The Post-2011 Yemen Internationalized Civil War: It’s National, Regional and Global Implications

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Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to make an in-depth analysis of the post-2011 Yemen internationalized civil war and its implications on national, regional, and global social, economic, and political spheres of influence. In this place, the study uses a qualitative research approach. On top of this to achieve the stated objectives of the study the data was collected purposively from published and unpublished materials like articles, magazines, reports, and the materials available online. At the national level, Yemen has failed in worsening social, economic, and political situations portrayed by the civil war crisis. The internationalized Yemen civil war triggered grave consequences on infrastructure, and economic activities, in which trade; investment, and business opportunities were demolished. Besides, it caused thousands of civilians displaced, indiscriminately attacked, killed, flee their homes, and become refugees. Similarly, the intensive Yemen civil war deteriorated the free flows of oil production, commodities as well as maritime trade in the region. Significantly, the fragile conditions pave the way for the network of illegal traffic activities in the region. The Yemen post-2011 internationalized civil war has caused potential risk to international shipping transiting to the Red sea which is the strategic route for oil cargo and other commercial movements to the global market. Furthermore, the Yemen civil conflict caused the world’s largest humanitarian crisis and the European Union has responded to the catastrophes.

Keywords: Internationalized Civil War, Civil War, Civil War Crisis, Implication.


Introduction

Background of the Study

Yemen, a Middle East country, is located on the Arabian Peninsula bordered by Saudi Arabia to the north, the Red Sea to the west, the Gulf of Aden and the Arabian Sea to the south, and Oman to the east portrayed as one of the poorest countries in the Middle East (Maxwell et.al, 2019). This modern state of Yemen was formed in 1990 with the unification of Yemen's Arab Republic in the North and the Democratic Republic of Yemen, to the South which the military officer Ali Abdullah Saleh, who had ruled North Yemen since 1978, presumed headship of the new country (Laub, 2015). Therefore, Yemen has a long history of war, mutually before and after the unification of north and south Yemen, which is currently influenced by the Arab spring and triggered the civil war yet again. However, ultimately today’s ongoing civil war crisis in Yemen is associated with extensive protests that flourished across the Middle East and North Africa during the Arab spring of 2011 when the Yemenis revolted against the autocratic regimes of the former president Ali Abdullah Saleh.

Currently, Yemen is in a crisis of civil war which has been rooted in the 2011 Arab Spring based on a complex history of decades of civil war, national and regional political tensions, and grievance over
corruption, social inequalities, violence, poverty, and the autocratic ruling systems of regimes. Hence, the Arab Spring mostly called the Arab Revolutions, was kicked out in Tunisia and widely spread to the Middle East and North Africa in 2011 was a protest movement for human dignity, social justice, and democracy, and likewise, demanded toppling the autocratic ruling regimes as well as achieving equality, and freedom has disheveled Yemen into complex civil war next to Syria and Libya.

Following the 2011 Arab spring, Yemen has viewed numerous protests against Ali Abdullah Saleh ruled the country for more than 30 years with widespread corruption that affected much of the country. These protests quickly escalated into calls for the removal of President Saleh, gathered by thousands of unemployment, ordinary people, university students, and other opposition party members, to oust the kleptocratic ruling regime in the country. Nevertheless, the situation deteriorated when Ali Abdullah Saleh’s government force quickly responded to violence against the protesters and also brutally attacked anti-government protesters (Moktary and Smith, 2017). Despite, apprehension about the possibility of full-scale civil war in the country, regional actors, the United Nations, and other members of international communities operated to broker a negotiated resolution that would maintain protestors and opposition actors’ request and restore stability. Unfortunately, the negotiation was not fruitful in addressing the political tensions and the structural problems that led to the uprising, which significantly slid the country from a popular uprising into a full-scale civil war.

Therefore, the civil war in Yemen today is the reflection of the failure of the 2011 transitional negotiation that deals to end up the influence of the power full regime of Ali Abdullah Saleh and the marginalization of the local fighters Houthis and the Southern separate movement. Hence, Yemen’s multifaceted civil war erupted after Houthi rebels presumed control of the capital, Sanaa, in September 2014. Since Yemen’s internationally recognized government lost power to insurgents led by Houthi fighters, who started receiving considerable support from Iran in 2014 the country has inclined into a complicated civil war. Likewise, regional and international states and non-state actors play crucial roles in Yemen’s civil war. The involved external actors were western powers, the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) states, and Iran complicated the Yemen Situation as they deployed direct military interventions or support for various military alliances and proxies to their competing agendas (Karasik and Cafiero, 2019).

Moreover, Yemen’s civil war has become increasingly internationalized since early 2015, when the Saudi-led coalition underway an intensive aerial campaign across the country that continues to this day. To a certain degree, the conflict has been especially destructive in terms of direct violence as well as the indirect damage caused by economic collapse and the interruption of food supplies, combined with pre-existing challenges like a sluggish economy, as well as heavy dependence on oil, gas, and remittances pushed Yemen more into civil conflict (UNDP, 2019). Indeed, the struggle for the control of Yemen between the internationally recognized government and the rebellions as well as the regional and international intervention either directly or indirectly caused a complex humanitarian situation and deteriorated essential social services including health care, education, and economic decline making Yemen one of the most politically, economically and socially unstable and insecure countries in the world (ECOSOC, 2018).

Furthermore, the Yemen civil war which was motivated by the Arab spring of 2011 intensified entirely by the parts of competing elites, regional and international interventions, tribalism, Shiite-Sunni tensions, fundamentalism, and terrorism increasing the complexity of the crisis. This worst civil war currently does not acquire due attention that it categorically deserves. Likewise, as the conflict still going on the regional, national, and global implications of the Yemen internationalized civil war is overlooked. To this end, it is important to critically evaluate the global, regional, and national socio-economic as well as political implications of the Yemen civil war crisis.

Thus, the overall objective of the study is to assess the social, economic, and political implications of the post-2011 Yemen internationalized civil war at global, regional, and national levels. Therefore, to achieve the intended objective of this particular study, a qualitative research methodology has been employed. This investigative study is more of tending to secondary data and also used reports that are associated with the Yemen civil war. Hence, to address the proposed objective, the study is based on secondary sources such as books, articles, published research papers, newspapers, magazines, reports, online
accessed materials, and others. Thus, the basic data tools for this paper were purposively selected from secondary sources for in-depth analysis of the result.

Conceptual and Theoretical Perspective

Understanding Civil War

Civil war can be understood as a violent conflict between states and non-state actors within a state’s territory. It is also an armed conflict within confined boundaries involving the national government with the opposite conflicting groups. Furthermore, it is an internal armed conflict based on political, social, and economic disagreement that concerns the government or territorial issues where combatant parties use armed force (Sambanis, 2004). Of course, it is known that civil war is usually considered being intra-state conflict phenomenon. However, an armed conflict to be considered a civil war, if it occurs within the territory of a state, and is recognized internationally, and also the confrontations should be between parties that are politically and militarily organized with openly state political goals. Therefore, a civil war consists of one or several simultaneous disputes over commonly incompatible positions that concern government and territory in a state which are causally linked to the use of armed force, resulting in at least 500 battle-related deaths during any given year of the conflict; and involve two or more parties, of which the primary warring parties are the government of the state where armed force is used, and one or several non-state opposition organizations also involved (James et. al, 2010).

Certainly, civil war is categorically a violent conflict that occurs within a country predominantly among numerically important groups of its inhabitants’ citizens over the domination of physical force within the country. Similarly, civil war usually has incumbent governments that control the state and have control of force over the groups who challenge the governments before the outbreak of the civil war. The groups who challenge the government may seek to replace the incumbents in control of the monopoly of force within the extended territory of the state or they may seek the secession of parts of the original territory (Gersovitz and Kriger, 2013). Moreover, civil war contests the sovereignty of internationally recognized states occurs within the recognized boundaries of the state involves state or state claimants as principal combatants, and involves rebels with the ability to mount organized armed opposition to states (Sambanis, 2002).

