and dust and poorer diets from the loss of Aral fish as a major food source). Other serious health-related problems result from environmental pollution associated with the heavy use of toxic chemicals (e.g., pesticides and defoliants for cotton) in irrigated agriculture, mainly during the Soviet era. Nevertheless, the most serious health issues are directly related to Third World medical, health, nutrition, and hygienic conditions and practices. Bacterial contamination of drinking water is pervasive and has led to very high rates of typhoid, paratyphoid, viral hepatitis, and dysentery. Tuberculosis is prevalent as is anemia, particularly in pregnant woman. Liver and kidney ailments are widespread; the latter is probably closely related to the excessively high salt content of much of the drinking water. Surveys conducted in the mid to late 1980s showed that rates of diseases such as cancer of the esophagus, tuberculosis, and various intestinal disorders had grown significantly compared to a decade earlier [6]. The infant mortality rate, a basic indicator of general health conditions, rose from an average of 45/1000 live births in 1965 to 72/1000 in 1986, with the rate in several districts adjacent to the former seashore ranging from 80 to over 100/1000.

These are 3–4 times the national level in the former Soviet Union and 7–10 times that of the United States. Although efforts have been made in the post-Soviet period to improve health conditions here, there is little evidence these rates have declined substantially [7].

#### Study area and methods

There are numerous lakes in Central Asia and they very unevenly distributed; most of them located in mountainous areas. Large lakes in the plains that is runoff of major rivers in Central Asia. The total number of lakes in Central Asia and Kazakhstan is very large and about 10000. Among them is the largest lake - the Aral Sea, the world's third largest water surface area; Balkhash Lake, the size is only slightly inferior to the Ladoga Lake; Issyk-Kul Lake is one of the deepest water reservoirs and others[8] (Fig.1).

The feature of the region is not only a large number of water bodies, but also their exceptional diversity. Lake basins are found with the following types by origin: suffusion, aeolian, glacial and tectonic; by salinity - from fresh to salty and bitter; for water exchange and power supply - from undrained or poorly flowing and dry up during summer flow. However, heavily mineralized closed lakesare dominated [8].

Salty lakes are particularly widespread in the desert. Rivers are made lakes a salty, as well rivers are suppliers of salt. Water salinity depends on many factors such as inflow of river water, evaporation from the water basin surface, groundwater supply, time (age). Sodium chloride and magnesium sulfates, sodium and calcium are common salts [9].

The levels of lakes in Central Asia are subject to significant seasonal fluctuations and depend on the climatic conditions. Fluctuations in the level of lakes causes a change in the degree of their mineralization. Many lakes in desert plains are periodically; lake basins are filled with water in spring when snow melts (or during rainfall), and dry in the summer, turning into salt crust (solonchak)in surface[9].

Lakes system are formed in the last 100 thousand years, and it has variable characteristics such as water levels and salinity, biological productivity, etc. These characteristics mainly depends on the natural climate variations: precipitation, evaporation and ice deposits.

The system began to change under the influence of human activity about 1000 years ago. Despite the man-made activities, high population and widespread agriculture in the 10-13 centuries AD, the water level of the lake and its general condition mainly dependent on natural conditions. However, over the last 50 years, the stability of the lakes was deeply disturbed by inefficient use of water for irrigation, as a result the Aral Sea were dried.

The research was conducted in lakes system of Central Asia and Kazakhstan, in particular the Aral Sea basin. According to research of Micklin[10], analyzed and reviewed a necessary materials related to water balance, ecological and human consequences, as well as environmental problems in the region.

#### Results and discussion

Changing of water balance and flow reduction for the Aral Sea. From the mid-eighteenth century until the 1960s, sea level variations were less than 4.5 m[11]. Instrumental observation began in 1911. From then until the early 1960s, the sea's water balance was remarkably stable with annual inflow and net evaporation never far apart. The average of each of these water balance components was near 56 km<sup>3</sup> during this period, with net evaporation consisting of evaporation of 66 km3 from the sea's surface (estimated by both theoretical and empirical formulae) minus precipitation on the sea's surface (calculated from measurements at shore and island stations) of 9 km3 (Fig.2) [1-2]. Hence, the water balance was in long-term equilibrium with a maximum lake level variation of less than one meter. At slightly more than 67,000 km2, the Aral Sea, according to area, was the world's fourth largest inland water body in 1960[3]. As a brackish lake with salinity averaging near 10 g/l, which is one-third less than that found in the ocean, it was inhabited chiefly by fresh-water fish species[1]. The sea supported a major fishery and functioned as a key regional transportation route. The extensive deltas of the Syrdarya and Amudarya rivers sustained a diversity of flora and fauna. They also supported irrigated agriculture, animal husbandry, hunting and trapping, fishing, and harvesting of reeds, which served as fodder for livestock as well as building materials.

