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Abstract	Although "constraint" is generally not the first word that comes to mind when one is analyzing the behavior of President Donald Trump, this chapter presents the contrarian view of a president enjoying far less freedom of maneuver than he is often perceived to possess. The constraints discussed herein are of two sorts. One constraint can said to be exogenous to the president, and the other endogenous. Each, albeit in different ways, affects both the manner in which Trump approaches his responsibilities (as he takes these to be) and the way in which others interpret his decision-making; together, the dual constraints act to shed light on the rudiments of the president's "operational code" (or worldview), especially insofar as it concerns America's relations with allies.
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America's Surprisingly “Constrained” Presidency: Implications for Transatlantic Relations

David G. Haglund

INTRODUCTION

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1 If ever there was a truism regarding the 44 individuals who have occupied
2 the American presidency since the inception of the republic, it would
3 appear to be that the current one, the 45th president, is such a special
4 case that he really *has* to be considered *sui generis*.¹ There has never
5 been anyone quite like him sitting in the highest office in the land, so

[AQ1]

¹See Arthur Paulson, *Donald Trump and the Prospect for American Democracy: An Unprecedented President in an Age of Polarization* (Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield, 2018). Although there have been 45 administrations, an enumerative oddity results in there having been only 44 actual human beings presiding over these administrations. This relates to the manner in which Grover Cleveland's time in power is assessed. Because he served two *discontinuous* terms—elected in 1884, failing to be reelected in 1888, and regaining the White House in 1892—his reign is counted as two separate administrations, thus he is both America's 22nd president and its 24th. In contrast, Franklin D. Roosevelt, who was elected *four* consecutive times from 1932 through 1944, is counted as only one president, the country's 32nd.

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1



6 the consensus view maintains. This is so, whether one believes that Donald
7 J. Trump has been doing a wonderful job or an atrocious one. His
8 admirers and critics alike agree that this polarizing president has been cut
9 from a decidedly different bolt of cloth than any predecessor, no matter
10 from which party.² What admirers like to stress, namely, Trump's willing-
11 ness to shatter taboos and venture where no others have dared to go, his
12 detractors chalk up to his simply being out of control.³ In either case, this
13 president is regarded to be free of the constraints that normally encum-
14 ber the ability of a chief executive to translate every policy whim into a
15 political outcome.

16 In this chapter, I am going to take a skeptical stance regarding the
17 image of Trump unchained (some say, unhinged). In doing so I will
18 invoke two sets of constraints—one derived from analytical categories
19 derivative of the broad sweep of US foreign policy, the other dating from
20 the decade of the 1980s. What I will *not* be addressing are two very
21 recent, and *constitutional*, constraints upon the Trump presidency. Those
22 two recent constraining developments reflect the reality that America's
23 political system of checks and balances continues, despite many alarms to
24 the contrary, to function.⁴ The first was the Democrats' capture of the
25 House of Representatives in the midterm election of November 2018.
26 Then, the following April, came the appearance of the long-awaited (if
27 heavily edited, or to use the current term of art, "redacted") report
28 produced by special counsel Robert S. Mueller III, probing allegations

²For assessments, pro and con, see Victor Davis Hanson, *The Case for Trump* (New York: Basic Books, 2019); Bob Woodward, *Fear: Trump in the White House* (New York: Simon & Schuster, 2018).

³This latter, best exemplified in Michael Wolff, *Fire and Fury: Inside the Trump White House* (New York: Henry Holt, 2018).

⁴Regarding those checks and balances, the locus classicus is Edward S. Corwin, *The President: Office and Powers*, 4th rev. ed. (New York: New York University Press, 1957). Corwin is remembered especially for observing that when it came to matters of foreign policy, the Constitution offered the executive and legislative branches of government a "permanent invitation to struggle." Others have lately been arguing that the "struggle" has been increasingly a one-sided contest, favoring the executive; see, for example, Barbara Hinckley, *Less Than Meets the Eye: Foreign Policy Making and the Myth of the Assertive Congress* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1994); Douglas L. Kriner, *After the Rubicon: Congress, Presidents, and the Politics of Waging War* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 2010); and Walter A. McDougall, *The Tragedy of U.S. Foreign Policy: How America's Civil Religion Betrayed the National Interest* (New Haven: Yale University Press, 2016).

29 whether the Trump campaign had colluded with Russian operatives to
30 influence the outcome of the 2016 presidential ballot.⁵

31 Important as these are, they are not the sort of constraints upon which
32 I concentrate in this chapter. Instead, I will restrict my focus to a pair of
33 *extra-constitutional* sources of constraint upon the presidency of Donald
34 Trump, and to demonstrate how each of these can be said to have had a
35 bearing upon American foreign policy over the past few years, with a par-
36 ticular focus upon the country's relationship with its transatlantic allies.
37 One constraint might be said to be exogenous to the president, and the
38 other endogenous. Each, albeit in different ways, affects both the man-
39 ner in which Trump approaches his responsibilities (as he takes these to
40 be) and the way in which others interpret his decision-making; together,
41 the dual constraints act to shed light on the rudiments of the presiden-
42 t's "operational code" (or worldview).⁶ The section immediately below
43 examines the constraint that I characterize as "exogenous." Let us see
44 what it entails.