Hence, in most cases, the outbreak of civil war usually aimed to fight over political and institutional issues demanding self-determination or leadership change and also seeking to change government policies. Plus, institutional change is expected to be the most important point of reference for the incident of civil war (Balcells, 2015). Thus, the newest outbreaks of large-scale conflict happening within the boundaries of independent states suggest the preparation of political violence by groups in conflict; they are more than mere aggregation. Ultimately, the civil war involved and extended contest of arms to win state powers and also challenging the government’s sovereignty (collier et.al, 2005). In fact, in the incident of civil war insurgent groups pursue territorial sessions or autonomy and conflicts in which insurgents objectively for control of the central governments.

Although, civil war is a multifaceted complication that produces human tragedies, which are of concern to the international community and contribute to global and regional security, conducted between a state and groups within a state’s boundary. Consequently, it is among the most dangerous types of conflicts in the international system, it brings death and considerable destruction to the civilian populations in the countries in which the conflict occurs causing population displacements and long-term negative consequences for public health and ways of life. Likewise, civil war is associated with high costs, major disruptions, refugee flows, persistent violence, economic dislocations, and breakdown in civil society (Bercovitch and Lutmar, 2011). Indeed, the incidence of civil war arises when non-state actors perceive the existing government structure as incapable of addressing their political, economic, and social grievances. Thus, significantly the situation grown-up into a global phenomenon with serious social, political, economic, and security issues, which the episodes cause, human displacement in the form of
refugees and internally displaced persons or cause people who are incapable of crossing international borders to avoid violence but instead remains limited to their national borders.

Therefore, the civil war that breakout post-2011 in Yemen is not exceptional from the above-mentioned ideational. The current civil conflict in Yemen causes tragic loss of civilian life, and physical devastation and also causes deep recessions of institutional damages. Despite the seriousness of the situation of the conflict, millions of Yemenis have run out of their homes to escape the violence of civil conflict. Generally speaking, the conflict has destroyed infrastructures and created the worst humanitarian crisis with large numbers of civilian deaths including children in the country.

**Internationalized Civil War**

As a part of the Arab spring, civil disobedience and anti-government demonstrations broke out across Yemen in February 2011 against the autocratic regime of Ali Abdullah Saleh. Exceptionally, as the protests spread throughout the country, the regime increasingly resorted to violent quickly as a response and used brutal strategies by the security forces killing the civilians. This incident lastly pushes Yemen into a civil conflict. Indeed, like the Arab spring the Yemen civil conflict began as a peaceful uprising which was rapidly turned into a bloody civil war. As the conflict continued local, regional, and international actors became involved, thereby fundamentally changing its nature to escalate civil war. Consequently, a conflict that had started as a typical civil war would have been turned into an internationalized civil war.

Yemen’s civil war has become substantially internationalized since March 2015 when the Saudi-led coalition was involved with heavy air attacks, trained and equipped different militias, and directly supported the forces of President Abdu Rabbu Mansour Hadi (Salisbury, 2017). Nevertheless, currently, numerous civil wars have been internationalized due to foreign actors’ interferences and many of those conflicts have overflowed to a neighboring country due to those interventions, which the typical example of such a conflict is today’s ongoing civil war in Syria and Yemen (Kraus, 2017). Moreover, to put Yemen’s internationalized civil war into the context of understanding, internationalized civil wars are violent conflicts waged between two or more armed groups, where foreign actors play an important role in extending or aggravating the situations of the conflict (Jenne and Popovic, 2017). Thus far, internationalized civil war is an organized violent conflict that takes part between two or more contesting groups inside sovereign states in which foreigners play a role in escalating the struggle. Similarly, it is also a war move along continuous in which external Actors such as powerful or neighboring states, international organizations, and non-governmental organizations can decide to participate unilaterally in existing conflict (Borda, 2009).

Additionally, according to Kraus (2017), internationalized armed conflict comprises war between internal groups both of which are sponsored by different states direct conflicts between two foreign states that militarily intervene in an internal armed conflict in supporting opposing sides and waring involving a foreign intervention in support of an insurgent group hostile against an established government. In this context, when foreigners intervene in the existing civil war to support the insurgence or either side directly benefiting the parties in conflict, the civil war turns into an internationalized civil war.

On the other hand, Bercovitch and Lutmar (2011) added that internationalized civil war can become internationalized through the spread of refugees across borders or where one ethnic group is spread across several states and also when ethnic leaders in one state seek reservation in another country. Besides, civil wars become internationalized through terrorist activities or partisan intervention on behalf of the groups. In this view, civil war becomes internationalized when the companies’ effects of terrorism and the hostilities between the competing groups cause the numbers of refugees to flow out of their homes across borders to other states to escape from the catastrophes of war to save their lives. Correspondingly, internationalized civil war is categorically a conflict in which countries participate in existing conflict for different reasons. The motivations for foreign countries’ participation are various, which comprise irredentism, protections of ethnic kinship, proxy war, or regime disputes are reasons for countries to intervene in the abroad internal civil war. Also, non-state actors have gained significance
overtime, among other things because of their ability to get involved in other countries’ conflicts (D’Alveny, 2016).

In the framework of internationalized civil war, today Yemen’s civil war has escalated in the wake of the Saudi-led aerial strikes outbreak and come up to be an internationalized civil war significantly with the active participants of internal and external principal actors having different demands. Therefore, the Yemen civil war can be portrayed by the intervention of local, regional, and international actors who pursue their interests in conflict. Thus, the Saudi-led coalition was initially composed of at least ten Sunni Muslim states with Saudi and United Arab Emirates, which the coalition intervened militarily after President Hadi fled to Saudi Arabia from Aden in light of the Houthi-Saleh advance on the city (Transfeld and Heinze, 2019). Likewise, the western great power states to a great extent the UK, USA, and France directly participated by suppling intelligence and logistic support to Saudi led coalition in the Yemen civil war, while Iran was predominantly involved by suppling extensive military support to Houthi fighting groups (Al-Kahwati, 2019).

The Theories of Civil War

To have a clear view of the civil war and its implications, it is important to discuss the theoretical aspects, which could help to provide a better understanding of the issues and the causes that led to the rise and the outbreak of the civil war.

Relative Deprivation Theory

Relative deprivation theory expresses the perception of discrepancies between what people want their value expectations and what they gain in their value-accruing capabilities (Saleh, 2012). Also, relative deprivation theory describes players’ recognition of divergence between their values wanted and their milieu demonstrating value capability prospects are goods and situations of life to which people suppose they are fairly entitled. Yet again the determinants of value capabilities have appeared extensively in the social surroundings, they are conditions that decide people's known possibilities of obtaining or retaining norms they justifiably desire to achieve (Asingo, 2018).

Moreover, Relative deprivation theory is a condition in which citizens come to believe that their certain rights are banned by the ruling authority. This creates motivation in people’s minds to get out of their usual conditions. Besides, the Relative deprivation theory is mainly focused on an individual’s feelings and movements. In this framework, there are egoistic and fraternal deprivations. Therefore, egoistic deprivation is mainly about personal deprivation whereas fraternal deprivation ultimately refers to group deprivation. Thus, the individual form of deprivation occurs when people compare themselves with other several people; while group deprivation occurs when a group of citizens compares themselves with other groups. Accordingly, the gap between possessions of great wealth and a poor person is relative deprivation if it is contingent on judgment with others. Likewise, Relative deprivation is the subjective judgment of a person that a gap between expectation and reality creates frustrations, disturbance, aggression, revolutions, and conflict. Thus far, the greater the gap is, the greater the magnitude of aggression and violence that happened (Gurr, 1970). Furthermore, relative deprivation theory implies that grievance induces discontent due to the marginalization of certain groups is one main determinant of violence political mobilizations. Yet, inequality is among the grievance factors largely dismissed by recent great numbers of the country level of civil war (Hegre et.al, 2007),

Therefore, Relative deprivation theory is mainly used in a setting where people feel that their ultimate rights to certain goods and services are not fulfilled which creates motivation to change this event. Thus, when this theory is applied to the Yemen civil war, it is essential to recall the situations in the 2011 Arab spring as a point of reference. Despite this, the Arab Spring or revolution was a wave of protest that widely spread as a wildfire across the Middle East and North Africa. Indeed, the incidents in Yemen were not exceptional. Primarily the demonstrations in Yemen were against poor economic conditions, unemployment, corruption, and inequality across the country. Therefore, according to the assumptions
of relative deprivation theory the people who are poor and overlooked by the central government are likely to join protests to fight for their freedom to topple the oppressed regime, while the others who are favored by the government are more likely to support the regime in power, which is systematically true in the current Yemen situation.