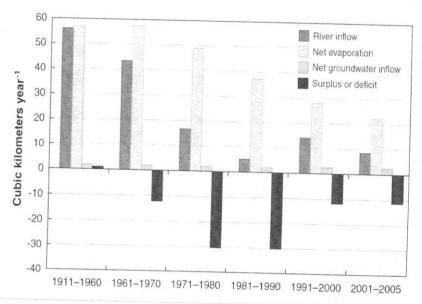


Figure 2 – Average annual water balance for the Aral Sea (1911–2005). River inflow: flow of Syrdarya and Amudarya to Aral Sea; net evaporation: evaporation from sea surface minus precipitation on it; net groundwater inflow: groundwater flow to sea minus flow from sea; surplus or deficit: (inflow to sea + net groundwater inflow) – net evaporation [1-2, 12]

The water balance, morphology, and ecology of the Aral Sea have changed dramatically since the early 1960s. The sea has steadily shrunk and salinized (Table 1) [1]. The dramatic drop in river inflow for the period after 1960 is clearly shown on Fig.2. For the 1960s, discharge to the sea averaged 43 km<sup>3</sup> year<sup>-1</sup> and net groundwater inflow averaged perhaps 2.5 km³ year<sup>-1</sup>, whereas net evaporation was 57 km³ year<sup>-1</sup>, giving a deficit of 12 km³ year<sup>-1</sup>. The difference between river inflow and net evaporation was particularly pronounced during the 1970s and 1980s, with water balance deficits for both periods above 30 km<sup>3</sup> year<sup>-1</sup>. Consequently, the sea dropped especially rapidly over these two decades. Reportedly, the Syrdarya provided no flow to the Aral from 1974– 86 and the Amudarya provided minimal or no flow for 1982–83, 1985–86, and in 1989 [1, 13].

In 1960 the water flow from the Amudarya and Syrdarya Rivers, which represented the major input for the Aral Sea, was about 55-60 km<sup>3</sup>[14]. Five decades later during 2006-2010 the water volume discharged had almost ceased and was only 4.1 km<sup>3</sup>[10].

The water balance for Aral Sea substantially improved during the 1990s owing to more precipitation in the flow generating mountains of the Aral Sea Basin and some reduction in water withdrawals

for irrigation (12% between 1980 and 1995). River discharge to the sea, averaging approximately 14 km³ year⁻¹, and a significant reduction in net evaporation reduced the water balance deficit to approximately 12 km³ year⁻¹ [1]. Average annual inflow to the Aral Sea for 1999 through 2001 was near 5 km³, with nearly 90% provided by the Syrdarya river. For the period 2001–2005, inflow to the sea averaged approximately 9 km³ and net groundwater inflow averaged perhaps 2.5 km³, with net evaporation of approximately 22 km³, giving a deficit around 11 km³ [1].

According to Ptichnikov [15] since 1960 the sea level declined substantially with a 53% decrease in surface area and 70% decrease in volume. In 1960 the water volume of the Aral Sea was 1093.0 km³, in 1986 it decreased more than half 448.00 km³, continuing decreasing to 105 km³ in 2009. In 1960 the Aral Sea area was 67,500 km²[10], while in 2009 the water surface occupied the area of 13,500 km². In 1987 the fourth biggest inland water body in the world was divided into two parts: northern Small Aral, and southern Big Aral (the latter in 2009 had separated into deep Western and shallow Eastern parts). The Syrdarya flows into the former and the Amudarya into the latter. Between 1960 and January 2006, the level of the Small Aral fell by 13 m and the Large Aral fell by 23 m (Table 1).