45 PARADIGM CONSTRAINT: 46 THE GEOPOLITICAL SIGNIFICANCE OF EPONYM

47 The category of exogenous constraint employed in this section of the
48 chapter draws its inspiration from notions regarding "ideal types," first
49 introduced by the German sociologist, Max Weber, as a means of assist-
50 ing investigators in carrying out their task of characterizing and assessing
51 social phenomena. As Weber employed them, ideal types owed their exist-
52 tence to the need for scholars to be able to synthesize meaning out of

⁵While the Mueller report ultimately found that the Trump campaign had not col-
luded with Russian state figures to influence the election, the president's own reac-
tion upon learning in May 2017 that Mueller had been appointed to lead the inves-
tigation into the collusion allegations spoke volumes about his own perception of
the tenuousness of his situation. Upon discovering from his then attorney general,
Jeff Sessions, of Mueller's appointment at a meeting in the Oval Office, Trump
responded dejectedly, "Oh my God. This is terrible. This is the end of my presi-
dency. I'm fucked." Quoted in Peter Baker and Maggie Haberman, "A Portrait
of the White House and Its Culture of Dishonesty," *New York Times*, April 18,
2019, https://www.nytimes.com/2019/04/18/us/politics/white-house-mueller-report.html?emc=edit_th_190419&nl=todaysheadlines&nliid=621718380419.

⁶On this concept, see Alexander L. George, "The 'Operational Code': A Neglected
Approach to the Study of Political Leaders and Decision-Making," *International Studies
Quarterly* 13 (June 1969): 190-222.

53 a universe of discrete, variegated, and confusing phenomena; they would
54 serve as indispensable templates for advancing knowledge.⁷ In the study
55 of American foreign policy, ideal types have often had a presence, even if
56 at times more of an unspoken than a spoken one. During the closing years
57 of the Cold War, for instance, John Lewis Gaddis betrayed inspiration of
58 a Weberian origin when distinguishing between what he held to be the
59 two chief scholarly approaches to the study of US foreign policy, called by
60 him (borrowing his rubrics from J. H. Hexter), “lumpers” and “splitters.”
61 The former camp consisted of synthesizers for whom ideal types, whether
62 so named or not, constituted an essential component of their methodol-
63 ogy; the latter represented a body of analytical investigators smitten with
64 the charms of rampant disaggregation.⁸

65 Another, more recent, Weberian is Walter Russell Mead, who has pro-
66 vided an extremely useful, even if far from perfect, metaphorical typology
67 of America’s foreign policy, in a book that can be taken as representing
68 the “lumper” approach on steroids—save that this time, it is the *deci-*
69 *sionmakers* rather than the scholarly and policy analysts who are situated
70 within constructs that illuminate the boundary conditions within which
71 they operate. Writing at the start of the twenty-first century, Mead invited
72 his readers, both abroad and at home, to rethink what they believed they
73 knew about US foreign policy, going back to the very dawn of the coun-
74 try’s independent existence. To both American and European observers,
75 Mead delivered a stern reminder: you do not know as much as you think
76 you know. He bade them to realize that America’s foreign policy drew
77 from a long established legacy of policy experience, and sometimes wis-
78 dom, such that it was simply wrong to imagine that *nothing* from the pre-
79 Second World War decades could possibly provide foreign policy guidance
80 for an America suddenly assuming the role of superpower.

81 To the contrary, Mead reached back to the past to produce four ideal
82 types (he called these “paradigms”) that, over the long sweep of Ameri-
83 can history, have formed the basis of the country’s strategic culture, either
84 on their own or in combination with another paradigm. At various times,
85 and in differing circumstances, these were each to provide effective guid-
86 ance for the national interest. There have been four, and only four, such

⁷ Max Weber, *The Methodology of the Social Sciences*, ed. and trans. Edward A. Shils and Henry A. Finch (New York: Free Press, 1949).

⁸ John Lewis Gaddis, *Strategies of Containment: A Critical Appraisal of Postwar American National Security Policy* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1982), pp. vii–viii.

87 paradigms, each represented eponymously. In no particular chronologi-
88 cal order, these four eponyms are the Hamiltonians, Wilsonians, Jeffer-
89 sonians, and Jacksonians. Each is associated by Mead with a particularly
90 distinctive foreign policy dispensation. Thus, for the Hamiltonians, mea-
91 sures that seek to promote the country's economic interests in accordance
92 with reliance upon international law, all in close association with Great
93 Britain, represent the epitome of sound policy. By contrast, the Wilsoni-
94 ans prioritize the promotion not of commercial but of political values, in
95 particular those associated with liberal democracy, and while the fostering
96 of their agenda need not preclude close cooperation with Great Britain
97 on a bilateral basis, the Wilsonian preference is to "multilateralize" and
98 institutionalize world order. Jeffersonians are, like Wilsonians, also acutely
99 focused upon defending liberal democracy, but they believe—quite unlike
100 the Wilsonians—that too ambitious a foreign policy, even and especially
101 one dedicated to promoting the spread of liberal democracy, can result in
102 the loss of democratic liberty at home. For this reason, Mead likens the
103 Jeffersonians to American "Stalinists" in that they believe in revolution
104 in one country only, whereas the Wilsonians are American "Trotskyites,"
105 convinced that unless liberal democracy can be spread far and wide, it will
106 end up getting extinguished at home.⁹

