

Morphology of Tigris River within Baghdad City

A. A. Ali, N. A. Al-Ansari, S. Knutsson

Department of Civil, Environmental and Natural Resources Engineering, Lulea
University of Technology, Sweden

Emails: ammar.ali@ltu.se, nadhir.alansari@ltu.se, sven.knutsson@ltu.se

Abstract

In recent years, substantial changes have occurred in the morphology of the River Tigris within Baghdad City. Although huge volumes of sediment are being trapped in recently constructed headwater reservoirs, the number of islands in the Tigris at Baghdad is increasing. The debris of bridges destroyed in the wars of 1991 and 2003 and their subsequent reconstruction have enhanced the development of these islands. As a consequence the ability of the river to carry the peaks of flood waters has been reduced. This has led to potential increase of flooding in parts of the city.

The bed of the River Tigris has been surveyed on three occasions (1976, 1991, and 2008). The most recent, conducted by the Ministry of Water Resources, extended 49km from the Al-Muthana Bridge to the confluence with the Diyala River. It yielded cross-section profiles at 250m intervals. The data are used to predict the maximum flood capacity for the river using the one-dimensional hydraulic model for steady flow "HEC-RAS". Calibration of the model was carried out using field measurements for water levels along the last 15 km of the reach and the last 10 years of observation at the Sarai Baghdad gauging station.

The model showed a significant predicted reduction in the current river capacity below that which the river had carried during the floods of 1971 and 1988. The three surveys conducted on the same reach of the Tigris indicated that the ability of the river to transport water has decreased.

Key words: Tigris River, Baghdad, Islands, Flood capacity

1. Introduction

The River Tigris is 1850 km in length, rising in the Taunus Mountains of Eastern Turkey. The river flows for about 400 km through Turkey before entering Iraq. The total length of the river in Iraq is 1418 km. It drains an area of 473103 km² which is shared by Turkey, Syria and Iraq, as shown in Figure 1. About 58% of the basin lies in Iraq, and no major tributary joins the Tigris south of Baghdad (Al-Ansari et al ., 1986, 1987), but several canals draw water from the Tigris in this region for irrigation purposes. For this reason the mean annual daily flow of the river falls below the discharge at Baghdad (1140 m³s⁻¹) at Kut and Amara, cities to the south.

The average annual flow discharge of the Tigris is 21.2 km³year⁻¹ (672 m³s⁻¹) when it enters Iraq. Its main tributaries contribute a further 24.78 km³year⁻¹

44 (786 m³s⁻¹) of water and some minor wadies from Iran carry about 7 km³year⁻¹
45 (222 m³s⁻¹) directly into the southern marsh area (Al-Ansari and Knutsson,
46 2011).

47 Several cities have been built on the banks of the Tigris since the dawn of
48 civilization. Among these is Baghdad, the capital city of Iraq. Parts of all of
49 these cities were inundated by the spring floods of the river. To overcome this
50 problem various hydraulic projects have been constructed along the Tigris. The
51 control of the river was most efficient during the twentieth century after huge
52 dams were built to entrap some of the waters (Al-Ansari and Knutsson, 2011).
53 Despite the presence of many hydraulic structures upstream of the city, parts of
54 Baghdad were inundated in 1988. For this reason the Ministry of Water
55 Resources, which had conducted a previous survey of the river in 1976,
56 undertook a second survey in 1991. In 2008 the Ministry of Water Resources
57 made a third survey, extending from the Al-Muthana Bridge to the north of
58 Baghdad to the Tigris-Diyala confluence in the south.

59 In the last century the nature of the successions of high water and flood
60 conditions and the interactions of the flows with the many control structures
61 have induced erosion and deposition of material on the river bed, and the growth
62 and disappearance of islands, to the extent that it has been classified as an
63 unstable river (Geohydraulique, 1977).

64 During the last twenty years growing islands have become noticeable
65 features in the Tigris channel within Baghdad City, the numbers of islands
66 increasing with time. In this contribution the impact of human activities in dam
67 building, bank lining and dumping of debris within the channel at Baghdad has
68 led to changes in the geometry of the river and its ability to carry flood waters.