Table 1 – Hydrological and salinity characteristics of the Aral Sea, 1960–2011 [1]

Year	Level masl	Area km²	% 1960	Volume km³	% 1960	Averagesalinity g/l	% 1960
1960 (WholeAralSea) <sup>a</sup>	53.4	67,499	100	1089	100	10	100
LargeAralSea	53.4	61,381	100	1007	100	10	100
SmallAralSea	53.4	6118	100	82	100	10	100
1971 (WholeAralSea) <sup>a</sup>	51.1	60,200	89	925	85	12	120
1976 (WholeAralSea) <sup>a</sup>	48.3	55,700	83	763	70	14	140
1989 (WholeAralSea) <sup>b</sup>		39,734	59	364	33		
LargeAralSea	39.1	36,930	- 60	341	34	30	300
SmallAralSea	40.2	2804	46	23	28	30	300
2006 (WholeAralSea) <sup>b</sup>		17,382	26	108	10		
LargeAralSea	30.0	14,325	23	81	8	East Sea >100 West Sea 70-80	100 700-80
SmallAralSea <sup>d</sup>	40.5	3057	50	21	26	12	120
2011 (wholeAralSea)		12.130	18	90	8		
LargeAralSeac	28.3	8550	14	62	6	> 100	> 100
SmallAralSea <sup>d</sup>	42.0	3258	53	27	33	~10	100

Notice: <sup>a</sup> Annualaverage

bOn January 1.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>c</sup>The Sea will have divided into a western and eastern part

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>d</sup>After implementation of north Aral project in 2005 [2, 15].

During most of the year, the flow is much less and it often entirely ceases. The area of both seas taken together diminished by 74% and the volume by 90% [1].

Efforts to partially restore/preserve the Small Aral Sea are underway. Thereby, in 2005, thirteen km length dike was constructed blocking inflow of Syrdarya River water into the Big Aral Sea in order to preserve at least the Small Aral. Already, the dike discharge gates have been opened and flow again allowed to the Large Aral. The level of the Small Aral will be maintained at 42–m, freshening the water body and improving its ecological condition as well as fishery prospects [1].

Ecological and human consequences. The mainly human-induced desiccation of the Aral Sea and flow reduction, salinization, and pollution of its influent rivers has had severe negative effects [16-17]. Besides the consequences for the sea proper, a zone around the water body of several hundred thousand square kilometers with a population of several million has also been damaged [18]. The Republic of Karakalpakstan in Uzbekistan and portions of Kyzylorda region in Kazakhstan has suffered the most harm. Turkmenistan, although not abutting on the sea, has one Oblast, Dashauz, that has been substantially impacted[1].

The rich and diverse ecosystems of the extensive Amudarya delta, primarily located in the Karakalpak Republic of Uzbekistan, have suffered considerable harm[3, 17].

The Syrdarya delta in Kazakhstan has endured lesser, but still substantial, damage. Greatly reduced river flows through the deltas, the virtual elimination of spring floods in them (owing both to reduced river flow and construction of upstream storage reservoirs), and declining groundwater levels caused by the falling level of the Aral Sea have led to spreading and intensifying desertification. Halophytes and xerophytes are rapidly replacing endemic vegetation communities [19]. In some places, salts have accumulated on the surface forming solonchak (salt pans) where practically nothing will grow. Expanses of unique tugay vegetation complexes that formerly stretched along all the main rivers and distributary channels have been particularly hard hit. According to Novikova[19]tugay covered 100,000 hectares in the Amudarya delta in 1950, but shrank to only 20,000 to 30,000 hectares by 1999[20].

Desiccation of River deltas and irrigation in the basin. Desiccation of the deltas has significantly diminished the area of lakes, wetlands, and their associated reed communities. Between 1960 and 1980, the area of lakes in the Amudarya delta is

estimated to have decreased from 49,000 to 8000 km²[21]. The area of reeds in the delta (as much as 500,000 hectares in 1965) also declined dramatically by the mid-1980s [22]. This has resulted in serious ecological consequences as these zones provide prime habitat for a variety of permanent and migratory waterfowl, a number of which are endangered[3]. Diminution of the aggregate water surface area coupled with increasing pollution of the remaining water bodies (primarily from irrigation runoff containing salts, fertilizers, pesticides, herbicides, and cotton defoliants) adversely affected aquatic bird populations. Since the late 1980s, significant efforts have been made to restore wetlands, improve habitat conditions, and reduce pollution [21].