The Grievance Theory

The theoretical account of grievance theory believed that wars emerged from the opposition or actual injustice. In this view, people fight because of oppression, inequality, discrimination, and other injustices (Spittales and Hilgert, 2008). Besides, as to the proponents of the Grievance theory, the main motivation for the civil war can be explained by ethnic hatred or any other cleavages between different groups of people with different identities. In fact, according to motivational psychological description, people can be motivated by both reasons and passions depending on the situations facing them, in this condition, when protesters or rebels are motivated by grievance which is driven by a feeling of injustice, desire to punish the persons responsible for that cases (Tranekaer, 2012). Also, societies possibly contain different parts and some of these parts may have grievances that can lead them to violent in their goal to resolve the grievances. Fundamentally, grievance causes of conflict substantially inequality, political repression, and ethnic and linguistic divisions have little bearing on the likely hood of the outbreak of conflict (Allen, 2005).

Thus far, according to Doorn (2013), justifications ultimately there are two types of inequalities. These are vertical inequalities and horizontal inequalities. Substantially, vertical inequalities indicate inequalities as measured on a societal level between individuals, while horizontal inequalities measure inequalities between groups where one social group is marginalized compared to others. Consequently, both inequalities can be motivational for civil war with horizontal inequalities likely causing conflict because they coincide with economic and political differences between groups which can cause deep resentment that leads to violent struggle. Also, civil conflict-related grievances whether vertical (between individuals) or horizontal (between groups), could generally result from either political inequalities restricting access to executive power or economic inequalities limiting the distribution of resources creating dissatisfaction (Walter, 2020). An unfair treatment creates feelings of unhappiness; frustration and discontentment in people that produce grievance about certain conditions and lead to civil conflict as a means to end the resentment.

Furthermore, civil wars are caused by highly complex social processes that greatly depend on the historical and regional context (Doorn, 2013). Thus, in the regional context the Arab Spring of 2011 in the Middle East and North Africa motivated by the desire for freedom, dignity, equality, and social justice, pushed millions of Arabs to the streets demanding the dismiss of old-timers and the remove of feudalistic structures constituting the backbone of their regimes (Thiel,2012). Likewise, the 2011 Arab spring movement had many causes, however essentially came out of long-simmering and closely interlinked political, economic, and social dissatisfaction (Colombo, 2012). In a similar vein, there was an obvious upsurge in the incidence of discontent which was significantly related to government service and maladministration in Yemen. In line with this, for over two decades, largely Yemen’s northern ruling elites selectively monopolized the unified state’s security and economy for regime survival and self-enrichment. However, the southern Yemenis in most cases feel marginalized disadvantaged, and exploited (Van Veen, 2014). Therefore, the cumulative grievance developed in the heart of the Yemen people erupted following the Arab spring to oust the oppressed regime. Ostensibly, the protest movement was motivated by widely spread poverty, unemployment, injustice, and marginalization demanding the toppling of Ali Abdullah Saleh from office to end the administrative deficiency in the country.

The Bargaining Theory

The basic idea of bargaining theory articulates that, since war is costly, there must be a negotiated outcome that will leave both sides better off than an actual fight. Besides, in this way, war is a failure of bargaining, an efficient outcome that all parties would avoid in the absence of bargaining failures (A.
Lake, 2010). Also, the bargaining theory accounts for civil war onset starting from the assumption that war is exorbitant and domestic opponents should value highly a settlement that offers them exactly what they would obtain at the end of hostilities (Florea, 2017). Correspondingly, bargaining approaches to civil conflict emphasize an agreement that makes each actor better away of fighting and understand their incapability to do so leading to violent conflict. Here also, the conflict between states and opposition movements revolves around a disagreement over some issues or set of issues, under which the issues of conflict are often related to the structure of the government. Under this circumstance, the specific demand made by opposition movements varies, to a great extent that control of the government or regime types and the change of powers. For instance, in this case, the Syrian opposition in 2011 wanted an end to the autocratic regime of Assad in their county (Cunningham, 2013).

Moreover, Powell (2002) explained that the origin, conduct, and termination of war are part of a bargaining process and also essentially bargaining situations. Additionally, the bargaining theoretical explanation perceives the basic nature of conflict, violent, or something as disagreement over resource allocations or police adjustment, which has been also used to describe the resolution of conflict among actors. The bargaining viewpoint quite naturally offers an understanding of political-conflict resolution. The very material of politics is regular bargaining, in which different groups of a party take a common platform, the legislators making agreements to hold ruling coalition’s together, to satisfy the needs of several constituencies, and others (Reiter, 2002). Fundamentally, bargaining theory explains when and why bargain failure is expected to happen. This theoretical approach to civil war perceives violence as the result of two or more actors failing to resolve their disputes before fighting occurs. Accordingly, it is assumed that disputes are over some issues space and that actors choose to fight only when they can achieve a better outcome through fighting than through negotiation as a compromise deal (Cunningham, 2013). In this framework, bargaining is significantly a condition that a party potentially makes an agreement with another party and where an agreement acts by two or more parties simultaneously and after exchanging information, irreversibly commits themselves to certain future actions to the formal end of the skirmish as well as the intended aims.

To look at Yemen today’s situation in the framework of bargaining theory, the civil war crisis is the product of the failures of the UN Security Council and European Union-backed Gulf cooperation council initiative (GCC) in April 2011 to end the political crisis. Despite this fact, the Yemen transitional process that was the result of intensive multi-track diplomacy involving the Gulf Cooperative Council initiative and international communities ultimately derailed into a civil war crisis due to bargaining power settlement failure to take into account other political forces like Houthis and the southern separatist movement as well as civil societies, students, and the Youth who have started the revolution to erupted. Lastly, the failures of the bargaining transition demonstrated here that the demand of large elite and marginalized groups of the southern separatists and Houthis (Ansarullah) issues continued unsolved as the security and economic conditions remained unchanged to be the causes for the outbreak of the civil war crisis in Yemen.

Internalization of the Civil War, Actors Involved, and Their Interests

The internationalization of the civil war can easily be a process through which international actors explicitly and consciously decide to be involved in any phase of hostilities of a domestic conflict. Likewise, the internationalization of the civil war can also characterized as an intervention by a third state in support of a non-governmental armed group as opposed to state forces within an existing internal conflict (Kraus, 2017). Considerably, civil wars are internationalization, although the physical scope and the stake of the conflict are local, nevertheless, involve various outside actors and influences affecting very stage in the life cycle from conflict creation to conflict prosecution and lastly conflict termination (Jenne and Popovic, 2017).

Furthermore, the internationalization of civil conflict comes to have the expansion of its internal structure across the border to the geographic spread of hostilities which also demonstrates the presence of the
physical and social consequences, direct or indirect participation of foreign actors, based on state and non-state as well as any other observable development of relevance of a given conflict for external third parties (Golubev, 2017). The realistic situations of internationalization of civil war are various and occasionally comprises of armed conflict between two internal groups both of which are supported by a different state. Besides, there would be military involvement in an internal armed conflict in the backings of opposing sides and war involving a foreign intervention in supporting insurgent groups fighting against an established government (Okorie, 2018). Therefore, to contextualize the internationalization of the Yemen civil war, it started in 2015 when Saudi led a coalition bombing of cities in Yemen on the side of an internationally recognized Yemeni government in fighting against Houthis, and Iran also interfered on the sideways of the Houthis against the Yemen government, Saudi Arabia and its alliances. Thus far, the war has escalated over the summer of 2019, when the Southern Transitional Council took control of Aden and southwestern Yemen (Baron and Al-Hamdani, 2019). Thus, in this view internationalization of civil war significantly developed whenever military involvement occurs by one sovereign country crosses the limited borders of another sovereign country on behalf of one or more domestic conflict groups. In a similar situation, today’s ongoing civil conflict in Yemen is the outcome of numerous local and national power struggles, which are also intensified by a regional and international state’s involvement comprising of Saudi Arabia-led coalition, United Arab Emirates, Iran, and the other westerner countries.

