

OCTOBER 2025

FOREIGN AREA OFFICER

A PROFESSIONAL BULLETIN FOR ARMY FAOS



HORIZONS

THE ACADEMIC JOURNAL OF THE ARMY FOREIGN AREA OFFICER ASSOCIATION

CONTENTS

Strategic Discussions

Army FAO Association Officers
President
Wes Chaney, 48J
Vice President
Matthew Kopp, 48J
Secretary
Vacant
Treasurer
Tim Brooks, 48G

Non-disclosure statement
Everything advertised in this publication must be made available for purchase, use, or patronage, without regard to the race, creed, color, sex, age, or national origin of the purchases, user or patron.

Copyright notice: all materials submitted to the *Horizons* become the property of the *Horizons* journal. The author/photographer assigns all rights, including subsidiary rights, for the material. This includes rights to make or authorize reprints, to republish the material in other AFAOA publications, and to grant the materials to others without charge for reproduction, all with appropriate credit to the submitter. The *Horizons*, in return, grants the submitter the right of republication after original publication in the *Horizons*, subject only to his giving proper credit to *Horizons*. Reproduction, in whole or part, of this publication, without the expressed or written consent of the Army Foreign Area Officer Association is expressly prohibited. Views expressed by advertisers and/or contributors are not necessarily those of the Army Foreign Area Officer Association or this journal's editorial staff or the Department of War.

Trademark: *Horizons* published by the Army Foreign Area Officer Association is protected by a registered trademark.

For advertising information, contact AFAOA by email at armyfaoassociation@gmail.com

Foreign Area Officer Discussions

Writing from the Horizon: The Strategic Imperative of FAO Scholarship in Shaping Army Decisions
by COL Matt Kopp, 48J
page 6

Overcoming FAO Traps
by LTC Wes Chaney, 48J
page 12

Vietnam Combat and the Importance of Trust
by COL(R) John Haseman, 48P page 24

In-Region Training Discussions

Fixing IRT Without Leaving the Embassy
by MAJ Calvin Price, 48B
page 87

The RAND Security Cooperation Prioritization and Propensity Matching Tool: Background, Assessment, and Applications
by MAJ Matthew Hughes, 48B page 34

China's Atlantic Gambit: Power Projection Beyond the Indo-Pacific Through Strategic Deception
by COL Mike Gacheru, 48J page 46

An Analysis of the United States – Thailand Defense Alliance
by LTC Pete Roongsang, 48P page 61

U.S. Attempts to Deter Assad from Using Chemical Weapons: Misperception in Action
by Jeff Jager, USA Retired, Page 75

U.S. Attempts to Deter Assad from Using Chemical Weapons: Misperception in Action

LTC Jeff Jager, US Army Retired

On 21 August 2013, the regime of Syrian President Bashar Al Assad used chemical weapons (CW) to attack the rebel stronghold of Ghouta,[1] killing 1,429 civilians[2] and initiating a crisis with the United States (U.S.) that seemed destined to lead to U.S. military strikes.[3] Russia brokered a diplomatic deal by 9 September, in which Syria promised to give up its CW to avoid U.S. intervention. This averted those strikes. US President Barack Obama, who had appeared set on military action,[4] decided not to use military force. Not enforcing the “red line”[5] he established against CW use cost Obama dearly in terms of credibility and reduced America’s global influence.[6] While Obama[7] and other revisionists[8] cast the U.S. threat of force as deterring Assad, Assad neither gave up his CW stockpile[9] nor stopped using CW. Why did the U.S. not use military force against Syria in the fall of 2013? The answer, at least partially, derives from the concept of misperception in international relations, most influentially described by Robert Jervis.[10] Most clearly, Obama misperceived international norms against CW use and misperceived the value of his established “red line” in deterring Assad.

History of the Crisis

The catastrophic events of 11 September 2001 ushered in a new era of global U.S. interventionism. The U.S. Congress passed an Authorization for Use of Military Force (AUMF) to counter those responsible, which opened a “floodgate of presidential power”[11] that has reverberated across the world since. Evidence of Assad’s massacres of civilians emerged at the beginning of the Arab Spring in 2011.

