

# FRAGILITY AND EXTREMISM IN YEMEN

A CASE STUDY OF THE **STABILIZING FRAGILE STATES PROJECT** 



#### **ABOUT THIS REPORT**

In the fall of 2009, the Bipartisan Policy Center's Stabilizing Fragile States steering committee directed project staff to undertake a case study of Yemen in order to provide a more granular understanding of the specific challenges found in fragile states. The original version of that case study was published in February 2010, accompanied by a public discussion, entitled "Yemen: The Next Afghanistan?" featuring project co-chairs Ambassador Paula Dobriansky and Admiral (Ret.) Gregory Johnson, as well as former Ambassador to Yemen Thomas Krajeski, Les Campbell of the National Democratic Institute and former Deputy Assistant Secretary of Defense Michael Doran. This staff paper is an update to that original publication and is being released in conjunction with the *Stabilizing Fragile States* report.

#### **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

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#### **DISCLAIMER**

This case study was prepared by the staff of the National Security Initiative, the Bipartisan Policy Center's foreign policy program, and aims to promote a better understanding of the relationship between state fragility and extremism, as exemplified in Yemen. While this paper was drafted with the guidance of the Stabilizing Fragile States project co-chairs and some members, the views expressed here do not necessarily reflect those of each of the members of the Stabilizing Fragile States project.

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### **EXECUTIVE SUMMARY**

emen's long-time president Ali Abdullah Saleh told a U.S. State Department official last year that Americans were "hot-blooded and hasty when you need us," but "cold-blooded and British when we need you." This is certainly a time when we need Yemen.

In 2009 and 2010, nearly a decade after 9/11, terrorists with ties to Yemen reminded the world that global threats continue to emanate from fragile states, no matter how distant and remote. Although Yemen may just now be joining the list of notorious terrorist safe havens—together with Somalia, Afghanistan and Pakistan—its fragility is not newfound. Nor is the presence there of threats to U.S. and international security. Yemen—boasting a host of security challenges and sources of instability but without a well-functioning government or consistent and comprehensive foreign assistance—thus offers a constructive case study for the Bipartisan Policy Center's Stabilizing Fragile States project, which considers how to revise and restructure U.S. policy toward strategically important weak states.

The severity of problems in Yemen—and their potentially grave ramifications for U.S. national security—requires greater understanding. Yemeni-based terrorists had already been active for nearly a decade before the September 11, 2001, attacks, from al-Qaida's December 1992 bombing of an Aden hotel hosting U.S. service members to the October 2000 bombing of the *USS Cole* in Aden harbor. Since then, al-Qaida has expanded its presence in Yemen, using it as a base of operations from which to stage ever-brasher attacks.

Were the situation to deteriorate further, and Yemen to fail completely, the United States would likely witness a security vacuum on the southern tip of the Arabian Peninsula. At best, this would mirror Somalia across the Red Sea; at worst the two could combine to destabilize the entire region. This would permit greater freedom of maneuver for al-Qaida and pirates astride a major chokepoint for international energy flows; exacerbate ongoing internal conflicts, potentially turning them

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**MAP 1: REGIONAL MAP** 



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into Saudi-Iranian proxy wars and/or spilling over into neighboring countries; and could trigger major humanitarian disasters among an extremely impoverished and underserviced population.

The calls for excising this latest terrorist cancer—al-Qaida in the Arabian Peninsula, or AQAP, the merger of Saudi and Yemeni al-Qaida militants—have been swift and all but unanimous. The need for action, however, ought not obscure the difficulty of the task. Instead, our response should be based on a thorough analysis of challenges facing Yemen and their underlying causes, including how state fragility and extremism are intricately interwoven.

Terrorist threats continue to emanate from Yemen not because the government lacks the military strength to eradicate them, but because the regime has done little to resolve the myriad social, economic and political problems that beset the county. Extremist groups have persisted, indeed thrived, in Yemen by exploiting these weaknesses and the state's resultant lack of legitimacy.

Saleh has compared the difficulty of governing his country to "dancing with snakes." Indeed, it is not an easy task. History, demography and geography have conspired to bequeath Yemen a legacy of factionalism, civil conflict, distrust and resource competition. More cartographical construct than cohesive country, modern Yemen was cobbled together only 20 years ago from the skeletons of empires past. In the north, the Zaydi kingdom of Imam Yahya filled the vacuum left

by the Ottoman Empire, only to be replaced by the Yemen Arab Republic. Tribes in southern and eastern Yemen were assembled haphazardly into a neighboring sphere of influence by various British imperial institutions. When the British withdrew precipitously from the south in 1967, various socialist factions filled the void. A unified Yemen did not prove possible until 1990, once the Soviet Union imploded.

Each of these many Yemeni political entities faced, and was eventually undone by, the many overlapping regional and tribal cleavages that have long simmered in this region. North Yemen experienced five coups d'état in its brief history (1948, 1962, 1967, 1974 and 1978), and at least four failed coup attempts (1955, 1959, 1979 and 1981), while South Yemen underwent three coups d'état of its own (1969, 1978 and 1980) in its even briefer history. In addition to the post-unification civil war of 1994, North and South Yemen each fought their own civil wars (North: 1962-70; South: 1967-70 and 1986), while also fighting undeclared wars against each other in the 1950s and 1960s as well as brief border conflicts in 1972 and 1979. Further, low-level warfare between Yemeni regimes and tribes and between tribes—has been a constant feature of Yemen's history.

Indeed, Yemen has always been highly tribalized. Tribal institutions and traditions are responsible for maintaining order and providing services in much of the

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country. In the mountainous northwest, relationships within and between tribal confederations, as well as the plundering of resources from the south, form the basis of political life. Although the radical Marxist regime in South Yemen was partly successful in eradicating tribal allegiances in the 1970s and 1980s, tribalism has been reinvigorated since unification—and especially after the 1994 civil war. To this day tribesmen routinely blockade roads, hijack fuel trucks and cut electrical lines to protest government policies.<sup>2</sup>

These divisions are aggravated by deeply-entrenched political problems, including: ineffective governance, particularly the continued practice of patronage; poor economic performance, which is compounded by dependence on declining reserves of oil, natural gas and water; explosive demographic indicators; and a quickly-degrading security environment. Yemen has no permanent rivers and precious little arable land. What water and soil there is, is almost exclusively devoted to the cultivation of *qat*—a lucrative but non-nutritive semi-narcotic plant that has been a staple of daily life throughout Yemeni history. The country's booming population—with 23 million citizens, it has doubled in the last two decades and is projected to double yet again in another 25 years—is largely reliant on an extensive, government-run patronage system. Indeed, the U.S. Agency for International Development has said that corruption "is the glue that keeps things in place." The money for these handouts comes from Yemen's modest energy reserves: about 12 billion barrels of oil and 480 billion cubic meters of natural gas. But with production in many known fields declining and without sufficient capital or technology to find or tap new ones, Yemen's resource largess—and ability to buy tribal allegiance might be coming to an end.

Ruling over a land as fraught with weaknesses as this southern tip of the Arabian Peninsula requires unconventional political strategies. There has been one in particular that has been the favorite of many of the past rulers of what is now Yemen: playing various factions against each other in an effort to ensure that no one ever grows powerful enough to challenge the regime. Given Yemen's many deep and crosscutting tribal, regional and sectarian cleavages, this has historically been the easiest strategy for maintaining some semblance of order. And there has been no more astute practitioner of this tradition of divide-and-conquer politics than President Saleh. As a Yemeni source reportedly told U.S. diplomats in Yemen, "our good president says things to play the old game and keep everyone under his thumb."3 "Dancing with snakes" is an apt description of this approach.

By leveraging historical cleavages, Saleh has been able to raise proxy fighters and popular armies to suppress conflicts and insurrection, simultaneously ensuring that political society remains too fractious to mount a challenge to his rule. Further, because security forces are tied down in these various conflicts, in addition to protecting revenue-generating infrastructure, the military also remains too weak and divided to pose a threat to the regime.

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Nowhere has this delicate balancing act been more evident than with the extremist presence within Yemen's borders. For most of the last decade, Yemen has carefully calibrated and controlled the threat of terrorism to reap the greatest advantage. Saleh's government has practiced a policy of benign neglect regarding the mujahedin presence within its borders, precisely to avoid turning them into yet another internal foe. The regime has maintained a "covenant of security" with militant extremists, even using them as mercenaries, thereby creating yet another faction that could be used to balance the northern conflict and southern secessionism.4 International pressure to conduct operations against al-Qaida certainly complicated matters in the past, but the regime has, until now, been able to calibrate its response so that it neither significantly damaged its ties to the extremists nor risked forsaking foreign military aid.

Indeed, partnership with the international community in the fight against extremism has been lucrative for Yemen. With foreign military assistance from a number of sources, including over \$1 billion in arms sales from Russia over the past decade, Yemen boasts a large and well-equipped security apparatus. *The Economist* has even referred to the Sa'dah conflict zone in northern Yemen as the "best-stocked arms bazaar west of Peshawar." Indeed, leaked State Department cables suggest the foreign aid money being funneled to Yemen, especially from Saudi Arabia, as a result of the Sa'dah conflict "mean Saleh now has an incentive to prolong the conflict rather than seek a mediated solution."

THE RISE OF AQAP REPRESENTS A NEW GENERATION OF EXTREMISTS HARDENED BY EXPERIENCES IN IRAQ, SAUDI ARABIA AND GUANTÁNAMO BAY. THIS NEW FORCE IS DETERMINED TO STRIKE AT FOREIGN AND YEMENI TARGETS ALIKE, BOTH ON THE ARABIAN PENINSULA AND IN THE UNITED STATES.

Yet, as an ally of the United States, committed to rooting out terrorism within its borders, Yemen's efforts prior to December 2009 were feeble at best. While attempts to target al-Qaida led to a handful of successes, more often Yemeni forces caused greater civilian than terrorist casualties. Many of the extremists who were captured were eventually released or escaped from prison.

The rise of AQAP, however, represents a new generation of extremists hardened by experiences in Iraq, Saudi Arabia and Guantánamo Bay. This new force is determined to strike at foreign and Yemeni targets alike, both on the Arabian Peninsula and in the United States. Unlike the *mujahedin* generation before it, AQAP can afford to harbor such ambitions. Instead of siding with the regime, it has exploited Sana'a's low legitimacy to side with the regime's opponents and upset Sana'a's meticulously constructed balancing act.

Now, intense foreign pressure, and perhaps internal alarm, has prompted a new round of aggressive counterterrorism operations. It is tempting to assume that the United States will now finally realize returns on a decade of military assistance. But this would ignore the inconvenient fact that while fumbling some recent major operations against AQAP Sana'a has prosecuted the Sa'dah conflict with exacting ruthlessness. Indeed, in the past Yemen's elite counterterrorist units have been diverted from pursuing AQAP to fight in Sa'dah. Even when pursuing their primary objective, the contrast between the performance of Yemeni security forces in civil conflicts and its counterterrorism operations is stark. Moreover, according to analysis in leaked U.S. diplomatic cables, Saleh believes that international counterterrorism assistance will allow him "to continue to devote his limited security assets to the ongoing war" in Sa'dah as well as sending "a clear message to the southern movement or any other party interested in generating political unrest." Yemen does not lack security capacity, nor is it particularly in need of the additional materiel the regime keeps requesting.

The Yemeni security apparatus has its shortcomings—troops would benefit from further training and

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its bloated command and control structures need to be streamlined—but it has proven itself capable of projecting authority in the far reaches of the country and successfully waging campaigns, when it so desires. Yet, Yemen's military might is more often turned to quelling civil conflicts than rooting out extremists. Sana'a has continually demonstrated—whether by its recent decision to hire tribesmen to fight al-Qaida or by its emphasis on acquiring heavy armor platforms, which are largely ineffective in quick-paced counterterrorism operations that its true strategic concern is regime security. When asked by a U.S. delegation to rank the threats facing his country, Saleh reportedly put AQAP, the Sa'dah conflict and southern secessionism on the same level, before recognizing his audience and back-tracking to rank the threat of terrorism the most pressing.6

Yemen will not be able to address the terrorist threat that lurks within its borders, even with a continued influx of foreign security assistance, as long as the regime is committed to this delicate balancing act, which has enabled Saleh's 30-year reign. Ultimately, both the presence of violent extremists within Yemen and the government's reluctance to confront them spring from the same source: lack of political trust. Sana'a, concerned with its own survival, perpetuates the social divisions that plague and destabilize the country. Many

Yemenis, on the other hand, place little stock in the government's ability to provide for them, and instead rely on established tribal structures and mechanisms to secure basic services and justice. Far-reaching corruption and oil revenue-fueled patronage only serve to further isolate Yemeni society from the government, contributing to political grievances and undermining the state's legitimacy. Extremists have exploited this vicious cycle of distrust to ally themselves with alienated tribes and find safe haven in the hinterlands of Yemen. There is also the latent but tangible fear that extremists may find recruits in refugee camps in both the north and south.

Thus, additional military aid and security assistance alone is likely to have a limited effect in solving Yemen's terrorism problem. If we hope to uproot al-Qaida and prevent subsequent Yemen-based attacks on U.S. targets, it will be crucial that we understand and confront these deeply entrenched challenges to Yemeni stability, that we treat Yemen as a fragile state and not merely a security risk. Until Yemen develops both the capacity and will to address its underlying social, economic and political weaknesses constructively and seek meaningful resolutions to-not just political advantage from—its various internal conflicts, it will continue to be a threat to international security. To accomplish that, our engagement with Yemen must not be dictated by sensational headlines but by pragmatic, long-term goals; it must be, as Saleh requested, "moderate blood temperature," rather than fluctuating between hot and cold. Recommendations for how to tackle such problems, and about what sort of capacity the U.S. foreign policy apparatus needs to develop in order to do so, are contained in this project's final report, Stabilizing Fragile States (2011). In the end, however, better addressing the country's underlying problems, let alone solving them, will require convincing Yemenis—and especially the government—to dance with one another instead of with snakes.

## WHY FRAGILE STATES?

s the events of 9/11 horrifically demonstrated, a few determined individuals can threaten U.S. strategic interests. The 9/11 terrorists benefitted from the inability of a number of states to control their borders and enforce stability, demonstrating that fragile states are central in today's international security landscape.

"Near-peer" competitors and rogue states continue to present a strategic challenge to the United States and its allies, the globalization and integration of economies, transportation, communication and ideas. This means that serious threats can emerge not only from countries with strong governments to push against American interests, but also from countries in which government is itself weak or absent.

BPC's Stabilizing Fragile States project aims to assess existing U.S. capabilities and explore those bureaucratic structures and on-the-ground instruments that can be modified or created to address the myriad threats posed by fragile states. The inability of failed states to carry out basic functions—securing their own borders, providing essential civil services and public goods, and maintaining rule of law and governing legitimacy—can spark a range of crises that could undermine U.S. strategic interests. These might involve terrorism, international crime, proliferation of weapons of mass destruction and limiting U.S. access to vital natural resources. Neutralizing these threats posed by state failure is becoming a national security priority.

However, the United States cannot afford to wait until the strategic dangers of state failure materialize. Responding only once a state has already collapsed requires great effort, possibly including costly, hasty and indefinite military intervention. A reactive policy that relies on the military for peacekeeping and post-conflict reconstruction—when such personnel lack the relevant training and are needed to serve in other capacities—is often more expensive and less effective than a preventive civilian-led response might be.

THE INABILITY OF FAILED STATES TO CARRY OUT BASIC FUNCTIONS—SECURING THEIR OWN BORDERS, PROVIDING ESSENTIAL CIVIL SERVICES AND PUBLIC GOODS, AND MAINTAINING RULE OF LAW AND GOVERNING LEGITIMACY—CAN SPARK A RANGE OF CRISES THAT COULD UNDERMINE U.S. STRATEGIC INTERESTS.

**CIVIL UNREST:** Opponents of the regime resort to terrorism or sporadic violence to destabilize the government, but cannot mount a concerted military campaign. Primary responsibility for internal security lies with the police; the challenge is to strengthen law enforcement. Assistance takes the form of police training, police equipment, intelligence, justice sector assistance and institutional support.

Examples: Thailand, Mexico.

**INSURGENCY:** Opponents of the regime assert an organized military challenge to the government, but are not strong enough to do so openly, to control territory or to organize a rival government. Responsibility for maintaining internal control is shared between military and police forces. Assistance takes the form of military training, police training, light weapons, intelligence and institutional support.

Examples: Pakistan. Nigeria.

STRONG INSTITUTIONAL CONTROL: Political institutions are mature. Courts effectively maintain the rule of law. Citizens respect institutions and obey the laws out of habit, more than out of fear of punishment. Security capacity assistance is hardly required.

Examples: Chile. Poland.

WEAK INSTITUTIONAL CONTROL: The government is weak, but is not openly challenged. Difficulties stem from incompetence, corruption and organized crime. Police are strong enough to maintain internal order, and the military is required only for external defense. Challenge is to strengthen the legitimacy and effectiveness of the government. Assistance takes the form of ministerial training. justice sector assistance and institutional support. Examples: Turkey. South Africa.

WILLING

UNWILLING

**CIVIL WAR:** Opponents of the regime are organized. and make a concerted effort to establish a rival government in some or all of the national territory. Primary responsibility resides with the military; success depends on military operations. Assistance takes the form of heavy weapons systems, light weapons, military training, intelligence or direct military intervention.

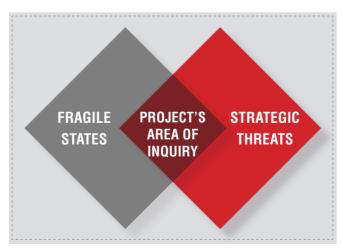
Examples: Afghanistan, Sri Lanka.

**ANARCHY:** No national institutions survive. Warlords fight for transient control over small territories. Assistance must take the form of direct military intervention, with the aim of providing enough stability for factions to congeal into a regime capable of asserting national control. Examples: Somalia, Zaire in the 1990s.

The basic assumption of this project is that preventing rather than reacting to the security threats state failure produces is the best strategy for national security. While situations may arise that require use of military force, this project hopes to identify a preventive approach that would prove a less costly and more effective means of neutralizing national security threats emanating from failing states. However, for those cases in which state failure cannot be prevented, many of the same tools could support reconstruction efforts better than those exercised to date. Although the dynamics of state breakdown are rarely identical across countries, the project focuses on two central areas which are believed to be essential to preventing state failure and promoting stabilization: building partner security capacity and civic resilience.

#### FRAGILITY AS THREAT

This is not to suggest that *every* fragile state poses a strategic threat to the United States. Many fragile states contain threats to themselves and neighbors (e.g., spillover effects from civil wars, famine or disease). However, the Stabilizing Fragile States project of the Bipartisan Policy Center specifically concentrates on threats to the United States and to the international community that emanate from fragile states.



These threats can be either direct or indirect. Direct threats endanger U.S. interests, almost exclusively through the actions of rogue or non-state actors that UNLIKE MORE CONVENTIONAL NATIONAL SECURITY
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weak governments are unable to control by themselves. Fragile states may play host to international terrorist organizations, as in Afghanistan or Yemen. They may be centers for the narcotics trade and organized crime, as in Colombia or Guinea-Bissau. They may lose control of or facilitate the transfer of materials for weapons of mass destruction (WMD). They might spawn violence that restricts access to vital natural resources, such as oil in Nigeria, or the flow of international trade, as in Indonesia and Yemen.

Indirect threats are most often spillover effects that worsen regional instability, but may also include geopolitical considerations and any activities (or lack thereof) that give rise to direct threats. Fragile states may provide a base from which ethnic or nationalist militants can undermine more stable neighbors, as in Sudan or Sri Lanka. They can provide an environment conducive to the spread of diseases, which can cross borders and kill millions, as in the Democratic Republic of Congo or Zimbabwe. They may also force population migration, which can trigger violent ethnic or resource-driven conflicts in neighboring countries, as in Rwanda, and they may create humanitarian catastrophes where the U.S. feels politically obliged to intervene, as in Somalia or Haiti.

Unlike more conventional national security threats, those emanating from fragile states could be addressed by the fragile states themselves, if only they had sufficient institutional capacity to do so. The United States needs to learn not just how to break its enemies, but how to build stable allies.

#### DEFINING FRAGILITY AND STABILITY

It is impossible to define what qualifies a state as "fragile" independently of understanding what a "state," when it functions properly, ought to be. Similarly, the concept of state fragility will be of little use if we cannot draw a line between states that have failed and those that are weak, but have not yet collapsed. What is the threshold of state failure?