Major State Actors in the Yemen Civil War

Today’s Yemen civil war is an extremely complicated conflict with the participation of state actors which added to the local fighters and millions of civilians suffering the casualties. The current Yemen civil war heightened in March 2015, when Saudi Arabia with its coalition states, the United Arab Emirates (UAE), and the United States (US), interfered to support the internationally recognized provisional government of President Abdu Rabbuh Mansur Hadi, at which Houthis force alliance with the force of former President Ali Abdullah Saleh takeover the capital, Sana’a and other parts of the country.

Indeed, Saudi Arabia is the country that has shared the largest border with Yemen and has played a significant powerful role in Yemen for many years. However, the current emerging penetration of Houthis with the weak central authority in Yemen has contributed to the growing powers of Houthis who have a close alliance with Iran threatening the security of Saudi Arabia. Consequently, Saudi Arabia who pursued political stability and territorial integrity of Yemen supported president Hadi and aimed to restore him to power through direct military intervention in Yemen's civil war (Karakir, 2018). Also, Saudi Arabia observes the rise of Houthis as a threat to its southern borders takes a clear stand in the sideways of internationally recognized Hadi government, and thinks that the extension of the influence in the country by terrorist groups would have negative security consequences for Saudi Arabia (Karakir, 2018 and Parveen, 2019).

Moreover, the Saudi-led coalition has been another major state actor in the Yemen civil war which consists of Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates principle that the fundamental reason for the intervention of the coalition was the quest of the President Hadi government (Al-Fahwati, 2019). Importantly, with in their involvement, Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates have varied goals and strategies. Therefore, Saudi Arabia’s main objective was to beat out the Houthis and restore Hadi to power in Yemen (Kleemann, 2019). Generally speaking, the required objective of Saudi Arabia is to assist the internationally recognized president Hadi government legitimacy to use military forces against Houthis factions.

The United Arab Emirates is another most active participant in the Yemen civil war. The progressions of the United Arab Emirates' intentions are to defeat extremism in Yemen, namely the Al-Qaeda in the Arabian Peninsula, and resist Iranian influence by defeating the Houthis. Likewise, outside these official objectives, the united Arab Emirate’s involvement in Yemen makes visible this small state’s aspiration to establish itself as one of the major actors in interventional through controlling parts of the Red sea and projecting its power toward Africa (Dawrich, 2020). Additionally, in Yemen, civil war United Arab Emirates supported a coalition of airstrikes in the north, but its primary efforts were focused in the south (Delozier, 2020). The United Arab Emirates is more interested in the south region where they have
military forces on the ground and also the key priority for the United Arab Emirates has been to acquire control over the port of Aden (Kleemann, 2019). Generally, Saudi Arabia, Iran, Oman, Qatar, and the United Arab Emirates are among the state actors in the Yemen conflict, who are also pursuing their own strategic and security agendas, and often support at least one faction. Thus, significantly, Iran supports the Houthis, Saudi Arabia the government of Yemen, Qatar supports Islah, and the United Arab Emirates sponsors the Southern Transitional Council Forces (Palik and Jalal, 2020).

In similar situations, the involvement of the United States of America in the Yemen civil conflict has been largely shaped by its war on terrorism. Importantly, as a result of the high political instability vacuum, Yemen has offered the Al-Qaeda in Arabian Peninsula an ideal training base and considerably a challenge to American interests (Karakir, 2018). Ultimately, the United States has supported Saudi efforts outstandingly, to combat terrorism; to prevent Iran from gaining a Houthi-dominated Yemen as a proxy, and also to prevent the Houthis from targeting Saudi Arabia with missiles (Gjoza and Fredman, 2019). United Sate of America and the United Kingdom are largely driven by security concerns, as a filed Yemen state might become a haven for terrorist groups like Al-Qaeda in the Arabian Peninsula and ISIS. Consequently, the United States, and the United Kingdom which also included France contributed indirect logistic and intelligence support to the Saudi-led coalition during the intervention time (Al-Kahwati, 2019 and Parveen, 2019).

Outstandingly, Iran’s primary aim is to gain access to geographical areas that can support it in launching its sphere of influence, to confront its main regional competitors Israel, and Saudi Arabia, and to defend the USA presence in the region. Specifically, Iran has improved its preventive capability by making connections with groups that could act against the United States or its regional foes Israel in the events of hostility (Juneau, 2016). Therefore, from the time the conflict began, the Yemen civil war has been considered a part of Iran and Saudi Arabia’s competition. In this case, Iran has provided important support to the Houthi, and Saudi Arabia perceived Houthi as an Iran proxy. Iran also conceives of the opportunity for the Houthis to counter Saudi Arabia and significantly use Yemen as a card against Saudi Arabian (Akin, 2019). Thus, creating non-state proxies and developing their capabilities has allowed Iran to project its power broadly in a region hostile to its interests. Therefore, from Iran’s advantage view point, Houthi provides an attractive opportunity to grow Iranian influence and at the very last bleed its Saudi rivals into a costly swamp (Johnston et.al, 2020). Hence, Houthi presence in fighting with the Yemen government created a conducive environment for Iran to develop its reach in Yemen and adjacent to the Red Sea against its antagonistic Saudi Arabia.

Local Fighting Actors

One of the local fighter groups in today’s ongoing Yemen civil conflict is Houthi forces. Significantly, in 2005 Houthi conducted a local protest movement opposing the marginalization of their home areas and social and political discrimination of Shiite Zaidis who make up 34 to 45 percent of Yemen’s total population (Popp, 2015). Moreover, the Houthi group developed in the northern parts of the country in the 1990s and has fought against the government since 2004; adhering to the Zaydi branch of Shiite Islam. The Houthi’s grievances were primarily local and political, and the movement led by Abdul Malik al-Houthi originally needed an end to economic underdevelopment, political marginalization, and discrimination in Zaydi areas. Likewise, objectively Houthi do not pursue independence; however, they do want more autonomy in the areas where they are predominant (Juneau, 2016). Therefore, in these circumstances lastly using the advantages of the weakness of the central government and the unpopularity of the government Houthi forces take control of the capital Sana’a in September 2014 (Ahmed and al-Rawhani, 2018). Generally, the rationale behind the struggles of Houthi faction forces are political, economic, and cultural equality and at the same time quests for autonomous self-governance, against political marginalization, economic underdevelopment, and government discrimination in the Zaydi province areas.

The other most dominant force in the southern part of Yemen is the Hirak movement which is called the southern separatist movement. These groups consist of numerous separatist groups fighting to establish an independent Southern Yemen state. Southern separatist movement (Hirak) emerged in 2007

Outstandingly, Iran’s primary aim is to gain access to geographical areas that can support it in launching its sphere of influence, to confront its main regional competitors Israel, and Saudi Arabia, and to defend the USA presence in the region. Specifically, Iran has improved its preventive capability by making connections with groups that could act against the United States or its regional foes Israel in the events of hostility (Juneau, 2016). Therefore, from the time the conflict began, the Yemen civil war has been considered a part of Iran and Saudi Arabia’s competition. In this case, Iran has provided important support to the Houthi, and Saudi Arabia perceived Houthi as an Iran proxy. Iran also conceives of the opportunity for the Houthis to counter Saudi Arabia and significantly use Yemen as a card against Saudi Arabian (Akin, 2019). Thus, creating non-state proxies and developing their capabilities has allowed Iran to project its power broadly in a region hostile to its interests. Therefore, from Iran’s advantage view point, Houthi provides an attractive opportunity to grow Iranian influence and at the very last bleed its Saudi rivals into a costly swamp (Johnston et.al, 2020). Hence, Houthi presence in fighting with the Yemen government created a conducive environment for Iran to develop its reach in Yemen and adjacent to the Red Sea against its antagonistic Saudi Arabia.

Local Fighting Actors

One of the local fighter groups in today’s ongoing Yemen civil conflict is Houthi forces. Significantly, in 2005 Houthi conducted a local protest movement opposing the marginalization of their home areas and social and political discrimination of Shiite Zaidis who make up 34 to 45 percent of Yemen’s total population (Popp, 2015). Moreover, the Houthi group developed in the northern parts of the country in the 1990s and has fought against the government since 2004; adhering to the Zaydi branch of Shiite Islam. The Houthi’s grievances were primarily local and political, and the movement led by Abdul Malik al-Houthi originally needed an end to economic underdevelopment, political marginalization, and discrimination in Zaydi areas. Likewise, objectively Houthi do not pursue independence; however, they do want more autonomy in the areas where they are predominant (Juneau, 2016). Therefore, in these circumstances lastly using the advantages of the weakness of the central government and the unpopularity of the government Houthi forces take control of the capital Sana’a in September 2014 (Ahmed and al-Rawhani, 2018). Generally, the rationale behind the struggles of Houthi faction forces are political, economic, and cultural equality and at the same time quests for autonomous self-governance, against political marginalization, economic underdevelopment, and government discrimination in the Zaydi province areas.