Irrigated agriculture in the deltas of the Amudarya and Syrdarya rivers has suffered from an inadequacy of water as inflow to the deltas has decreased owing to heavy upstream consumptive use for irrigation. Additionally, water that does reach the deltas has elevated salinity from the leaching of salts caused by repeated usage in the middle and upper courses of the rivers [1, 23]. At times over 2 g/l, these saline flows have lowered crop yields and, in conjunction with inadequate drainage of irrigated fields, promoted secondary soil salinization. Animal husbandry, both in the deltas and desert regions adjacent to the Aral Sea, has been damaged by reduction of area and declining productivity of pastures resulting from desertification, dropping groundwater levels, and replacement of natural vegetation suitable for grazing by inedible species[1].

Dust, sand and salt storms in the region. Strong winds blow sand, salt, and dust from the dried bottom of the Aral Sea, large portions of which are a barren desert, onto surrounding lands. Since the mid-1970s, satellite images have revealed major salt/ dust plumes extending as far as 500 km downwind that drop dust and salt over a considerable area adjacent to the sea in Uzbekistan, Kazakhstan, and to a lesser degree Turkmenistan [3-4, 17, 24-25]. Although dust/salt storms affect the entire zone surrounding the Aral, most of the major storms occur with north and northeast winds, which most seriously impact the Usturt Plateau to the sea's west and the Amudarya delta at the south end of the water body [2]. The latter is the most densely settled as well as economically and ecologically important region around the sea, after analyzing estimates of the total deflated material (ranging from 13 million to as high as 231 million metric tons per year) that were made in the 1980s, concluded that the most probable figure was from 40 to 150 million tons [4]. Salts in dry and aerosol forms, the most harmful of

which include sodium bicarbonate, sodium chloride, and sodium sulfate, settle on natural vegetation and crops, particularly in the Amudarya delta[26]. In some cases, plants are killed outright, but more commonly, their growth (and for crops, yields) is substantially reduced. The salt and dust also have ill effects on wild and domestic animals by directly harming them and reducing their food supply [22].

Local health experts also consider airborne salt and dust a factor contributing to high levels of respiratory illnesses and impairments, eye problems, and throat and esophageal cancer in the near-Aral region [27]. A field work by a British-led group indicates that salt and dust blowing from the dried bottom (and likely from irrigated farmland in regions adjacent to the Aral Sea) is laced with pesticides and heavy metals, which would enhance the negative impacts on humans and other animals.

#### Conclusions

The entire lake system is threatened by catastrophic destruction, the use of water resources of all water reservoirs in Central Asia and Kazakhstan increased.

Human activities have changed the level and volume of the Aral Sea. Syrdarya and Amudarya rivers regulation provoke soil degradation and contributed to the development of intensive deflation and desertification processes. The anthropogenic causes are playing major role in environmental changes of the region.

Dried bottom of the Aral Sea became active and main powerful sources for aeolian dust/sand/salt storms. The powerful source of aerosols have great effect on the climate and environmental changes in Central Asia and Kazakhstan.