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70 **2. Discharge of the River Tigris for the period 2000-2010**

71 In recent years the water flows of the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers entering
72 Iraq have decreased dramatically, due to the major water impoundment projects
73 constructed and some remain under construction on these rivers in the
74 neighbouring countries, Turkey, Syria and Iran (Al-Ansari and Knutsson, 2011).
75 In addition the problem has become more severe due to the recent dry climatic
76 period in Iraq. As a result the flow of the Tigris at Baghdad has fallen sharply.
77 The discharge of the Tigris at Baghdad during the years 2000-2010 is shown in
78 Figure 2. The average discharge of 544 m³sec⁻¹ is less than half of the mean
79 daily flow of 1140 m³sec⁻¹ prior to 2005 and well below the flood discharges of
80 4480, 3050 and 1315 m³sec⁻¹ recorded in 1971, 1988 and 2005 respectively.

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Fig. 1

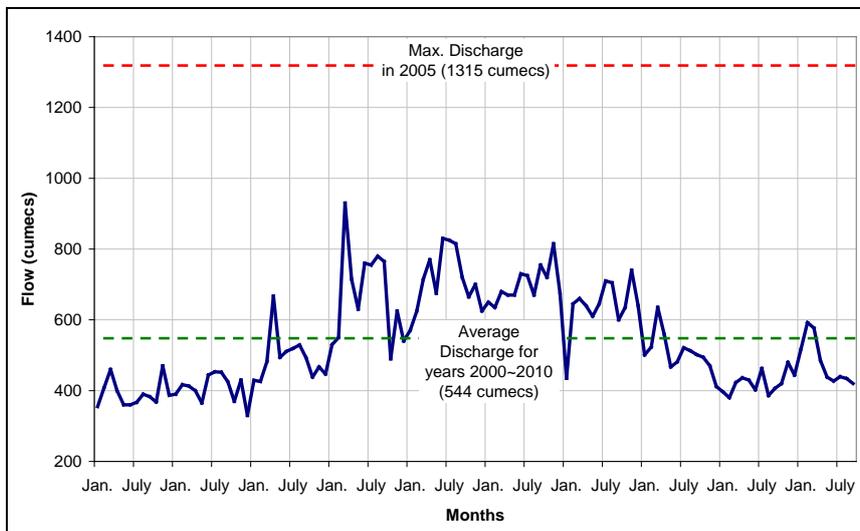


Fig. 2

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3. Previous studies

89 In the past several studies have been conducted on the River Tigris.
90 Among these NEDECO (1958) and Herza (1963) examined the hydraulic
91 conditions controlling flows and the hydrological constraints respectively. Later
92 studies conducted by the Ministry of Irrigation were more related to the present
93 research. The “Tigris River training project within Baghdad City” in 1977 was
94 conducted with Geohydraulique, and a second study, in 1992, was linked with

95 the University of Technology in Iraq. Suspended sediment samples were
96 collected in both programs which were designed to improve the river channel by
97 protecting the banks against water erosion in floods and raising the banks in
98 places of expected overflow. The numerical models used in these investigations
99 were for 1-D steady state flow (using a standard step technique) and also a
100 morphological model for the river meanderings.

101 Similar river training studies have been conducted on many rivers
102 worldwide. Marchi et al (1996) evaluated river training works in the lower Po
103 River of Italy. Their training activities had successfully reduced the overflow
104 frequency as a consequence of protection and regulation works on the tributaries
105 and also on the main river. The storage capacity of the river flood bed was
106 reduced due to a reduction of flood expansion areas in the upper and middle
107 parts of the drainage basin.

108 Lammersen et al (2002) investigated the impact of river training and
109 retention measures on the flood peaks on the River Rhine in Germany. They
110 found that weirs constructed along the upper reaches and other retention
111 measures had successfully influenced the flood conditions along the river. The
112 SYNHP hydrological model was used to describe the flood routing processes in
113 the river by using single linear stores and this was used to evaluate the effects of
114 retention measures in the upper reaches. The 1-D river flow model SOBEK
115 was used to perform flow calculations for the middle and lower reaches, based
116 on the Saint-Venant equations. The models indicated that the river training
117 activities led to an increase in peak flow.

