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Introduction

In April 2025, President Donald J. Trump launched a sweeping tariff policy unprecedented in modern U.S. history. Declaring a **national emergency** under the International Emergency Economic Powers Act (IEEPA), the administration imposed a universal **10% tariff on all U.S. imports**, with additional “reciprocal” surcharges on countries running large trade surpluses with the United States ([Fact Sheet: President Donald J. Trump Declares National Emergency to Increase our Competitive Edge, Protect our Sovereignty, and Strengthen our National and Economic Security – The White House](#)) ([Trump stokes trade war as world reels from tariff shock | Reuters](#)). The White House justified these measures as necessary to rebuild American industry, reduce a \$1.2 trillion trade deficit, and protect national security ([Fact Sheet: President Donald J. Trump Declares National Emergency to Increase our Competitive Edge, Protect our Sovereignty, and Strengthen our National and Economic Security – The White House](#)) ([Fact Sheet: President Donald J. Trump Declares National Emergency to Increase our Competitive Edge, Protect our Sovereignty, and Strengthen our National and Economic Security – The White House](#)). This white paper provides a comprehensive academic analysis of the 2025 tariff policy, critically evaluating its rationale against economic theory, historical experience, and international case studies. We adopt a Socratic approach, posing key questions about the merits and risks of aggressive protectionism and answering them with evidence from peer-reviewed research and data. The goal is to discern whether the claims behind “Liberation Day” tariffs align with reality – and what economic consequences are likely to unfold over the next four years.

What Are the Key Provisions of the 2025 Tariff Policy?

On April 2, 2025, the White House announced an emergency tariff program aimed at enforcing trade “reciprocity.” The core elements are: **(1) A baseline 10% ad valorem tariff on all imports**, effective April 5, 2025 ([Fact Sheet: President Donald J. Trump Declares National Emergency to Increase our Competitive Edge, Protect our Sovereignty, and Strengthen our National and Economic Security – The White House](#)); and **(2) Additional country-specific tariffs on nations with the largest bilateral trade deficits with the U.S.**, effective April 9 ([Fact Sheet: President Donald J. Trump Declares National Emergency to Increase our Competitive Edge, Protect our Sovereignty, and Strengthen our National and Economic Security – The White House](#)). In practice, this means every imported good faces a 10% duty, and imports from certain countries face much steeper penalties. For example, imports from China now incur a **total tariff of 54%**, and those from the European Union 20%, once the reciprocal surcharges are added on top of the baseline ([Trump stokes trade war as world reels from tariff shock | Reuters](#)) ([Key moments and reaction to Trump's "Liberation Day" announcement of new tariffs](#)). Nearly 90 countries have been targeted with such “*individualized*” rates ([Key moments and reaction to](#)

[Trump's "Liberation Day" announcement of new tariffs](#)).

Notably, **Canada and Mexico are largely exempt** under the USMCA trade agreement: North American goods meeting USMCA rules of origin still enter tariff-free, although non-USMCA-compliant goods face 25% tariffs ([Fact Sheet: President Donald J. Trump Declares National Emergency to Increase our Competitive Edge, Protect our Sovereignty, and Strengthen our National and Economic Security – The White House](#)). Certain critical imports – e.g. pharmaceuticals, semiconductors, critical minerals, and energy resources not produced domestically – are also excluded from the new tariffs ([Fact Sheet: President Donald J. Trump Declares National Emergency to Increase our Competitive Edge, Protect our Sovereignty, and Strengthen our National and Economic Security – The White House](#)). These carve-outs acknowledge that some foreign inputs are vital to U.S. industry and security. Even so, as of April 2025 the average U.S. import duty has skyrocketed from roughly 2.5% to **22.5% – the highest tariff burden in over a century** ([Trump stokes trade war as world reels from tariff shock | Reuters](#)). In scope and scale, this marks one of the most dramatic reversals of U.S. trade policy since the 1930 Smoot-Hawley Act.