#### References

- 1 Micklin P.P. The Aral Sea disaster. Annu Rev Earth Planet Sci., 2007. 35:47-72
- 2 Bortnik V.N. Changes in the water-level and hydrological balance of the Aral Sea. See Micklin&Williams, 1996, p. 25-32.
- 3 Micklin P.P. The Water Management Crisis in Soviet Central Asia: The Carl Beck Papers in Russian and East European, Stud. No. 905. Pittsburgh: Cent. Russ /East Eur. Stud. 1991.
  - 4 Glazovskiy N.F. The Aral Crisis: Causative Factors and Means of Solution. M.: Nauka, 1990. 287 p.
- 5 Chub V.Y. Regional problems of estimating the influence of aerosols (of anthropogenic and natural occurrence) on the climatic characteristics of the Central Asiatic region. In Materials for the Regional Scientific Seminar Aeolian Transport of Salt in the Aral Sea Basin, p. 3–4, March 4–5. Tashkent, Uzbekistan: Exec. Comm. Int. Fund Save Aral Sea, World Bank, Main Admin. Hydrometeorol.Uzbekistan, 1998.
- 6 Anokhin Y.A., Borisov V.A., Kulikova I.L., Surnin V.A., Bobonikova T.E. The concept and results of implementation of regional monitoring. In Monitoring the Natural Environment inBasin of the Aral Sea, ed. LL Lentovskaya, Leningrad.:Gydromete oizdat,1991, pp. 208–214.
  - 7 Lean G. 2006. The dead sea that sprang to life. The Independent. http://www.independent.co.uk
- 8 Sokolov A.A. Hydrology of USSR. Part 2. General Hydrology. Chapter 21. Middle Asia and Kazakhstan. Leningrad: Gidrometeoizdat, 1952.
  - 9 Gvozdetskii N.A., Mikhailov N.I. Physical Geography of USSR: Asian part. M.,1978.
  - 10 Micklin P.P. The past, present, and future Aral sea. Lakes Reserv Res Manag, 2010, 15:193-213.
- 11 Bortnik V.N., Chistyaevaya S.P., eds. Hydrometeorology and Hydrochemistry of the Seas of the USSR. Vol. VIII: Aral Sea. Leningrad: Gidrometeoizdat, 1990.
- 12 Shivareva S., Ponenkova Y., Smerdov B. Modeling the level of the Aral Sea. In Problems of the Aral Sea Basin, Research, Projects, Proposals, pp. 5–10. Tashkent: Chinor ENK,1998.
- 13 Izrayel' Y.A, Anokhin Y.A. Issues of estimating the ecological, social and economic consequences of the degradation of the natural environment in the near Aral region. In Monitoring the Natural Environment in the Basin of the Aral Sea, ed. LL Lentovskaya, Leningrad: Gidrometeoizdat, 1991. p. 4–6.
- 14 Orlovsky L., Orlovsky N. White sand storms in Central Asia. Youlin, Y., Squired, V., Qi, I., (Eds.) 2001. Global Alarm: Dust and sand storms from the World's Drylands, UNCCD report, Bangkok, 2001, p. 169–201.
- 15 Ptichnikov A., ed. Sustainable Development of Ecology and Land and Water Use through Implementation of a GIS and Remote Sensing Center in Karakalpakstan. Bull. 1, NATO Sci. Peace Proj. 974101. Uzbekistan: Moscow, 2000-2003.
  - 16 Micklin P.P. Managing Water in Central Asia. Central Asian and Caucasian Prospects. London: R. Inst. Int. Aff. 2000.
- 17 Micklin P.P. The Aral Sea crisis. In: Nihoul J.C.J, Zavialov P.O, Micklin P.P (eds) Dying and dead seas: climatic versus anthropic causes. NATO science series IV: earth and environmental sciences, Vol. 36. Kluwer, Boston, 2004, p. 99–125.
  - 18 Khvorog G.V. ed. Ecological Map of the Near Aral Region. Alma-Ata: Kazakhstan, 1992.
  - 19 Novikova N. The Tugai of the Aral Sea Region is dying: Can it be restored? Russ. Conserv. News, 1996, 6:22-23.
- 20 Severskiy I., Chervanyov I., Ponamorenko Y., Novikova N.M., Miagkov S.V., et al. Global International Waters Assessment (GIWA) 24, Aral Sea. Univ. Kalmar, Swed., UN Environ. Progr., 2005.
- 21 Chub V.Y. Climate Change and Its Influence on the Natural Resource Potential of the Republic of Uzbekistan. Tashkent: Glavgidromet, 2002.

- 22 Palvaniyazov M. The influence of dust storms on the habitats of certain mammals of the coastal zone of the Aral Sea. Probl. OsvoyeniyaPustyn,1989, 1:55-59.
- 23 World Bank (WB). Aral Sea Basin Program (Kazakhstan, Kyrgyz Republic, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, and Uzbekistan). Washington, DC:Water Environ. Manag. Proj., 1998.
- 24 Bel'gibayev M.Y. A dust/salt meter—an apparatus for entraining dust and salt from air currents. Probl. Osvoyeniya-Pustyn., 1984, 1:72-74.
- 25 Issanova G., Abuduwaili J., Galayeva O. Semenov O., Bazarbayeva T. 2015. Aeolian transportation of sand and dust in the Aral Sea region. Int. J. Environ. Sci. Technol. 12:3213-3224, DOI 10.1007/s13762-015-0753-x
- 26 Abdirov C.A., Agadzhanyan N.A., Vervikhvost A.V., Primbetov K.P., Severin A.Y., et al. Stress reaction of healthy children of Nukus from the effects of ecological factors in Priaral'ye. Vestn. Karakalp. Otdel. Akad. Nauk Resp. Uzb.,1993, 2:15-20.
  - 27 Tursunov A.A. The Aral Sea and the ecological situation in Central Asia and Kazakhstan. Gidrotekh. Stroit., 1989, 6:15-22.