118 Korpak (2007) demonstrated the influence of river training on channel
119 erosion in Polish Mountain Rivers. Using data from 53 years of observations he
120 showed that debris dams and groynes built before 1980 had caused great
121 changes in channel patterns and increased the channel gradient and the rate of
122 river incision. He considered that although the measures to decrease river
123 downcutting in alluvial deposits worked well it had not been eliminated.
124 Korpak noted that river training schemes distort the equilibrium of the channel
125 systems and that most such projects were of limited success in the long term
126 because they rarely considered the entire reaches of the rivers.

127

128 **4. Control structures upstream Baghdad City**

129 Four tributaries contribute to the Tigris River flows upstream of Baghdad
130 (Figure 1). A number of dams, barrages and regulators have been constructed
131 on the river during and since the second half of the twentieth century. To link
132 these structures to the Tigris River surveys under examination they can be
133 classified according to three periods of installation. Prior to 1976 the Samara
134 Barrage (1956) and the Dokan dam on the Lesser Zab tributary (1961) were the
135 two main modifications to the river. During the second period, from 1976 to
136 1981, the Hemrin dam on the Diyala River has operated since 1981, and the
137 Mosul dam on the Tigris began operating in 1986. The only significant major

138 structure constructed since 1991 was the Adhaim dam, opened in 1999. No
139 detail has been given for anticipated discharge of compensation waters from the
140 10.4 km³ capacity reservoir to be created by the Ilisu dam, yet to be completed,
141 in Turkey and their potential impact on the water movements in the middle
142 Tigris valley area.

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144 **5. Bridges on Tigris River within Baghdad City**

145 The City of Baghdad is divided into two substantial areas by the River
146 Tigris. These are connected by a number of bridges which disturb the flow of
147 the waters. Prior to 1976 six bridges spanned the river in the north of the city.
148 Six more bridges were constructed during the period 1976 to 1991, four more in
149 the north and two in the southern part of the city. Only one additional bridge
150 has been constructed linking the southern parts of the city since 1991. The
151 geographic distribution of the bridges, with ten towards the north and only three
152 in the south of the city indicates that the resulting disturbance to river flows is
153 greater in the north than in the south.

154 During the wars of 1991 and 2003 three major bridges (Jumhuriya, Sarafia
155 and the suspension bridge) suffered a high level of damage causing large pieces
156 of concrete and structural steel to fall into the river. Although many of the
157 larger pieces of debris were removed from the river bed, much of the smaller
158 material could not be removed and remains on the river bed.

159 The reconstruction procedures for the three bridges required the installation
160 of a temporary bridge for the suspension bridge and the formation of an earth
161 structure capped by a roadway to carry heavy machinery in the case of the Al-
162 Sarafia Bridge. The damage to the Al-Sarafia Bridge and the temporary bridges
163 parallel to the suspended bridge are illustrated in Figure 3. The construction and
164 removal of these temporary structures are believed to have enhanced the
165 formation of new islands in the river (Figure 4).

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Fig. 3



Fig. 4

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6. Changes in River Geometry

174 Three main islands were recognised in the 1976 survey, namely Suraidat,
175 Um Al-Khanazer and Abu Rumail, and two smaller islands. The first, Kureat,
176 lay in the second meander of the study reach and the second about 9km
177 upstream from the Diyala River confluence.

178 Between 1976 and 1991 a recreation park was constructed on Suraidat
179 Island and an access connected it to the left bank of the river, creating a small
180 lagoon. A similar development at Um Al-Khanazer Island linked it to the right
181 bank, and likewise a lagoon was created beside that bank. The river cross
182 sections of the 1991 survey revealed changes in the bed and banks of the river
183 and there were indications of new islands growing which had not been identified
184 in the 1976 survey. These changes became more noticeable in the 2008 survey.