Legal basis: President Trump has invoked **IEEPA of 1977** to justify these tariffs ([Fact Sheet: President Donald J. Trump Declares National Emergency to Increase our Competitive Edge, Protect our Sovereignty, and Strengthen our National and Economic Security – The White House](#)). IEEPA empowers the president to regulate economic transactions during a declared national emergency. By asserting that “*large and persistent trade deficits*” and “*unfair foreign practices*” pose an unusual threat to U.S. economic security, the administration contends that emergency action is warranted ([Fact Sheet: President Donald J. Trump Declares National Emergency to Increase our Competitive Edge, Protect our Sovereignty, and Strengthen our National and Economic Security – The White House](#)) ([Fact Sheet: President Donald J. Trump Declares National Emergency to Increase our Competitive Edge, Protect our Sovereignty, and Strengthen our National and Economic Security – The White House](#)). This approach is without modern precedent; never before has IEEPA been used to impose across-the-board import taxes. Legal experts note that this “*broad use of IEEPA authority is unprecedented*” and likely to face court challenges ([What lies ahead for tariffs on "liberation day"? | Reuters](#)). Traditionally, tariff-setting power rests with Congress or with the President acting under specific trade laws (such as Section 232 national security tariffs or Section 301 unfair trade remedies). By relying on emergency powers, the White House has sidestepped those usual processes ([What lies ahead for tariffs on "liberation day"? | Reuters](#)) ([What lies ahead for tariffs on "liberation day"? | Reuters](#)). The policy, therefore, raises constitutional questions about separation of powers, even as it immediately transforms U.S. trade relations.

Why Did the Administration Impose These Tariffs? (Stated Rationale)

The Trump administration frames the tariff policy as an urgent corrective to decades of trade injustice. According to the official fact sheet, “*large and persistent annual U.S. goods trade deficits have led to the hollowing out of our manufacturing base*”, undermined critical supply chains, and even “*rendered our defense-industrial base dependent on foreign adversaries.*” ([Fact Sheet: President Donald J. Trump Declares National Emergency to Increase our](#)

[Competitive Edge, Protect our Sovereignty, and Strengthen our National and Economic Security – The White House](#)) The White House argues that many trading partners have taken advantage of the U.S. by maintaining higher tariffs, manipulating currencies, and using hefty value-added taxes (VAT) to tilt the playing field ([Fact Sheet: President Donald J. Trump Declares National Emergency to Increase our Competitive Edge, Protect our Sovereignty, and Strengthen our National and Economic Security – The White House](#)) ([Fact Sheet: President Donald J. Trump Declares National Emergency to Increase our Competitive Edge, Protect our Sovereignty, and Strengthen our National and Economic Security – The White House](#)). In their view, past administrations' tolerance of a \$1+ trillion goods trade deficit (in 2024) is a grievous mistake ([Fact Sheet: President Donald J. Trump Declares National Emergency to Increase our Competitive Edge, Protect our Sovereignty, and Strengthen our National and Economic Security – The White House](#)). President Trump asserts that “**Made in America**” must be more than a slogan – it is a “*national security priority*” requiring aggressive action to reshore industry ([Fact Sheet: President Donald J. Trump Declares National Emergency to Increase our Competitive Edge, Protect our Sovereignty, and Strengthen our National and Economic Security – The White House](#)).

IEEPA emergency: By declaring a national economic emergency, President Trump explicitly links trade imbalances to security threats. The order cites “*the absence of reciprocity in our trade relationships and other harmful policies like currency manipulation and exorbitant VATs*” as factors creating this emergency ([Fact Sheet: President Donald J. Trump Declares National Emergency to Increase our Competitive Edge, Protect our Sovereignty, and Strengthen our National and Economic Security – The White House](#)). The tariffs are presented as a defensive response – a means to “*strengthen the international economic position of the United States and protect American workers*” ([Fact Sheet: President Donald J. Trump Declares National Emergency to Increase our Competitive Edge, Protect our Sovereignty, and Strengthen our National and Economic Security – The White House](#)). In effect, the administration is reviving a **mercantilist** view that trade deficits equal weakness and vulnerability. Tariffs are cast as a tool to force others to “*treat us like we treat them*” – the so-called “*golden rule*” of trade reciprocity ([Fact Sheet: President Donald J. Trump Declares National Emergency to Increase our Competitive Edge, Protect our Sovereignty, and Strengthen our National and Economic Security – The White House](#)) ([Fact Sheet: President Donald J. Trump Declares National Emergency to Increase our Competitive Edge, Protect our Sovereignty, and Strengthen our National and Economic Security – The White House](#)).