107 The final, and in some ways the most interesting, ideal type is repre-
108 sented by the Jacksonians. This group is said to be most enamored and
109 expressive of the political values of nationalism, augmented by a prefer-
110 ence, when intervention abroad is needed to defend legitimate security
111 interests, for the robust use of force. It is easy to see why Donald Trump
112 so often chooses to portray his foreign policy as coming straight out of a
113 Jacksonian playbook, and thus to be founded upon, and *bounded within*,
114 an established paradigm that serves both to guide and to constrain policy.
115 He calls himself unabashedly a nationalist, is highly suspicious of multilat-
116 eralism, even when it takes the form of a military alliance, and for good
117 measure he has core supporters—his celebrated "base"—said to reside in
118 the Jacksonian heartland of America, the part of the United States often
119 dismissed by coastal elites as "flyover" country, populated by the great

⁹Walter Russell Mead, *Special Providence: American Foreign Policy and How It Changed the World* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 2001), p. 181.

120 rural unwashed.¹⁰ If that were not enough, he hangs a portrait of Jack-
 121 son on conspicuous display in the Oval Office, using it as often as he can
 122 as backdrop to visual images showing him hard at work, and somehow
 123 guided by the reassuringly restraining hand of the 7th president.

124 Despite this not-so-subtle attempt to market his presidency as the sec-
 125 ond coming of Andrew Jackson's—and hence not at all the frightful policy
 126 salmagundi of his critics' imaginings—there are obviously certain Jackso-
 127 nian vestiges that can only correspond poorly with the Trump brand of
 128 policymaking. So important are these vestiges that they should give us
 129 reason to dismiss outright the relevance of this Weberian ideal type when
 130 it comes to understanding current American policy. The president's base
 131 might be Jacksonian; he himself is not. In fact, shocking if not scandalous
 132 as the analogy might appear to some, you could say that in certain salient
 133 respects, Donald Trump has more in common with America's 28th presi-
 134 dent, Woodrow Wilson, than with its 7th, Jackson. For starters, there
 135 is the matter of military service. Andrew Jackson was a military hero
 136 before he was anything else, and it was only because of his victory at
 137 the Battle of New Orleans that he became elevated to cult figure in early
 138 nineteenth-century America, and eventually a viable political candidate on
 139 the national stage.¹¹ Donald Trump, in contrast, is well known for having
 140 managed (and he was far from being alone in this) to avoid serving in the
 141 Vietnam War, his generation's equivalent to Jackson's War of 1812.¹²

142 Not only this, but he earned for himself a mountain of notoriety in
 143 mid-July 2015 by mocking someone who genuinely *was* a war hero and
 144 who was, in many ways, a Jacksonian icon. The target of scorn was, of

¹⁰On the Trump base, see Walter Russell Mead, “The Jacksonian Revolt: American Populism and the Liberal World Order,” *Foreign Affairs* 96 (March/April 2017): 2–7; J. D. Vance, *Hillbilly Elegy: A Memoir of a Family and Culture in Crisis* (New York: HarperCollins, 2016).

¹¹See John William Ward, *Andrew Jackson: Symbol for an Age* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1955); David S. Heidler and Jeanne T. Heidler, *The Rise of Andrew Jackson: Myth, Manipulation, and the Making of Modern Politics* (New York: Basic Books, 2018).

¹²Although some of Trump's harshest critics like to consider him a “draft-dodger,” he managed quite legally to avoid being sent to Vietnam, initially by availing himself of a student deferment from conscription (the famous “2-S” category) and upon its expiry, apparently managing to secure a “1-Y” medical assessment from his draft board, because of bone spurs in the heel of one foot. This condition, while exempting him from conscription for overseas service, would have placed him in a call-up category should, for instance, the Viet Cong have stormed the beaches of Long Island.

145 course, Senator John McCain, whose imprisonment and torture at the
146 hands of his North Vietnamese captors discommended him in the eyes of
147 then-candidate Trump, who professed not to regard POWs as heroes!¹³
148 This is why some observers have been wont to conclude that to the extent
149 the 45th president could be labeled "Jacksonian" because of any character
150 traits he might possess, it has more to do with his resemblance to the
151 personal quirkiness of fellow entertainer *Michael* Jackson than any of the
152 steadfast martial qualities of his distant predecessor in the executive office,
153 Andrew Jackson.

154 But to remark that Trump may bear less resemblance to Andrew Jack-
155 son than he and others like to pretend is not necessarily to establish that
156 Mead's Wilsonian ideal type makes a better fit for the current chief exec-
157 utive. Indeed, many who regard with a certain fondness America's 28th
158 president would be very puzzled, if they were not so outraged, by the
159 mere hint that Trump and Wilson could have *anything* in common, given
160 that the latter is usually associated with "liberal internationalism" and the
161 former with its diametric opposite of "illiberal nationalism," to such an
162 extent that he can routinely be taken to be the "anti-Wilsonian."¹⁴

163 **Trump as "Wilsonian"?** How do I dare, in this section, to suggest the
164 relevance of a Wilsonian motif, and how might this be considered helpful
165 in understanding the current crisis in transatlantic relations? There are a
166 pair of personal qualities that suggest a basis for comparability between
167 the 28th and 45th presidents, but they do not necessarily have any dis-
168 cernible bearing upon transatlantic security relations, so they will only be
169 mentioned here in passing. One of these personal qualities concerns the
170 issue of racism. Whether or not Donald Trump *is* the "racist" many of
171 his harshest critics insist he must be, there can be no question that no
172 other president besides Woodrow Wilson has *ever*, in the past century,
173 been caught up in discussions of racism to anything like the extent of
174 Donald Trump. He may not be the racist Wilson is widely considered to

¹³According to Trump, the only reason McCain was considered by some war hero is because he was captured; but as far as he himself was concerned, McCain "is not a war hero.... I like people who weren't captured." See "Donald Trump: John McCain 'Is a War Hero Because He Was Captured'," *Chicago Tribune*, July 18, 2015, <https://www.chicagotribune.com/news/nationworld/ct-donald-trump-john-mccain-20150718-story.html>.