Despite the immense power to intervene unilaterally authorized by the 2001 AUMF, Obama pursued a Syria policy of, essentially, doing nothing.[12] In August 2011, Obama finally voiced a policy preference for Syria: that Assad step down to create space for negotiations. However, the U.S. took no action to pursue this policy.[13] In October 2011, France, Germany, and the UK submitted a draft proposal to the United Nations (UN) Security Council (SC) condemning Syria’s assault on its own civilians; Russia and China immediately blocked this proposal.[14] In February 2012, the U.S. tried a similar tactic at the UNSC, this time to condemn Syria for its human rights violations; Russia and China also blocked this effort.[15] Five months later, the UK and the U.S. presented a joint proposal against Syrian violence along with a plan to address it, which again Russia and

China intervened top.[16] These represent but a few select Western efforts at the UNSC and elsewhere to address the widening crisis in Syria, all of which failed. They also set the scene for Assad's announcement, in the face of advancing rebel forces on Damascus in late July 2012, that Syria possessed an active CW capability and had the willingness to use it.[17]

On 20 August 2012, Obama gave a defining speech of his presidency, proclaiming that the U.S. had "been very clear to the Assad regime...that a red line for us is we start seeing a whole bunch of chemical weapons moving around or being utilized. That would change my calculus." [18] Obama followed this with equally forceful language in a speech on 3 December 2012, in which he for the first time messaged that Syria would be "held accountable" [19] for CW use. Assad apparently was not listening: 23 December 2012[20] witnessed the first documented use of CW by Syria,[21] the first of many CW attacks, including one on 19 March 2013 in Aleppo[6] and others throughout the spring.[22] On 25 April 2013, the U.S. intelligence community (IC) confirmed that Assad had been responsible for the use of CW. [23] Calls for U.S. action increased with the escalating conventional violence and introduction of CW use in Syria, and Obama's strong rhetoric against it. Still, Obama did not act.

In May 2013, given the lack of action at the UNSC, the UN General Assembly passed a resolution calling for an end

to the violence in Syria.[24] Momentum for a U.S.-led intervention started to pick up in June 2013, with the announcement that the IC had identified several CW attacks attributable to the Syrian regime since 2012.[25] Also in June, Obama replaced two of his senior advisors. Susan Rice assumed duties as his National Security Advisor and the Senate confirmed Samantha Power as the U.S. Ambassador to the UN. Both Powers and Rice had established reputations as liberal interventionists committed to the concept of a responsibility to protect (R2P) based on humanitarian grounds.[26] Obama's first concrete actions to address the catastrophe in Syria, consisting of a decision to provide lethal support to the anti-regime rebels, followed in mid-June 2013.[27]

This decision for U.S. intervention occurred at the same time as UNSC efforts finally started to produce meaningful agreements. On 18 August 2013, the UN team that Syria (and Russia and China at the UNSC) had agreed to allow to enter Syria to investigate claims of CW use arrived, specifically to check claims of CW attacks in Aleppo in April and Idlib in May.[28] This appeared to provide Assad an opportunity to send a message: on 21 August 2013, Syria attacked civilians in Ghouta with CW, [29] killing 1,429.[30]

Obama largely had ignored the conventional violence in Syria and earlier reports of CW use. However,

the Ghouta attack appears to have changed his calculus.[31] Yet, in the first ten days after this despicable act, Obama made no public remarks on Syria's CW use. Administration officials, though, started to indicate that Obama was considering military strikes and that the U.S. would act unilaterally, in line with expanded presidential war-making powers.[32] By 24 August, the IC had reported to Obama that CW rockets fired at Ghouta originated from regime positions and senior administration officials coalesced around a 48-hour air campaign to start on 2 September.[33] On 26 August, Secretary of State John Kerry stated publicly that the Syrian regime had used CW.[34] The hard evidence of CW use by Syria seemed to fulfill Obama's desire for absolute proof of Syrian CW use,[35] a requirement for a president extremely wary of another Iraq.[36] For its part, Syria denied[37] use of CW, blamed the rebels,[38] and watched as the U.S. and UK deployed warships to the Eastern Mediterranean.[39]

The UK again proposed military invention in Syria at the UNSC on 28 August.[40] With Russia and China opposed to intervention[41] and continuously blocking resolutions, the UNSC deadlocked.[42] The U.S. confirmed, on 28 August, that the Syrian regime had used CW in Ghouta.[43] The announcement substantially strengthened evidence that had previously emerged. With strikes appearing imminent, the Speaker of the U.S. House of Representatives, John

Boehner, formally requested that Obama seek an AUMF from Congress, and Obama and Boehner spoke multiple times to consult on the matter.