We identify below two crucial axes of statehood—*ability* and *will*—that make possible meaningful distinctions between stable, fragile and failed states. The former is the traditional focus of political science approaches to the state, and is captured by the concept of sovereignty. The latter is understood in terms of a state's responsibilities and actions in the international system.

#### **ABILITY**

According to the sociologist Max Weber's widely-used definition, the state is understood as holding a "monopoly on the legitimate use of physical force within a given territory."9 This definition closely links statehood with security capacity. Indeed, it allows for a state's strength to be evaluated on a spectrum that strictly corresponds to its sovereignty over its own internal affairs, ranging from strong institutional control to anarchy. A stable state exerts control over its own territory and population, while a state that lacks any centralized power structure capable of exerting such authority is clearly failed.10 Fragile states fall somewhere in between—exerting control over some portion of the country, but lacking a complete monopoly on violence. The dynamics, root causes and extent of such fragility will differ with each state. Nevertheless, the overall contours share a pattern that shapes the challenges governments—or outside actors, like the United States—face in seeking to stabilize a particular fragile state.

Security and violence, however, are not the only metrics of state ability. Another common set of defi-

nitions refer to the state as a "contract" that includes "political goods" owed to citizens, such as: security, justice, education, health services, economic opportunity and so forth.11 Thus, internal sovereignty must also be understood in terms of how a state governs society. Governing connotes not merely the issuance of commands, but a measure of obedience derived from legitimacy; it is a two-way relationship. States dictate the rules that limit, mitigate, resolve and punish conflict in social life. Society, for its part, must be willing to abide by these rules. Public research surveys across borders and regions show that people believe that the authority of government should derive from the citizenry. A 2008 WorldPublicOpinion.org poll of 19 countries found 86 percent of people agreeing—52 percent strongly—with the principle that "the will of the people should be the basis for the authority of government."12 Many of the state functions listed above are critical because they ensure the acquiescence of society to government rule. But a purely functional focus also diverts attention from the phenomenon that is a crucial component of the rise of extremism: societal rejection of the state.

Consider Yemen. While the state has developed strong central institutions, such as one of the largest militaries on the Arabian Peninsula, they have mostly been designed to maintain the regime's grip on power through co-optation and repression. As a result, even when the state does possess functional capacity, it is distrusted by society. Shadow tribal institutions often take the place of the state for the many Yemenis who feel oppressed or unrepresented by this system. Al-Qaida has begun to exploit this alienation in order to insinuate itself into society. Thus, preexisting civil tensions are increasingly becoming ideological conflicts. Under

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SOCIETY'S WILLINGNESS TO BUY INTO THE POLITICAL PROCESS CAN MAKE THE HARD JOB OF GOVERNING—PROVIDING SECURITY AND OTHER SERVICES—EASIER. A GOVERNMENT THAT CAN PROTECT ITS CITIZENS AND LISTEN TO THEIR NEEDS IS MORE LIKELY TO BE TRUSTED AND SEEN AS LEGITIMATE.

such conditions, simply building government capacity is not always sufficient to coax society into accepting the state. The ways in which a government carries out basic political functions can be just as important as the functions it serves.<sup>13</sup>

The greater a state's stability—that is, the level of social acceptance of, and participation in, the political process—the greater its immunity to extremism, what we define as "civic resilience." Note, however, that "stability" in this case does not relate to a level of economic development, nor is it tied to any one political system. Instead, it is a measure of coherence between state and society—a dynamic that can become self-reinforcing. Society's willingness to buy into the political process can make the hard job of governing—providing security and other services—easier. A government that can protect its citizens and listen to their needs is more likely to be trusted and seen as legitimate.

This definition has the benefit of delineating between states whose functional capacity might be somewhat limited, but whose authority nevertheless extends through the entirety of their territory, e.g. Egypt, and those—such as Yemen, Pakistan or Nigeria—that cannot govern their peripheries, because they lack either basic political institutions or societal acceptance.

Given these two aspects of internal sovereignty, it is possible to define what makes a state "able" to perform its expected functions:

An **ABLE** state, by enforcing a monopoly on the use of force within its territory, maintains a system of rules, procedures and processes by which members of society agree to resolve their differences, address their grievances and achieve their political aims.

#### WILL

Regardless of their ability to govern their own territory and citizenry, states do not exist in a vacuum. The effects of their exercise of sovereign authority—or lack thereof—may well spill across borders, impacting other states. The danger of such spillover effects is especially pertinent to states that are unable to maintain a monopoly on the use of violence within their territory. Criminal organizations, terrorist groups and insurgents are able to operate in the authority vacuum of such states, threatening the security of their populations and of the international community. States committed to addressing such threats that emanate from within their own borders are willing members of the international community. Moreover, they would be willing recipients of stabilization assistance meant to help them build the capacity to secure their territory and govern their populace. Thus,

A **WILLING** state remains accountable to the international community and open to international assistance.

#### **DEFINITIONS**

The distinction between "fragile" and "failed" states encompasses both of the dimensions of statehood discussed above: ability and will. Unlike a failed state, a fragile one has leadership that is *willing* to resolve internal problems and remain accountable to the international community. However, unlike a stable state, a fragile one is increasingly, though perhaps not totally, *unable* to do so for lack of institutional capacity and effective governance.

This gives rise to a set of definitions:

A **STABLE** state is both **ABLE** to fulfill the basic functions of a state and a **WILLING** member of the international community.

A **FAILED** state is **UNABLE** to fulfill the basic functions of a state, therefore rendering its **UNWILLINGNESS** a moot point.

A **FRAGILE** state has a government that is **WILLING** but increasingly **UNABLE** to fulfill the basic functions of a state, with authority vacuums where the government is unable to extend its authority or the population does not accept that authority.

A **ROGUE** state might be reasonably **ABLE** to fulfill the basic functions of a state, but is characterized by its **UNWILLINGNESS** to be a responsible member of the international community.

#### YEMEN: CASE STUDY IN FRAGILITY

Even before its newfound prominence, Yemen was a compelling case study in fragility. Not only does Yemen represent the full spectrum of challenges to state stability—deep social cleavages, weak state legitimacy, dwindling natural resources, a skyrocketing population, crippling poverty and the presence of extremist groups—it is also a known terrorist haven. The Yemeni government under President Saleh has been, for the most part, a willing partner in the attempt to root out violent extremism, but this dedication to counterterrorism, supported by foreign military aid, has had limited success in disrupting terrorist activities, let alone in bringing stability to the country. This case study of Yemen, conducted as part of the Bipartisan Policy Center's Stabilizing Fragile States project,

illuminates the complexities and interdependencies of state fragility, and the need for a comprehensive approach to stabilization.

#### YEMEN'S STRATEGIC IMPORTANCE

The spate of attacks against U.S. targets and interests launched by Yemeni-based or -trained terrorists over the past decade—the 2000 bombing of the *USS Cole*, the 2008 attack on the U.S. Embassy in Yemen's capital city of Sana'a (also known as Sanaa), and the 2009 Christmas Day airliner attempt being the most memorable—leaves little doubt about the danger emanating from Yemen.

Yemen also has a particular geostrategic importance. Lying on the Red Sea and Gulf of Aden, Yemen borders the fourth-busiest oil shipping lane in the world. With its shores already plagued by Somali pirates, a further deterioration of Yemen's security could pose a real risk to the world's energy supply.

#### YEMEN AS FRAGILE

Since at least 2005, Yemen has qualified as a fragile state in most indices that track such information. It routinely ranks particularly poorly in terms of corruption, accountability, government effectiveness, human development, freedom and the absence of violence.

In 2010, Yemen was ranked 15th out of 60 countries that qualified as being at some level of risk for state failure (with 1st being a completely failed state), according to the Failed States Index. In 2008, the Brookings

NOT ONLY DOES YEMEN REPRESENT THE FULL SPECTRUM OF CHALLENGES TO STATE STABILITY—DEEP SOCIAL CLEAVAGES, WEAK STATE LEGITIMACY, DWINDLING NATURAL RESOURCES, A SKYROCKETING POPULATION, CRIPPLING POVERTY AND THE PRESENCE OF EXTREMIST GROUPS—IT IS ALSO A KNOWN TERRORIST HAVEN.

Institution's Index of State Weakness in the Developing World ranked Yemen as the 30th weakest out of 141 developing countries, qualifying as a "weak" but not "critically weak" state. The George Mason University Center for Global Policy's annual State Fragility Index listed Yemen as a "highly fragile" state alongside Pakistan and Zimbabwe, although not "extremely fragile" like Afghanistan, Somalia or Nigeria. The World Bank's International Development Association ranked Yemen as a "marginally fragile" state (22nd most fragile out of 75 countries), giving the country poor marks for "rulebased governance," property rights, gender equality and financial sector regulation. Freedom House's *Freedom in the World Report* for 2009 ranked Yemen as "partly free." This was downgraded to "not free" in 2010. 14

#### RECENT DEVELOPMENTS

International focus on Yemen has intensified since the failed bombing of Detroit-bound Northwest Airlines flight 253 on December 25, 2009. The suspect, Umar Farouk Abdulmutallab, is reported to have been recruited and trained by AQAP operating out of Yemen. The attempted attack is an example of AQAP's growing

BEFORE MID-DECEMBER 2009, YEMEN'S CAMPAIGN
AGAINST AL-QAIDA AMOUNTED TO LITTLE MORE
THAN INFORMAL TRUCES PUNCTUATED BY RAIDS
AND OTHER LIMITED INCURSIONS AGAINST
SUSPECTED HIDEOUTS. HOWEVER, AFTER
UNCOVERING PLANS FOR SUICIDE ATTACKS INSIDE
YEMEN, THE GOVERNMENT LAUNCHED A SERIES OF
MAJOR AIRSTRIKES IN MULTIPLE PROVINCES ON
DECEMBER 17 AND 24, 2009, FOLLOWED BY OTHER
MILITARY AND POLICE ACTIONS IN THE WAKE OF THE
FAILED CHRISTMAS DAY ATTACK.

INTERNATIONAL FOCUS ON YEMEN HAS INTENSIFIED SINCE THE FAILED BOMBING OF DETROIT-BOUND NORTHWEST AIRLINES FLIGHT 253 ON DECEMBER 25, 2009. THE ATTEMPTED ATTACK IS AN EXAMPLE OF AQAP'S GROWING POTENCY AND AMBITION.

potency and ambition.<sup>15</sup> It has thrived in Yemen's vast ungoverned reaches, capitalizing on the central government's weakness and illegitimacy.

Before mid-December 2009, Yemen's campaign against al-Qaida amounted to little more than informal truces punctuated by raids and other limited incursions against suspected hideouts.16 However, after uncovering plans for suicide attacks inside Yemen, the government launched a series of major airstrikes in multiple provinces on December 17 and 24, 2009, followed by other military and police actions in the wake of the failed Christmas Day attack. The December airstrikes targeted al-Qaida's regional commander, Nasir al-Wahayshi (formerly Osama bin Laden's secretary), deputy Said al-Shihri and a number of former Guantánamo Bay detainees, as well as training camps and hideouts. Over the course of 2010, security forces have set up checkpoints in the capital city (Sana'a) and on major highways near al-Qaida's rural strongholds, while also pursuing, arresting and killing hundreds of suspected militants across the country.17

This ongoing offensive represents a sharp escalation in the fight against al-Qaida, in three ways. First, Yemeni security services are engaged in across-the-spectrum operations, from airpower to police work. By pursuing and striking targets continually (sometimes for days in a row), creating checkpoints and arresting suspects, Yemeni forces at least appear to be reversing their previous trend of pinprick attacks against jihadist hideouts followed by prompt withdrawals and truces. Second, the offensive covers urban areas and remote rural provinces simultaneously, often

using thousands—as opposed to scores or hundreds—of security personnel to launch large attacks and sweeps. For example, the December 2009 airstrikes killed a combined 60 suspected militants (more than were killed in the preceding 11 months). Finally, the United States has begun providing communications and satellite intelligence—as well as firepower—for the airstrikes. U.S. General David Petraeus (then head of U.S. Central Command, or Centcom) and John Brennan (Assistant to the President for Counterterrorism and Homeland Security) have spoken with Saleh repeatedly in 2010 to strengthen U.S. counterterrorism cooperation with Yemen. 18

Perhaps most importantly, the U.S., British and Gulf Arab governments issued new promises of support. The United States pledged to increase counterterrorism assistance to Yemen (including earmarks) from \$67 million in FY2009 to \$190 million for FY2010—on top of \$121 million in development aid over the next three years—while Britain increased its overall assistance from \$32 million in 2009 to a pledged \$80 million for 2010. In addition, both countries agreed to bolster Yemeni counterterrorism units. U.S., British, Arab and other aid donors met with Yemeni officials in London on January 27, 2010, where Yemen's government issued a statement acknowledging the need for serious economic and political reforms to stabilize the country.<sup>19</sup>

## **BACKGROUND**

#### **GEOGRAPHY**

emen occupies the southwestern corner of the Arabian Peninsula between Saudi Arabia and Oman, covering an area about twice the size of Colorado. The Red Sea to the west and Gulf of Aden to the south separate it from the Horn of Africa. The *Bab el Mandeb*, the 18-mile-wide strait which connects these two bodies of water, is the fourth-busiest oil shipping lane in the world, and is considered a "world oil transit chokepoint" by the U.S. Department of Energy. Around 3.3 million barrels of oil from the Persian Gulf pass through this strait daily en route to Europe and North America.<sup>20</sup>

Though Yemen boasts remarkably varied terrain, the country is generally resource-poor. Less than 3 percent of the land is arable, and average annual precipitation is only 15 inches. It possesses no permanent rivers, and less than 1 percent of the land is planted with permanent crops. Much of the valuable farmland is used to grow *qat*, a lucrative but non-nutritive semi-narcotic plant that has been a staple of daily life and business throughout Yemeni history. The country possesses modest proven energy reserves; the U.S. Department of Energy claims oil reserves stand at 3 billion barrels, although the Yemeni government recently estimated them to be 11.9 billion barrels. Yemen also has an estimated 480 billion cubic meters (bcm) of proven natural gas reserves.<sup>21</sup>

The interior of the country's north and west—generally referred to as "Upper Yemen"—is mainly an arid highland region with relatively few natural resources and little irrigated farmland. The majority of Yemen's population is located in this region, including major cities like Sana'a (Yemen's capital) and Ta'izz (the third-largest city). The coastal areas of the country's south and east—and the Red Sea lowlands in the west—are much more fertile. This area is often referred to as "Lower Yemen," and the port city of Aden is its main urban area. Finally, the eastern expanses of the country are mostly sparsely populated stretches of scorching hot deserts, but they contain a significant share of oil and natural

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**MAP 2: YEMEN PHYSICAL MAP** 



gas reserves. Yemen is subdivided into 21 provinces, often referred to as "governorates."

#### **DEMOGRAPHY**

With 23 million citizens, Yemen is the second-most populous country on the Arabian Peninsula after Saudi Arabia. This is due largely to a rapid growth rate which doubled the country's population in the span of only two decades. While resource competition has been a greater source of contention for most Yemenis than sectarianism, especially when compared to other Middle Eastern countries, there is a soft geographical sectarian divide within the country. Much of Upper Yemen, including parts of the capital city, features majority populations of Zaydis, a Shia sect that forms around 40 percent of the country's overall population. The Zaydi heartland of Sa'dah in northern Yemen is the site of an ongoing insurgency against the regime, but the grievances underlying it are as much political and economic as sectarian. Lower Yemen and the remote eastern deserts are predominantly Shafii, a Sunni order that makes up between half and two-thirds of Yemen's total population.<sup>22</sup>

Ethnically, the vast majority of Yemenis are Arab, but the regime has welcomed large numbers of Afro-Arab refugees from the nearby Horn of Africa. By the government's reckoning, more than 800,000 Somalis reside in Yemen, many of whom are refugees in squalid camps in the south. Although Yemen has never had deep ethnic cleavages, fissures could begin forming if the country becomes increasingly unstable.<sup>23</sup>

#### **HISTORY**

Yemeni civilization and culture date back millennia. Modern Yemen, on the other hand, is more cartographical construct than coherent nation-state. An amalgamation of multiple historical entities, modern Yemen came about when the country of North Yemen—which covered most of Upper Yemen, parts of Lower Yemen and the Red Sea coastline—absorbed the formerly independent South Yemen in 1990. Both Upper and Lower Yemen were subject to decades of internal conflict, composed as they were of varied communities and tribes that had been ruled with varying degrees of control from places as divergent as Ta'izz, Sana'a, Aden, Bombay, Istanbul and London.

Chart 1 Yemen's Ethnic and Religious Breakdown<sup>24</sup>

Other 2%

Shafii (Sunni Islam) (Shia Islam) 43%

Afro-Arab 5%

Other 3%

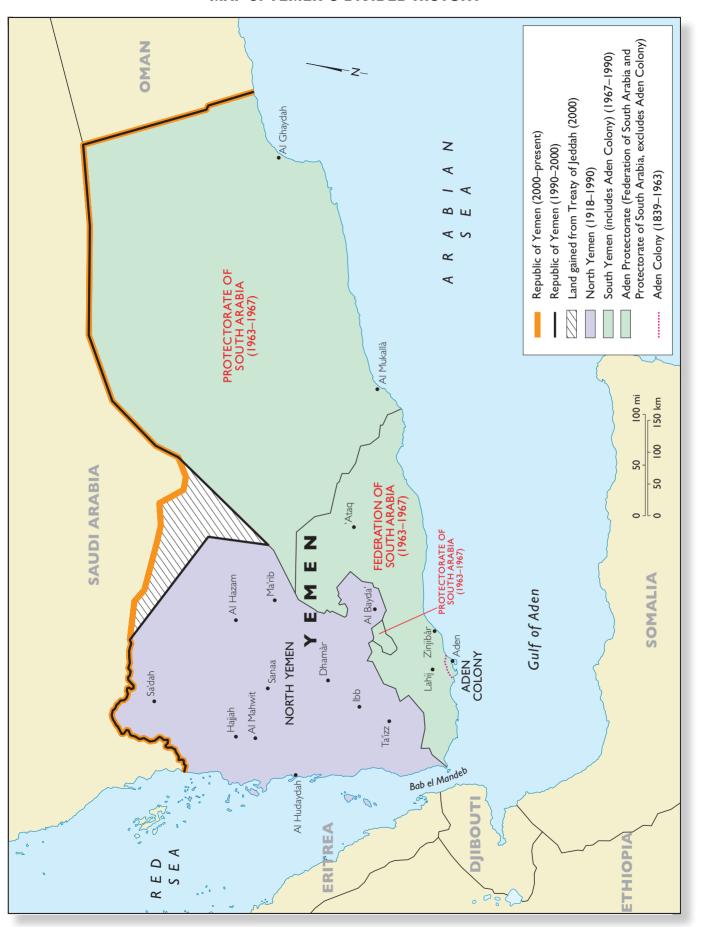
Ethnic Groups

This troubled past is reflected in Yemen's uncertain and fragile present: ineffective central government, strong tribalism, an insurgency in the country's north, secessionism in the south and the growth of an increasingly ambitious al-Qaida franchise in multiple provinces.

# NORTH YEMEN: FROM IMAMATE TO ARAB REPUBLIC, 1911-1990

Ottoman Rule and Imamate, 1911-1962
Historically, the Upper Yemen region had been dominated by two large tribal confederations (the Hashid and Bakil), and was under the intermittent control of the Ottoman Empire beginning in 1872. In 1911, after incessant warfare between Ottoman troops and highland tribes, Istanbul signed the Treaty of Da'an with the Zaydi Imam "Yahya" Mahmud al-Mutawakkil, granting the latter personal rule over

**MAP 3: YEMEN'S DIVIDED HISTORY** 



YEMEN HISTORICAL TIMELINE	NORTH YEMEN		Ottoman Empire subdues and occupies much of Upper Yemen.	Mutawakkilite Kingdom of Yemen founded. First modern indepen- dent Yemeni state.	Yahya al-Mutawakkil killed in coup, replaced by son Ahmad "the Devil."		
YEMEN HISTORI	SOUTH YEMEN	British East India Company conquers port of Aden. 1839	1872	British create Aden Protectorate over remainder of southern Yemen.  1886	Aden Protectorate split into East, West halves. 1917	 1918	

much of Upper Yemen. Upon the Ottoman Empire's disintegration in 1918, Yahya turned this territory into the first modern independent Yemeni state, with its capital in Ta'izz. Yahya's Mutawakkilite Kingdom of Yemen (often referred to as North Yemen) was officially a theocracy ruled by a Zaydi Imam. The imam's succession was supposed to be determined by a council of Zaydi elders, but Yahya simply named his eldest son Ahmad as his successor. Yahya spent most of the 1920s and 1930s building ties with Fascist Italy in an effort to gain protection and expand his Zaydi Imamate at the expense of his neighbors. However, he was rebuffed by the British in the south, the Saudis in the north and Yemeni tribes almost everywhere. 1920s

Based in and around the arid highlands of Upper Yemen, Yahya's kingdom was poor in resources but rich in population, at least compared to its immediate neighbors. This mix provided the recipe for modern Yemen's governing traditions and institutions. The Imamate was based, at least in theory, on Islamic law (*sharia*), but the region's large tribal confederations—and the concomitant status enjoyed by tribal leaders (*shaykhs*)—ensured that many people in his kingdom still adhered to tribal customary law (*'urf qabalî*).<sup>27</sup> Although these customs

YAHYA'S DIVIDE-AND-CONQUER STRATEGY ALLOWED THE NEW YEMENI STATE TO EXPAND, DEVELOP AND PERSIST, BUT DID LESS TO RESOLVE DISPUTES WITH THE KINGDOM'S NEIGHBORING TRIBES.

helped mediate and resolve inter-tribal disputes, continual conflict among tribes—and between tribes and the government—over land and resources (particularly water and food) led Yahya to devise a system of governance that endures today.