¹⁴Steven Metz, "How Trump's Anti-Wilsonian Streak May Revolutionize U.S. Strategy," *World Politics Review*, April 21, 2017, <https://www.worldpoliticsreview.com/articles/21914/how-trump-s-anti-wilsonian-streak-may-revolutionize-u-s-strategy>.

175 have been, but he certainly has a knack for making many people think he
176 is.¹⁵

177 Yet another Wilson comparison, similarly unflattering to either pres-
178 ident, comes easily to mind. In the case of each leader, critics have not
179 been shy to highlight what are to be taken to be defects of personality that
180 can render their decision-making less “rational” than would normally be
181 desired or assumed in a president. As with the issue of racism, so too is it
182 with that of postulated psychological dysfunctionality. Wilson was seen by
183 critics as being, among other things, possessed of a God-given conviction
184 that he and only he could set the world to rights, once he opted to take
185 America into the First World War in 1917.¹⁶ For his part, Trump is often
186 adjudged to be suffering from some psychological affliction(s) primarily

¹⁵ Wilson has longtime been considered by many scholars to have been the most frankly representative example of a racist president since before the Civil War. See Kathleen L. Wolgemuth, “Woodrow Wilson and Federal Segregation,” *Journal of Negro History* 44 (April 1959): 158–173; Nancy J. Weiss, “The Negro and the New Freedom: Fighting Wilsonian Segregation,” *Political Science Quarterly* 84 (March 1969): 61–79; Morton Sosna, “The South in the Saddle: Racial Politics During the Wilson Years,” *Wisconsin Magazine of History* 54 (Autumn 1970): 30–49; and Richard M. Abrams, “Woodrow Wilson and the Southern Congressmen, 1913–1916,” *Journal of Southern History* 22 (November 1956): 417–437.

¹⁶ See for this psychoanalytical critique, Sigmund Freud and William C. Bullitt, *Thomas Woodrow Wilson, Twenty-Eighth President of the United States: A Psychological Study* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1967), as well as the somewhat less vitriolic but still harsh assessments of Alexander L. George and Juliette L. George, *Woodrow Wilson and Colonel House: A Personality Study* (New York: John Day, 1956); and Bernard Brodie, “A Psychoanalytic Interpretation of Woodrow Wilson,” *World Politics* 9 (April 1957): 413–422. Other writers have located what they took to be the problem not in Wilson’s psychological condition but in his neurological one; for examples, see Edwin A. Weinstein, “Woodrow Wilson’s Neurological Illness,” *Journal of American History* 57 (September 1970): 324–351; as well as Weinstein, James William Anderson, and Arthur S. Link, “Woodrow Wilson’s Political Personality: A Reappraisal,” *Political Science Quarterly* 93 (Winter 1978–1979): 585–598. A judicious summary of the contending camps—the psychoanalytical versus the neurological—is found in Dorothy Ross, “Woodrow Wilson and the Case for Psychohistory,” *Journal of American History* 69 (December 1982): 659–668. Finally, it should not be imagined Wilson has lacked for defenders against the charge that he was wrong in the head, with his most notable defender remarking wryly that for “a mentally unbalanced person, Wilson had a remarkable career. Somehow, he managed to make distinguished contributions to the four separate fields of scholarship, higher education, domestic politics, and diplomacy.” Arthur S. Link, “The Case for Woodrow Wilson,” *Harper’s Magazine* 234 (April 1967): 85–93, quote at p. 93.

187 manifested through narcissistic impulses, though hardly of any God-given
188 provenance, since unlike Wilson, Trump is not much of a church-goer.¹⁷

189 There is a third, and much more relevant, reason for daring to suggest
190 a Wilsonian analogy for Trump, a reason relating more to policy than
191 to personality. Although no one seems to remember this, it is important
192 nonetheless: Woodrow Wilson happened to be the first president to extol
193 publicly the virtues of "America First"—employing those exact words in
194 a June 1916 address in Philadelphia to implore his countrymen to put
195 America *first* in their affections. To the president, America First meant
196 the "duty of every American to exalt the national consciousness by paci-
197 fying his own motives and exhibiting his own devotion."¹⁸ In short, they
198 should forget about their ancestral homelands locked in a struggle in the
199 European civil war that broke out two years earlier, and give all of their
200 affection to their new country, America.