“this menace must be confronted,”

Momentum for U.S. military intervention began to fade on 30 August, when the UK Parliament rejected Prime Minister Cameron's request for approval for military strikes in Syria.[44] The UK withdrew the warships it had deployed to the Eastern Mediterranean, and U.S. ships replaced them.[45] A senior administration official stated that Obama desired an AUMF and planned not to strike without formal authorization.[46] President Obama dismissed Secretary of Defense Hagel's plans for a strike on Damascus, indicating a shifting perspective.[47] After learning of Cameron's defeat in Parliament, Obama sought out the most anti-interventionist official in his administration, White House Chief of Staff Denis McDonough, to accompany him on a walk. Upon return, Obama informed his staff, to their surprise, that he would seek legislative approval for a Syria strike, with a vote intended for 9 September.[48] The next day, on 31 August, senior White House staff sought the advice of American foreign policy elites about an AUMF, which many advised against.[49] On 31 August, Obama made his first public remarks about Syria's use of CW and his plans for responding.[50] Making the case the “this menace must be confronted,”[51] Obama announced his

decision to take military action against the Assad regime and to seek an AUMF from Congress.[52] The next day, Kerry testified to the Senate Foreign Relations Committee about the Administration's plans and revealed that, in addition to an air campaign, the U.S. intended to deploy ground troops to secure Syria's CW.[53]

Interstate and intrastate negotiations and discussions continued for the next six days, and culminated with a lunch between Obama and Russian President Vladimir Putin on 7 September, during which Putin proposed an alternative to U.S. strikes: that perhaps Syria giving up its CW voluntarily could persuade the U.S. to call off military intervention.[54] Discussions between Kerry and Russian Foreign Minister Sergey Lavrov, who spoke directly on nine separate occasions between 21 August and 7 September,[55] preceded this high-level meeting. On 9 September, Kerry made the Russian proposal public.[56] Seizing on this opportunity, Lavrov made the Russian proposal formal, and Putin publicly claimed responsibility for it.[57] Later that day, Obama requested Congress postpone the AUMF vote,[58] effectively ending the crisis by removing the option of military intervention.

“Hypotheses on Misperception.”[59]

Jervis, in a seminal 1968 article, presented fourteen hypotheses that describe sources of misperception and offers methods to manage risks associated with each.[60] For Jervis, in

international relations a requirement exists for one actor to guess the actions of others, which necessitates the development of mental constructs that can help predict others' intentions. Inaccuracies in these mental constructs lead to misperception regarding the actions and intentions of others.[61] Jervis observed that misperception almost always accompanies armed conflict,[62] making his approach resonate for the 2013 Syria crisis, for which at least four of his hypotheses are relevant.

Firstly, Jervis hypothesized that actors' worldviews and theories shape the way they interpret information; that is, that decision-makers see what they expect to see.[63] The limitations of human cognition result in decision-makers not understanding how their biases impact their perceptions.[64] This is compounded by the ambiguity of information that exists in international relations, which increases an actor's reliance on their worldviews, especially if the actor has a high degree of confidence in their beliefs.[65] To guard against this source of misperception, Jervis suggested that decision-makers be open to new data.[66]

Secondly, Jervis hypothesized that decision-makers are unwilling to change course, as they are too highly committed to conventional wisdom, unwilling to accept new information, [67] and overestimate common interests.[68] Compounding these issues, actors often only have access to ambiguous information, sometimes

contradictory, that permits more than one interpretation, and actors “consciously and explicitly”[69] ignore at least some information.[70] Jervis hypothesized that decision-makers strive for awareness of their biases and accept new information, especially that which opposes their established views, to guard against this source of misperception.[71]

Thirdly, Jervis hypothesized that actors from different backgrounds, cultures, and political environments likely misunderstand the messages they send each other.[72] This source of misperception plays a palpable role in deterrence, as “threats of coercive war can misfire if the state does not understand what the opponent values.”[73] If a decision-maker cannot understand the views of the counterpart the decision-maker desires to deter, the probability of deterring that counterpart decreases.[74]

Fourthly, Jervis hypothesized that decision-makers heavily invested in their chosen course of action, based on the amount of time and effort required to reach a decision, believe in the clarity of their message and that other actors understand it, which they might not, given lack of obvious message clarity. [75] This belief creates a range of issues, especially given the difficulty inherent in decoding an adversary’s true intentions from those the adversary desires others to believe.[76] Jervis’ baseline recommendation to counter sources of misperception applies to this hypothesis and the three others

identified above equally well: because decision-makers cannot overcome fully uncertainties in international relations, decision-makers should develop “policies that will not fail disastrously even if they are based on incorrect assumptions.”[77]

Misperception #1: A Norm Against CW Use?