First, he recruited soldiers from the highland tribes and encouraged them to plunder more fertile regions like Lower Yemen. In addition to alleviating resource shortages, this practice redirected the tribes' energies away from conflict with the Imam. Second, he rewarded loyal tribes by allowing them to loot and plunder disloyal tribes' lands and villages. Third, he bought off other restive *shaykhs* in the tribal confederations with monthly stipends. Finally, he held the sons and brothers of *shaykhs* hostage as a deterrent against tribal unruliness.<sup>28</sup>

While this divide-and-conquer strategy allowed the new Yemeni state to expand, develop and persist, it did less to resolve disputes with the kingdom's neighboring tribes. It fomented frequent conflict with tribes in Lower Yemen and other fertile areas, and hence the popular saying: the "Yemen of the Bread" (i.e. fertile Lower Yemen) is always being plundered and oppressed by the "Yemen of the Army" (i.e. the raiders from Upper Yemen).<sup>29</sup> This tension very much exerts an influence on Yemen today.

#### Civil War, 1962-1970

Yahya was killed in a 1948 coup and quickly replaced by his son and appointed successor Ahmad. Called "the Devil" by many for his extreme corruption and repression, Imam Ahmad aroused the hostility of

North Yemen Civil War between royalists and republicans. Republicans win, rename state Yemen Arab Republic (YAR).			Brief war between	Coup brings current Yemeni president Ali Abdullah Saleh to power.
	Aden Emergency. British withdraw after fighting against tribal and Marxist militias.	Civil war between Marxist militias. State renamed People's Democratic Republic of Yemen (PDRY).	North and South Yemen.	
1962-1970	1963-1967	1967-1970	1972	1978

tribal *shaykhs*, military leaders, Arab nationalists and reformists alike, to the extent the military attempted to overthrow him in 1955. This created a succession crisis upon his (peaceful) death in 1962.<sup>30</sup> Within months, full-blown civil war broke out between "republicans" led by Abdullah as-Sallal and "royalists" led by Ahmad's son Muhammed al-Badr, who had tried to usurp his father in 1959. In general, the republicans' pledges to modernize the extremely underdeveloped country won support from Lower Yemen and major cities, while the royalist guerrillas were backed primarily by Upper Yemen's Zaydi tribes.<sup>31</sup>

Egyptian president Gamal Abdel Nasser supported the new republican government that set itself up in Sana'a, with the Soviet Union providing additional weaponry and \$140 million for port and airfield construction, while Saudi Arabia, Jordan and Britain sent money and weapons to the royalists. At the war's peak in mid-1965, Nasser had dispatched nearly 75,000 of Egypt's premier troops to North Yemen to prop up Sallal's regime and to foment anti-British insurrection in what he termed "the occupied South." However, Yemeni tribesmen inflicted incredible damage on Nasser's military. By the time it withdrew in 1967, the magnitude of Egypt's losses was such that "Yemen" in Egypt's collective memory would become analogous to "Vietnam" in the United States'.32 Modern Yemen is also scarred by the war's legacy, with the winners (the current regime) struggling to subdue a rebellion by the losers (the Zaydis) since 2004.

#### Yemen Arab Republic, 1962-1970

The republicans eventually prevailed after eight years of brutal and exhaustive fighting which killed at

least 100,000 North Yemenis and as many as 26,000 Egyptian troops.<sup>33</sup> North Yemen officially became the "Yemen Arab Republic," the old regime's specifically Zaydi character was abandoned and a new constitution, at least putatively based on sharia, was adopted. However, the end of the war did not bring peace. Abdul Rahman al-Iryani, who deposed Sallal in 1967 to become's Yemen's first and only civilian president, oversaw a brief war against South Yemen in 1972 before being overthrown in 1974. Over the next four years the country suffered another three changes in leadership, including assassinations linked to Saudi Arabia and South Yemen. The current president Ali Abdullah Saleh rose to power in a 1978 coup and was almost immediately engaged in a second brief war against South Yemen. At home, he instituted a divideand-rule strategy based on that of his predecessors and put down two coup attempts in the first three years of his presidency.<sup>34</sup> In 1990, the Yemen Arab Republic changed its name to the current "Republic of Yemen" upon the absorption of South Yemen.

## SOUTH YEMEN: FROM BRITISH OUTPOST TO PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC, 1839-1990

British Outpost, 1839-1967

There is surprisingly little overlap between the history of the entities that eventually formed South Yemen and that of its northern neighbor. North Yemen was a semi-unified entity under the Ottomans before becoming an independent state in 1918. By contrast, South Yemen existed only as a highly-fragmented federation of fiercely independent tribes and an autonomous colony ruled by various organs of the British Empire until the late 1960s.

CAL TIMELINE	NORTH YEMEN	Brief war between North and South		Unification: YAR absorbs PDRY, unified state renamed Republic of Yemen.	ED YEMEN		Al-Qaida attack on Aden hotel hosting	Southern secessionists de- clare independence, quickly defeated by YAR in civil war.   Failed Al-Qaida	
YEMEN HISTORICAL TIMELINE	SOUTH YEMEN	Yemen.	Civil war between rival political factions.		UNIFIE		U.S. military personnel.		attack on <i>USS The Sullivans</i> in  Aden harbor.
		1979	1986	1990			DEC. 1992	1994	JAN. 2000

In 1839, the British East India Company conquered the port of Aden for use as a coaling station en route to India. Initially, the British wished to avoid the surrounding tribal areas altogether. However, fears of a growing Ottoman presence in Upper Yemen spurred the British Governor-General of India to sign advisory and protection treaties with various tribes in southern Yemen beginning in 1873. By 1886, British India had entered into some 90 treaties with individual Yemeni tribes in Lower Yemen and the remote eastern desert. establishing the "Aden Protectorate" and carving out a sphere of influence in southern Yemen, albeit without creating a coherent political entity.<sup>35</sup> The protectorate extended beyond the port city's immediate environs, to include the traditionally independent sultanate of Hadhramout in the eastern deserts. Historically, Hadhramout had traded with India and Southeast Asia—not the Arabian Peninsula—and thus did not consider itself bound very closely to the tribes of Lower Yemen.<sup>36</sup> Meanwhile, the port of Aden remained an entirely separate entity ruled directly from British India.

On the eve of World War I, London and Istanbul settled their outstanding differences in 1914 by drawing the so-called Violet Line to demarcate their respective spheres of influence in the southern Arabia Peninsula. As was the case all too often in the region, outside powers decided Yemeni borders rather arbitrarily, without consulting Yemenis and despite the fact that this line bisected established tribal regions. The Violet Line would approximate the general boundary between the two Yemens until unification in 1990.

The British further compartmentalized southern Yemen by splitting the Protectorate into East and West halves in 1917, transferring control of these units from India to the British Foreign Office in London and then making Aden a separate Crown Colony in 1937. While Aden became a prosperous hub of global commerce (especially oil bunkering), the British created the East Aden Protectorate as a separate, smaller administration for the Hadhramout region after discovering potentially significant oil deposits in its eastern desert. This was a natural fit for the Hadhramout region, given its difficult terrain, remote location and historical autonomy from Lower Yemen.

London maintained a modicum of control over these and other tribal areas by combining financial aid and other inducements with aerial bombing campaigns. This was especially true in the West Aden Protectorate, which encompassed most of Lower Yemen and had borne the brunt of Upper Yemen's raids. In fact, the British paid tribes in the West Aden Protectorate to fight against North Yemen during an undeclared—but destructive—border war in the 1950s. As British

AS BRITISH PRIME MINISTER HAROLD MACMILLAN NOTED, "IT WOULD BE BETTER TO LEAVE THE LOCAL SHAYKHS AND RULERS IN A STATE OF SIMPLE RIVALRY AND SEPARATENESS, IN WHICH THEY [CAN] BE PLAYED OFF ONE AGAINST THE OTHER RATHER THAN MOULD THEM INTO A SINGLE UNIT."

	Al-Qaida attack on  USS Cole in Aden harbor kills 17 U.S. sailors.		CIA strike kills Abu Ali al- Harithi, organizer of USS Cole attack.		Houthi insurgency in Sa'dah begins.  Jailbreak frees 23 top al-Qaida members.		European and Arab donor countries pledge \$4.7 billion in aid to Yemen.	
	Al-Qaida attack on <i>SS Limburg</i> in Aden harbor kills 1 crewmember.		Unsuccessful Yemeni military offensive against al-Qaida.					
_	OCT. 2000	OCT. 2002	NOV. 2002	2004	JUN. 2004	FEB. 2006	NOV. 2006	

THE MERGER OF THE TWO YEMENS IN 1990
WOULD TURN OUT TO BE AT BEST A MARRIAGE
OF CONVENIENCE BETWEEN TWO SUBSTANTIALLY
DIFFERENT STATES. NORTH YEMEN WAS FORMALLY
A REPUBLICAN, CONSERVATIVE REGIME RULING
OVER A HIGHLY TRIBAL SOCIETY, WHILE SOUTH
YEMEN WAS A FANATICALLY MARXIST STATE
SEEKING TO TRANSFORM ITS SOCIETY ALONG
SOCIALIST LINES.

Prime Minister Harold Macmillan noted, "it would be better to leave the local *shaykhs* and rulers in a state of simple rivalry and separateness, in which they [can] be played off one against the other rather than mould them into a single unit." Such British "pacification" efforts in the hinterland fossilized the existing fragmentation of authority and deepened the autonomous nature of modern Yemen's eastern provinces, ultimately contributing to the distrust felt by this region toward Sana'a today. <sup>39</sup>

Following the Second World War and setbacks in India and Suez, Britain hoped to create a major outpost in the Middle East by uniting Aden Colony with the protectorates. As part of this plan, Britain established the headquarters of the newly-created British Forces Arab Peninsula at Aden in 1958.<sup>40</sup> By 1962—when North Yemen's entire army numbered only 12,000

men—40,000 British troops were stationed in Aden.<sup>41</sup> However, the British did little to ameliorate Aden's poor socioeconomic conditions or to disburse tax revenues effectively, thereby alienating large parts of the populace.<sup>42</sup> In an effort to offset rising anti-British agitation and consolidate its hold over the area, London presented the fig leaf of unification by converting the West Aden Protectorate into the Federation of South Arabia (including Aden Colony) in early 1963. This new federation even had a 4,000-strong British-officered army. Importantly, the East Aden Protectorate did not join this new federation, but instead remained a more loosely-incorporated protectorate (renamed the Protectorate of South Arabia in 1963).<sup>43</sup>

#### The Aden Emergency, 1963-1967

These gestures failed to quell rising instability. Encouraged in part by Nasser's forces in North Yemen, trade unions in Aden and tribal leaders throughout the south began staging anti-British strikes, riots and attacks. The British declared a state of emergency throughout the region in late 1963 (the "Aden Emergency") as its forces confronted an array of conflicts. From 1963 to 1967, British soldiers, Marxist militias and impoverished rural tribes all fought one another in extremely brutal clashes in city streets and mountain redoubts across the newly-created Federation of South Arabia. 44 Egypt armed and paid Marxist groups and tribal leaders to form rebel coalitions like the "Red Wolves of Radfan" that exacted a heavy toll on British forces in the hinterlands and cities. 45 Britain's situation became strategically untenable as casualties mounted and the press in London decried a "war which drags on with no end in sight." 46 In 1966,

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	UNIFIED YEMEN		"Southern Movemern umbrella group in Yemen.  Al-Qaida attacks U.S. embassy in Sana'a.		Yemeni and Saud branches merge t in the Arabian Pei	o form al-Qaida	Unsuccessful Yemeni military offensive against al-Qaida.
YEM		 2007	MAR. 2008	SEPT. 2008	JAN. 2009	MAY 2009	JUN. 2009

Britain announced it would leave Yemen altogether by 1968, but then withdrew hurriedly in 1967.

People's Democratic Republic of Yemen, 1970-1990

This precipitous departure created a power vacuum in Aden as it became clear that antagonism toward British occupation was the lowest common denominator uniting southern Yemenis. The two leading Marxist groups—the National Liberation Front (NLF) and the Front for the Liberation of Occupied South Yemen (FLOSY)—fought each other for control of the newlyliberated territory. 47 Eventually the NLF prevailed and assumed nominal control, but various NLF factions then fought one another until 1970.48 At that point, the most radical Marxist NLF faction seized power from the more moderate ruling faction and declared the People's Democratic Republic of Yemen (PDRY).

The NLF became the ruling Yemeni Socialist Party (YSP) and set out building a state in a territory divided between the former British buffer zone of autarkic tribes and a prosperous, industrialized port led by urban elites. According to the new PDRY constitution, this project centered on the "liberation of society from backward tribalism" in South and North Yemen. Indeed, the Marxists in charge in Aden would work assiduously to break down tribal traditions. However, their project foundered when confronted with the region's fragmented political history, and the regime's writ seldom extended beyond the capital.<sup>49</sup> At the same time, the YSP continued the British practice of fomenting instability in North Yemen. On top of all this, political infighting among YSP leaders was so endemic—coups occurred in 1978 and 1980—that even

Fidel Castro asked the PDRY: "When are you people going to stop killing each other?"50

#### UNIFIED YEMEN: CIVIL WAR AND JIHADISM, 1990-PRESENT

Unification, 1990

The merger of the two Yemens in 1990 would turn out to be at best a marriage of convenience between two substantially different states. North Yemen was formally a republican, conservative regime ruling over a highly tribal society, while South Yemen was a fanatically Marxist state seeking to transform its society along socialist lines. Throughout the 1970s and 1980s, inter-Yemen relations were often hostile, with border wars erupting in 1972 and 1979. Sana'a spent this period building relations with the Arab and Western worlds—it was the first member of the Arab League to resume diplomatic relations with the United States after the Six-Day War-while Aden became the Soviet Union's main Middle Eastern client (and its most radical). By 1986, 5,000 Soviet advisers were stationed in South Yemen, and Aden became a key strategic base for Soviet naval and air forces (much like it had for British forces in decades past). It also maintained strong relations with communist China and Cuba, and supported violent Marxist insurgents in neighboring Oman in the early 1970s.<sup>51</sup> Even Saudi Arabia's deeply conservative monarchy supported the socialist PDRY regime as a means of containing North Yemen and preventing the rise of a unified state on its southwestern border.

South Yemen was weakened politically and militarily by a brutal civil war between rival socialist factions in 1986, which resulted in the deaths of 10,000 people.

Failed AQAP assas against Saudi cour Prince Nayef in Riy	nterterrorism head	Heightened violence between Yemeni military and AQAP.	Failed Northwest Airlines flight 253 bombing in Detroit. Suspect received instruction from AQAP.	U.S., European pledge to increa development aid	•
AUG.2009	OCT. 2009 - Present	DEC. 2009 - PRESENT	DEC. 2009	JAN. 2010	OCT. 2010

Hopes for recovery were buoyed by the Soviets' extensive oil exploration and production operations in the eastern provinces in the late 1980s, but thereafter South Yemen abruptly lost its Soviet lifeline as Moscow had to deal with its own impending disintegration. As a result, South Yemen acceded to absorption by North Yemen once it became apparent its Soviet sponsor would not be able to support it much longer. 52

Given the precipitous implosion of the Soviet Union in 1991, preliminary unification negotiations that had been underway since the 1980s were fast-tracked. Significantly, this haphazard unification process necessitated at least limited democratization, as this seemed to be the most pragmatic means of reconciling the divergent economies and polities of North and South Yemen. Although South Yemen accounted for only one-fifth of unified Yemen's population, North Yemen's ruling party (the General People's Congress, or GPC) agreed to share power relatively equally with the YSP during a transitional period before general elections could be held. However, the hurried nature of the merger left many issues unresolved: elections were postponed, military units failed to integrate, the economy was unsteady and control over energy export revenues was left up in the air.53

#### Civil War, 1994

Civil war broke out in April 1994. South Yemen's former president (Ali Salem al-Beidh) and prime minister (Haidar Abu Bakr al-Attas) declared an independent Democratic Republic of Yemen (DRY) to succeed the former PDRY, and resurrected Aden as their capital. Saudi Arabia supported the DRY to reverse the rise of a unified Yemen, thereby continuing its longstanding policy of ensuring a

Yemen that was "strong enough but not too strong," in the words of a former U.S. military attaché in Sana'a. <sup>54</sup> In addition, former Soviet satellite states provided their former client in Aden with ex-Soviet artillery, tanks and fighter jets. However, no foreign governments recognized the DRY, and Aden fell to northern forces in July 1994.

Though brief, the war's consequences were significant. In the wake of the North's quick victory, Saleh tightened the regime's grip on the country's natural resource wealth-most of which is located in the former South Yemen—purged most southerners from his patronage networks and placed northerners in charge of the south's economy and security. This was made all the easier by the fact that the former South Yemen's oil infrastructure was coming online by the early 1990s. During the war, Saleh's security services helped deepen the north-south divide by recruiting so-called "popular armies" of tribesmen, itinerant jihadists and former mujahedin as proxy militias to help prevent the resuscitation of a socialist South Yemen.<sup>55</sup> As a result, today the regime's legitimacy throughout much of the south is severely compromised, and secessionist-inspired violence and government reprisals are a recurrent theme in southern provinces.

TODAY THE REGIME'S LEGITIMACY THROUGHOUT MUCH OF THE SOUTH IS SEVERELY COMPROMISED, AND SECESSIONIST-INSPIRED VIOLENCE AND GOVERNMENT REPRISALS ARE A RECURRENT THEME IN SOUTHERN PROVINCES.

## **CHALLENGES TO STABILITY**

n addition to continued unrest in the south, since 1994 the Yemeni regime has had to contend with the wax and wane of al-Qaida within its borders and a Zaydi-led uprising in the north. Unfortunately, these conflicts are not the only challenges confronting Yemen. Looming resource and demographic challenges, combined with poor governance, also threaten the viability and legitimacy of the state itself. These problems are mutually reinforcing and further undermine Sana'a's competence and legitimacy.

#### **SECURITY**

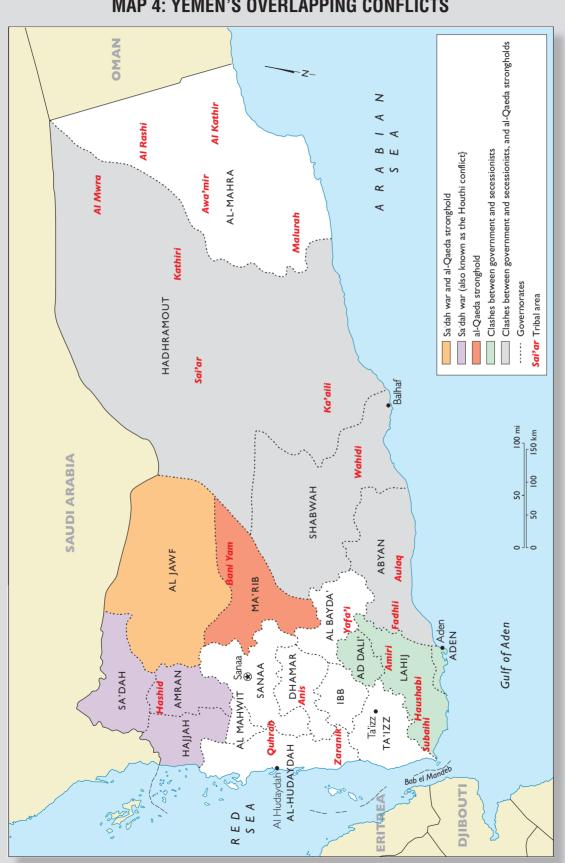
Yemen's government is illegitimate in the eyes of many of its people, its economy is stagnant if not sinking and genuine moderate civil society organizations are struggling to survive. Grievances against the ruling regime have been accumulating in recent years, and groups hostile to the government have found ample under-governed space in which to operate. Driven in large part by Yemen's fractious history, it is not surprising that multiple, overlapping security problems confront the regime: a major insurgency centered on the northern governorate of Sa'dah; a simmering secessionist movement in multiple southern governorates; a growing al-Qaida threat in the eastern and southern governorates; and the rise of piracy in the Gulf of Aden and Red Sea.