201 Trump's borrowing of America First phraseology is usually thought to
202 draw inspiration not from its earliest, Wilsonian, instantiation, but from
203 its second appearance in foreign policy debates, during the early stage of
204 the Second World War, in the year prior to the Pearl Harbor attack. We
205 regard this second iteration of the catchphrase to have been a recipe for
206 disaster, given how tightly associated have been, in historical memory as
207 well as in fact, the America First Committee, whose star attraction was the
208 aviator Charles A. Lindbergh, and the persistence of America's continued
209 aloofness from the European balance of power until 1941.¹⁹ This is why,
210 each time that Trump intones the two words, they are taken as proof
211 positive that he is an isolationist bent on withdrawing America from the
212 world.

213 Despite their being arrayed on decidedly different ends of the
214 "internationalism-isolationism" continuum, there is one way in which
215 both Wilson and Trump can be considered similar. Neither has had a

¹⁷ Illustratively, see Brandy Lee, et al., *The Dangerous Case of Donald Trump: 27 Psychiatrists and Mental Health Experts Discuss a President* (New York: St. Martin's, 2017).

¹⁸ Quoted in A. Scott Berg, *Wilson* (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 2013), p. 397.

¹⁹ For useful assessments of the impact of America First at the time, see in particular two books by Wayne S. Cole, *America First: The Battle Against Intervention, 1940–1941* (Madison: University of Wisconsin Press, 1953); *Charles A. Lindbergh and the Battle Against American Intervention in World War II* (New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1974). Also see Manfred Jonas, *Isolationism in America, 1935–1941* (Ithaca: Cornell University Press, 1966).

216 very soft spot in his heart for multilateral alliances. Wilson was convinced
 217 that alliances were a leading cause of war in general, and certainly of the
 218 most recent one specifically. What he wanted was hardly to perpetuate the
 219 continuation, after the fighting in Europe ended in 1918, of the de facto
 220 but real wartime alliance between the USA, the UK, and France. Instead,
 221 he wanted to overthrow the age-old balance of power mechanism in its
 222 entirety, replacing it with a novel vision of “collective security” that by its
 223 very nature stood as the negation of collective-defense structures such as
 224 alliances.²⁰ This may not have made him an isolationist; but by the same
 225 token it would be next to impossible to construe him as being a champion
 226 of multilateral alliances.²¹

227 Nor would anyone wish to defend the proposition that Donald Trump
 228 is a big fan of such alliances. This is not the same, however, as saying
 229 that the current president is an isolationist. He may take a dim view of
 230 multilateralism and institutionalism, but there are, to him, other ways for
 231 America to have a continued presence in the world. The principal such
 232 way, for Trump, is bilateralism. To understand his preference for bilater-
 233 alism as well as his thinly disguised disregard for the transatlantic alliance
 234 as a multilateral entity, we need now to turn to the second set of extra-
 235 constitutional constraints upon the president. This is the set of endoge-
 236 nous constraints stemming from the 1980s, Trump’s formative decade.

237 PITKIN NOT WORDSWORTH: THE ONGOING 238 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE 1980S FOR DONALD TRUMP

239 The poet William Wordsworth may have been on to something when
 240 he generalized about the child being father to the man; but in the par-
 241 ticular case of Donald Trump’s operational code, it would be hard to

²⁰ On collective security as the “essence” of Wilsonianism, see John A. Thompson, “Wilsonianism: The Dynamics of a Conflicted Concept,” *International Affairs* 86 (January 2010): 27–47.

²¹ Lloyd E. Ambrosius, “Wilson, the Republicans, and French Security After World War I,” *Journal of American History* 59 (September 1972): 341–352. Wilson agreed, only reluctantly, that the tripartite alliance so desired by France should be incorporated into the Versailles treaty, but when the US Senate failed to ratify the latter, the former also became a dead letter. See Louis A. R. Yates, *The United States and French Security, 1917–1921: A Study in American Diplomatic History* (New York: Twayne, 1957); Walter A. McDougall, *France’s Rhineland Diplomacy, 1914–1924: The Last Bid for a Balance of Power in Europe* (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1978).

242 improve upon a different cultural idiom, Walter Pitkin's one about life
 243 beginning at forty.²² This section on "endogenous" constraint is going to
 244 concentrate upon the 1980s, and to make the claim that in the intellectual
 245 development of Donald Trump, the decade in which he turned forty (in
 246 1986) was to have a powerful impact upon his future attitude toward the
 247 transatlantic alliance. There are two reasons for the enduring constraint
 248 imposed by this particular bit of chronology. The first relates to the publi-
 249 cation of a book that provides a remarkable window into the "diplomatic"
 250 style of the future president. The second is intimately connected with the
 251 debates about a postulated American "decline" that featured so centrally
 252 in foreign policy discussions of the Cold War's last decade. For reasons
 253 related to constraints of my own (space), I concentrate on the first of
 254 these only.²³

255 The book, of course, is the part "autobiography," part extended pep
 256 talk, he co-authored with Tony Schwartz, published to reasonable fanfare
 257 in 1987, under the title, *Trump: The Art of the Deal*.²⁴ It is unclear how
 258 much of the book was actually written by its principal protagonist and
 259 anointed hero; Schwartz would later insist that while most of the sen-
 260 tences were of his own doing, the deeds and thoughts recorded in the
 261 book were Trump's. Sometimes dismissed as a work of self-adulation and
 262 therefore of not much use to serious analysts, the book actually helps us
 263 make sense of how the future president would see the world of diplomacy.
 264 Its pages are replete with various tales of how Trump managed to come
 265 out on top in most of the dramas recounted, almost all involving some
 266 aspect of real-estate transactions in the greater New York area (with one
 267 foray into the world of sport). One chapter stands out: "Trump Cards:
 268 The Elements of the Deal."²⁵ Somewhat less modestly than the famous
 269 Decalogue ghost-written millennia earlier by Moses, the Trump list of

²² Associated with the American psychologist, Walter B. Pitkin, *Life Begins at Forty* (New York: McGraw Hill/Whittlesey House, 1932). William Wordsworth's 1802 poem, *My Heart Leaps Up*, is the source of the line, "the Child is father of the Man."