185 During the period 1976-1991 most of the banks of the northern part of the
186 river were subjected to artificial protection using rocks and concrete. The same
187 was true in the southern part of the river, but to a lesser extent. By the end of
188 2002 about 66% of the banks of the reach had been protected to a level of 36-
189 37m above sea level in attempts to canalize the river course within the most
190 populated areas and to avoid bank collapse during floods (Al-Ansari et al.,
191 1979).

192 Some samples of bed material were taken by van veen grab in the northern
193 part of the reach and grain size analyses were done for them. The results
194 indicated that the percent of the fine sand (finer than 0.3 mm diameter) was
195 about 95 to 98% and the clay was just decimal fractions and the rest gone to the
196 silt.

197 The irregularities in the cross sections of the river reflect the variations in
198 flow velocity controlling erosion or deposition in new parts of the reach. It is
199 important to note that most of the suspended sediments formerly transported to
200 the reach were now being trapped in the upstream reservoirs, so that the river
201 was attempting to achieve a new stable regime (Morris and Fan, 2010).

202 The recent regional decrease in rainfall, leading to low water levels in the
203 river reaches at Baghdad, and the waters are eroding only below the levels of
204 protection given to the upper banks. It is likely that this will lead to the collapse
205 of parts of the protected banks in the future.

206 In addition to the variations in bed levels along the reach (Figure 5),
 207 changes in elevation on any single cross section between the 1976, 1991 and
 208 2008 surveys reached up to 4m (Figure 6). The 1991 cross section showed the
 209 most extreme changes in bed level. This is believed to be due to the survey
 210 having been conducted shortly after the 1988 major floods. The bed level
 211 variation in 2008 was the least and may be attributed to the fact that the survey
 212 was conducted 20 years after the high flood of 1988 or alternatively was due to
 213 the river having suffered from low flow regime during the past 20 years

214 The repeated surveys have shown that the average slope of the bed of the
 215 Tigris within Baghdad was substantially greater in 2008 (5 cm km^{-1}) than in
 216 1976 (1.03 cm km^{-1}) .and more than twice that in 1991 (2.45 cm km^{-1}). The
 217 obstacles present in the river during the 2008 survey are listed in Table 1, with
 218 details of their location, length and type. Some are islands and others areas of
 219 bank accretion. Their positions are indicated in Figure 7.