#### SA'DAH ("HOUTHI") INSURGENCY, 2004-PRESENT

In June 2004, fighting broke out in the Zaydi-majority northern Sa'dah governorate between Yemeni security forces and a group calling itself "Shabab al-Muminin" (translated as "Youthful Believers," abbreviated SAM, but commonly referred to as "the Houthis"). The proximate cause of fighting was the government's attempt to arrest SAM leader Hussein Badreddin al-Houthi for criticizing the regime's ties with both Sunni extremists and U.S. counterterrorism forces. But this conflict has deeper roots, including the historical animosity between Zaydis and the Yemeni government that overthrew them in the North Yemen Civil War, and the fact that the pe-

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IN MULTIPLE SOUTHERN GOVERNORATES;
A GROWING AL-QAIDA THREAT IN THE
EASTERN AND SOUTHERN GOVERNORATES;
AND THE RISE OF PIRACY IN THE GULF OF
ADEN AND RED SEA.

**MAP 4: YEMEN'S OVERLAPPING CONFLICTS** 



ripheral and mountainous Sa'dah governorate has often been beyond the reach of Sana'a's limited ability to provide security, basic infrastructure or public services.<sup>56</sup>

The first round of fighting lasted from June through September 2004 (see Appendix A), when al-Houthi was killed by security forces. Al-Houthi's three brothers assumed leadership of the insurgency, while their father became the group's spiritual leader. Each successive round of fighting only inflames the conflict, as each side repeatedly accuses the other of violating or rejecting truces while the continued violence aggravates existing grievances.<sup>57</sup> While the Zaydi insurgents initially waged a rural guerrilla war in the remote reaches of Sa'dah, they have since expanded the scope of their operations to include sophisticated terrorist attacks in urban areas (although not in Sana'a). The government has responded by arresting activists and cordoning off suspected rebel areas with a combination of roadblocks, checkpoints, airstrikes, artillery barrages and a controversial food blockade.58

Saleh staked his most uncompromising position in the sixth round of fighting, setting stark ceasefire terms, deploying a "popular army" similar to the 1994 civil war and launching a no-holds-barred ground and air offensive (ominously named "Scorched Earth"). This intensification reflects Saleh's intent to force the Houthis into a position of utter weakness in any future negotiations, but may instead exacerbate existing problems. <sup>59</sup> In early 2010, the regime was devoting \$200 million of foreign currency reserves per month

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to fight the Houthis, despite the fact that this money is desperately needed to address Yemen's other security and economic troubles. It is also distracting Sana'a's attention from other pressing matters like al-Qaida, as Foreign Minister Abu Bakr al-Qirbi has admitted.<sup>60</sup>

Moreover, the government's current strategy of leveling Sa'dah and organizing Sunni militants to help subdue the approximately 10,000-strong rebellion will likely inflame the current situation. Although precise figures are hard to come by, it is estimated that at least 1,000 government troops have been killed—and 6,000 more injured—since fighting began in 2004. The number of rebel and civilian dead is also difficult to determine, but estimates range from 3,700 to 5,500 (and rising), with 20,000 to 30,000 total casualties.<sup>61</sup>

While Houthis downplay their sectarian identity—instead couching their grievances in terms of the regime's alliance with the United States and its inability and/or unwillingness to provide basic services—there is an underlying wariness on the part of Zaydis in general toward what they perceive to be the regime's previous comfort level with the *mujahedin* and other Sunni extremist groups. These divisions have been exacerbated by the regime's policy of co-opting tribes in neighboring governorates to help fight the Houthis, as this threatens to upset the region's deep-seated tribal structures.

Saudi Arabia's direct involvement in the conflict began in October 2009 when Houthi and Saudi forces skirmished along the border. Since then, Saudi Arabia's cross-border raids, airstrikes and naval blockade threaten to further escalate the conflict by drawing in Shia Iran, and by aggravating a refugee crisis that has already displaced as many as 350,000 Yemenis since 2004. Riyadh has also replicated the regime's practice of co-opting rival tribes to fight the Houthis, and is providing security advisers to the Yemeni regime. Finally, the regime's refusal to open humanitarian corridors for emergency relief has deepened the conflict and intensified this refugee problem, with internally-displaced persons spilling into al-Jawf, Amran and

Hajjah governorates. It will also likely reinforce the tendency of many northern Yemenis to rely on community ties instead of the government to provide security and meager basic services.<sup>66</sup>

For its part, the government tries to emphasize the Zaydi and Shia character of the rebellion in an effort to galvanize popular support for the war. Sana'a accuses the Houthis of trying to restore the pre-1962 Zaydi monarchy that ruled North Yemen, and declares that Iran has been providing aid for the revolt. While the Iranian state's official Shiism differs from Zaydism, Tehran has tried to use the conflict to undermine Saudi Arabia's standing in the region. Iranian and Houthi leaders deny the existence of any material support, but Iran has at least certainly provided moral support to the rebels, even going so far as to warn the Saudis not to "pour oil on the fire" by intervening.<sup>67</sup> Amid increasingly sectarian recriminations from both the Yemeni-Saudi and Houthi-Iranian sides, the extent to which Saudi Arabia and Iran will intervene remains unclear. Regardless, this latest phase of the conflict threatens to deepen existing antagonisms and grievances within Yemen, especially as previously neutral tribes have begun turning against the government's heavy-handed tactics.68

Sana'a has also tried to portray, to both domestic and international audiences, its campaigns in Sa'dah as counterterrorism efforts against fundamentalist insurgents. These efforts have been effective thus far, as the United States has been reluctant to risk compromising counterterrorism cooperation with Sana'a by pushing the regime toward a political settlement with the Houthis. However, in a December 2009 phone call President Barack Obama pressed Saleh to open a dialogue with the Houthis, primarily to free up military resources to go after a growing al-Qaida threat.<sup>69</sup> At the same time, General Petraeus revealed that U.S. naval forces had been tasked with intercepting arms destined for Houthi rebels. Considering that the Houthis claimed Sana'a's ties with the United States as a casus belli in 2004, it is not surprising that Houthi rebels immediately organized anti-U.S. rallies and blamed the

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United States for airstrikes in Sa'dah. Saudi intervention is likely to further complicate matters, since many neutral tribes in northern Yemen bear historical enmity towards the Saudis.<sup>70</sup>

In late January 2010, Houthi leaders declared a unilateral ceasefire with Saudi Arabia, which Riyadh rejected unless the rebels withdraw from the Saudi-Yemen border. On January 31, Houthi leaders then signaled their willingness to accept Sana'a's September 2009 ceasefire terms, under which the rebels would disarm, release captured soldiers and property, remove roadblocks and withdraw from mountain strongholds. In response, the regime vowed to continue operations until the rebels complied with the terms. Yemeni defense officials also reiterated Saudi Arabia's demand that the Houthis withdraw from the border. 71 The regime's tough line, in which neither it nor the Saudis would cease operations until the rebels laid down their arms and ceded their strategic positions, reinforced the conclusion that Sana'a wanted to "negotiate" an end to the Sa'dah conflict once and for all by pounding the Houthis into submission.

Although a tentative ceasefire between Sana'a and the Houthis was finally reached in February 2010 after the Houthis withdrew from the Saudi border—in part to allow Saleh to shift attention to other pressing security problems—fighting persisted on all fronts. Saudi Arabia ratcheted up airstrikes in Sa'dah, while the Houthis continued to attack Yemeni and Saudi security personnel with rocket-propelled grenades (RPGs), mortars and improvised explosive devices (IEDs). In July, Qatar offered to mediate a Sa'dah peace deal after previous involvement in on-and-off

mediation efforts since 2007, but this was followed by an immediate upswing in violence between rebels and pro-regime tribes, with dozens killed. Fighting has continued throughout 2010, even as tentative truce negotiations between Sana'a and the Houthis began in Qatar in August.<sup>72</sup> It appears the Sa'dah conflict will remain a problem for at least the short-to mid-term future.

#### **SOUTHERN SECESSIONISM**

Separatism in the former South Yemen is driven largely by economic and political grievances. Southerners were mostly excluded from Saleh's patronage networks after unification, which led many to feel that they had been cut out purposely from the regime's largess.<sup>73</sup> Such feelings were amplified by the fact that Sana'a used southern energy resources to expand its patronage system, without including many southerners in the deal. This divide was deepened after the 1994 civil war, which Saleh used as an opportunity to install northern-born military governors in southern provinces, and to purge southern military and civil officers from the regime's patronage networks. On top of this, Sana'a's use of "popular armies," Scud missile strikes and radical clerics in 1994 to buttress its war effort has left lasting scars in the memories of many southerners.74

Today many southerners—especially Aden residents—perceive themselves to be subject to "internal colonialism" by northerners, manifest in everything from pension rights and tribal family law to property disputes, government bureaucracies and Aden's decline as a prosperous trading center. Remarkably, literacy rates in the south have fallen since unification. Furthermore, much of the vibrant business community from the traditionally autonomous Hadhramout region has left for Saudi Arabia and Indonesia.<sup>75</sup> A 2009 Gallup poll found only 11 percent of southern Yemeni adults satisfied with government efforts to tackle poverty and unemployment (compared to 30 percent among northerners), and only 29 percent expressed confidence in the national government (59 percent among northerners). Not surprisingly, a

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Yemeni poll several months later found 70 percent of southerners favored secession.<sup>76</sup>

By 2007, these conditions encouraged the formation of the "Southern Movement," a somewhat vague umbrella group encompassing disgruntled former southern military and political officials. Ali Salem al-Beidh, former president of South Yemen before unification and during the 1994 civil war, was championed as the informal leader of the movement, even though he lives in exile in Europe. Initially, the loosely-organized group gained popularity among southerners by demanding equal treatment and greater decision-making power as citizens of unified Yemen. This led to large protests and demonstrations, which Sana'a met at first with minor concessions on military pensions and land disputes. However, these were increasingly overshadowed by arrests and, eventually, violence. This in turn caused the demonstrations to grow, and their tenor to shift.<sup>77</sup> The recent acceleration of major energy infrastructure projects in the southern governorates of Ma'rib and Hadhramout will likely compound existing north-south disparities, since the regime tends not to circulate energy revenues back to the south. Until 2008, many protests were peaceful and called for equal rights. Since then, the mood has swung toward armed opposition and secession, similar to the pro-independence riots that drove the British out of Aden in 1967.

Sana'a's illegitimacy in the region is reflected in recurrent ambushes and low-level violence against

government security forces, popular protests in Abyan against economic stagnation—including a July 2009 shootout between security forces and protestors that left 8 dead and 18 wounded—and riots in Aden against water shortages.<sup>78</sup>

Large protests erupted throughout southern Yemen on the 2007 anniversary of unification. However, Sana'a's neglect of the region's political and economic grievances have been on full display since 2009, as some of Saleh's important tribal allies and mujahedin have criticized his heavy-handed policies and even defected to the growing ranks of the Southern Movement.<sup>79</sup> In 2010 a pro-secession YSP politician was fatally shot in Abyan, and police killed two demonstrators after opening fire on a pro-secession rally in Aden. The regime maintains that it has always called for dialogue with secessionist leaders, but that these offers are met only with violence. For their part, the Southern Movement claimed security forces killed 148 civilians in 2009, and another 36 in the first half of 2010.80

During this time, al-Qaida began ingratiating itself to southern tribes by decrying government policies and providing stipends to impoverished tribes. It has shrewdly picked up on secessionists' and other southern tribes' sense of being excluded from patronage networks by arguing publicly that "the inhabitants of [energy-rich] Shabwah, Hadhramout and Ma'rib are paying for their own oppression." In May 2009, al-Qaida senior leader Nasir al-Wahayshi went so far as to voice publicly his extremist Islamist group's support for the socialist-inspired secessionist movement.<sup>81</sup>

The regime has seized on this in an effort to undermine secessionists' credibility and provide cover to crack down on protestors. Sana'a's ongoing attacks on al-Qaida strongholds in the south have actually made things worse, since they reinforce southerners' perceptions of a regime determined to rule through coercion alone. Barring a dramatic reversal of current trends, it is likely that the divisions and violence between Sana'a and the south will continue to worsen.

#### AL-OAIDA

In addition to Sa'dah and secessionism, the government faces the growing threat of an al-Qaida able and willing to use the regime's weaknesses against itself. Although al-Qaida is an increasingly clear and present danger to Yemeni security, it has only recently become an urgent threat to the regime. Indeed, Yemen has been slow to realize the evolution of extremism that occurred within its own borders over the last decade. In the place of the Sana'a-allied, externally-focused *mujahedin*, al-Qaida in the Arab Peninsula (AQAP) has risen to become a major threat to Yemen and the United States. AQAP is a new generation of terrorists, hardened by experiences in Iraq, Saudi Arabia and Guantánamo Bay, and is determined to target U.S. and Yemeni interests alike.

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OUT OF ADEN IN 1967.

Sana'a Walks a Line Between the U.S. and Terrorists Given its need to deal constantly with insurgencies, border wars and other uprisings, until very recently Sana'a tended to view the extremists and militants that have trickled into Yemen more as a fortuitous mercenary force than a true security threat. The current regime has used "popular armies" composed of rival tribesmen, itinerant jihadists and former mujahedin as proxy militias to help fight the 1994 civil war and the Sa'dah conflict. In return, the militants enjoyed the government's "benign neglect" which allowed them to establish bases on Yemeni territory, so long as they only operated against foreign targets.83 In fact, in the 1990s Sana'a brokered an informal agreement (the so-called "covenant of security") with hundreds or thousands of Yemeni mujahedin returning from Afghanistan. The regime would allow these groups safe THE CURRENT REGIME HAS USED "POPULAR ARMIES" COMPOSED OF RIVAL TRIBESMEN, ITINERANT JIHADISTS AND FORMER *MUJAHEDIN* AS PROXY MILITIAS TO HELP FIGHT THE 1994 CIVIL WAR AND THE SA'DAH CONFLICT. IN RETURN, THE MILITANTS ENJOYED THE GOVERNMENT'S "BENIGN NEGLECT" WHICH ALLOWED THEM TO ESTABLISH BASES ON YEMENI TERRITORY, SO LONG AS THEY ONLY OPERATED AGAINST FOREIGN TARGETS.

haven in return for assisting the government in military operations against northern and southern uprisings. In some instances after the 1994 civil war, Sana'a even permitted *mujahedin* to control land and abide by *sharia* in various areas throughout the country.<sup>84</sup>

After al-Qaida's attack on the destroyer USS Cole in Aden harbor in October 2000 and an earlier botched attack on the destroyer USS The Sullivans in the same harbor in January 2000, Saleh started cooperating with the United States on counterterrorism intelligence and operations.85 Working with the Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) and U.S. Special Operations Forces (SOF), Yemen arrested two hundred suspected al-Qaida associates, but a December 2001 offensive resulted in dozens of casualties among security personnel and local tribes.86 Despite these efforts, terrorists struck again in October 2002, attacking the French crude oil tanker SS Limburg in Aden harbor in an attempt to target (indirectly) the U.S. military presence in the Middle East, killing one crewmember. It required the CIA's November 2002 drone strike in Ma'rib to successfully eliminate Ali Qaed Sunian ("Abu Ali") al-Harithi, the reputed head of al-Qaida in Yemen and the suspected organizer of the USS Cole attack, as well as five of his associates.87

While Sana'a cooperated with the United States in hunting down those responsible for these particular at-

tacks, it had no intention of abrogating its pre-existing agreement with the mujahedin. In fact, the regime purposely calibrated the threat of terrorism in Yemen as a means of ensuring continued U.S. military aid. For much of 2002, the regime in Sana'a let the United States invest millions of dollars in cash payments and infrastructure assistance to lure tribes away from sheltering al-Qaida, but publicly refused to cooperate with the U.S. investigation into the USS Cole bombing.88 Indeed, although the United States and Britain began working with Yemen's security services to raid safe houses and gather intelligence against al-Qaida, Sana'a was intent on covering up the U.S. role in hunting down those responsible for the USS Cole bombing, lest it be caught up in a popular backlash.89 Even so, the U.S. State Department briefly shuttered its embassy in Sana'a in the wake of the drone strike.

With the United States and jihadists focused on Iraq and elsewhere beginning in 2003, Yemen was no longer a frontline battleground for al-Qaida. U.S. military assistance to Sana'a continued past 2003, albeit at reduced levels. Sana'a did attempt a large offensive against al-Qaida strongholds in Ma'rib in 2004, but Yemeni security forces suffered dozens of casualties without dislodging al-Qaida or undermining the group's clout in that province.<sup>90</sup>

Given these setbacks, plus the monetary and political costs of attacking tribes and militants upon which the regime traditionally relied for support, Sana'a switched strategies, favoring the carrot over the stick. At the same time as the United States was pursuing al-Harithi, the regime was setting up the Committee for Religious Dialogue under Minister for Foreign Affairs Hamoud al-Hitar to reeducate and rehabilitate imprisoned al-Qaida sympathizers. The program was criticized for seeking only to deter future attacks *inside Yemen*. In addition, it had high recidivism rates, and many "graduates" were absorbed directly into the security services. <sup>91</sup> The program was shut down in 2005.

In February 2006, 23 top al-Qaida members—including those convicted of the USS Cole and SS Limburg

attacks—escaped from a government-run detention center. There was speculation that perhaps the regime had turned a blind eye to the jailbreak. These escapees began regrouping in remote areas (Ma'rib, Shabwah and al-Jawf governorates) under the leadership of Nasir al-Wahayshi, a former Osama bin Laden deputy and al-Harithi's successor as head of al-Qaida's operations in Yemen. P2 Once Riyadh and Baghdad began aggressive counterterrorism campaigns, this core group was soon joined by al-Qaida and affiliated militants coming to Yemen from Saudi Arabia and Iraq. Graduates of the Committee on Religious Dialogue—some of whom had previously been detained at Guantánamo Bay—rounded out the group. P3

Sana'a and Extremists Turn Against Each Other

Yemen's combination of weak central government, ambivalent security services, remote provinces and autonomous tribal traditions created the ideal setting for a new base of operations for this new generation of terrorists. This was made all the more attractive after coalition forces in Iraq and Saudi Arabia each undertook more effective counterterrorism campaigns. Whereas the older mujahedin generation still viewed Yemen's power vacuum as a sanctuary and Saleh as a partner, the younger generation had cut its teeth in Yemeni prisons and Iraqi and Saudi cities. For the most part, this new group had not been party to the Sana'a-mujahedin agreement or their cooperation in the 1994 civil war. Instead, it saw Yemen as a battleground, and sought to punish Sana'a for its supposed closeness to the United States since 2000.

The reconstituted al-Qaida in Yemen sought to correct its previous mistakes in Iraq and Saudi Arabia by currying favor with local tribes. This was accomplished through intermarriage, delivery of basic services (e.g., digging wells, providing security and even handing out cash) and adoption of local practices and grievances. This process was made easier by the regime's lack of legitimacy in much of southern and eastern Yemen's tribal areas. <sup>94</sup> In fact, al-Qaida may even have begun developing connections with the country's other insurgencies, despite

their sectarian and ideological differences, in an effort to increase its freedom of maneuver and appeal. Before long, al-Qaida was able to establish itself in what is widely referred to as the "triangle of evil"—a swath of territory beginning in al-Jawf (near Sa'dah and the Saudi border) and running south through energy-rich Ma'rib to Shabwah, which is home to secessionists as well as oil and natural gas pipelines and terminals. Since then, it has likely been able to infiltrate Yemeni security services, thanks to the government's previous history of cooperating with various militants. It has also exploited the porous Saudi-Yemeni border to draw recruits from Saudi Arabia and elsewhere. 95

Yemen came under attack as al-Qaida entrenched itself in tribal structures. In September 2006, an oil export terminal at Ash Shihr, in Hadhramout, and a refinery in Ma'rib were attacked, but without lasting damage. After demanding Sana'a halt its "cooperation" with the United States in summer 2007, al-Qaida and affiliated groups began going after another pillar of Yemen's fragile economy: tourism. Spanish tourists in Ma'rib were killed in July 2007, Belgian tourists in Hadhramout were killed in January 2008, Korean tourists were killed by a suicide bomber in Hadhramout in March 2009 and German and Korean tourists were kidnapped and killed in Hadhramout in June 2009.