²³ Readers interested in a sprightly review of the recurring bouts of "declinism" in America should consult Josef Joffe, *The Myth of America's Decline: Politics, Economics, and a Half Century of False Prophecies* (New York: Liveright, 2014).

²⁴ Donald J. Trump, with Tony Schwartz, *Trump: The Art of the Deal* (New York: Ballantine Books, 1987).

²⁵ *Ibid.*, 45–63.

270 commandments actually numbers eleven, and while many of these con-
271 tribute more to befuddlement than to wisdom, there are some precepts
272 that speak volumes about the future foreign policy orientation of Donald
273 Trump, and are well worth pondering.

274 Three especially come to mind, Trump's fifth, eighth, and tenth com-
275 mandments (respectively, "use your leverage," "fight back," and "contain
276 the costs"). The three together can easily be considered generative of a
277 trio of policy implications that, three decades later, would feature so cen-
278 trally in the Trump administration's "dealings" with transatlantic allies.
279 Using one's leverage, in the case of a superpower such as the United
280 States, corresponds closely to a preference for *bilateral* rather than multi-
281 lateral dealings, for in the case of the former, vast disparities in power can
282 reasonably be assumed to yield more favorable outcomes than would be
283 anticipated under multilateralism. In particular, the use of leverage bilat-
284 erally could be expected to result in the kind of "reciprocity" that this
285 president makes no secret about desiring, expressed colloquially in the
286 idea that "if you do me a solid, I will do you one in return." Bilateralism
287 is not, despite what many critics of it believe, the same as unilateralism;
288 much less is it a synonym for isolationism. But by the same token, its
289 more explicit expectations regarding the working of reciprocity does tend
290 to fly in the face of multilateralism's expectation that reciprocity should be
291 "diffuse" rather than direct, with no requirement that tit be compensated
292 by tat in each and every instance.²⁶

293 The eighth Trumpian commandment, to fight back, has also been said
294 to act as a constraint (albeit not a healthy one) on the president's for-
295 eign policy. The argument is that America's relationships with traditional
296 transatlantic allies grow unnecessarily strained because the president sim-
297 ply cannot resist going for the digital jugular in response to real or imag-
298 ined slights coming from fellow leaders in allied countries. Disagreement
299 on policy matters is nothing new, as between leaders of what has been

²⁶Some scholars hold diffuse reciprocity to be one of the three defining characteristics of a multilateral order, with the two other stipulatory elements being indivisibility and nondiscrimination. See Lisa L. Martin, "Interests, Power, and Multilateralism," *International Organization* 46 (Autumn 1992): 765–792; John Gerard Ruggie, "Multilateralism: The Anatomy of an Institution," *International Organization* 46 (Summer 1992): 561–598.

300 termed the "democratic alliance."²⁷ Indeed, the saving grace of this kind
 301 of alliance, it is held, inheres in attackers and "attackees" understanding
 302 the rules of civil disagreement; in short, while they frequently argue, they
 303 also realize that their shared political values and, to some, their collective
 304 identity, minimize the downside risk of their bickering.²⁸

305 One obvious negative consequence that this particular Trumpian tick
 306 from the 1980s has had upon America's relations with its traditional
 307 NATO allies has been to stir up anew the old "anti-American" bogey
 308 that always seems to sleep with one eye open within the confines of the
 309 transatlantic region. On the assumption that America, being so powerful,
 310 can easily afford to brush aside the consequences of annoying allies (often,
 311 many of them feel, gratuitously so) there need be no lasting harm associ-
 312 ated with the current upsurge in anti-Americanism within important parts
 313 of the West, what Julia Zweig labeled, a decade or so ago, "friendly-fire"
 314 anti-Americanism.²⁹ But on this important question of whether Ameri-
 315 can diplomacy suffers due to the unpopularity of the country's president
 316 in many (not all) allied countries, the scholars remain divided, sometimes
 317 divided between what they now think as opposed to what they thought
 318 a decade ago. A case in point is provided by two Dartmouth College IR
 319 specialists, Stephen Brooks and William Wohlforth. Back in 2005, during
 320 the second term of George W. Bush, the pair were skeptical that there
 321 were any real foreign policy costs associated with what was widely taken
 322 to be the administration's "unilateralism." More recently, however these
 323 two scholars have expressed concern that ill treatment of the country's
 324 security partners might render its alliances less of a force-multiplier for it,
 325 especially vis-à-vis China. Even before the election of Donald Trump, they
 326 argued that the "country's military superiority is not going anywhere, nor
 327 is the globe-spanning alliance structure that constitutes the core of the

²⁷The principal source for conceptualizing NATO as the "democratic alliance" par excellence is Thomas Risse-Kappen, *Cooperation Among Democracies: The European Influence on U.S. Foreign Policy* (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1995).