International legal prohibitions against CW use abound, including the 1899 Hague Convention, the 1925 Geneva Protocol, and 1993 Chemical Weapons Convention (CWC).[78] High awareness of these *de jure* norms exist, and in the lead up to the fall 2013 crisis, Obama pointedly referenced them in his public messaging to Assad,[79] perhaps because Obama believed in them strongly,[80] including in R2P.[81] This “Obama Doctrine of humanitarian intervention”[82] derived from beliefs in universal human rights,[83] which shaped Obama’s view of a just war theory modified to account for current events,[84] consistent with the “American Liberal Tradition”[85] that drove his Administration’s foreign policy decision-making.[86] These *de jure* norms legally bound Syria, given Syria’s status as a party to the Charter of UN, the UN Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, and the Geneva Protocol, all of which prohibit CW use.[87] While Syria only ratified the CWC after the 2013 crisis, these *de jure* international norms dictated that Syria had a responsibility not to use CW.[88]

In fact, though, an international norm against CW use does not exist. Lack of major international response against regimes that have used CW, including Assad's use of CW prior to 2013, Egypt in the 1960s, and Iraq in 1980s,[99] demonstrates that no de facto norm has emerged from these de jure norms.

Russia and China do not accept the concept of R2P, as exemplified by the Syria crisis.[100] The international community, in its lack of a response to Assad's CW use, decided that "the massacre of the Syrian population by the Assad government does not justify international humanitarian intervention."^[101] The U.S.

Administration acknowledged that intervention in Syria in response to Assad's CW use would be illegal under international law,[102] as did the UK, despite its efforts to obfuscate this point in the legal case it presented on the matter.^[103] Most tellingly, Syria's use of CW prior to, during, and after the fall 2013 crisis without facing meaningful consequence shows that no de jure norm against CW use exists.

Obama's world view in this case constrained him into seeing what he desired to see

Obama's misreading of de jure and de facto international norms against CW use provides one of the better of the many examples of misperception in the fall 2013 crisis. As per the first and second of Jervis' hypotheses above, Obama's world view in this case constrained him into seeing what he desired to see, namely, that a set of

rules (including a norm against CW use) shapes international relations. Committed to this theory, Obama was unwilling to accept contradictory information, including that continuously provided by Russia, China, and Syria (along with past CW use gone unpunished) that, if recognized, may have changed his perspectives. His beliefs in common interests and his unwillingness to counter conventional wisdom about de jure norms against CW use translated to a fixation on Syrian CW use as a basis for intervention. Had Obama followed Jervis' advice to acknowledge bias and accept new information, he may have arrived at a more legitimate reason to intervene in Syria.

Misperception #2: A "Red Line" That Wasn't.

In international relations, for a deterrent threat to compel another actor to abandon a certain course of action or choose a different option, the deterrence-seeking state must demand a specific change, threaten a military or other substantial response if the actor-to-be-detected opts not to make this specific change, and communicate the threat at the state-to-state level.^[104] Obama's "red line" against CW use only met the last of these three requirements, and as such was unlikely to succeed.^[105] To compound this issue, as Jervis' third hypothesis above suggests, the different backgrounds, cultures, and political environments of the actors involved amplify the potential for misperception in

deterrence.[106] Unfortunately, Obama's actions never matched his rhetoric against CW use.[107]

While Obama clearly believed his statements that CW use by Syria would change the U.S. approach to the crisis and thus deter Assad,[108] the available evidence suggests Assad remained undeterred. The Obama Doctrine described above may have had a rhetorical flourish, but detecting its meaning proved more difficult to detect,[109] given the “yawning chasm between the administration’s tough talk and its ineffectual actions.”[110] This gap created challenges for U.S. credibility,[111] as Obama’s “centrist, cautious, and compromising”[112] mindset and “aspirational rhetoric” did not deter Assad.[113]

The lack of clarity in Obama’s message to Assad reflects Jervis’ fourth hypothesis above: decision-makers believe in the clarity of their messages to others even when said message clarity does not exist. Obama’s strong belief in international and domestic norms,[114] including the desire for UN or Congressional authority for military intervention, muddied the message Obama attempted to send to Assad. The vagueness of the language Obama used to communicate his deterrent threat created ambiguity about the consequences of CW use. Even though Obama may have intended this ambiguity to control domestic foreign policy discussion,[115] Obama did not understand clearly that outsiders like Assad might consume domestic

messaging differently. If not even Obama’s policy-makers knew where Obama drew his ‘red line,’ how could Syria?[116]