By early 2008, al-Qaida had gained enough steam to begin publishing a regular journal (*Echo of Battles [Sada al-Malahim*]) and to plan larger attacks. After striking the U.S. embassy in Sana'a in March and September

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2008, the Yemeni and Saudi branches of al-Qaida merged to form al-Qaida in the Arabian Peninsula (AQAP) in January 2009. Although AQAP is based in Yemen and its membership is predominantly Yemeni, the merger signaled the group's heightened aspirations and sense of security. Despite being composed of only 100-odd members at the time, AQAP no longer saw itself as merely a local actor; it could now afford to plan and execute attacks on a regional and perhaps global scale. This ambition was first borne out in its audacious, but ultimately unsuccessful, attack on Saudi counterterrorism chief Prince Mohammed bin Nayef in Riyadh in August 2009.<sup>98</sup>

If, as Yemeni defense officials suspect, AQAP provided training and instruction to Umar Farouk Abdulmutallab in Shabwah in October 2009, the failed Christmas Day airliner bombing would be another attempt by AQAP to expand its operations outside of Yemen. It has also announced publicly its intention, if not capability, to join forces with Somalia's al-Shabaab militants to deny the *Bab el Mandeb* to U.S. shipping. Inspiration may have come from the 1971 attack by the Popular Front for the Liberation of Palestine on the Israeli crude oil tanker *Coral Sea*. That group operated out of Yemen's unguarded southern coastline and the attack, which heavily damaged the ship, took place in the middle of the *Bab el Mandeb*.

Sana'a has been actively pursuing elements of al-Qaida since the 2006 jailbreak. Beyond arresting or killing some of the escapees, however, Yemen has been reluctant to confront systematically the deepening al-Qaida presence in its southern and eastern tribal areas. Various elements within the security services were wary of disrupting the covenant of security with their proxy forces and other allies, plus the regime realized that rooting out al-Qaida would arouse the hostility of tribes into which al-Qaida had insinuated itself.<sup>101</sup>

However, the second attack on the U.S. embassy increased U.S. pressure on Sana'a to make a more concerted effort against the group. Saudi pressure began to grow around the same time. Beginning in early

2009, the United States sent SOF commandos and CIA counterterrorism field operatives to assist Yemeni security services, and hostilities escalated throughout the rest of the year. 102 Yemen's military and intelligence personnel came under increasing attack in Ma'rib and al-Jawf as Sana'a upped its efforts to split local tribes away from AQAP, while AQAP began urging tribes to rebel against the regime. 103

#### U.S. Pushes Sana'a to Escalate

In June 2009, Saleh responded to the growing domestic terrorism threat by launching an offensive—the "Battle of Ma'rib," backed by a personal visit from General Petraeus and plenty of U.S. funding-against an al-Qaida hub. Yemeni security services' ineptitude was a major factor in the operation's failure, as poor training and coordination led to collateral damage. 104 Unfortunately, this was not an isolated incident. Military incompetence has often contributed to fairly indiscriminate campaigns in Sa'dah and the south, with a September 2009 airstrike in Harf Sufyan against supposed Houthi rebels killing 80 women and children. Such catastrophes are counterproductive, since they turn the local populace against the regime. 105 Regardless of poor execution, however, the Battle of Ma'rib hinted at increased U.S. pressure on Sana'a to confront the terrorist threat.

The strongest indicator of Sana'a's new resolve to combat AQAP came in December 2009. In a pair of airstrikes on December 17 and 24 encompassing Abyan, Lahij and Shabwah governorates, the Yemen Air Force

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TRIBAL AREAS.

killed scores of AQAP suspects, but also dozens of civilians. The United States provided intelligence and equipment, but was not involved in the actual execution of the attacks. After a late December phone call from President Obama and a second visit from General Petraeus, Saleh ordered 10,000 troops to Ma'rib and al-Jawf, increased the number of security checkpoints, began rounding up domestic terrorism suspects in Sana'a and boosted coast guard patrols to intercept any potential inbound militants from Somalia. 106 By its own tally, Sana'a's campaign resulted in the deaths of 70 AQAP suspects and their affiliates, and the detention of another 77. According to the U.S. military, Sana'a mounted 30 strikes against AQAP and killed several top leaders-between late December 2009 and late January 2010. Sana'a also published a "wanted list" of suspected AQAP members. 107

Beginning with the December 2009 offensives, the security services' increased operational tempo has spurred AQAP to step up its attacks on regime targets. Throughout 2010, suspected AQAP militants have inflicted costly attacks on security convoys, barracks, intelligence officers and oil installations in Sana'a and the restive eastern and southern governorates of Abyan, Aden, Hadhramout, Ma'rib and Shabwah. The group has also continued to attack Western targets in Yemen, most notably in April 2010 when it attempted to assassinate the British ambassador in Sana'a. Between August and mid-October 2010 the regime began new combined-arms offensives in Shabwah and Abyan, after security forces and liquefied natural gas (LNG) facilities were attacked by suspected AQAP militants. <sup>108</sup>

The failed Christmas Day airliner bombing attempt was certainly not a cause, but likely an effect, of the ongoing conflict between AQAP on the one hand, and the Yemeni regime, the United States and Saudi Arabia on the other. Planning for the Detroit attack coincided with increased U.S. resolve to push Sana'a to go after AQAP, but preceded the December airstrikes, which were themselves based on actionable intelligence about planned AQAP attacks and activities inside Yemen. Despite the U.S.-Sana'a effort against AQAP—and de-

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spite its successes in eliminating and dislocating AQAP leadership elements—underlying problems remain. In December 2009, U.S. officials halted their earlier decision to repatriate a fraction of Yemeni detainees from Guantánamo Bay—even though Yemenis account for fully 45 percent of total detainees—due to the White House's concern that Sana'a is "not capable" of handling them.<sup>110</sup>

Furthermore, AQAP has used Sana'a's campaign as an opportunity to portray itself as the vanguard of opposition to an illegitimate regime, even going so far as to hold open-air rallies with secessionist rebels to denounce Saleh as an "American lackey." This point has been underscored by security services' recurrent need to bargain with local tribes to hand over terrorism suspects.111 Most notably, the regime has negotiated unsuccessfully with the Awalek tribe in Shabwah to hand over U.S.born Anwar al-Awlaki, the radical cleric wanted by the United States for alleged ties to Umar Farouk Abdulmutallab, Nidal Hasan (the suspect in the November 2009 Fort Hood, Texas, shooting), Faisal Shahzad (convicted in the May 2010 failed Times Square bombing) and two of the 9/11 hijackers. In some instances tribes have even fired heavy weaponry at government forces sent to track down suspected AQAP militants. 112

#### Fighting On

In many ways, Sana'a has backed itself into a corner. AQAP is becoming a clear and present threat to the regime, especially as U.S. pressure on senior al-Qaida leadership in Pakistan has forced the group to rely on its Yemeni affiliate to carry out operations. However, it

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remains to be seen if Saleh will go after the group, root and branch. To be sure, the airstrikes, ground offensives and arrests since December 2009 do represent a sharp escalation in Sana'a's anti-AQAP campaign. However, the regime will likely tread carefully. Saleh knows he must deliver at least some results in order for the United States, Saudis and others to continue providing military assistance, but operations against terrorist safe havens also alienate local populaces, influential tribal shaykhs and the militants comprising the regime's "popular armies."113 This imperative is heightened by the fact that AQAP's strongholds are in energy-rich provinces where Sana'a's writ is limited. In addition, Yemeni security forces have taken high casualties in their running battles with AQAP, sapping many units' morale in the process. Saleh has demonstrated his reluctance to pursue AQAP full-bore and alienate mujahedin by offering to talk to terrorists willing to renounce violence, and by hiring local tribesmen as shock troops against AQAP fighters. 114

Meanwhile, the regime's low legitimacy means it will remain wary of appearing too close to Washington. Sana'a will project the image of combating AQAP by itself, although in reality the country's security forces and budget are consumed by the commitment in Sa'dah. Moreover, tribesmen in contentious governorates like Ma'rib can actually point out U.S. drones flying overhead. Yemen's national security chief, foreign minister and interior minister have all claimed publicly that the threat posed by AQAP is "exaggerated," while

declaring that the regime should be able to disburse U.S. security assistance as it sees fit. The regime has also ruled out joint Yemen-U.S. operations, saying instead that the two will only cooperate on intelligence and logistical matters.<sup>116</sup>

Those comments aside, since the December 2009 airstrikes, the Pentagon has increased the number of surveillance and armed drones overflying Yemen, and the U.S. Navy has launched cruise-missile attacks against suspected AQAP targets. Simultaneously, the CIA has been positioning surveillance equipment, drones and personnel in the Horn of Africa as a precautionary measure against the growing threat from AQAP and al-Shabaab.<sup>117</sup>

The regime is walking a tightrope. AQAP has capitalized on the state's weakness to cement itself as the most pressing threat to Yemeni stability and regional security. Campaigns against AQAP may weaken the group, but they are likely to hurt the regime more. As the British discovered during their 1958-62 aerial bombing campaign against tribes in Abyan, the iron fist approach can backfire by transforming local squabbles into show-piece confrontations between the central government and the tribes. Shortly thereafter, the NLF began a systematic offensive against British Petroleum pipelines and refineries in the south.<sup>118</sup>

The current situation in that exact province—and indeed throughout the country—is remarkably similar. Sana'a's neglect created an opening for AQAP to insinuate itself into disaffected tribes and threaten precious energy revenues, thereby making it counterproductive for the regime to try to simply bomb AQAP out of existence. This is now playing out in southern and eastern Yemen. For example, after Yemeni security forces shelled homes of tribesmen suspected of hiding AQAP militants in Ma'rib in June 2010, the tribe blew up the Ma'rib-Ras Isa pipeline (Yemen's only crude oil pipeline to the Red Sea), at the cost of 10,000 barrels per day of exports. AQAP has also attacked energy installations in reprisals against government counterterrorism operations. 119

As these incidents show, the group's safe havens depend upon the tolerance of local tribes, so preventing Yemen's slide into state failure requires that Sana'a address the underlying grievances on which AQAP thrives. However, the Yemeni and U.S. governments have been focusing first and foremost on military solutions as the AQAP threat persists. Thus, the deployment of hundreds, and at times thousands, of Yemeni regular and special operations units at high operational tempo is undermined by the hostility of local tribes to the government.

This situation allows AQAP to flourish. In October 2010 the group announced the formation of a new "Aden-Abyan" army intended to overthrow Saleh and undermine Yemen-U.S. counterterrorism efforts. Shortly thereafter, the United States tied AQAP to the unsuccessful October 29, 2010, attempt to ship explosive cargos from Yemen to Jewish religious sites in Chicago. Once the government responded by trying al-Awlaki in absentia and launching yet another operation against AQAP in Shabwah and Ma'rib, this time with 3,000 troops, AQAP militants countered immediately with an attack on the Shabwah-Bir Ali oil pipeline. 120

With Sana'a struggling to eradicate the AQAP threat, the Obama administration and U.S. military have reviewed options to increase their ability to strike AQAP independently of the Yemeni government, including giving the CIA more operational control in the country. While this would likely inflict greater damage

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on AQAP, it might further increase tribal hostility to the regime and add fuel to the fire of anti-U.S. sentiment in Yemen.

#### OTHER SECURITY PROBLEMS

Despite the multiple conflicts under way in Yemen, until the 2009 Christmas Day bombing attempt the most publicized security threat in the region had been piracy. There were 86 piracy attacks in the Gulf of Aden in the first half of 2009, nearly 30 of which targeted oil and gas tankers. This figure has fallen to 33 for the first half of 2010—thanks to a series of international counterpiracy patrols and convoys—but many pirates have relocated across the *Bab el Mandeb* to the southern Red Sea. Although most regional piracy operations originate from the Horn of Africa, they are likely to pose threats to the security and viability of Yemen's energy exports. For example, the number of ships calling in the country's main port of Aden fell more than 10 percent in 2009. 122

This could disrupt the backbone of the country's economy and thus complicate necessary efforts to help Yemen transition toward a more stable, non-energybased economy. At the very least, it means that Sana'a will have to devote its precious time and money to naval escorts, radar stations and regional anti-piracy coordination, on top of battling AQAP and other security problems. This dilemma has been made more acute by the Somali militant group al-Shabaab's February 2010 pledge to support AQAP by sending fighters across the Gulf of Aden. Saleh has demonstrated his bullish attitude toward Yemen's authority in the Bab el Mandeb in the past, going so far as to fight a brief but deadly war with Eritrea over an island in the southern Red Sea (the Hanish Islands conflict) in December 1995. This time, Yemen has stepped up coastal patrols and has begun building a coast guard base in the Bab el Mandeb, all while continuing kinetic operations against AQAP and the Houthis. 123

Another security problem is the proliferation of small-arms weaponry among the Yemeni population. Senior government officials and tribal leaders alike rely on illegal sales of military hardware for power and revenue, thereby helping to perpetuate violence in conflict zones like Sa'dah. <sup>124</sup> Such weaponry is fairly easy to come by, as widespread corruption ensures that the windfall procurement levels needed to prosecute Yemen's wars disappear into private hands. In many parts of Yemen these weapons serve as the *de facto* currency of tribal negotiations. Despite limited efforts by the regime to begin restricting the flow of illicit weaponry, there are now some 60 million weapons in the country, or nearly three for every Yemeni. As one French counterterrorism official stated, "anyone who has been to Yemen knows that automatic arms, explosives and even rockets are sold out in the open [on] street corners." <sup>125</sup>

#### **SECURITY CAPACITY**

Yemen's security forces are substantial and benefit from significant amounts of foreign military assistance. However, they are plagued by the same sorts of systemic governance problems that beset all other sectors in Yemen. Patronage, corruption, nepotism, widespread *qat* usage, tribal hostility and a concern for regime stability above all else have historically hampered the effectiveness of Yemeni forces. However, the success of counterterrorism operations in the wake of the attempted Christmas Day airliner bombing demonstrates the military has sufficient capacity, though not always the necessary incentives or morale, to combat AQAP. Furthermore, it has proven capable of employing heavy firepower against the Houthis.

#### **SECURITY CERBERUS**

There are three main groups of Yemeni security forces (see Appendices B and C). First, the Political Security Organization (PSO) is responsible for internal security and intelligence-gathering, and has worked previously to organize the "popular armies" of militants used to fight in Sa'dah and the south. It also operates maximum-security detention facilities that house former Guantánamo Bay detainees, among others. Alongside the PSO is the National Security Bureau (NSB), which was created in 2002 to work with Western intelligence agencies to induce Yemeni tribes away from al-Qaida. Both the

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PSO and NSB report directly to Saleh, but the extent of PSO-NSB cooperation remains unclear.

Second, the Ministry of Interior's Central Security Organization (CSO) contains the paramilitary Central Security Forces (CSF) responsible for manning security checkpoints, tracking terrorism suspects and undertaking special-forces operations (including operations against al-Qaida). The Ministry of Interior's Criminal Investigative Department (CID) also fulfills this role, in addition to operating prisons.

Finally, the military consists of the army, navy, air force and coast guard. The Ministry of Defense assumes responsibility for Yemeni military forces. This includes the Republican Guard which forms the core of the regime's defenses against external and internal threats, including potential coup plotters. Over half of the military's active strength is currently devoted to the Sa'dah campaign and to assisting the CSF with highway checkpoints, thus motivating the regime to continue recruiting "popular armies" to fill out the margins. It has even initiated a similar practice against AQAP by providing local tribesmen with stipends and weaponry to pursue suspected militants. While the numbers fluctuate across campaigns and offensives, the PSO maintains an estimated 20,000 proxy soldiers on its unofficial payrolls, though no known formal chain of command exists. 127 The PSO, NSB and CID have been criticized by the U.S. State Department and human rights organizations for human rights abuses against southern secessionists, Sa'dah insurgents and civilians, terrorism suspects and political prisoners. 128

As the multiple layers of security services would suggest, there is extensive duplication of effort and capability between the police, military and interior ministry. This promotes inter-service rivalries and stovepiping of security ministries, thereby preventing the military from potentially uniting to overthrow the regime. <sup>129</sup> At the same time, this reduces effectiveness. For example, chief of staff for the CSF, Brig. Gen. Yahya Saleh, one of President Saleh's nephews, has complained publicly about his unit's inability to coordinate its counterterrorist activities with the Air Force, since the Ministry of Defense controls the latter. <sup>130</sup>

#### **FAMILY AFFAIR**

Nepotism further compromises Yemen's effectiveness. Saleh has built the country's security apparatus as the bedrock of loyalty to the regime; this may ensure continuity, but it undermines accountability. Key military posts are awarded to members of Saleh's tribe (Sanhan), while his close relatives command top positions. 131 Within the Ministry of Defense, Saleh's eldest son Ahmed (believed to be Saleh's primary choice for a successor) is a colonel in charge of the Republican Guard and special forces units, half brother Gen. Ali Muhsin al-Ahmar is the Commander of the Northwestern Military Zone (in charge of the Sa'dah campaign), half brother Brig. Gen. Ali Saleh al-Ahmar is the chief of staff of the military's general command and half brother Brig. Gen. Mohamed Saleh al-Ahmar is Commander of the Yemeni Air Force. Sanhan members command the military zones of troublesome Aden and energy-rich Hadhramout, while one of Saleh's brothers-in-law is the political head of the restive Aden governorate. President Saleh's nephews occupy important positions in the Ministry of Interior (including the PSO, NSB and CSF), Presidential Guard and the cabinet.

As with the command structures, loyalty trumps meritocracy in determining the composition of the various security organizations. Many soldiers draw salaries without performing any actual duties. In fact, in September 2007 the regime announced it would reinstate compulsory military service partly to counter unemployment. Moreover, some 30,000 "ghost" troops are on the

military's payrolls to ensure that enough money makes it to the officer class to keep them loyal. This practice is abetted by the fact that Yemen's total military budget is a single line item in the national budget. Thus, although the regime devotes up to 40 percent of its outlays to military expenditure, a significant fraction likely disappears into the patronage system. Not surprisingly, many security personnel lack adequate training. 133

#### WEALTH OF SECURITY ASSISTANCE

Nevertheless, Yemen boasts a sizable and well-equipped security apparatus. The country spends a robust 5 to 6 percent of its gross domestic product (GDP) on defense—the seventh-highest rate in the world—to support the Arabian Peninsula's second-largest military force (behind Saudi Arabia). This figure has been on the rise since the 1994 civil war, especially with the ongoing conflict in Sa'dah. Yemen also receives significant amounts of military assistance from a variety of suppliers. In fact, Yemen has the world's third-highest ratio of conventional arms imports per dollar of GDP, at almost 2 cents for every dollar. 134

Since the *USS Cole* bombing in 2000, the United States has provided military equipment and financing to Yemen, in addition to standing up counterterrorist, coast-guard and police forces. However, the provision of \$150 million in overall U.S. security assistance for Yemen in 2010—and \$1.2 billion through 2015—will likely be dwarfed by other suppliers' deliveries of conventional military equipment alone. The United States is currently Yemen's smallest arms supplier over the past two decades, at around one percent of total imports.<sup>135</sup>

Since unification, more than half of Yemen's arms imports have come from Russia and fully 83 percent have come from the former Soviet Union. 136 These deliveries have been designed primarily to bolster Yemen's conventional military capabilities, despite the fact the country faces no serious external conventional military threat. During 2001-08, Russia accounted for \$600 million in arms deliveries to Yemen, about half the total for this period, and 60 percent of the total since 2004. These statistics conform to arms imports patterns since unification

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(Chart 2), and will likely hold for the foreseeable future.