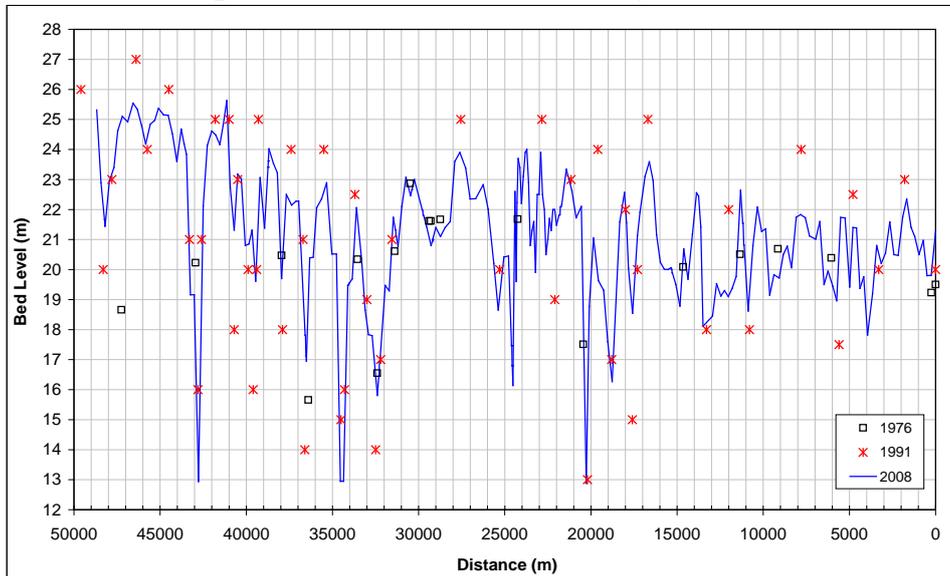


Fig. 5

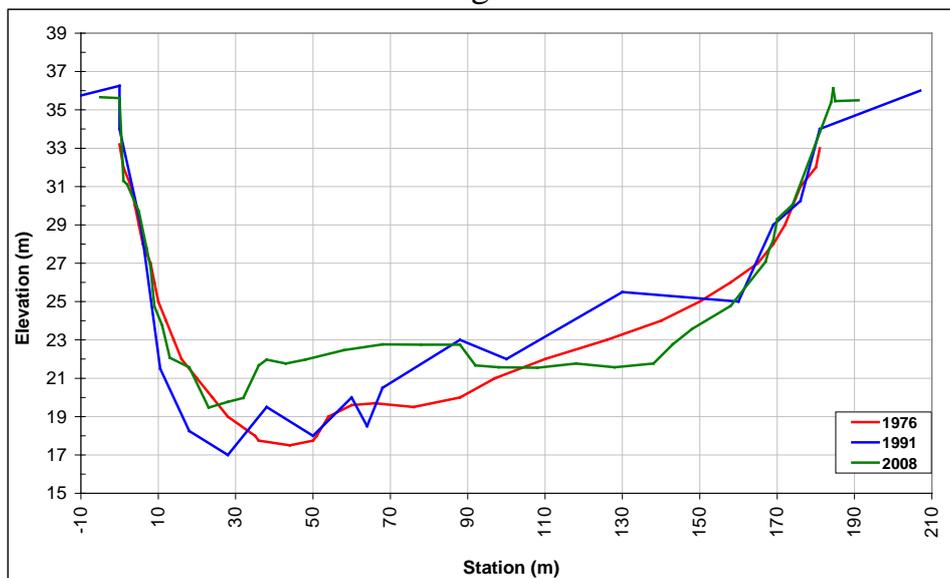


Fig. 6

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224 **7. Methodology**

225 7.1. River geometry

226 The survey conducted in 2008 by the Iraqi Ministry of Water Resources
227 covered 49km of the river, from the Al-Muthana Bridge in the north to the
228 confluence with the Diyala River in the south. A total of 219 cross sections
229 were surveyed at intervals of 250m, as shown in Figure 8. The findings of this
230 survey have been used in the present investigation to create a 1-D steady flow
231 model, using the HEC-RAS program, with additional data concerning the
232 locations and dimensions of the bridges.

233

234 7.2. Boundary conditions

235 The average discharge of the river at Baghdad calculated for the previous
236 ten years and additional discharge figures considered in previous studies have
237 been used in the model to define the upstream conditions and a modified rating
238 curve for the river below the Diyala confluence was used to define the
239 downstream boundary for each of the upstream conditions.

240

241 7.3. Model calibration

242 Calibration of the model was achieved by using observed water level
243 variations along the lower 15 km of the studied reach on a single day when the
244 discharge was $400 \text{ m}^3\text{s}^{-1}$.

245 The problems of calibration were extended to an attempt to define suitable
246 values for the Manning coefficients for the main channel and the flood plain.
247 This was achieved by iteration to give coincidence between the computed water
248 surface levels and those observed. The minimum Root Mean Square Errors
249 (RSME) of 0.026m were obtained for the coefficient values of 0.0285 for the
250 main channel and 0.042 for the flood plains. No precise data for the water
251 consumption through the reach were available and an estimate of the lateral
252 inflow /outflow was included within the average inflow from the Diyala River of
253 $5 \text{ m}^3\text{s}^{-1}$.

254

255 7.4. Model verification and application

256 A range of different scenarios were examined by increasing the discharge,
257 starting from the average flow for the previous ten years, in order to determine
258 the critical discharge that can cause inundation, For some of these discharges
259 (from 500 to 1300 m^3s^{-1}) water surface levels had been recorded at the Sarai
260 Baghdad station during that ten year period. A new RSME was computed for
261 these observations giving good coincidence (RSME = 0.046m) as shown in
262 Figure 9.