Furthermore, Obama’s belief in U.S. hegemony prevented him from “understanding clearly the larger world.”[117] Part of this misunderstanding derived from the differences in background and values between Obama and Assad. Simply stated, the Assads played by their own rules, not by *de jure* international norms. Assad, like his father before him, subscribed to “Hama rules.”[118] Named after the 1982 massacre of more than 25,000 civilians and the destruction of Hama by Assad’s father, [119] these rules reflect the premise that “the only way to survive was by letting others know that if they violated you in any way, you would make them pay, and pay dearly.”[120] Saddam Hussein’s gassing of the Kurds in 1988[121] provides an example of Hama rules in action, as does Assad’s use of CW against civilians in 2013. With its mix of tribalism and brutal authoritarianism, Hama rules succeed because the strongmen implementing them know when to stop: just before crossing any line that might provoke a response or intervention from the outside.[122] To his detriment, Obama never grasped this basic difference in perspectives and, by not responding to Assad’s use of conventional weapons against civilians or first reports of CW use, may have actually signaled to Assad that the U.S. would not intervene in 2013, just like it did not

intervene in 1982.[123] The 21 August 2013 CW attack in Ghouta, just three days after the UN CW inspectors arrived to Syria,[124] demonstrates Assad’s “record of audaciousness”[125] in pushing the line but not crossing it. Obama’s admirable moral fiber meant that he could not understand that Assad’s morality (or lack thereof) allowed Assad to use CW.[126] With no U.S. response to Assad’s initial use of CW attacks in late 2012, which Assad designed as small scale and hard-to-attribute to test Obama’s “red line,” [127] Assad clearly did not feel deterred.

Assad clearly did not feel deterred.

Obama’s expectation that his deterrence strategy would work was pure misperception. Assad acknowledged this on 22 September 2013, days after Obama took military intervention off the table: “American officials--they say something in the morning and they do the opposite in the evening. You cannot take them at their word, to be frank. We don’t listen to their statements, we don’t care about it, we don’t believe it.”[128]

Conclusion

In the crisis that developed in fall 2013 after Syria blatantly used CW to attack civilians, crossing the “red line” Obama had attempted to establish, several hypotheses proposed by Jervis on misperception in international relations help explain the U.S. decision not to intervene militarily to punish or deter Assad. Most prominently, Obama

misperceived the nature of the international norm against CW use. Due to his belief in the international system and constrained by his world view, Obama focused on the *de jure* nature of this norm, ignoring that *de facto* no such norm actually exists. Separately, Obama misperceived the value of his established “red line” in deterring Assad, a misperception steeped in differences in background, culture, and politics that Jervis argues drives or exacerbates misperception in deterrence situations.[129] These two examples of misperception in the 2013 Syria crisis provide substantial support for several of Jervis’ hypothesis. Learning from this discussion, policy-makers, practitioners, and implementers aware of the basic theory of deterrence and Jervis’ hypotheses on misperception can strive to avoid the mistakes the Obama Administration made in attempting to deter Assad from CW use.

End Notes:

1. Barack Obama, “Remarks by the President in Address to the Nation on Syria,” (remarks, Washington, DC, September 10, 2013), The White House, <https://obamawhitehouse.archives.gov/the-press-office/2013/09/10/remarks-president-address-nation-syria>, accessed February 24, 2018.
2. R. Kim Cragin, “Semi-Proxy Wars and U.S. Counterterrorism Strategy,” *Studies in Conflict and Terrorism* 38, (2015): 311.
3. Charles Tiefer and Kathleen Clark, “Congressional and Presidential War Powers as a Dialogue: Analysis of the Syrian and ISIS Conflicts,” *Cornell International Law Journal* 49, no.689 (2016): 692.
4. Tiefer and Clark, “Congressional and Presidential War Powers as a Dialogue,” 692.

5. Barack Obama, “Remarks by the President to the White House Press Corps,” (remarks, Washington, DC, August 20, 2012), The White House, <https://obamawhitehouse.archives.gov/the-press-office/2012/08/20/remarks-president-white-house-press-corps>, accessed February 24, 2018.

6. Nicholas D. Kristoff, “That Threat Worked,” The New York Times (New York, New York), September 11, 2013, <http://www.nytimes.com/2013/09/12/opi>

7. Leonard Cutler, President Obama’s Counterterrorism Strategy in the War on Terror: An Assessment (US: Palgrave Macmillan, 2017), 2, 153; Max Boot, “Cleaning Up Obama’s Syria Mess,” Commentary, November 2016, 22; Richard Haass, A World in Disarray: American Foreign Policy and the Crisis of the Old Order (New York: Penguin Books, 2018), 167.