In February 2009, Saleh added a \$1 billion arms deal with Moscow as part of the Yemeni military's ongoing \$4 billion modernization program. This program relies in large part on Saudi financing to procure Russian, Chinese, Ukrainian and Italian fighter aircraft, helicopters, tanks, artillery and armored vehicles. Saleh returned to Moscow in June 2010 to discuss an additional \$1-2 billion in future arms purchases, in exchange for writing off Yemen's \$1.2 billion debt to Russia. While purchases of high-end tanks, fighter aircraft, helicopters and air defense and anti-tank missile systems will be well-received by Yemen's armed forces, they are decidedly ill-suited to confront the security challenges posed by the Houthis, secessionists, AQAP or pirates.<sup>137</sup>

Not surprisingly, the core of Yemen's current offensive capabilities is—and will continue to be—a panoply of ex-Soviet and Russian ground-attack fighter aircraft and armored vehicles, mainly modern MiG-29 (and the older MiG-21, which are being used in Sa'dah campaigns) jets, main battle tanks (MBT; Cold War-era platforms, primarily the older T-55 and T-62 but also the newer T-72 and T-80) and assorted artillery pieces (multiple-rocket launchers [MRLs], mostly Cold War-era BM-21s). In addition, ex-Soviet and Russian ships form a large part of Yemen's navy. While Sana'a has allowed some of these platforms to fall into disrepair or oper-

ate at suboptimal standards, it still boasts more than enough firepower to launch heavy-handed campaigns like Operation Scorched Earth. <sup>138</sup>

Yemen has also received large deliveries of equipment to operate, maintain and upgrade these platforms. At the same time, Saleh's regime has been the asking the United States for counterterrorism assistance in the form of humvees and tanks, even though these are better-suited to conventional military operations. Given the low probability of direct interstate conflict with any of its neighbors, the Saleh regime likely intends to direct this arsenal toward Sa'dah.

Despite the shortcomings of its security apparatus, the regime's need to maintain tight control over its forces means that Sana'a will continue to favor security assistance over genuine reforms. As Foreign Minister al-Qirbi remarked in January 2010, "it would be easier, more effective and more acceptable to build Yemeni armed forces and antiterrorism units than to impose them from outside." This will likely frustrate joint counterterrorism efforts on the part of the United States, as recent events indicate. Furthermore, sensing that the government is unable to ensure their security, many Yemenis are falling back on deep tribal traditions of conflict mediation and resolution to provide justice and safe havens for disputants.

#### PRESSURES ON NATURAL RESOURCES

Yemen's geography poses real challenges for the country's population. Vital natural resources—particularly water, oil and natural gas—are declining, thereby limiting the government's ability to provide even basic necessities for its citizens. Concurrently, Yemen's population is skyrocketing. This exacerbates existing pressures on natural resources and undermines the already-low quality of life for most Yemenis.

#### **DECLINING NATURAL RESOURCES**

Yemen faces substantial declines in its water, oil and natural gas reserves in the coming decades. This not only poses significant humanitarian challenges, but could undermine the regime's patronage system and thus contribute to further destabilization of the country.

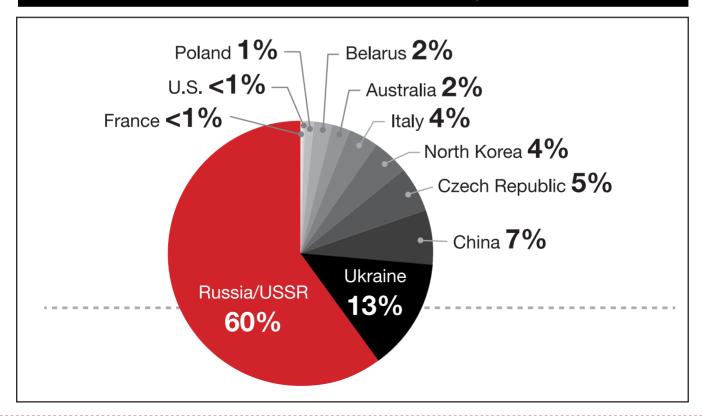
#### Water

Yemen has always suffered from meager water resources, but the current situation is quickly going from bad to worse. Rainwater has never fallen in abundance, so Yemen has had to look underground for a significant portion of its water. However, the combination of desertification, population growth and *qat* cultivation has placed enormous strains on the country's water supply. *Qat*-related agriculture consumes twice the amount of water annually as Yemen's citizens, and requires 50 percent more water per acre than wheat farming. Not surprisingly, around 30 percent of the country's groundwater is used for *qat*-growing. 142

Currently, 19 of the country's 21 water basins and all of its alluvial aquifers are not being replenished; farmers, tribes and the government simply use fossil water instead. This is highly unsustainable, inefficient and costly. In addition, some of Yemen's principal aquifers are in the conflict-torn Sa'dah governorate, and engineers in Sana'a now have to drill 3,000 feet to reach the last of the capital's underground supplies. Many of the city's residents receive piped water only once every nine days, and Sana'a could soon become the first capital city in world history to run out of water.

On the whole, water availability is only 2 percent of the global average, and resources are expected to dry up by 2015. The U.N. Development Program considers 1000 cubic meters of annual water share per capita its "water poverty line," but the average Yemeni's share is only 100 cubic meters per year. One potential solution—desalination plants—is underway on a small scale in Aden and Ta'izz, but pumping this water to major population centers in Upper Yemen would consume large amounts of precious fuel. 144

## Chart 2 Arms Transfers to Yemen, 1990-2010<sup>139</sup>



Shortages in southern cities such as Aden have sparked deadly riots, and tribal conflicts have been aggravated over competition for newly-drilled wells. Alternatives—such as drawing Sana'a's water from remaining basins—would only inflame tensions with provinces and tribes from whose land such precious resources would be drawn. This situation is likely to aggravate Yemen's myriad other problems—including poverty and tribal tensions—as water scarcity compels rural Yemenis to move to cities where they are unlikely to find work. In one Yemen analyst's estimate, 80 percent of the country's conflicts are already about water. The prevalence of these disputes is pushing Yemenis to rely on tribal conflictresolution mechanisms, since the regime is unable to deal with such a massive problem. This problem is likely to be compounded in the future, as water scarcity hits the lucrative qat-growing industry. 145

#### Oil

Yemen's government is heavily dependent on its energy sector for revenue, and yet its energy output is declining. Oil exports have been a vital source of government revenue since production began in earnest in the late 1980s, but overall proven reserves are minimal compared to other Arab countries. Even at its peak in 2002, Yemen's daily oil production was less than 5 percent of Saudi Arabia's. Since its peak at 457,000 barrels per day (bbl/d) in 2002, the country's production levels have fallen steadily to 281,000 bbl/d in 2009 (Chart 3). According to the International Energy Agency, this figure could fall as low as 248,000 bbl/d by 2014. 146

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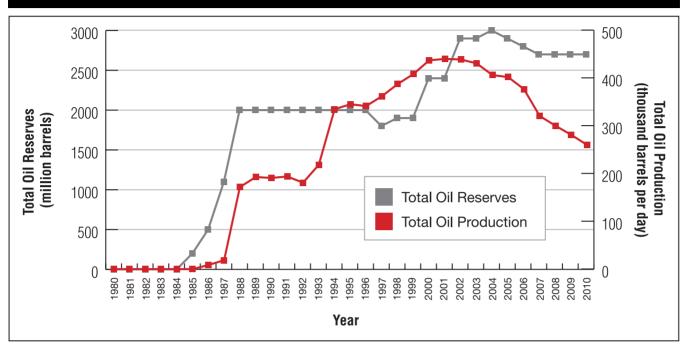
The country's two largest basins (in volatile Ma'rib and Hadhramout) are past peak and could run dry by 2020. While new discoveries have been made since 2000, they are too small to allow Yemen to maintain current production capacity for very long. Even with these relatively low production figures, Yemen's 2.7 billion barrels of proven oil reserves are estimated to run out around 2030. At the same time, energy subsidies artificially inflate domestic consumption, compelling the regime to spend more than \$3 billion per year on diesel imports. In fact, Yemen could become a net energy importer as soon as 2011, especially as domestic demand grows in tandem with the population. Declining crude oil prices have compounded this gloomy forecast, having halved between a July 2008 peak and late 2010. In the support of the support of

This combination of falling output and prices meant oil revenues for 2009 were only one-quarter those of 2008, forcing the Ministry of Finance to issue a directive for all ministries to cut expenditures in half. Even if the regime is able to halt the decline in oil export revenues, Yemen's rocketing population will increase pressures on the patronage system. With this outlook in mind, the government announced in early 2010 it would fast-track oil exploration and try to cut the concession-granting process from three years to six months. At the same time, Sana'a signed a memorandum of understanding with France's Total to explore for oil in the volatile Shabwah governorate, and it is working with Chinese and Korean companies to expand its refinery capacity. 151

#### Natural Gas

Yemen's natural gas future is a bit brighter—its reserves are expected to outlast its oil reserves—but still offers no long-term solution to the country's economic and political problems. Exploration and production began bearing fruit later than the oil sector, with the first major project coming online only in 2009. However, proven reserves amount to only about 480 billion cubic meters (bcm). This figure places Yemen far behind most of its neighbors. As with Yemen's oil, restive governorates like Ma'rib and Shabwah contain nearly all of the country's natural gas deposits, as well as much of the processing and transport infrastructure. While produc-





tion and export levels will increase for the foreseeable future thanks to a major liquefied natural gas (LNG) project (see below), much of Yemen's natural gas is still used for oil extraction, and growing demographic challenges will likely place competing demands on the country's natural gas reserves.

In October 2009, the \$4.5 billion Yemen Liquefied Natural Gas Company Ltd (YLNG) project (led by Total) finally came online after months of delays. This will be the country's main energy program for the foreseeable future. It is expected to generate \$30-50 billion in government revenue over the next 20-25 years (this will work out to 15 to 25 percent of Sana'a's annual government revenues), although this amounted to only \$200-300 million in 2010. 153 For a country that produced just 280,000 bbl/d of oil in 2009, YLNG is expected to export as much as 5.7 million cubic meters of LNG per year (the energy equivalent of around 180,000 bbl/d of oil) for at least two decades. As one senior Yemeni central bank official stated in early 2010, "we are hoping to see [economic] growth between 7.5 and 8 percent [for 2010]. This is basically attributed to the growth in gas."154 Given the regime's dependence on revenues

from energy exports, this project could help cushion the country's transition toward a post-oil economy. However, YLNG will not allow Sana'a to put off economic reform altogether.

Out of the 259 bcm of total reserves that will be extracted by this project (more than half of Yemen's remaining total reserves), only 28 bcm are earmarked for domestic power generation. The project, which runs through 200 miles of tribal territories that have contested Sana'a's authority for decades (Ma'rib and Shabwah), is guarded by Yemeni security services. Total's status as the primary YLNG shareholder has actually aggravated tenuous north-south relations in Yemen, as southern politicians and tribal leaders fear they will not see any of YLNG's profits. <sup>155</sup> Sana'a has also begun building up and training naval forces to escort LNG tankers into the pirate-ridden Gulf of Aden.

#### Hopes of Expanding Energy Sector

In lieu of implementing difficult and potentially dislocating, albeit much-needed, fiscal and other economic reforms, Sana'a is doubling down on its energy sector. The Ministry of Oil and Minerals has courted foreign

investment by offering generous production-sharing contract terms for significant onshore and offshore exploration and extraction in several bidding rounds in 2008 and 2009. In January 2010, Yemen's oil minister also announced that the country would upgrade refineries and sink new wells in an effort to boost oil output by 10 percent over the course of 2010. 156

India's Gujarat State Petroleum Corp., Indonesia's Medco, Austria's OMV AG, Norway's DNO and Britain's Burren Energy have all signed oil production-sharing agreements with Sana'a, with OMV AG announcing plans to drill 40 new oil wells in conflict-prone Shabwah. Kuwait Energy Company (KEC), with the help of the World Bank's International Finance Corporation, has become Yemen's largest acreage holder in the oil sector. KEC has invested \$150 million onshore and off, and is currently exploring for further oil deposits.

The Yemeni government is trying simultaneously to kick-start other energy projects, especially as the country's economic outlook worsens. In late 2008 and early 2009, Bulgarian and Turkish companies expressed potential interest in receiving YLNG deliveries as a means of hedging against future uncertainties

associated with Nabucco and South Stream pipelines. Between 2008 and 2010, Saleh met with Gazprom officials in Moscow in search of agreements on power generation, oil, gas, pipeline, port infrastructure and irrigation projects for Yemen. For its part, Gazprom appears interested primarily in buying stakes in the existing YNLG project, as opposed to developing new natural gas resources in Yemen.<sup>157</sup>

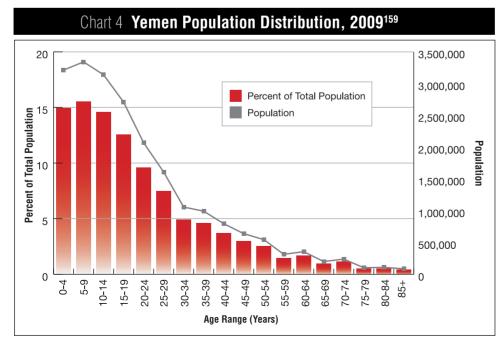
Sana'a has also sought French cooperation on nuclear and geothermal energy, Dutch investment for electricity generation projects, Japanese investment in solar energy plants, Saudi agreements to connect Yemen to the GCC's electricity grid and Iranian help in developing oil and natural gas fields.

#### **POPULATION GROWTH**

Yemen's population has nearly doubled in the two decades since unification, from 12 million in 1991 to 23 million in 2009. This dramatic population explosion appears set to continue apace. Yemen had the world's 12th-highest birth rate in 2009, and most projections expect Yemen's population to double again in the next 25 years. The consequence of this growth is a pronounced youth bulge. With a 3.4 percent average annual population growth rate (8 percent in Sana'a), a staggering 57 percent

of Yemenis are under the age of 20, and nearly one-third of the entire population is under the age of 10.<sup>158</sup>

Even with manageable population growth rates, Yemen would be facing dire natural resources crises for the foreseeable future. Much as the strains between Upper and Lower Yemen in the past stemmed from competition over scarce resources, so too the rapidly-expanding Yemeni population is likely to present a growing challenge to future stability within the country.



## POOR GOVERNANCE: PATRONAGE AND CORRUPTION

Given Yemen's tribal society and scarce resources, Saleh has crafted a patronage system that attempts to co-opt potential rivals through the selective distribution of state largess in such forms as employment, contracts, land grants, political support and stipends. He has built on the traditions of North Yemen's prior rulers, who sought to mediate conflict and deflect opponents of the regime through bribery and punishments. In effect, Saleh has tried to tie Yemenis' well-being to their dependence on the regime. This has the additional effect of preventing tribes from uniting against the government, since the benefits of patronage instill certain tribal shaykhs with a reluctance to upset the status quo. This form of governance has made Yemen one of the most corrupt countries on the planet. As the U.S. Agency for International Development stated in 2006, corruption in Yemen "is the glue that keeps things in place." 161

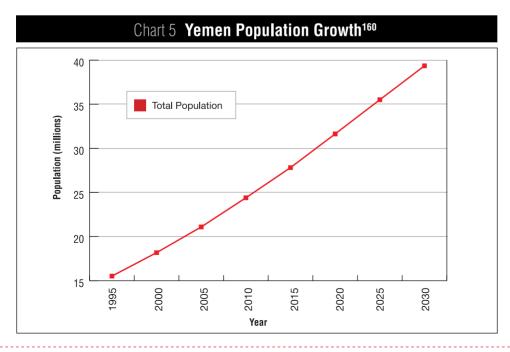
#### **PATRONAGE**

The Ministry of Finance, which occupies a key role in the patronage system, is the largest government bureaucracy. It has administrative and financial divisions in all other ministries, determines other ministries' budgets, determines private sector access to contracts and treasury funds and answers directly to Saleh. It also controls the Yemeni civil service, which Saleh uses as an employment opportunity to reward supporters and co-opt certain southern Yemenis and members of the country's major political parties. According to the deputy finance minister, this has made the civil service not just one of the country's largest employers and a social safety net, but also bloated and inefficient. 162

As of 2008, almost half of total government outlays went to the Upper Yemen tribal confederations that formed the backbone of regime support since the pre-unification era. (Saleh further cemented these ties by marrying his daughter into a tribe from the Bakil confederation.) Although the individual amounts vary, the Department of Tribal Affairs sends regular direct payments (*mezaniyya*) to an estimated four or five thousand *shaykhs* in return for their loyalty to the regime. <sup>163</sup> This is abetted by massive influxes of Saudi money—amounting to perhaps \$2 billion annually—used to convince tribes to no longer shelter al-Qaida and its affiliates. However, Saudi officials have begun to worry that this money may actually be ending up in the hands of al-Qaida and its sympathizers. <sup>164</sup>

Diesel subsidies are another pillar of the patronage system. These are extremely popular given the country's

water shortages, since they make it affordable for farmers to pump the exorbitant amounts of water needed to irrigate qat fields.165 In fact, diesel subsidies are helping fuel a rapid expansion in qat cultivation (up to 12 percent annual growth), since they also free up money for farmers to transport fertile soil into the *qat*-growing regions of Upper Yemen. In a country with few economic opportunities, qat's minimal growing requirements make it an attractive crop for small



WITH A 3.4 PERCENT AVERAGE ANNUAL POPULATION GROWTH RATE (8 PERCENT IN SANA'A), A STAGGERING 57 PERCENT OF YEMENIS ARE UNDER THE AGE OF 20, AND NEARLY ONE-THIRD OF THE ENTIRE POPULATION IS UNDER THE AGE OF 10.

farmers. Around 3.5 million Yemenis are involved in the *qat* industry, and its trade provides \$2.5 million a day for rural communities. <sup>166</sup> Its cultivation, sale and usage, however, create opportunity costs in terms of food production (Yemen must import many food staples, including 75 percent of its wheat), usage of precious natural resources and long-term economic development.

Indeed, throughout much of its modern history Yemen has not been self-sufficient in food production. This becomes more problematic as its population grows and its energy revenues decline. In fact, Yemen's rank in the Global Hunger Index has worsened since unification in 1990—currently 74th out of 85 developing countries—with exceptionally high rates of juvenile malnutrition and maternal mortality. In 2009, 45 percent of Yemenis reported not having enough money to buy sufficient amounts of food. Despite these disturbing indicators and a rising population, much of Yemen's valuable farmland is still used for *qat*.