The other most dominant force in the southern part of Yemen is the Hirak movement which is called the southern separatist movement. These groups consist of numerous separatist groups fighting to establish an independent Southern Yemen state. Southern separatist movement (Hirak) emerged in 2007
in the southern Yemeni complaint towards the defective unification process in 1990. Besides, the southern and the northern parts of Yemen remained under a single political authority for a short period (Jyoti Das, 2020). Due to marginalization and ignorance of the south in the wake of unification, there was a civil war in Yemen between the southern secessionists and the northern in 1994 that the southern secessionist groups defeated which brought many problems and remains relevant until today. Thus, in this situation, the mass removal of southern military officials and civil servants, seizure of property, and transfer of wealth from the oil-rich southern province of Hadramawt to the north created massive discrepancies, and anger against the Saleh regime grew. Therefore, in 2007, the Southern movement (al-Hirak) emerged as a powerful actor against the regime due to harsh and mistreatment anger, and inequality. Also, at the beginning of May 2017, mass protests took place in Aden calling for the independence of South Yemen by southern officials who had been sacked by Hadi and similarly on May 11, 2017, Aden’s former governor, Aidrous al-Zubaidi proclaimed the creation of a 26-member Southern Transition Council (Akin, 2019).

Therefore, the southern transitional council has emerged as one of the major local fighters in the history of the Yemen civil war. The conflict has provided opportunities for secessionists to press their claims and old grievances about the exploitation of the south by the north were exposed. Furthermore, there were renewed clashes in March 2019 between forces connected to the Southern Transitional Council and forces loyal to the Hadi government. Significantly, the Southern Transitional Council thought that it would not allow President Hadi’s plan to have a meeting of the House of Representatives in the south, to show clearly the fact that the Southern Transitional Council does not accept the existing unified state (Smith, 2019). In general, the main objectives that the southern separatists fought for were, to liberate the Southern region from the northern dominance and also aiming to reinstate the autonomous formerly independent state of southern Yemen.

The other category of groups under the local fighters in the Yemen civil war is the political parties associated with tribal militias in the provinces of Ta’izz, Ibb, AlBaidha, Marib, and al-Jawf. Objectively they needed to reject Houthi domination and are fighting for greater self-governance (Al-Hamadani et.al, 2015). Moreover, Al-Qaeda in the Arabian Peninsula is regarded as the local fighter in the Yemen civil conflict which was formed in 2009 with the amalgamation of the Saudi and Yemen branches of Al-Qaeda after the counterterrorism efforts of Saudi Arabia which drive the Saudi branch across the border in Yemen. However, since civil war erupted in 2015 Al-Qaeda used the political instability advantages to develop its pseudo-state in the Southern region of Yemen (O’Driscoll, 2017). Likewise, Al-Qaeda in the Arabian Peninsula remains a remaining important force in Yemen specifically in the southern and central parts of the country fighting alongside tribal militias and being supported by the anti-Houthi coalition. Therefore, it has become a significant source of local insurgency, seeking to acquire territory and experiment with local government, and remains active in the south part of Yemen (Marwah and Clark, 2018 Smith, 2019).

Implications of the Internationalized Yemen Civil War

In this part, the discussion will focus on the social and economic implications of the post-2011 Yemen internationalized civil war on national, regional, and global/transnational levels. Therefore, as it is known, Yemen’s internationalized civil war began with the incident of Saudi-led coalition intervention to support and restore Abdu Rabbu Mansour Hadi’s power. Understandably, the civil conflict is rooted in the 2011 Arab uprising, conducted between major conflicting groups at the national level over demanding control of political and economic and at the same time developed an implication on the regional and global social, political, and economic scheme.

National Implications

Concerning history, Yemen has practiced different uprisings in different courses of time since 1962 and similarly in 2004, and lastly the overwhelming and destructive civil war in 2015 which is still persistently unbroken in the country. Overall, in Yemen before the current civil war crisis, tension existed between
different triable groups, and political parties and between northern and southern Yemen. Although these divisions are not new, the violence has reinforced suspicion and mistrust from a conflict group. Similarly, Aden’s frustration with the lack of stability and continued feeling of marginalization from the central government has renewed the call for southern separatists (Maktary and Smith, 2017). Therefore, Yemen’s instability is rooted in a long history of political conflict, violence, marginalization, injustice, and grievances lastly erupted during the Arab uprising and pushed Yemen into intensive current ongoing civil war crisis.

Thus, significantly the Houthis armed groups and their alliance with former president Ali Abdullah Saleh took control of the capital Sana’a in 2014 was a turning point, that led Yemen to enter a new stage of civil conflict which later escalated quickly across the country. As a result of this event, the Saudi Arabian-led alliance of armed forces set up a military operation against Houthis and former president Ali Abdullah Saleh’s forces to support the government of former vice president but later president of Yemen Abdur Rabbo Mansour Hadi. Unluckily, this incident destroyed the country’s infrastructures, extensively bombed the people, and has developed social and economic deterioration as well as caused the worst humanitarian crisis in the country in particular and the world in general.

Hence, after this incident, several dramatic political and security events have occurred which has paved the country to full-fledged military conflict in 2015. Consequently, the Yemen conflict has been linked with insecurity, political instability, and blockages to food and fuel deliveries, and general economic collapse has led to a severe humanitarian and development crisis, which has aggravated what was already a fragile social and economic situation in the country (Al-Ahmadi and de Silva, 2018). The current civil conflict in Yemen is devastating the economy of the country; however, it was already weak before the escalation of violence in 2015, with Yemen positioned as the lowest in development among the Middle East countries. Mostly, the civil conflict has caused a major reduction of the economy which has led to social unrest, unstable government, and eroding the business confidence of the country. Therefore, when a deep conflict situation added to the previous fragile economic system, it caused significant disruption of economies, resulting in high unemployment, and reducing the availability of infrastructure in the country.

Hence, the current unending Yemen civil war has several implications for the country’s social and economy scheme. Thus far, it has caused significant damage to Yemen’s physical infrastructures, civil institutions, and Yemeni livelihoods. In this circumstance, the airstrikes and violence clashes have destroyed key physical structures such as roads, bridges, and ports. Moreover, particularly the events of strikes against the Al-Hudaydah and Aden ports are significant as together they handled over 90 percent of Yemen’s imports (Lopour, 2016). More importantly, due to the civil war crisis overall in the country, there has been an inability to access money or foreign currencies, disruption of imports due to the Saudi naval blockades at Yemen ports and the physical disruption of the main drivers of the economy including transportation, water, and agricultural infrastructure have further deepened the economic crisis (Cole, 2019).

Moreover, the destruction of the country’s industry and agricultural infrastructure by the Saudi-led coalition has diminished the financial incomes, of the workers, reduced the labor market, and halted the local production of goods. Consequently, there was the loss of jobs, the devaluation of the Yemeni currency, and the inability of the incumbent government to pay the salaries for government employees throughout the country have resulted in humanitarian disasters Yemen faces during this civil war crisis (Transfeld and Heinze, 2019). Accordingly, the destruction of agricultural infrastructure with the currency crisis to a great extent destabilized the market system and increased the prices of essential food and other vital goods in the country. Furthermore, according to ACAPS Yemen Analysis Hub 2019 reports the civil war crisis has significantly affected the country through increased unemployment, decreased GDP, currency devaluation, price deflation, the financial and bank crisis, and disruption of imports due to blockades and closures of main ports, all of which contributed the current economic depression experienced across Yemen. These economic factors together with the impacts of violence that led to the collapse of basic services, markets, water, health, and educational facilities have heavily
affected the country. Hence, the continuous civil war halt normally the economic activities in Yemen, and the country now faces the real prospect of economic decline.