Fig. 7

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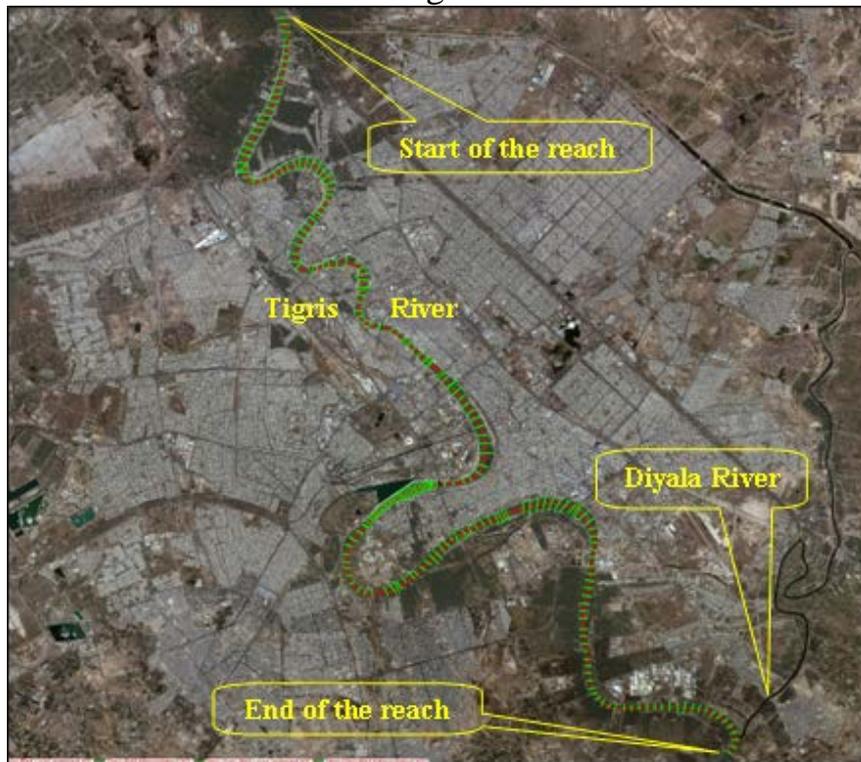


Fig. 8

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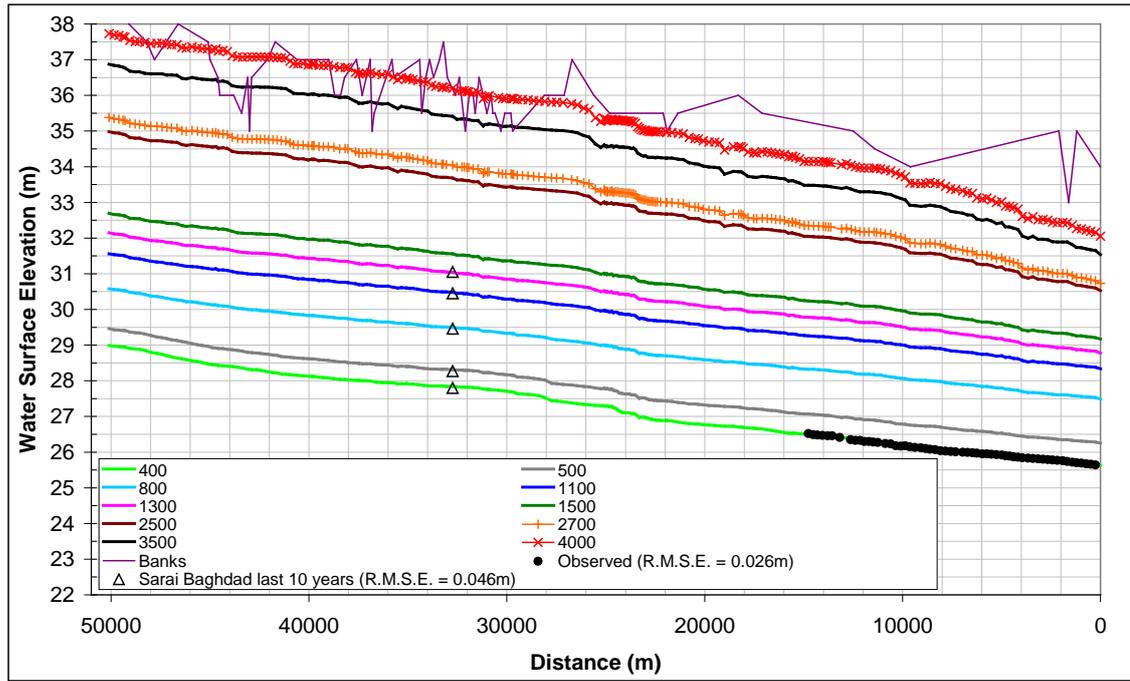