Another disturbing element of the patronage system is its ties with Islamist militancy. Although the regime is in the middle of an extended campaign against al-Qaida, it still seeks to maintain good ties with many militant groups, and often turns a blind eye to many of their activities. <sup>169</sup> While this is dangerous enough, radical Islamist groups have exploited Sana'a's policy of benign neglect to carve out safe havens in some of the authority vacuums created by the northern and southern conflicts. In fact, a mediator between the government and opposition figures has said extremists "are everywhere, in the government, in the military, among the tribes and the wealthy." <sup>170</sup>

Finally, the patronage system has stunted the growth of representative government in Yemen. Although the country has an elected parliament, universal suffrage and vocal opposition parties, Saleh has crafted a deep and intricate web of what one Yemen analyst describes as "pluralized authoritarianism." This arrangement allows Saleh's ruling northern-based GPC party to maintain firm control of the state apparatus through bribery and cooptation.<sup>171</sup> Crucially, parliament has little budgetary oversight capability, and the Ministry of Finance can override parliament's decisions anyway. The Ministry of Finance's approval is also required for projects undertaken by local elected councils, thereby entrenching the patronage system down through the provincial and local levels. 172 On top of this, the regime has little incentive to accord its citizens a proper voice, since it does not rely heavily on taxation for revenue. In 2008 for example, oil and gas revenues amounted to \$9.8 billion, while total tax revenues totaled only \$1.84 billion. This is further complicated by the fact that Saleh's extended family controls many of Yemen's largest energy, construction and food companies, and a large share of the country's most valuable real estate. Finally, the Ministry of Justice is so riddled with corrupt and inefficient appointees that Yemenis still rely on tribal ('urf qabali') and other customs to resolve disputes. Such practices are not always peaceful: in separate incidences in October 2010 rival tribesmen torched buildings and engaged in running gun battles in Sana'a. 173

The country's two other major parties—the Islamist umbrella group Islah and the southern-based YSP—exercise a token opposition role in Parliament, usually through symbolic initiatives (e.g., Yemen Parliamentarians Against Corruption [YemenPAC]) that establish commissions but achieve little else. Islah tries to maximize its appeal by including both centrist and fundamentalist elements, and it has called for *sharia* to be the "sole source" of the Yemeni constitution, as opposed to the "main source." It also curries popular favor through its various social programs. Islah, YSP and assorted minor parties formed the Joint Meeting Party (JMP) coalition in 2002 to present a united front against GPC, but were still roundly defeated in 2006 elections that according to

European Union observers displayed "fundamental and systemic weaknesses." In that instance, Saleh's patronage network boosted the GPC by giving state employees bonuses and providing free utilities to key precincts in the run-up to the election. On top of this, Saleh has tried to undermine the appeal of opposition parties by assigning them to run difficult ministries such as Health, Education and Electricity and Water. 174

Presidential elections have also been problematic. In 1999 and 2006, Saleh broke his pledges not to run for another term, and then won overwhelming majorities in both cases (96 percent in 1999, 77 percent in 2006). He maintains he will not run for the next presidential election in 2013. Since unification, run-ups to parliamentary and presidential elections have often been marred by violence and intimidation against YSP and other opposition parties. 175 Parliamentary elections were due to be held in April 2009, but in February 2009 the GPC and JMP agreed to postpone the elections for two years to implement electoral reforms, promote transparency in government and amend the country's constitution. In July 2010, Saleh sponsored a plan for the GPC to work with opposition parties and civil society organizations to begin implementing such reforms, and he agreed to form a national government if the reforms were carried out successfully. Saleh described the agreement as "a positive step toward political détente," and the inclusion of YSP and Islah (which together form the bulk of the JMP) may have helped co-opt the prevalent hostility of Islamists and southerners toward Sana'a. Even SAM leader Abdul-Malik al-Houthi—the head of the Sa'dah rebellion—officially supported the agreement. However, the prospects for change were undercut by the GPC's

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announcement in October 2010 that it would not delay the April 2011 elections to allow more time to negotiate and carry out reforms.<sup>176</sup>

#### **RESOURCE DRAIN**

Of course, the patronage system requires having enough resources to spread around. This was not a problem for Saleh in the 1970s and 1980s, when large portions of North Yemen's growing population were absorbed by oil-boom economies such as Saudi Arabia and Kuwait. This migration had an added benefit, as Yemeni laborers sent much of their income back home in the form of remittances. However, the Gulf War and Saleh's support for Saddam Hussein forced as many as one million Yemeni migrant workers to return home unemployed in the 1990s, which caused the labor force to balloon by as much as 30 percent.<sup>177</sup>

In this respect, unification was a temporary boon to Saleh. When it absorbed South Yemen in 1990, the former North Yemen's population only grew by around one-fifth, but its energy reserves grew exponentially: 80 percent of Yemen's oil reserves are located in the former South Yemen. With the revenues stemming from increased energy exports, Saleh's patronage system ballooned in scope and became further embedded throughout Yemeni society. Oil and natural gas now account for 90 percent of export earnings, one third of total GDP and more than three-quarters of government revenue. 178

However, this system cannot persist *ad infinitum*. Yemen's falling oil production (Chart 3), compounded by a rising population (Chart 5) and falling energy prices, means Saleh must try to widen his patronage network while having fewer resources at his disposal. As budget deficits grow, the regime has tried to increase the money supply by borrowing from its central bank and selling foreign exchange reserves, but this has merely depreciated Yemen's currency (riyal) and contributed to rising inflation rates and commodity prices.<sup>179</sup> As a result, Yemenis' reliance on patronage networks is now backfiring against the regime—its writ is shrinking as its ability to provide the populace with bribes and basic services decreases. In the resource-rich but volatile Abyan governorate, for example,

the regime is largely unable to pay local tribes to help keep the peace, nor can it provide basic services like electricity and running water. Previously, riots broke out and 50,000-100,000 protestors marched through Sana'a, Aden and Hudaydah when the government tried to trim diesel subsidies in 2005. At the same time, the government has been spending almost one-third of its revenues on fuel subsidies, which ironically led it to increase fuel prices across the board by at least 10 percent in February 2010. 181

The regime's growing illegitimacy and ineffectiveness is encapsulated in the complaint that "a government minister could wait 30 days to see [Saleh], but a minor shaykh could see him within 24 hours' notice." Saleh has attempted to soften such criticism by creating opportunities for military officers, bureaucrats and tribal shaykhs to profit from illegal water drilling and smuggling activities. While this benefits regime loyalists, the rest of Yemen suffers. With the government offering little promise of help, many tribes and ordinary Yemenis are actively looking elsewhere for opportunity and security. In a country as desperately poor as Yemen, every cutback in government services and subsidies can only make AQAP's money and services that much more attractive.

#### **ECONOMY**

Not surprisingly, Yemen's patronage system fosters extraordinary levels of corruption. According to Transparency International's 2009 Corruption Perceptions Index, Yemen ranked 154th out of 180 countries. This stifles economic growth, and contributes to Yemen's status as the least competitive economy in the relatively uncompetitive Arab world. The World Bank ranked Yemen in

YEMEN'S FALLING OIL PRODUCTION, COMPOUNDED BY A RISING POPULATION AND FALLING ENERGY PRICES, MEANS SALEH MUST TRY TO WIDEN HIS PATRONAGE NETWORK WHILE HAVING FEWER RESOURCES AT HIS DISPOSAL. the bottom third of all countries in terms of protecting investors, transparency of business transactions, tax burdens and ease of exporting and importing goods for 2010. The World Bank also placed Yemen 101st out of 155 countries in terms of domestic and international trade costs for 2010.<sup>184</sup>

The government finds it easier and safer (at least in the near-term) to simply buy off as many of its citizens as possible, instead of reforming the economy or investing in education and human capital. Three of Yemen's largest professions are *qat* farmer, foreign guest worker and underemployed civil servant in a bloated bureaucracy. None of these generate sustained economic activity within Yemen itself. In fact, *qat* farming is counterproductive on a macroeconomic level, since it consumes government subsidies while simultaneously devouring precious water supplies. Furthermore, the daily consumption of this semi-narcotic by two-thirds of Yemen's male population greatly undermines worker productivity.<sup>185</sup>

All of these factors create a vicious cycle. Yemen's patronage system forces its population to rely on institutionalized corruption in the form of selective distribution of income from energy exports. This forecloses alternative economic opportunities, thereby impoverishing an overpopulated, resource-poor country. This in turn promotes corruption at all levels of society, based on necessity at least as much as greed, since there are few alternatives to make ends meet. And so on. This plays into the regime's hands; Saleh is widely reputed to have said he mistrusts people who "do not steal," since this would imply their independence from the patronage system. Corruption charges—in the rare instances they are actually brought—are usually dismissed, and many suspects bribe police and judicial officials to avoid being charged in the first place. 186

Population growth and the global economic recession feed into this cycle, too, as the grim statistics show: unemployment hovers around 35-40 percent (the official labor force accounted for only 28 percent of the total population in 2009); per capita income is \$500-\$900 per year, less than Nigeria

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and Pakistan; 97 percent of households can't cover the daily costs of food; half the population is illiterate; and 43 percent live below the poverty line. 187 Despite the influx of energy revenues, poverty levels doubled between 1990 and 2006. Accordingly, Yemen ranked 140th out of 182 countries on the 2009 U.N. Human Development Index. These depressing figures will likely continue to rise alongside the population. For example, the number of young Yemenis requiring education is expected to rise by at least 40 percent by 2028. 188

Given current trends, there is little hope for improvement, especially as the global economic downturn means neighboring Gulf countries will not be able to absorb much, if any, of Yemen's growing excess labor force, even though Sana'a is a member of the Gulf Cooperation Council's (GCC) labor organization. In fact, there are already 800,000 Yemeni workers in Saudi Arabia, and many GCC members are nationalizing their own workforces. Thus, the country's current efforts to train 100,000 Yemeni workers for employment abroad, while admirable, may founder on its neighbors' inability to accommodate them. 189

Since 2004, Sana'a has scaled up its public efforts to spur non-oil growth and create jobs in agriculture, fisheries, manufacturing, services and the financial sector. However, there is little indication that these initiatives can be much more than cosmetic attempts to attract international investment by papering over the regime's reticence to abandon its current patronage system. A 2009 Gallup poll found only 7 percent

of Yemenis said it was a good time to look for a job in the area they lived (88 percent said it was a bad time), and only 19 percent said economic conditions in Yemen were getting better (59 percent said conditions were getting worse). These figures were only a fraction of the positive responses registered in other Middle Eastern countries.<sup>190</sup>

Increasingly, Yemenis prefer the informal collective action provided by tribal structures to the corrupt and inefficient state institutions. Tribes are able to provide social safety nets through the ghorm tradition, whereby all males over age 18 share financial responsibility for their tribal members' needs. 191 This is an extremely important and vital social function provided by many of Yemen's tribes, but it directly undermines the legitimacy of the government. Furthermore, it remains to be seen how this tribal institution will withstand the simultaneous waxing of Yemen's population and waning of government largess. As pressures have increased, so has the appeal of AQAP. The extremist group receives funds from sources outside Yemen, which it then distributes to the unemployed and disaffected populace in tribal regions. It has also made Sana'a's corruption a centerpiece of its outreach strategy, blaming "appalling" levels of graft for the recent rise in violence throughout the country. 192

#### **WEAK CIVIL SOCIETY**

As the government's policies and weaknesses cause its writ and legitimacy to recede, certain forces and ideas fill the void. In large part due to the government's own policies, there is nothing to act as a buffer against extremism. While the regime permits freedom of expression as a relatively harmless safety valve for people's frustrations, it has effectively co-opted or neutralized Yemen's civil society organizations (CSOs). Yemen's extreme poverty makes it difficult for CSOs to stay afloat, and thus the regime will buy off certain groups by incorporating them directly into the patronage system. This practice is aided by the state's control over the licensing and funding of all

CSOs. The GPC also creates better-funded carboncopy "mirror organizations" to split opposition CSOs apart. The best example of this practice (*istinsakh*, or "cloning") is the al-Saleh Association, which was created by the GPC and headed by Saleh's son to compete with Islah. In addition, Yemen's fragmented polity often compels the country's thousands of CSOs to contend with one another along regional, tribal and/or sectarian lines. <sup>194</sup> On top of all this, the 2001 "NGO Law" and its 2004 bylaw allowed the government to monitor non-governmental organizations and forced them to accept semi-official functions. Given these constraints, CSOs of all stripes face significant challenges in designing and implementing much-needed projects.

The regime has also abetted radicalism through its support of Islamist militants. Saleh has been widely accused of gaining political allies by allowing Sunni extremists to enforce Islamic dress and moral codes, and to set up religious schools. At the same time, the regime has tried to curry favor with conservatives by forging ties with extremist clerics like Shaykh Abdul-Majid al-Zindani, a man the United States suspects of having close ties with al-Qaida. <sup>195</sup> In fact, the regime also used Zindani as a mouthpiece against the south in the 1994 civil war.

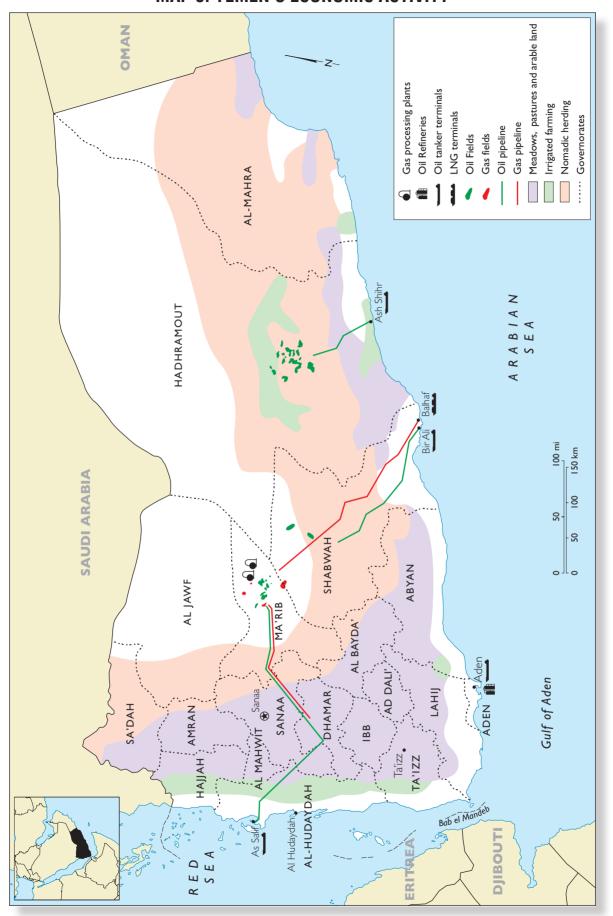
Dwindling resources complicate matters, as Yemen's Committee for Religious Dialogue—established by Sana'a in 2002 to "rehabilitate" former jihadists—has not been able to replicate its Saudi counterpart's success in buying off former militants. Of course, Sana'a's own tendency to *support* certain forms of radicalism makes it difficult for moderate clerics to emulate the more successful Saudi practice of developing and propagating a coherent narrative against al-Qaida. 196

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Unfortunately, Yemenis are learning not to rely on central or local government for goods and services—nor to expect the rule of law—but instead to depend on more immediate and capable tribal rules and institutions, many of which have a long history of repudiating attempts at subjugation to central authority. This trend will likely continue as the patronage system is stretched tighter in coming years. Islah has begun to fill parts of the authority vacuum by offering social programs to those falling outside the government's patronage networks. Although Islah is an umbrella group and thus lacks a clear unifying ideology, the prevalence of Salafist elements poses the potential for radicalization among people for whom Islah's programs are a major source of support. 197 In addition, the absence of government capability and legitimacy in rural governorates creates a wedge for al-Qaida and its extremist narrative.

**MAP 5: YEMEN'S ECONOMIC ACTIVITY** 



## **FOREIGN ASSISTANCE**

emen's current trajectory is unsustainable. The economy is headed downhill while the population rises, resources are declining, Sa'dah is bleeding, the south is seething, AQAP's influence is rising and pirate infestation is growing. Current efforts to reform the situation—or at the very least keep the country merely on the brink of failure—have had some positive impact. With the world's attention at least more focused on Yemen, Sana'a and the global community may begin to shift their efforts.

## PREVIOUS ASSISTANCE LEVELS AND REFORM EFFORTS

Yemen—and Saleh in particular—has a long history of manipulating foreign donors, and the country has come to depend heavily on foreign aid. In the 1970s, Western and Gulf countries began providing North Yemen with economic and military assistance. Few strings were attached, as Saleh was able to play up the threat from Soviet-backed South Yemen. While Saudi Arabia has been funneling large amounts of money into various Yemeni governments and tribes for decades, it was only after the USS Cole and 9/11 attacks that the United States gave significant assistance to Yemen. Congress designated Yemen as a "front-line state" in the War on Terror, which led to \$67.4 million in military aid from 2002 to 2006. Primarily, this came in the form of security assistance intended to boost U.S.-Yemen counterterrorism cooperation. Funding was used mostly for covert projects to stand up new counterterrorism forces, improve intelligence collection capabilities and equip and professionalize an army brigade and the coast guard. Between the USS Cole attack in 2000 and the beginning of 2009, U.S. non-military assistance levels for Yemen were relatively low. 198

The United States' narrow focus on counterterrorism cooperation during this period gave Saleh the upper hand, since it allowed him to play up the threat of terrorism in Yemen as a means of increasing military assistance. Saleh was able to redirect this aid to suppress dissidents,

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Chart 6 U.S. Government Aid to Yemen, FY2000-FY2011<sup>201</sup>

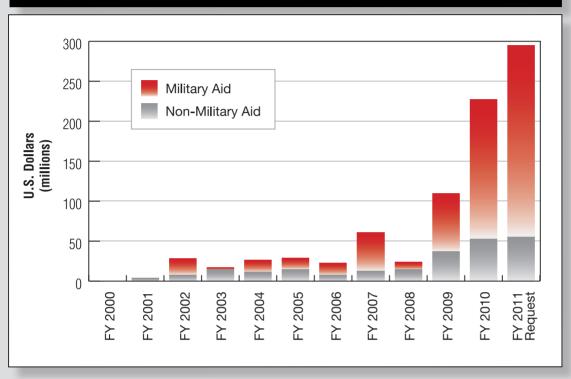
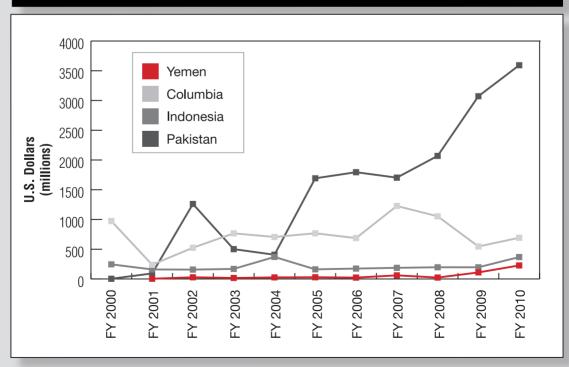


Chart 7 U.S. Government Aid to Selected Countries, FY2000-FY2010<sup>202</sup>



reinforce his regime's security and prosecute the Sa'dah war. Moreover, the focus on counterterrorism detracted from much-needed reforms to improve the efficiency and impartiality of Yemen's criminal justice services. 199 Saudi Arabia—whose counterterrorism assistance to Sana'a has always outpaced that from the United States—is estimated to send \$1 billion in official aid and an additional \$2 billion in unofficial aid to Yemen annually. Given their geographical proximity and shared threats from terrorism and internal unrest, GCC members have been eager to send Sana'a security assistance first and foremost. 200

Saleh is also adept at manipulating the flow of non-military assistance. Many reform efforts—including anti-corruption legislation, expanded social services, government transparency initiatives and investment in infrastructure and regional governorates—do not represent real change. The government's main initiative in this regard has been an attempt to improve donor coordination through the creation of the Aid Harmonization and Alignment Unit. Such efforts have paid off for Saleh, as his 2006 reform agenda was rewarded with nearly \$5 billion in aid pledges from Europe and the GCC through 2010. This figure represents 85 percent of Sana'a's external financing needs for this period. At the same time, the regime is trying in earnest to increase foreign investment in Yemen's energy sector and start a securities exchange authority.<sup>203</sup>

Genuine efforts by development agencies and nongovernment organizations to design and implement projects have foundered on an inability to match available resources with local needs. In most instances, Sana'a's detachment from many of its citizens makes it necessary for GCC and Western aid agencies to work with community and tribal leaders to determine suitable projects, from individual wells to hospitals and schools. However, this has proven extremely difficult, given Yemen's resource scarcity and tribal history. As a result, many donors have simply found it easier, if not optimal, to defer to Sana'a when it comes to development priorities. This is complicated by the contrast between GCC members' preference for large, resource-intensive infrastructure projects, and Western donors' emphasis on capacity building and service delivery.<sup>204</sup>

## FOREIGN ASSISTANCE AFTER CHRISTMAS ATTEMPT

In the immediate aftermath of the failed Christmas Day bombing, General Petraeus promised to double U.S. security assistance to Yemen for 2010. Within six months, the Pentagon had provided over \$150 million for training and equipping Yemeni counterterrorism forces, up from \$70 million for all of FY2009. The lion's share of these funds went to Yemen's air force and special operations forces. However, the U.S. Senate Armed Services Committee argued that priority be given to the Ministry of Interior, after reports surfaced that Saleh may have used U.S. equipment against the Houthis and southern secessionists. In September, Centcom proposed boosting security assistance to \$1.2 billion over five years. 205

The United States and Britain also announced plans to increase drastically their development assistance in the near future, with the State Department committing \$120 million over the next three years. Although the final amounts of these pledges are still unclear, Sana'a will receive a large boost in Western security and development assistance in the short- to mid-term future. However, it is highly unlikely this will match the official and unofficial aid given by Saudi Arabia and the rest of the GCC every year. <sup>206</sup>

At the January 27, 2010, conference in London to coordinate aid to Yemen, Sana'a responded to donors' pressure by acknowledging the need for economic, political, legal and water-sharing reforms in return for security assistance, and by promising to enter negotiations with the International Monetary Fund (IMF) to address the country's debilitating poverty. This may prove difficult: on top of the many factors contributing to the country's unattractive investment climate, the IMF is suggesting Sana'a reduce expenditures by cutting diesel subsidies.<sup>207</sup>

The conference's final communiqué announced the "Friends of Yemen," a series of meetings to improve donor coordination and deliver the \$4.7 billion pledged at the 2006 London conference of European and GCC donors more effectively.<sup>208</sup> However, Yemen's corruption and inability to absorb large amounts of

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assistance means only 10 percent of the total pledged amount was actually delivered between 2006 and 2010; donor countries often withheld aid payments or redirected them through nongovernmental organizations. These problems have made U.S. diplomats skeptical of Yemeni counterterrorist forces' ability to absorb \$1.2 billion from Centcom, and wary that Sana'a may use U.S. military equipment against the Houthis and secessionists. Despite such concerns, at the March 2010 Friends of Yemen meeting, Sana'a asked for \$44 billion through 2015.<sup>209</sup>

Around the same time, U.S. Secretary of State Hillary Clinton followed up President Obama's December 2009 call for a negotiated settlement to the Sa'dah conflict, in the hope it would allow Sana'a to focus on AQAP and civilian development. Also, the U.S. Department of Defense announced it would "significantly increase" the number of U.S. special forces assigned with training Yemen's counterterrorism forces. 210 It remains to be seen the extent to which Sana'a will commit itself to enacting painful but ultimately necessary economic and political reforms broached at the London conference. The White House's announcement that it would increase humanitarian aid to Yemen for 2010 should not be seen through this prism, but more as a stopgap response to the refugee crises created by the Sa'dah and southern conflicts. 211 Furthermore, it is still uncertain whether the United States and other donors will impose the proper conditions for Yemen to receive counterterrorism and development assistance. The efforts of the GPC and JMP to forge a national consensus on governmental reform and transparency may have been a step in this direction.