8. Jeffrey Goldberg, “The Obama Doctrine,” The Atlantic, April 2016, <https://www.theatlantic.com/magazine/archive/2016/04/the-obama-doctrine/471525/>, accessed February 24, 2018.

9. Daniela Abratt, “U.S. Intervention in Syria: A Legal Responsibility to Protect?,” Denver Law Review 95, no.1 (2017-2018): 65; Briggs, Soderlund, and Najem, Syria, Press Framing, and the Responsibility to Protect , 133;

10. Robert Jervis, “Hypotheses on Misperception,” World Politics 20, no.3 (April 1968): 454-479; Robert Jervis, “Deterrence and Perception,” International Security 7, no.3 (Winter, 1982-1983): 3-30; Robert Jervis, “War and Misperception,” The Journal of Interdisciplinary History 18, no.4 (Spring, 1988): 675-700.

11. Ken Gormley, The President and the Constitution: A Living History (New York: NYU Press, 2016), 593-594.

12. Amos N. Guiora, “Intervention in Libya, Yes; Intervention in Syria, No: Deciphering the Obama Administration,” Case Western Reserve Journal of International Law 44, no. 251 (2011): 269.

13. Haass, A World in Disarray, 163.

14. Abratt, “U.S. Intervention in Syria,” 54.

15. Abratt, “U.S. Intervention in Syria,” 54-55.

16. Abratt, “U.S. Intervention in Syria,” 55.

17. Christopher Phillips, The Battle for Syria: International Rivalry in the New Middle East (New Haven and London: Yale University Press, 2016): 175.

18. Barack Obama, “Remarks by the President to the White House Press Corps.”

19. Barack Obama, “Remarks by the President at the Nunn-Lugar Cooperative Threat Reduction Symposium,” (remarks, Washington, DC, December 3, 2012), The White House, <https://obamawhitehouse.archives.gov/the-press-office/2012/12/03/remarks-president-nunn-lugar-cooperative-threat-reduction-symposium>, accessed February 24, 2018.

20. Phillips, The Battle for Syria, 177.

21. Michelle Bentley, “Strategic Taboos: Chemical Weapons and US Foreign Policy,” International Affairs 90, no.5 (2014): 1036.

22. Phillips, The Battle for Syria, 177.

23. E. Donald Briggs, Walter C. Soderlund, and Tom Pierre Najem, Syria, Press Framing, and the Responsibility to Protect (Waterloo, Canada: Wilfrid Laurier University Press, 2017), 107.

24. Bentley, “Strategic Taboos,” 1036.

25. Abratt, “U.S. Intervention in Syria,” 25.

26. Briggs, Soderlund, and Najem, Syria, Press Framing, and the Responsibility to Protect , 116.

27. Briggs, Soderlund, and Najem, Syria, Press Framing, and the Responsibility to Protect , 116.

28. Phillips, The Battle for Syria, 177.

29. Obama, “Remarks by the President in Address to the Nation on Syria.”

30. Cragin, “Semi-Proxy Wars and U.S. Counterterrorism Strategy,” 311.

31. Bentley, “Strategic taboos,” 1034.

32. Tiefer and Clark, “Congressional and Presidential War Powers as a Dialogue,” 692.

33. Phillips, The Battle for Syria, 179.

34. Phillips, The Battle for Syria, 179.

35. Bentley, “Strategic Taboos,” 1036.

36. Bentley, “Strategic Taboos,” 1036, 1039.

37. Abratt, “U.S. Intervention in Syria,” 25.

38. Abratt, “U.S. Intervention in Syria,” 28.

39. Phillips, The Battle for Syria, 179.

40. Abratt, “U.S. Intervention in Syria,” 28.

41. Donette Murray, “Military Action But Not As We Know It: Libya, Syria and the Making of an Obama Doctrine,” Contemporary Politics 19, no.2 (2013): 153.

42. Phillips, The Battle for Syria, 178.

43. Abratt, "U.S. Intervention in Syria," 25.

44. Bentley, "Strategic Taboos," 1037.

45. Tiefer and Clark, "Congressional and Presidential War Powers as a Dialogue," 693.

46. "Syria crisis: Cameron loses Commons vote on Syria action," BBC News, last modified 30 August 2013, <http://www.bbc.com/news/uk-politics-23892783>, accessed February 24, 2018.