Fig. 9

8. Results and Discussion

The procedure of increasing upstream discharge was continued so that areas that had been inundated could be detected. The discharges that were considered in this work started at $500 \text{ m}^3\text{s}^{-1}$ and increased in the same step intervals as those considered in previous studies. Each of these discharges was repeated in the model for four scenarios. The difference in each scenario was the lateral inflow represented by the Diyala River. The lateral inflow for the initial (base) scenario was $5 \text{ m}^3\text{s}^{-1}$, which is the known average inflow observed in the Diyala, and it was also used for calibration purposes. The three other lateral inflows examined were 25, 50 and $100 \text{ m}^3\text{s}^{-1}$. The effect of the backwater curve associated with each lateral inflow was also checked. The average differences in water surface elevation for each scenario compared with the base condition are shown in Table 2. These differences indicate that the lateral inflow exerted no significant influence during periods of higher discharges.

The water surface elevations computed at the Sarai Baghdad station from the present study are plotted against those from previous studies (1976 and 1991) in Figure 10. The more recent water level predictions are lower than those of the 1976 study for low discharges but higher than those for high discharge. They are always lower than the levels recorded in 1991.

The plots in Figure 9 indicate that discharges that are higher than $2700 \text{ m}^3\text{s}^{-1}$ could cause partial inundation in some areas in the northern part of the reach. The critical water surface elevation for inundation in the reach is 35 m at station 43000 m. For discharges greater than $3500 \text{ m}^3\text{s}^{-1}$ the inundation could take place along approximately 9 km of the reach. For the southern part of the

294 reach under examination the inundation is not expected to occur below a
295 discharge of $35000 \text{ m}^3\text{s}^{-1}$.

296 The water surface slopes for the base condition varied from 6.03 to 6.84 cm
297 km^{-1} for discharges between 400 and $1500 \text{ m}^3\text{s}^{-1}$ respectively. For discharges of
298 2500 and $2700 \text{ m}^3\text{s}^{-1}$ respectively the slopes were 8.59 and 8.96 cm km^{-1} , but
299 reached 10 cm km^{-1} for discharges of 3500 and $4000 \text{ m}^3\text{s}^{-1}$.

300 The rating curve used to define the downstream boundary condition needs
301 modification for the high water stages to give more reliable estimates of the new
302 geometry conditions in the river.

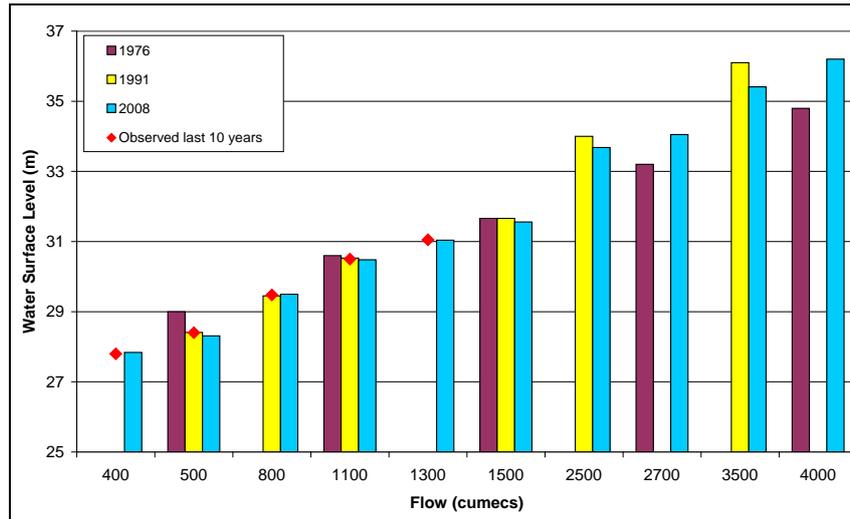


Fig. 10

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9. Conclusions

307 The results of the three surveys and the operation of the model on the
308 channel of the Tigris indicate the following:

- 309 1. Recent shortages in the flow have kept the water levels low on all of the
310 river cross sections so that the protected banks have had little value for
311 flood protection; however, they have helped the river to reach a new stable
312 regime.
- 313 2. Since the water is now eroding below the protected bank levels this will
314 lead to the collapse of parts of these banks in the future.
- 315 3. The variations in the level of the river bed were less in the 2008 survey
316 than during the surveys of 1976 and 1991.
- 317 4. The average slope of the river bed was steeper in 2008 than during the
318 earlier surveys
- 319 5. The bed obstacles during the 2008 survey were greater in number and
320 occupied the most complicated locations than during the two earlier
321 surveys.
- 322 6. The output from the model showed very good coincidence with the
323 observed water surface levels at the Sarai Baghdad station and also along
324 the lower 15 km of the reach examined.

- 325 7. The computed water surface slopes varied from 6.03 to 6.84 cm km⁻¹
326 during low flow conditions.
327 8. Inundation could take place along approximately 9 km of the reach
328 surveyed with discharges greater than 3500 m³s⁻¹.
329

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Table 1

Location	Type	Length (km)	Symbol (Fig. 7)
Kura'at	Bank deposition	1.4	A
Kadhmiyah	Bank deposition	0.6	B
Kadhmiyah	Island	1.0	C
Kadhmiyah	Bank deposition	1.2	D
Adhmiyah	Bank deposition	0.6	E
Adhmiyah	Bank deposition	0.8	F
Etiafiyah	Bank deposition	0.7	G
Sinak- Jumhuriyah	Small islands	-	H
Abu Nuwas1	Island	0.6	I
Abu Nuwas2	Island	0.3	J
Abu Nuwas	Bank deposition	1.0	K
Jadriyah	Island	0.4	L
Dura	Bank deposition	1.5	M
Dura	Island	0.4	N
Dura	Island	1.0	O
Dura	Island	1.1	O

412

413

Table 2

Tigris Flow	Lat. Flow 25	Lat. Flow 50	Lat. Flow 100
400	0.040	0.102	0.209
500	0.038	0.087	0.186
800	0.030	0.067	0.142
1100	0.023	0.052	0.110
1300	0.019	0.044	0.095
1500	0.017	0.039	0.083
2500	0.010	0.023	0.049
2700	0.009	0.021	0.047
3500	0.008	0.020	0.045
4000	0.007	0.019	0.043

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425 **12. Tables and figures captions**

426 Table 1: Main observed obstacles in Tigris River within Baghdad City in 2008.

427 Table 2: Average differences in water elevation (m) for each scenario with
428 respect to base scenario.

429 Fig. 1: Map of Iraq showing the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers.

430 Fig. 2: Recorded Tigris River flow at Sarai Baghdad station for the period 2000-
431 2010. Data source: (Shahrabaly, 2008)

432 Fig. 3: (a) Destroyed parts from Al-Sarafia Bridge have fallen in the river (from
433 www.wikipedia.org). (b) Temporary bridges parallel to the suspended bridge

434 Fig. 4: Small growing islands at Jumhuriyah Bridge location.

435 Fig. 5: Tigris River bed elevations during 1976, 1991 and 2008.

436 Fig. 6: Changing in geometry shape of Sarai Baghdad gauging station.

437 Fig. 7: Observed Obstacles in Tigris River in 2008.

438 Fig. 8: Cross sections of Tigris River by HEC-RAS.

439 Fig. 9: Computed water surface elevations for different discharge in Tigris and
440 Diyala Rivers with discharge of $5\text{m}^3\text{s}^{-1}$ with calibration and verification data.

441 Fig. 10: Comparison for computed water levels at Sarai Baghdad station in
442 1976, 1991 and 2008