#### WAY FORWARD ON STABILIZATION

The purpose of this paper has not been to provide definitive recommendations for how to stabilize Yemen. Such concrete guidance on how to approach stabilization, as well as a discussion of what sort of capacity the U.S. foreign policy apparatus needs to develop in order to effectively provide this assistance, can be found in the Bipartisan Policy Center's report *Stabilizing Fragile States*, published in January 2011. The intent of this paper is to give an overview of how the presence of violent extremists in Yemen is tied to the multiple other challenges that beset the country. Nevertheless, the two major themes addressed in the *Stabilizing Fragile States* report are both relevant to Yemen.

First, building partner security capacity requires a certain investment in the procurement of armaments and the construction of facilities. More importantly, however, it is a human and institutional development activity, with the training of forces and the development of competent command, control and governance institutions at its core. Indeed, in Yemen the oversight and use of security forces is a much more critical issue than their capabilities.

Second, promoting civic resilience involves strengthening societies in fragile states to resist extremist ideologies. There are five main aspects to civic resilience, all of which are particularly crucial in Yemen: improving government capacity; expanding social, political and economic opportunities; establishing democratic governance—rule of law, transparency and accountability; amplifying the mainstream voices of those that renounce violence; and isolating the hardcore extremists from their "softer" supporters.

Assuring that the U.S. government has the proper capabilities, expertise, authorities and funding to undertake these missions is also critical. To this end, our final report contains recommendations for stabilization tools and strategies as well as reforms to the foreign policy apparatus in Washington.

# **APPENDICES**

### **APPENDIX A**

## CHRONOLOGY OF SA'DAH (HOUTHI) CONFLICT<sup>212</sup>

ROUND OF FIGHTING	DESCRIPTION	TOTAL CASUALTIES	CONSEQUENCES
June – September 2004	Hussein al-Houthi killed. Sana'a declares unilateral ceasfire.	500-1000 killed.	Underlying causes not resolved. Sporadic fighting continues.
March – May 2005	Sana'a accuses Houthis of terrorism, launches "counterattack."	1,500 killed.	Government claims victory. Low- intensity fighting continues.
Late 2005 – Early 2006	Government-supported tribes clash with Houthis.	Estimates unavailable.	Government appoints new Sa'dah governor more acceptable to Houthis. Conflict temporarily suspended.
January – June 2007	Government recruits anti-Houthi tribesmen and militants to meet supposed Houthi threats to renew fighting.	As many as 4,000 killed.	Qatar arranges ceasefire and pledges Sa'dah reconstruction.
April – July 2008	Government accuses Houthis of violating ceasefire agreement.	50-100 killed.	Government declares unilateral ceasefire.
June – November 2009	Sana'a launches Operation Scorched Earth against rebels after accusing them of violating government's 2008 unilateral ceasefire.	2000+ killed.	Indiscriminate bombing by military escalates conflict; local tribes join Houthis; fighting spreads to Amran and Hajjah governorates. More than 100,000 civilians left homeless since 2004 start of conflict.
November 2009 – February 2010	Saudi military strikes Houthis in Sa'dah, creates buffer zone and sets up naval blockade after Houthis kill Saudi border guards. Tentative ceasefire reached.	100+ killed.	Polarization of conflict, rising potential for Saudi-Iranian proxy war as Tehran denounces "Wahhabi state terrorism" against Houthis. 50,000 more civilians homeless.
February 2010 – Present	Ceasefire falls apart as Saudis escalate airstrikes and Houthis resume fighting Sana'a and pro-regime tribes. Negotiations resume in Qatar.	100+ killed.	Sana'a's attention and resources still committed to Sa'dah despite growing al-Qaida and secession threats. Number of displaced persons estimated to pass 300,000.

### **APPENDIX B**

### YEMENI SECURITY SERVICES AND MANPOWER<sup>213</sup>

SECURITY SERVICE	MANPOWER
Political Security Organization (PSO) (Reports directly to President)	Estimated at 150,000 total personnel.
Central Security Organization (CSO) (Ministry of Interior)	50,000-strong paramilitary force (Central Security Forces, or CSF).
Criminal Investigative Department (CID) (Ministry of Interior)	Estimated at 13,000 police officers and criminal investigators.
<b>Yemeni Army</b> (Ministry of Defense)	55,000-60,000 active-duty volunteer and conscripted troops.
<b>Yemeni Navy</b> (Ministry of Defense)	1,700-2,500 active-duty sailors.
Yemeni Air Force (Ministry of Defense)	3,000-3,500 active-duty airmen.
Yemeni Air Defense Forces (Ministry of Defense)	2,000 active-duty troops.
"Popular Armies" (PSO*)	Estimated 20,000 proxy soldiers (numbers fluctuate across different offensives/campaigns).

<sup>\*&</sup>quot;Popular armies" likely recruited and paid by PSO, although no known formal chain of command exists.

### **APPENDIX C**

### YEMENI SECURITY SERVICES: MISSIONS AND CAPABILITIES<sup>214</sup>

SECURITY SERVICE	CORE MISSIONS AND MAJOR OPERATIONS	MAJOR PLATFORMS
Political Security Organization (PSO) (Reports directly to President)	<ol> <li>Intelligence collection.</li> <li>Internal security, including extrajudicial detention facilities.</li> <li>Organizing "popular armies" of militants.</li> </ol>	Unknown.
Central Security Organization (CSO) (Ministry of Interior)	Highway/checkpoint security.     Internal security, including     counterterrorism and extrajudicial     detention facilities.     Special forces operations.	Unknown.
Yemeni Coast Guard Authority (Ministry of Interior)	<ol> <li>Coastal Defense.</li> <li>Counterpiracy/-smuggling operations.</li> <li>Littoral/riverine warfare.</li> </ol>	<b>Units:</b> ~20 Cold War-era U.S. and French patrol and coastal combat ships.
<b>Yemeni Army</b> (Ministry of Defense)	<ol> <li>Regime security.</li> <li>Counterinsurgency/ domestic suppression.</li> <li>External defense.</li> </ol>	Tanks: ~800 US (M-60A1) and Soviet/Russian (T-54/55, T-62, T-72, T-80) MBT.  Artillery: ~1100 WWII and Cold War-era U.S. and Soviet towed and self-propelled pieces (incl. ~300 MRL), plus mortar batteries.  Armored Personnel Carriers: ~900 Cold War-era Soviet units (mainly BTR-40/-60), including armored infantry fighting vehicles.  Air Defense: ~800 Cold War-era Soviet and U.S. antiaircraft guns and surface-to-air missiles.
<b>Yemeni Navy</b> (Ministry of Defense)	<ol> <li>Coastal patrol.</li> <li>External defense.</li> <li>Countersmuggling.</li> </ol>	Missile and Patrol Boats: 20 total, including: Cold Warera Soviet and modern Chinese corvettes ( <i>Tarantul/Huangfen</i> ) fitted for short-range missiles ( <i>Styx/Sardine</i> ); modern Australian ( <i>Bay</i> ) and Cold War-era patrol boats.  Mine Warfare: 6 Cold War-era Soviet minesweepers.  Landing Craft: 5 Cold War-era Soviet landing craft, and 1 modernized Russian tank landing ship.
Yemeni Air Force (Ministry of Defense)	<ol> <li>Air superiority.</li> <li>Ground-support combat operations.</li> <li>Power projection/airlift.</li> </ol>	Fighter Aircraft: ~40 modern Russian (MiG-21/-29) and Cold War-era U.S. (F-5) units.  Ground Attack Aircraft: ~30 Cold War-era Soviet (Su-17/-20/-22) units; 8 Cold War-era Soviet attack helicopters (Mi-35).  Other: ~30 Cold War-era Soviet and U.S. transport aircraft and support helicopters; ~50 training aircraft.
Yemeni Air Defense Forces (Ministry of Defense)	1. Theater air defense.	Missile Batteries: unknown quantities of Cold War-era Soviet surface-to-air (SA-13/-14) and U.S. air-to-air (AA-2/ AIM-9) missiles.
"Popular Armies" (PSO*)	<ol> <li>Paramilitary combat operations, including proxy warfare.</li> <li>Support Yemen army ground assaults.</li> <li>Deter/terrorize rebellious populations.</li> </ol>	Unknown.

# **GLOSSARY**

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TERM	ACRONYM	DEFINITION
Umar Farouk Abdulmutallab		Suspect in Christmas Day 2009 bombing attempt of Detroit-bound Northwest Airlines flight 253. Is suspected of receiving training and guidance from al-Qaida sympathizers in Yemen before attack.
Aden Colony		British crown colony established in 1839 in southern port city of Aden. Joined by British to West Aden Protectorate in 1963. Capital of South Yemen from 1967 to 1990.
Aden Emergency		State of emergency declared by British from 1963 to 1967 in Aden and the protectorates due to violence between tribes, unions and British soldiers. Precipitated Britain's withdrawal from the region in 1967.
Ahmad bin Yahya		Zaydi ruler of Mutawakkilite Kingdom of Yemen from 1948 to 1962. Known as "the Devil" for his corrupt and repressive rule. Death in 1962 led to North Yemen Civil War.
Gen. Ali Muhsin al-Ahmar		Half brother of President Saleh, Commander of Northwestern Military Zone. In charge of Yemen's Sa'dah campaign.
Brig. Gen. Ali Saleh al-Ahmar		Half brother of President Saleh, Chief of Staff of Yemen military's general command.
Brig. Gen. Mohamed Saleh al-Ahmar		Half brother of President Saleh, Commander of Yemeni Air Force.
Aid Harmonization and Alignment Unit		Established in the Yemeni Ministry of Planning and International Cooperation to contribute to optimizing the impact of all resources (including foreign assistance) on development and poverty reduction in Yemen.
Al-Qaida in the Arabian Peninsula	AQAP	Militant Islamist organization, primarily active in Yemen and Saudi Arabia, formed by a merger of al-Qaida's Yemeni and Saudi branches in January 2009. Increasingly prominent threat to Yemeni, regional and U.S. security.
Haidar Abu Bakr al-Attas		Former PDRY prime minister, along with Ali Salem al-Beidh declared independent DRY during 1994 civil war.
Anwar al-Awlaki		Radical U.Sborn cleric of Yemeni descent suspected of ties to Umar Farouk Abdulmutallab, Nidal Hasan (the suspect in the November 2009 Fort Hood, Texas, shooting), the October 2010 attempt to address explosive packages to Jewish religious sites in Chicago and two of the 9/11 hijackers. Currently suspected to be hiding in Shabwah, unsuccessfully targeted by Yemeni strikes.
Bab el Mandeb		Eighteen-mile-wide strait which connects the Red Sea and the Gulf of Aden. Fourth-busiest oil shipping lane in the world.

TERM	ACRONYM	DEFINITION
Muhammed al-Badr		Son of Ahmad bin Yahya, leader of royalist faction during North Yemen Civil War.
Ali Salem al-Beidh		Former PDRY and DRY president, and Head of State of unified Yemen under President Saleh before 1994 civil war. Informal leader of current southern secessionist movement. Currently in exile.
Central Security Forces	CSF	50,000-strong paramilitary force of Yemen's Central Security Organization, located in Ministry of Interior.
Central Security Organization	CS0	Yemeni internal security service located in Ministry of Interior. Controls the CSF.
Committee for Religious Dialogue		Program devised under Minister for Foreign Affairs Hamoud al-Hitar to reeducate and rehabilitate imprisoned al-Qaida members and sympathizers. Terminated in 2005.
Criminal Investigative Department	CID	Ministry of Interior department tasked with counterterrorism operations and detention facilities.
Democratic Republic of Yemen	DRY	Independent state declared by former PDRY officials during 1994 civil war, with capital at Aden. Not recognized by any foreign governments. Dissolved at end of civil war.
East Aden Protectorate	EAP	British administrative territory from 1917 to 1963 encompassing much of eastern Yemen. Originally part of Aden Protectorate. Renamed "Protectorate of South Arabia" in 1963.
Federation of South Arabia		Conglomeration of West Aden Protectorate and Aden Colony from 1963 to 1967. Created by British as basis for southern Yemeni state. Became part of South Yemen upon independence in 1967.
Front for the Liberation of Occupied South Yemen	FLOSY	Marxist revolutionary group in South Yemen; main contender with National Liberation Front for control of newly-independent PDRY in 1960s. Eventually lost out to NLF.
General People's Congress	GPC	President Saleh's ruling northern-based political party.
ghorm		Tribal social convention in which all males over the age of 18 share their tribe's financial burdens.
Gulf of Aden		Extension of Indian Ocean, separates Yemen from Horn of Africa. Connects to Red Sea through the <i>Bab el Mandeb</i> .
Ali Qaed Sunian al-Harithi		Also known as "Abu Ali," former head of al-Qaida in Yemen and suspected organizer of <i>USS Cole</i> attack in 2000. Killed by CIA drone strike in Ma'rib in 2002.

TERM	ACRONYM	DEFINITION
Houthis		Yemeni rebel fighters named for Hussein Badreddin al-Houthi, based in the Shia Zaydi-majority northern Sa'dah governorate. Fighting ongoing insurgency against Sana'a since 2004, and against Saudi Arabia since November 2009.
Hussein Badreddin al-Houthi		Former leader of "Shabab al-Muminin" (SAM) insurgent group fighting Yemeni security forces in Sa'dah governorate. Led initial stage of fighting in June 2004. Killed by Yemeni security forces in autumn 2004.
Islah		Islamist coalition party, part of main political opposition in Yemen. Also provides social services.
istinsakh		Translated as "cloning," regime's practice of creating better-funded carbon copies of independent civil society organizations.
Joint Meeting Party	JMP	Coalition of opposition political parties. Two major members are Islah and YSP.
Lower Yemen		Geographic term used generally to describe fertile lowland in southern and parts of eastern Yemen.
mujahedin		In Yemeni context: militants who returned to or settled in Yemen in 1990s and 2000s. Used as paramilitary by Sana'a, with whom they remain on relatively good terms.
Imam Yahya Mahmud al-Mutawakkil		Founder of Mutawakkilite Kingdom of Yemen in 1918. Ruled until his death in 1948. Established many forms of governance still in use by current regime. Succeeded by his son Ahmad.
National Liberation Front	NLF	Marxist militia that fought against southern tribes, other Marxist militias and British forces in 1950s and 1960s. Supported in part by Egypt during Aden Emergency. Eventually established People's Democratic Republic of Yemen in 1970.
National Security Bureau	NSB	Yemeni security organization created in 2002 to cooperate with Western intelligence agencies to split Yemeni tribes away from al-Qaida. Reports directly to President Saleh.
North Yemen		Informal title of state encompassing northwestern Yemen from 1918 to 1990. Known as "Mutawakkilite Kingdom of Yemen" from 1918 to 1962, and "Yemen Arab Republic" 1970-1990. Absorbed South Yemen in 1990 and renamed "Republic of Yemen."
North Yemen Civil War		1962-70 war between "republican" and "royalist" forces, eventually won by republicans in 1970. Began when Zaydi leader Ahmad bin Yahya's death created vacuum of power. Egypt, Saudi Arabia, Britain and others intervened. Over 100,000 Yemenis and 26,000 Egyptians are estimated to have been killed.

TERM	ACRONYM	DEFINITION
People's Democratic Republic of Yemen	PDRY	Marxist-ruled state (informally known as "South Yemen") from 1970 to 1990. Major client state of Soviet Union. Fought brief but violent civil war in 1986. Absorbed by North Yemen in 1990 upon fall of Soviet Union.
Political Security Organization	PS0	Yemeni security and intelligence service tasked with internal security, organizing paramilitary forces and running detention centers, among other activities.
"popular armies"		Paramilitary groups composed of tribal levies and <i>mujahedin</i> , used to support conventional military operations and intimidate rebellious populations. Behavior during 1994 civil war exacerbated southern resentment of Sana'a. Organized by PSO.
qat		Semi-narcotic plant grown throughout Yemen. Qat-chewing is a common daily activity in Yemen, especially among men.
Abu Bakr al-Qirbi		Long-serving Yemeni Foreign Minister.
Republic of Yemen	ROY	Official name of modern Yemeni state established in 1990.
Sada al-Malahim		Translated as " <i>Echo of Battles</i> ," regular journal published by al- Qaida in Yemen beginning in 2008.
Salafi		Sunni Islamic extremist movement/ideology that maintains a strict adherence to the teachings outlined in the Quran and Sunnah.
Ali Abdullah Saleh		President of the Republic of Yemen since 1978.
Col. Ahmed Saleh		Son of President Saleh, believed to be frontrunner to succeed his father as president. Commander of Republican Guard and special forces units.
Abdullah as-Sallal		Leader of republican faction in North Yemen Civil War. Supported by 75,000 Egyptian troops.
Al-Shabaab		Somali extremist group pledging to support AQAP by sending fighters across Gulf of Aden.
Shabab al-Muminin	SAM	Translated as "Youthful Believers," Houthi-led rebel group engaged in Sa'dah conflict against Yemeni and Saudi security forces and tribes.
South Yemen		Informal title of People's Democratic Republic of Yemen, 1967- 1990. Absorbed by North Yemen in 1990 to form Republic of Yemen.

TERM	ACRONYM	DEFINITION
Southern Movement		Vaguely-defined umbrella group of disgruntled political and military figures from former PDRY. Originally took shape in 2007 to demand equal rights for southerners; has since shifted to demanding independence for south Yemen.
SS Limburg		French crude oil tanker attacked by al-Qaida in Aden Harbor in October 2002, killing one crewmember.
Treaty of Da'an		1911 treaty between Imam Yahya and Ottoman Empire granting the former personal rule over much of Upper Yemen. Precursor to Yahya's creation of the independent Mutawakkilite Kingdom of Yemen.
Upper Yemen		Geographic term used generally to describe arid highlands of northwestern Yemen.
ʻurf qabalî		Tribal customary laws and traditions.
USS Cole		U.S. Navy destroyer attacked by al-Qaida in Aden Harbor in October 2000, killing 17 sailors.
USS The Sullivans		U.S. Navy destroyer unsuccessfully attacked by al-Qaida in Aden Harbor in January 2000.
Nasir al-Wahayshi		Former Osama bin Laden deputy. AQAP regional commander as group's presence in southern and eastern Yemen grew 2009-10.
West Aden Protectorate	WAP	British administrative territory from 1917 to 1963 encompassing much of Lower Yemen. Originally part of Aden Protectorate. Renamed "Federation of South Arabia" upon merger with Aden Colony in 1963.
Yemen Arab Republic	YAR	Official title of North Yemen state from 1970 to 1990. Replaced Mutawakkilite Kingdom of Yemen, and succeeded by Republic of Yemen after absorbing South Yemen in 1990.
Yemen Civil War		Brief 1994 civil war between northern-based Yemeni regime and southern secessionism movement, won by regime. Deepened north-south divisions within country.
Yemen Liquefied Natural Gas Company	YLNG	Project led by France's Total energy company to extract, transport and export liquefied natural gas from Yemen. Expected to offset in part Yemen's declining oil production.
Yemen Parliamentarians Against Corruption	YemenPAC	A formal Yemeni parliamentary coalition that works to eliminate corruption in Yemeni government processes.

TERM	ACRONYM	DEFINITION
Yemeni Socialist Party	YSP	Yemeni political opposition party, and former ruling party in South Yemen before unification in 1990.
Zaydis		Shia sect dominant in Upper Yemen. North Yemen was ruled by Zaydis from 1918 to 1962. Forms around 40 percent of Yemen's overall population.

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