47. Phillips, The Battle for Syria, 178-180.

48. Cutler, President Obama's Counterterrorism Strategy in the War on Terror," 153; 26-phillips, 178

49. Cutler, President Obama's Counterterrorism Strategy in the War on Terror," 154.

50. Phillips, The Battle for Syria, 179.

51. Haass, A World in Disarray, 165.

52. Bentley, "Strategic Taboos," 1037.

53. Barack Obama, "Statement by the President on Syria," (statement, Washington, DC, August 31, 2013), The White House, <https://obamawhitehouse.archives.gov/the-press-office/2013/08/31/statement-president-syria>, accessed February 24, 2018.

54. Obama, "Statement by the President on Syria."

55. Tiefer and Clark, "Congressional and Presidential War Powers as a Dialogue," 700.

56. Tiefer and Clark, "Congressional and Presidential War Powers as a Dialogue," 702; Phillips, The Battle for Syria, 180.

57. Tiefer and Clark, "Congressional and Presidential War Powers as a Dialogue," 702.

58. Tiefer and Clark, "Congressional and Presidential War Powers as a Dialogue," 702; Phillips, The Battle for Syria, 180.

59. Tiefer and Clark, "Congressional and Presidential War Powers as a Dialogue," 702; Phillips, The Battle for Syria, 180.

60. Obama, "Remarks by the President in Address to the Nation on Syria;" Phillips, The Battle for Syria, 181.

61. Jervis, "Hypotheses on Misperception."

62. Jervis, "Hypotheses on Misperception."

63. Jervis, "Hypotheses on Misperception," 454

64. Jervis, "War and Misperception," 699.

65. Jervis, "Hypotheses on Misperception," 454.

66. Jervis, "Deterrence and Perception," 21, 24.

67. Jervis, "Hypotheses on Misperception," 455-456.

68. Jervis, "Hypotheses on Misperception," 459.

69. Jervis, "Hypotheses on Misperception," 459.

70. Jervis, "Hypotheses on Misperception," 462.

71. Jervis, "Hypotheses on Misperception," 460.

72. Jervis, "Hypotheses on Misperception," 460.

73. Jervis, "Hypotheses on Misperception," 462.

74. Jervis, "Hypotheses on Misperception," 473.

75. Jervis, "Deterrence and Perception," 6.

76. Jervis, "Deterrence and Perception," 3.

77. Jervis, "Hypotheses on Misperception," 474; Jervis, "Deterrence and Perception," 4.

78. Jervis, "War and Misperception," 680.

79. Jervis, "War and Misperception," 686.

80. Bentley, "Strategic Taboos," 1033.

81. Bentley, "Strategic Taboos," 1042, 1037.

82. Robert E. Terrill, "An Uneasy Peace: Barack Obama's Nobel Peace Prize Lecture," *Rhetoric & Public Affairs* 14, no.4 (2011): 768.

83. Abratt, "U.S. Intervention in Syria," 44-70.

84. Murray, "Military action but not as we know it," 146.

85. Murray, "Military action but not as we know it," 150.

86. Terrill, "An Uneasy Peace," 765.

87. Maria Helena De Castro Santos and Ulysses Tavares Teixeira, "Interests and Values in Obama's Foreign Policy: Leading from Behind?," *Revista Brasileira de Política Internacional* 58, no.2 (2015): 119.

88. De Castro Santos and Teixeira, "Interests and Values in Obama's Foreign Policy," 119.

89. Abratt, "U.S. Intervention in Syria," 31-33.

90. Abratt, "U.S. Intervention in Syria," 33.

91. Haass, A World in Disarray, 69.

92. Haass, A World in Disarray, 117-118.

93. Guiora, "Intervention in Libya, Yes; Intervention in Syria, No," 273.

94. Christian Henderson, "The UK Government's Legal Opinion on Forceable Measures in Response to the Use of Chemical Weapons by the Syrian Government," *International and Comparative Law Quarterly* 64 (January 2015): 193; Cutler, President Obama's Counterterrorism Strategy in the War on Terror," 156.

95. Henderson, “The UK Government’s Legal Opinion on Forceable Measures in Response to the Use of Chemical Weapons by the Syrian Government,” 193-194.

96. Bentley, “Strategic Taboos,” 1035-1036.

97. Bentley, “Strategic Taboos,” 1035.

98. Jervis, “Hypotheses on Misperception,” 473.

99. Murray, “Military action but not as we know it,” 160.

100. Bentley, “Strategic Taboos,” 1033.

101. Murray, “Military action but not as we know it,” 161.

102. Boot, “Cleaning Up Obama’s Syria Mess,” 22; Guiora, “Intervention in Libya, Yes; Intervention in Syria, No,” 251-252, 270.