In general, as the World Bank groups report 2019 points out, the Yemen civil conflict has caused widespread disruption of economic activities, with substantial damage to the public and private sector's infrastructure, destabilized the market system, and negatively affected the privat sectors and business opportunities, which also exposed millions of people destitution and food in security. Additionally, operating costs rose severely due to security and lack of supplies and inputs leading to massive dismissals to the country’s workforce in both formal and informal sectors. Lastly, the ongoing security and conflict between different groups affected the overall economic development and everyday life of the people. Expressly, the conflict is extremely disrupting livelihoods and income options in the country. Similarly, the civil conflict in Yemen has caused the breakdown of trade and markets in different parts of towns and has also caused many people to lose their livelihoods and physical as well as economic access to food and other basic necessities to lead their lives.

The other significant implication of the internationalized Yemen civil war at the national level is the social crisis that; the war has exposed millions of people at risk of food insecurity, internally displaced, and forced civilian outgoing migration to escape from the war crisis. The Yemen civil war crisis is awful and multifaceted with the take parts of regional and international actors, additional numbers of local hostile affiliated fighting groups have left millions of civilians suffering from the result of the war crisis. Likewise, Yemen's unstable political crisis has deteriorated into a serious civil conflict and would be a disaster for the humanitarian crisis, which also has created the worst conditions for food, water, medical, and energy supplies as well as difficulties for millions of people to lead a decent life.

The recent Yemen everlasting civil war has been seriously hit by the extensive use of explosive weapons, which has demolished the infrastructure and systems that people depend on to survive. At this point also, the devastation of infrastructure and essential services causes reverberating effects that disrupt every aspect of people’s lives encompassing health, shelter, food security, and livelihoods, despite the fact contributed to displacement. Besides, the devastation of essential infrastructures has contributed to hunger and disease dramatically reducing the ability of the population to access services such as clean water and electricity, and even limited the free movement of people from cities to cities (Humanity and Inclusion Report, 2020). The Yemen civil conflict has been more intensified at the moment of Houthi-Saleh alliance took control of Sana’a in 2014 expelling President Abdu Rabbu Mansour Hadi. Following this incident, the Saudi-led alliance of nine Arab states started an airstrike operation in contradiction to Houthi-Saleh’s collaboration to back the Hadi government. Thus, from this time onwards the conflict has widespread to the majority of Yemen’s provinces and resulted in the highest humanitarian crisis in the country.

Considerably, the outcome of the war has destroyed Yemen society, civilians have been injured, and killed in air strikes. Besides, the health care system has been directly destroyed by the conflict by being bombed as well as destroyed by lack of funding, medicine, and lack of staff medical professionals (Onus, 2018). Similarly, as the Yemeni civilian population is already suffering a tremendous artificial humanitarian crisis, the coronavirus (COVID-19) crisis puts new pressure on the health system of Yemen which has already been devastated by war. In fact, before COVID-19, several other notable disease outbreaks including Cholera, Diphtheria, Measles, and dengue fever have been observed in the country. Therefore, in light of these sequential abuses, the pandemic adds a new layer of misery for Yemenis who’s mental and physical health and access to health care infrastructure has already been severely insufficient (Nasser, 2020).

Correspondingly, as the office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights, 2020 report indicated, the continuing air strikes, indiscriminate artillery attacks, prevention movement of humanitarian relief supplies, and access to food and health care harm the people of Yemen more. Again this report added that since the beginning of the conflict approximately 112,000 people have died as a direct result of the hostilities, of whom around 12,000 were civilians. Also, expressively from March 2015 up to June 2020, at least 7,825 civilians were killed including at least 2,138 children and 933 women, and
12,146 civilians were injured as a result of direct armed conflict. Overall, the escalation of the unending civil conflict in Yemen caused high displacement and further exacerbated already deteriorated humanitarian conditions in Yemen. As a result of this situation around 24.5 million people need humanitarian assistance, 3.6 million are internally displaced, 17 million are in urgent need of food assistance and 20.5 million people need WASH support (Fact sheet, 2020). Thus, the aforementioned concept implies that Yemen is now in a persistent serious social crisis.

Regional Implications

Since the outbreak of the Arab uprising in 2011, the political situation in the Middle East and North Africa has been characterized by insecurity and unpredictability in the region. Thus, the civil conflict in Yemen has left the country fragmented and created favorable conditions for regional power struggles as well as competition between Saudi Arabia and Iran. The war has also increased the complications in the region, in which geopolitical considerations are surely displayed, and similarly, the ideological struggle has been played between the gulf cooperation council and Iran. So, exceptionally the Yemen civil war crisis has social, economic, security, and geopolitical implications on the region of the Middle East and the Horn of Africa. Correspondingly, there is a network of different crimes related to human trafficking as well as abduction observed in the region which is significantly associated with the Yemen civil war crisis.

Therefore, the Yemen civil war has further broadened the geopolitical division between Saudi Arabia and Iran competing for the hegemony of the whole Middle East region and the Horn of Africa. Notwithstanding, Saudi Arabia has always looked at Yemen as a matter of national security and domestic politics and Saudi did not hesitate to use the military tool to defend its Yemen courtyard against the Iranian perceived interference. Moreover, by extending its influence in Yemen through Houthi, Iran would have the possibility to indirectly influence the Bab el-Mandab which is a fundamental connection for the international oil trade (Ardemagni, 2016).

Hence, the stability of Yemen is a major concern for the Gulf States due to its position next to the region’s top oil export, Saudi Arabia, and the shipping lanes that run through the Gulf of Aden. Here also, an actual attack or the threat of one could have a dramatic impact on oil production in Saudi Arabia, which will suffer from the reduced output and the costs associated with that production. Since oil infrastructure in the Gulf region is well protected and difficult to target, another target is likely to be the Bab el-Mandab strait. This strait is one of the world’s most strategic maritime chokepoints and is located at the southwestern tip of Yemen. Indeed, around 3.5 million barrels of oil pass through this chokepoint every day and if these waters way will become dangerous for passing passengers, a rise in oil prices would be expected (de Haan, 2014). Therefore, Yemen has strategic significance for the oil export market from the Gulf States due to the presence of a gas oil chokepoint at the southern end of the Red Sea and the Bab el-Mandab entrance of waterways. Consequently, the instability and the persistence of civil war in Yemen would affect market prices and the production of oil in the Region.

Furthermore, the Significance of Yemen’s geopolitical situation is critical for regional and global perspectives. Thus, the country is on the border of Saudi Arabia and overlooks Bab el-Mandeb Strait across the Horn of Africa, which is strategically important for stability in the region as well as the security of key oil and commercial maritime routes (IMF, 2013). The strategic location of Yemen has given its importance in the trade route between Asia, Africa, and the European continent. Accordingly, the insecurity and the intensive civil war in this very strategically important country halts, the free flow of the huge oil production and other commodities as well as maritime trade in the region and around the world. Also, as the Middle East remains the world’s largest crude oil producing region, with almost all the crude oil coming from the Gulf state including Saudi Arabian at large, the insecurity and persistent civil conflict in Yemen directly or indirectly affected the accessibility of the oil market to the western countries and the rest of the other countries of the region.

The civil war in Yemen started in 2015 has brought turmoil’ and instability in the region of the Middle East and the Horn of Africa. Considerably, the ideological rivalry between Iran and Saudi Arabia is the main driving force for their active involvement in the Yemen crisis. Indeed, Saudi Arabia and Iran are
mutually engaged in ideological and geopolitical domination of the Middle East and Horn of Africa as well as reflecting the region’s bitter Sunni-Shiite sectarian division. Similarly, any unrest in the Red sea coastline seriously affected the security and economic interests of the region of the Middle East and the Horn of Africa (Muzeyen, 2017).

Correspondingly, the Yemen civil wars have not only devastated the poorest country in the Middle East but also generated new transitional layers of instability that affect the Arabian Peninsula and its neighborhood (Ardemagni, 2019). In similar circumstances, the Yemen civil conflict considerably exports conflict effects to the neighboring countries domestic political and economic instability, which the countries who engaged in conflict tend to increase their military spending. In this situation, Saudi Arabia became the world’s second-largest arms importer during the period between 2011 and moved to third position in global military spending $87.2 billion at the same time, the Saudi expenditure in Yemen estimated was at $3 billion to $5 per months (Hill and Shiban, 2016). Thus, the Yemen civil conflict has heavy financial costs for Saudi Arabia and its alliances.