²⁸See Thomas Risse, "'Let's Argue!': Communicative Action in World Politics," *International Organization* 54 (Winter 2000): 1–39.

²⁹Julia E. Zweig, *Friendly Fire: Losing Friends and Making Enemies in the Anti-American Century* (New York: Public Affairs, 2006). Also see, for that era's wave of criticism of American foreign policy, Peter J. Katzenstein and Robert O. Keohane, eds., *Anti-Americanisms in World Politics* (Ithaca: Cornell University Press, 2007).

328 existing liberal international order (unless Washington unwisely decides
329 to throw it away).”³⁰

330 Since the onset of the Trump administration, public opinion globally
331 (insofar as that can reliably be discerned through survey techniques), tes-
332 tifies to a profound souring in respect of American leadership, almost
333 entirely associated with the plummeting favorability ratings of the presi-
334 dent.³¹ Starkly illustrative of the current tarnishing in an American brand
335 dragged down by perceptions of Trump is evidence from polling done
336 in America’s most reliable ally, and traditional “best friend,” Canada. An
337 opinion poll published in early May 2019 sampled Canadians’ relative
338 images of a selected group of countries, including the USA, China, Mex-
339 ico, the UK, France, and Germany. The results were telling, if not sur-
340 prising, such has been the Trump effect north of Canada–US border:
341 higher favorability scores were recorded for the UK (86% rating it “posi-
342 tively”), Germany (82%), France (77%) and even Mexico (65%) than for
343 the United States itself (44%). Fortunately for what remains of the Amer-
344 ican image as a good neighbor, China managed to rack up a more dismal
345 score, of only 23%.³²

346 Then there is the Trumpian tenth commandment: contain the costs.
347 Because of the unstated implication of this injunction to reduce one’s
348 own “skin in the game,” it is not difficult to see how this vestige of 1980s’
349 Trump philosophy can and does have a bearing upon relations with the
350 transatlantic allies. The connection shows up in high relief under the pol-
351 icy rubric of “burden sharing.” Now, Donald Trump did not invent the
352 American grievance over burden sharing within NATO. This is a grievance
353 with a lengthy pedigree, demonstrated by Democratic as well as Repub-
354 lican presidents dating back almost to the very origins of the Atlantic
355 alliance. The first public staging of the burden-sharing drama occurred
356 with NATO’s Lisbon summit in 1952, when the Truman administration

³⁰ Stephen G. Brooks, and William C. Wohlforth, “International Relations Theory and the Case Against Unilateralism,” *Perspectives on Politics* 3 (September 2005): 509–524; and Idem, “The Once and Future Superpower: Why China Won’t Overtake the United States,” *Foreign Affairs* 95 (May/June 2016): 91–104, quote at p. 91.

³¹ For one such assessment, see Richard Wike et al., “Trump’s International Ratings Remain Low, Especially Among Key Allies,” Pew Research Center, October 2018.

³² The survey was conducted by pollster Nik Nanos in the last week of April 2019; see Michelle Zilio, “Canadians More Positive About Ties with Europe Than with the U.S., China: Poll,” *Globe and Mail* (Toronto), May 3, 2019: A6.

357 called on the allies to so step up their contributions to the conventional
358 defenses of the alliance as to be able, within the span of two years, to
359 field 98 divisions and 7000 combat aircraft for the European theater!³³
360 Needless to say, the allies showed themselves incapable of meeting this
361 ambitious conventional-force goal. Withal, the alliance survived, in the
362 short run thanks to a decision by the Eisenhower administration to priori-
363 tize nuclear rather conventional deterrence with its "New Look" strategy,
364 and in the long run because of the fortuitous ending of the Cold War,
365 followed by the demise of the Soviet Union itself.³⁴

366 But while the stage props might have been shifted around, the drama
367 continued with a new cast reading from a familiar script. NATO's halting
368 assumption of security obligations outside of its traditional "area," start-
369 ing in the Balkans in the 1990s and continuing in the Middle East in
370 the early twenty-first century, witnessed a revival of the traditional refrain,
371 whereby American presidents, no matter their names, implored allies to
372 do more, with the metric for assessing "more" typically being the percent-
373 age of GDP allocated to their respective defense budgets. In the event, 2%
374 has come to be the magic figure that attests to an ally's doing "enough"
375 to carry its share of the burden, but it has not been a metric that flatters
376 most alliance members. Americans do not fail to notice this.

377 CONCLUSION

378 Prior to Donald Trump, presidential finger-wagging was just that; few
379 "underspenders" (i.e., the majority of the membership) really sensed there
380 to be any real danger in their choosing to allocate public finances to other
381 budgetary envelopes. But Trump has injected a new element in their cal-
382 culations, predicated upon their worry that perhaps he means it when he
383 warns that unless they spend more, the United States itself might decamp
384 from NATO. Although no ally has ever seriously entertained the option of
385 invoking article 13 of the Washington treaty and leaving the alliance—not
386 even France in 1966, when Charles de Gaulle kicked the alliance's head-
387 quarters out of the country and pulled France's forces out of NATO's
388 integrated command structures—with Donald Trump there is a lurking

³³ Luca Ratti, *A Not-So-Special Relationship: The US, the UK and German Unification, 1945–1990* (Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press, 2017), p. 52.