103. Haass, *A World in Disarray*, 164.

104. William F. Grover and Joseph G. Peschek, *The Unsustainable Presidency: Clinton, Bush, Obama, and Beyond* (US: Palgrave Macmillan, 2014): 107.

105. Phillips, *The Battle for Syria*, 178.

106. Terrill, “An Uneasy Peace,” 768.

107. Bentley, “Strategic Taboos,” 1038.

108. Bentley, “Strategic Taboos,” 1038.

109. Grover and Joseph G. Peschek, *The Unsustainable Presidency*, 126.

110. Thomas L. Friedman, *From Beirut to Jerusalem: Updated with a New Chapter* (New York: Picador, 2012): 80-101.

111. Friedman, *From Beirut to Jerusalem*, 80-90; Haass, *A World in Disarray*, 118.

112. Friedman, *From Beirut to Jerusalem*, 88.

113. Friedman, *From Beirut to Jerusalem*, 91.

114. Friedman, *From Beirut to Jerusalem*, 80-101.

115. Guiora, “Intervention in Libya, Yes; Intervention in Syria, No,” 266.

116. Phillips, *The Battle for Syria*, 176.

117. Phillips, *The Battle for Syria*, 176.

118. Bentley, “Strategic Taboos,” 1041.

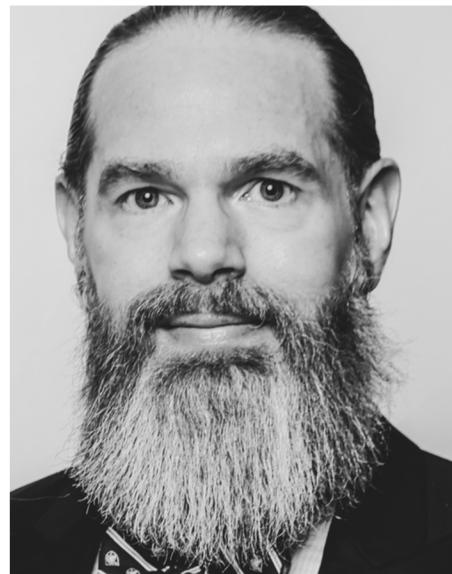
119. Phillips, *The Battle for Syria*, 176.

120. Boot, “Cleaning Up Obama’s Syria Mess,” 22.

121. Jervis, “Hypotheses on Misperception,” 473.

Jeff Jager, Lieutenant Colonel USA(R), Europe/Eurasia FAO

Lieutenant Colonel (Retired) Jeff Jager is a doctoral candidate in Salve Regina University's international relations PhD program. His current research focuses on the effectiveness of U.S. security cooperation. He served in the U.S. Army as an infantry officer and foreign area officer from 2000 to 2022, specializing in European and Middle Eastern political, military, and security affairs. LTC Jager served as the Assistant Army Attaché at Embassy Nicosia from 2012 to 2015, at Embassy Ankara from 2015 to 2017 as the U.S. Army Training and Doctrine Command Liaison Officer to the Turkish Army, and at Embassy Beirut, where he served from 2017-2018 as the Foreign Military Sales Officer and from 2018-2019 as the Chief, Office of Defense Cooperation Lebanon. In his final military assignment, he served as a military advisor at the Bureau of Arms Control, Verification, and Compliance at the Department of State from 2019 to 2022. LTC Jager graduated from the United States Military Academy at West Point in 2000 with a Bachelor of Science Degree in Environmental Engineering. He holds an Associate's Degree in Turkish from the Defense Language Institute, a Master of Arts degree in Security Studies from the Turkish Army War College, a Master of Arts degree in German and European Studies from Georgetown University, a Graduate Certificate in Russian, East European, and Eurasian Studies from Georgetown University, a Master of



Arts degree in International Relations from Webster University, and a Graduate Certificate in International and Regional Security from Webster University. He is also certified by the U.S. Army War College as a Defense Strategist and has held a Department of Defense International Affairs Certification (Tier 3).



AFAOA

ARMY FOREIGN AREA OFFICER ASSOCIATION

**Support the AFAOA
Volunteer**

Join



Academic Journal
Awards Committee
Spouse Committee
Mentorship Committee
The Army FAO Handbook

Donate



www.armyfaoassociation.com

armyfaoassociation@gmail.com