Besides, since 2014, the Saudi-backed government and the Yemen Houthis have been engaged in civil war, Saudi Arabia has led repeated airstrikes on Houthi targets, and Yemen’s Houthis have done the same against facilities belonging to Saudi Arabia oil Aramco. In July 2018, the Houthi attacked two Saudi oil tankers in the Red Sea causing the Saudi Arabian to temporarily suspend oil shipment through the Bab el-Mandab strait a strategic checkpoint at the entrance to the Red Sea (EIA, 2020). Therefore, today’s ongoing civil conflict in Yemen is creating a political, military, and security crisis that is polarized by actors across the region. The core of these tensions lies in the Red Sea, one of the world’s most valuable trade routes, which is the most important checkpoint determining entry and exit to the route. The ongoing conflict dynamic risks creating waves of instability felt across and beyond the Horn of Africa (Al-Mahdhj, 2020). Also, in the 2015 war Yemen exported a high amount of fisher products which ranked second items and contributed two percent of the country’s gross domestic products. However, the civil conflict has significantly affected the fishing sector in terms of human and physical resources. Fishing activities and job opportunities in the fishing sector have declined with the suspension of fish exports since the start of the conflict in Yemen. Thus, the Yemen fish market and the supply chain have suffered a huge loss due to the conflict precluding the export market to neighboring countries and Europe (Al-Fareh, 2018).

Furthermore, the civil conflict in Yemen has resulted in the largest humanitarian crisis in the region, which has caused thousands have be killed, and internally displaced and others have flee as refugees to escape the severity of the armed conflict to the other neighboring countries in the region. Accordingly, the civil conflict situation in Yemen has deteriorated dramatically, as the insecurity and violence have taken a heavy toll on civil life and triggered a large scale of internal displacement and cross-border population movement. In similar conditions, as a result of the civil war crisis more than 1.2 million people are internally displaced, and alongside internal displacement, Yemen’s refugees and migrants are fleeing the country in considerable numbers. Consequently, at the end of August 2015, more than 100,000 arrivals from Yemen have been in the countries of the Middle East and the Horn of Africa mainly Djibouti, Ethiopia, Somalia, and Sudan. Despite, the ongoing crisis migrants from Eritrea, Ethiopia, and Somalia continue to take a frequently dangerous journey from the Horn of Africa to Yemen. However, the migrations are facilitated by human traffickers and smugglers networks that actively promote their services to migrants and are compounded by poor governance and weak border management (IOM, 2015). Hence, the war increased abuse by smugglers along the Red Rea including illegal human trafficking related to kidnapping for ransom in the region due to the instability associated with the Yemen civil war in the region.

The conflict in Yemen has had a significant impact on the movement choices and patterns of different groups of people. Considerably, large numbers of Yemenis have fled from the country, and the place of conflict is characterized by increased migration looking for greater safety and security elsewhere. However, a lack of financial resources and tolerance of hardship and risk has led to a large flow of people traveling depending on circumstances, hopes, and expectations. Therefore, large flows of migrants from
the Horn of Africa have been encouraged by the breakdown of state institutions and the subsequent lack of policy in Yemen gives golden opportunities for the smugglers to travel through the country. Smuggling and trafficking networks have also taken advantage of Yemen’s deteriorating situation to establish a profit transitional network that operates with relative impunity in the country (REF, 2017). Due to ongoing conflict and humanitarian catastrophe in Yemen, a vigorous kidnapping and torture for ransom industry along major routes, and threats of deportation by Yemeni and Saudi Arabia authorities, migrants from the Horn of Africa continued to travel to Yemen in the hope of reaching the labor market in the Gulf. These flows of migrant actions facilitated by a vast smuggler networked from Ethiopia to Saudi Arabia, moving tens of thousands of migrants through some harshest territory across the sea through conflict in Yemen and across one of the world’s most heavily harsh borders (Tinti, 2017).

The fragile situation in Yemen has opened up new ways for the smuggling process and may lure refugees and migrants to travel with the perception of careful movement through Yemen (Botti and Phillips, 2019). Besides, the exposure of the population in Yemen was at an increasing risk of being subjected to trafficking due to large-scale violence motivated by protected armed conflict, civil unrest, and lawlessness. Migrant workers from the Horn of Africa who continued or arrived in Yemen have endured intensified violence and women and children may have become susceptible to trafficking. On account of the fragile political situation, the government faced serious challenges in combating trafficking including security threats, weak institutions, limited territorial control, and poor law enforcement capabilities. Therefore, Traffickers abuse some refugees and migrants from the Horn of Africa who voluntarily transit Yemen en route to Saudi Arabia and other gulf countries (United States Department of State, 2018). Hence, the failure of law and order has given freeways for management to a smuggler in the region which attracts migrant’s concealed transit through Yemen and on to Saudi Arabia and the Gulf of Aden countries, exposing migrants to violating, abusing, ransoming, and to the catastrophic situation.

Global or Transnational Implications

The incident of civil conflict in Yemen has a significant global impact, in that it has influenced the Bab el-Mandab passages from the Indian Ocean to the Red sea, a location critical for freedom of movement and flow of trade. Also, Yemen has long-standing strategic transnational cooperation companies, all of which have been affected by the current war. The Bab el-Mandab forms a crucial waterway linking east and west, with almost all of the world trade between Europe and China, Japan, India, and the rest of Asia passing through this strait. Furthermore, all of the oil and natural gas are headed westward from the Persian Gulf, where nearly 30% of the world’s oil production transfers through the Bab el-Mandab strait (The Soufan Center, 2018). Accordingly, Yemen has a specific geostrategic significance, situated on the Red Sea, Gulf of Aden, and Bab el-Mandab actively overbuys transportation shipping lanes in the world. So, the tenacity of civil conflict and the deterioration of Yemen’s security situation could cause a risk and halt the energy supplies to the global market economy.

The Bab el-Mandab strait constitutes a hot point for global market maritime transit, more specifically for oil and natural gas coming from the Gulf countries’ largest oil-producing and exporting countries in the region towards Europe and North America through the Suez Canal. Thus, the watercourse position is estimated to have witnessed the transit of $ 6.2 million barrels per day of crude oil, condensate, and refined petroleum products toward Europe, the United States, and Asia in the year 2018. Also, this Strait enjoys a privileged position, because it constitutes the southern gateway to the Suez Canal to reach Europe and North America’s oil market and the Northern entrance to the Indian Ocean to reach the African or Asian market. However, this vital gateway for maritime trade routes, composes one of the most dangerous unstable straits in the world, as its neighbor faces several threats and regional challenges. Therefore, the conflict in Yemen since 2015 raises an additional risk of this region’s disruption and the insatiability of the strait. Considerably, the attacks on Saudi vessels in 2015 by Houthis rebels, and their threat to block the strait or assault the Emirates shipments in 2016 are some of the multiple instances that have recently compromised the security of the straits’ regular shipments (Raga, 2020). So, Yemen’s current ongoing conflict is reducing the maneuver of commercial activities from the region of the Middle East to the rest of the world through the Bab el- Mandab strait.
Generally speaking, the Bab el-Mandab strait is also viewed as one of the vital chokepoints for the transportation of oil and other related products for international commerce. Accordingly, more than 50 million tons of agricultural products pass through this strait every day. Significantly, a closure of the strait which ties the Asian to the Red sea and the Suez canal would oblige international maritime traffic to go around leading to increased cost of shipping and insurance which in turn would lead to higher fuel and food prices for the consumer. Ultimately, the presence of Yemen’s war around the strait in which the Houthi rebels have been engaged in a war against a Saudi Arabia coalition has led to commercial ships’ free flows and energy supplies to the world and global market economy (Afandilian, 2020). Importantly, Europe relies on the Middle East region for energy and trade. Thus, the free flow of oil and trade through sea lanes in the Middle East is important to European wealth. Likewise, European companies are heavily engaged in oil and gas exploration and production in the region of the Middle East. Broadly speaking, the value of trade between the European and Middle East region averaged $636 million per year from 2014 to 2017; however, the chaos in the Middle East directly affected the free flows of trade to Europe and the European economy (Barnes-Dacey and Dworkin, 2020). Thus, as the Yemen conflict is part of the Middle East chaos and Yemen is naturally located around the Bab el-Mandab strait, Red sea, and the Gulf of Aden which are significant areas for trade and the global economy, the conflict directly affects the European economy in particular and the world in general.