³⁴ See David N. Schwartz, *NATO's Nuclear Dilemmas* (Washington: Brookings Institution, 1983).

389 suspicion that America's commitment to the alliance it created can no
390 longer be taken for granted.³⁵

391 This is what "transactionalism" has meant, to date, for the transatlantic
392 alliance. How should the allies respond to the Trump phenomenon? First,
393 they should realize that America under its current president almost certainly
394 will not exercise article 13 and decamp; nevertheless, they should
395 use the slight risk of this happening as a means of "goading" themselves
396 to act more coherently and credibly in the realm of European security.
397 Second, they should refrain from lecturing this administration about the
398 perils of straying from the path of multilateral cooperation, and abandoning
399 the liberal-democratic international order that many European leaders
400 never tire of repeating, was built and nourished by America itself. The
401 Trump team realizes how much of the heavy lifting America has done over
402 the decades—and that is the problem, given how this transactional president
403 senses that the lifting has been inadequately compensated. Third,
404 the European allies should stimulate their *own* transactional juices, availing
405 themselves of bilateral opportunities to work toward a common aim,
406 somewhat along the lines of the reasonably successful cooperation France
407 and the United States have effected in combatting terrorism in western
408 Africa and elsewhere.³⁶ Finally, they should remember that nothing lasts
409 forever, and in the context of American presidencies, another election is
410 always just around the corner.

411 After all, the United States and other allies managed to put up tolerably
412 well with Charles de Gaulle, and he was in power for the first ten
413 years of the Fifth Republic's existence. Europe should be able to wait out
414 the American Gaullist currently sitting in the White House, whether for
415 another year or another five years. However, even were this president to
416 fail in his re-election bid in November 2020, no one should ever imagine
417 that a Democratic administration would automatically choose a return to

³⁵ Article 13 of NATO's founding treaty stipulates that "[a]fter the Treaty has been in force for twenty years [viz., after 1969], any Party may cease to be a Party one year after its notice of denunciation has been given to the Government of the United States of America, which will inform the Governments of the other Parties of the deposit of each notice of denunciation." "The North Atlantic Treaty," in *The NATO Handbook: 50th Anniversary Edition* (Brussels: NATO Office of Information and Press, 1998), p. 399.

³⁶ As is argued by David G. Haglund and Maud Quessard-Salvaing, "How the West Was One: France, America, and the 'Huntingtonian Reversal,'" *Orbis* 62 (Fall 2018): 557–581.

418 multilateralism as the preferred default setting for its "grand strategy."³⁷
419 Whether it is Donald Trump in the White House or not, a certain element
420 of "transactionalism" can be guaranteed to continue to inflect America's
421 relationship with its transatlantic allies in new and challenging ways.

422 Nevertheless, China's ballyhooed "rise" of recent years may turn out
423 to provide a tonic for US-European ties, strange as the thought might
424 otherwise seem on first encounter. This is because of two trends. The
425 first is that, in the United States, China is one of the few issues in foreign
426 policy (it may be the only one) capable of engendering a semblance of
427 bipartisanship. Loathed as this president may be by his Democratic adver-
428 saries, his policy of "getting tough" with China is one that elicits their
429 approval.

430 And this gets us to the second trend, which concerns the impact Chi-
431 na's growing power (and appetite for geopolitical influence) might have
432 upon European members of the alliance in coming years. It used to be
433 argued by some European policy intellectuals that, unlike the United
434 States, "Europe doesn't do China."³⁸ Recently, however, there is evidence
435 that Europeans themselves are growing aware that if they do not "do"
436 China, then China will "do" them. And if this does not have to imply
437 Europe's joining together with America in a new cold war intended to
438 contain China's growing power, it does at least suggest that Washington,
439 even under a re-elected Donald Trump, might continue to place value
440 in having allies. Thus, ironically, China might contribute to frustrating
441 the anti-alliance "Wilsonianism" of Donald Trump (or any successor) by
442 making it obvious to Americans that allies can be useful to have.³⁹

³⁷ See Rebecca Friedman Lissner and Mira Rapp-Hooper, "The Day After Trump: American Strategy for a New International Order," *Washington Quarterly* 41 (Spring 2018): 7–25.

³⁸ Alex Danchev, "Shared Values in the Transatlantic Relationship," *British Journal of Politics and International Relations* 7 (August 2005): 429–436, quote on p. 433.

³⁹ See the "transactionalist" assessment of John J. Mearsheimer, "Bound to Fail: The Rise and Fall of the Liberal International Order," *International Security* 43 (Spring 2019): 7–50, quoting from pp. 48–49: "Most of the countries in Europe, especially the major powers, are likely to become part of the U.S.-led bounded order, although they are unlikely to play a serious military role in containing China. They do not have the capability to project substantial military power into East Asia, and they have little reason to acquire it, because China does not directly threaten Europe, and because it makes more sense for Europe to pass the buck to the United States and its Asian allies. U.S. policymakers, however, will want the Europeans inside their bounded order for strategically related economic reasons. In particular, the United States will want to keep European countries

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from selling dual-use technologies to China and to help put economic pressure on Beijing when necessary. In return, U.S. military forces will remain in Europe, keeping NATO alive and continuing to serve as the pacifier in that region. Given that virtually every European leader would like to see that happen, the threat of leaving should give the United States significant leverage in getting the Europeans to cooperate on the economic front against China.”

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Chapter 2

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