Furthermore, the attacks on the oil facilities of Saudi Arabia on September 14, 2018, concisely knocked more than 5 percent of the world’s crude oil production offline grabbing international attention as a consequence of the Yemen war becoming global. Therefore, Saudi Arabia’s oil production was cut by half to 5.7 million barrels per day, and the Brent crude price ended 15 percent higher at the end of the first day of trading after the attacks, the largest dollar increase since 2008 and the biggest one-day percentage jump in more than 30 years (The Saana Center for Strategic Studies, 2019). Moreover, strategically Red sea is one of the most important areas internationally due to it being the shortest route between the Mediterranean and the Indian Ocean and is good for maritime trade valuing some US$700 billion annually. Thus, during the consecutive years of civil war in Yemen, the Red Sea suffered 22 attacks on modern warships, trade ships, and oil tankers by small boats loaded with explosives and driven by suicide bombers often causing numerous damages to the container moving around (Elayah, 2019). Therefore, the Yemen civil war and the Saudi-led alliance intervention against the Houthi forces pose a potential risk to international shipping transiting to the Red sea, which is a strategic route for oil cargo and other commercial maneuvers to the world market.

Also, Yemen is home to the world’s fourth-largest induced international displacement crisis. In the last five years, nearly four million people have been uprooted, with an estimated one million struggle for survival. The war in Yemen has turned the country into the world’s largest humanitarian crisis. The international community has held the country’s increasingly vulnerable population back from the brink of catastrophe with lifesaving humanitarian assistance. The international community has generously supported the humanitarian response, investigating a total of $ 8.3 billion in successive humanitarian appeals, delivering lifesaving health care and nutrition support, food, aid, and water to millions of Yemen (IRC, 2019). The placement of the Yemen conflict in the international agenda is important due to the war implies its territory. It was Yemen branches of al-Qaeda that claimed authority for the January 2015 attacks against Charlie Hebdo in Paris. The other point is the more the conflict becomes entrenched, the greater the risk that the numbers of refugees will rise, progressively entering a migratory network that goes from the Arabian peninsula to Eastern Africa and then turns north to cross the Mediterranean sea and move to the European continent. These flows toward Europe cause not only political controversy but also economic problems at large (Bonnefoy, 2018).

The conflict in Yemen continued to fuel the world’s largest humanitarian crisis on which European Union has reacted to the crisis by stepping up its contribution to humanitarian efforts. In 2020 Europe allocated over €114 million in humanitarian assistance for Yemen, bringing the European Union’s support to humanitarian funding to a total of € 563.63 million since the beginning of the conflict in 2015. Also, the conflict came on top of existing economic woes in the country, with devastating effects on the livelihoods of large parts of the Yemen population (Factsheet about EU in Yemen, 2020). Significantly, South
Korea’s experience with the current global refugee crisis began in 2018, with the arrival of 500 Yemeni citizens on Jeju Island using the visa-free entry system. However, the unexpected appearance of Yemen asylum seekers in Jeju sparked fear among some residents that these new arrivals might present public safety risks and engage in criminal behaviors and triggered a call for the abolition of the visa-free system. Despite this fact, the South Korean government put Yemen on the list of terrorism watch list countries following deteriorating public opinion over Yemenis using the visa-free system. Then on July 1, 2018, the government removed Yemen from its list of visa-free entry countries to Jeju Island. Broadly speaking, as Yemeni refugees became a wider social issue, some Koreans strongly argued that a clear distinction should be drawn between who is and who is not a refugee. Therefore, the more serious problem was a xenophobic response to the Yemen refugees, in justifying their opposition to accepting Yemeni asylum seekers, the Koreans cited several recent high crimes committed by Muslim refugees in Europe. In this understanding, Muslim refugees from Islamic countries including Yemen, and fears of Islamic terrorists were conflated (Kwon, 2019). Thus, the Yemen civil war influenced the international community to coast high for the humanitarian crisis, for it has created in the country and across the region. In similar circumstances, the Yemen civil war created security problems for different countries in Europe and South Korea as well as to the Asian continent.

Conclusion

Historically, Yemen has practiced different civil wars in different courses of time which were followed by the overwhelming and destructive civil war in 2015, which is still persistently unbroken in the country. Therefore, the study has shown that the post-2011 Yemen internationalized civil war has caused a heavy loss in the social, political, and economic system of Yemen at the national level. The Yemen instability has been entrenched from a long history of political conflict, violence, marginalization, injustice, and grievances. These situations significantly pushed the Yemeni into the current unbreakable civil war crisis with the intervention of different national, regional, and global fighting actors. Consequently, Yemen is a nation that exists in desperation. The civil war has caused physical damage to the infrastructure, civil institutions, and livelihood of the Yemeni. Significantly, the civil conflict has destroyed key physical structures like roads, bridges, and ports. Likewise, the civil conflict has produced widespread destruction of economic activities with substantial damage to the public and private sector’s infrastructure, destabilized the market system, and negatively affected the business opportunities that exposed millions of people to poverty and food insecurity. Essentially, the current ongoing Yemen civil conflict affected the overall economic development and everyday life of the Yemen people.

On the other way round, the Yemen internationalized civil war highly affected the survival of the Yemen citizens. Here, the Yemen civilians are facing indiscriminate attacks, executions, unlawful killing, and other inhuman degrading treatment. Also, the civil war has demolished the infrastructure that people depend on to survive. The devastation of the infrastructure serves encompassing health centers, shelter, food security, and others. The continual civil war crisis forced hundreds of thousands of Yemenis to flee their home and become refugees to different parties of the world and internally displaced persons. Overall, the escalation of the unending civil conflict in Yemen caused high displacement, injury, and death to many Yemen citizens.

Furthermore, at the regional level, the stability of Yemen is a major concern for the Gulf States due to its location next to the region’s top oil-exporting country, Saudi Arabia, and the shipping lanes that run through the Gulf of Aden. Accordingly, Yemen has strategic significance for the oil export market from the Gulf state due to the existence of a gas oil checkpoint at the southern end of the Red Sea and Bab-el-Mandab entrance of waterways. Therefore, the existence of the Yemen civil war would adversely affect market prices and the production of oil in the region. The strategic location of Yemen has given its importance in the trade route between Asia, Africa, and the European continent. In a similar situation, any unrest in the Red Sea area seriously affected the security and the economic interest of the region of the Middle East and the Horn of Africa. Besides, the civil war in Yemen caused the largest humanitarian crisis in the region. The civil conflict situation dramatically deteriorated large numbers of human life and
triggered a large scale of internal displacement and cross-border population movement in the region. Furthermore, alongside internally displaced, large numbers of Yemeni refugees fled their country to escape from the severity of the civil war crisis to the Middle East and Horn of Africa regions.

Furthermore, the incident of Yemen’s internationalized civil war has significantly influenced the Ba el-Man dab, the Indian Ocean, and the Red Sea which are critical areas for the free flow of global trade. Naturally, Yemen is situated on the geostrategic significance of the Red Sea, the Gulf of Aden, and Ba el-Man dab the areas where the largest amounts of oil cargo and other agricultural products actively conducted transportation lanes in the world. Therefore, the tenacity of civil conflict and the deteriorated situation of Yemen’s security problem could cause a risk and halt the energy supplies and other products to the global market economy. Also, strategically Red Sea is one of the most important areas internationally; it is the shortest route between the Mediterranean and the Indian Ocean which is significant for maritime trade. Thus, the Yemen civil conflict has caused potential risk to the international shipping transit to the Red Sea which is the strategic route for oil cargo and other commercial movement to the global market. Likewise, Yemen is the home to the largest humanitarian crisis in the world. Despite this fact, the international community has held the country’s increasingly vulnerable population back from the brink of catastrophe with lifesaving humanitarian assistance. The Yemeni conflict continues to fuel the world’s largest humanitarian crisis in which European Union has reacted to the crisis by stepping up its contribution to humanitarian efforts. Also, the Yemen civil war influenced the international community to coast high for the humanitarian crisis; it has created in the country and across the region. Likewise, the civil war created security problems for different countries in Europe, the Horn of Africa, and the Asian continent.

References


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