Key claims: Throughout the policy announcement, several core claims emerge:

- **Tariffs will incentivize foreign partners to lower their trade barriers**, achieving “*reciprocal*” fairness. The fact sheet highlights numerous examples of foreign tariffs higher than U.S. tariffs (e.g. EU’s 10% tariff on cars vs. the U.S. 2.5%, India’s 50–70% tariffs on various goods vs. low U.S. rates) ([Fact Sheet: President Donald J. Trump Declares National Emergency to Increase our Competitive Edge, Protect our Sovereignty, and Strengthen our National and Economic Security – The White House](#)) ([Fact Sheet: President Donald J. Trump Declares National Emergency to Increase our Competitive Edge, Protect our Sovereignty, and Strengthen our National and Economic Security – The White House](#)). The implication is that U.S. tariffs can compel others to come to the table and “*follow the golden rule on trade*” ([Fact Sheet: President Donald J. Trump Declares](#)

[National Emergency to Increase our Competitive Edge, Protect our Sovereignty, and Strengthen our National and Economic Security – The White House](#)).

- **Reducing the trade deficit will revive manufacturing and national strength.** The administration argues that the trade deficit has “*fueled offshoring...empowered non-market economies like China, and hurt America’s middle class*” ([Fact Sheet: President Donald J. Trump Declares National Emergency to Increase our Competitive Edge, Protect our Sovereignty, and Strengthen our National and Economic Security – The White House](#)). Tariffs, by “*rebalancing*” trade, are supposed to “*provide an incentive for re-shoring production*” and “*drive economic growth for the American people*” ([Fact Sheet: President Donald J. Trump Declares National Emergency to Increase our Competitive Edge, Protect our Sovereignty, and Strengthen our National and Economic Security – The White House](#)) ([Fact Sheet: President Donald J. Trump Declares National Emergency to Increase our Competitive Edge, Protect our Sovereignty, and Strengthen our National and Economic Security – The White House](#)). This echoes the idea that protection will bring back factory jobs and rebuild industrial capacity critical for defense ([Fact Sheet: President Donald J. Trump Declares National Emergency to Increase our Competitive Edge, Protect our Sovereignty, and Strengthen our National and Economic Security – The White House](#)) ([Fact Sheet: President Donald J. Trump Declares National Emergency to Increase our Competitive Edge, Protect our Sovereignty, and Strengthen our National and Economic Security – The White House](#)).
- **National security: supply chain resilience and defense readiness.** The White House points to sectors like autos, shipbuilding, machine tools, and microelectronics where loss of domestic capacity “*could permanently weaken U.S. competitiveness*” and leave the military vulnerable ([Fact Sheet: President Donald J. Trump Declares National Emergency to Increase our Competitive Edge, Protect our Sovereignty, and Strengthen our National and Economic Security – The White House](#)) ([Fact Sheet: President Donald J. Trump Declares National Emergency to Increase our Competitive Edge, Protect our Sovereignty, and Strengthen our National and Economic Security – The White House](#)). Tariffs are portrayed as a necessary step to ensure the U.S. “*can produce essential goods for the public and the military*”, especially after the COVID-19 pandemic exposed supply chain vulnerabilities ([Fact Sheet: President Donald J. Trump Declares National Emergency to Increase our Competitive Edge, Protect our Sovereignty, and Strengthen our National and Economic Security – The White House](#)) ([Fact Sheet: President Donald J. Trump Declares National Emergency to Increase our Competitive Edge, Protect our Sovereignty, and Strengthen our National and Economic Security – The White House](#)). In short, economic security is national security.
- **Tariffs won’t hurt American consumers significantly.** Administration officials contend that past tariffs showed negligible inflation impacts ([Fact Sheet: President Donald J. Trump Declares National Emergency to Increase our Competitive Edge, Protect our Sovereignty, and Strengthen our National and Economic Security – The White House](#)). They cite a 2023 U.S. International Trade Commission report finding only “*very minor effects on prices*” from the 2018–2019 China and steel tariffs ([Fact Sheet: President Donald J. Trump Declares National Emergency to Increase our Competitive Edge, Protect our Sovereignty, and Strengthen our National and Economic Security – The](#)

[White House](#)). They also quote an Economic Policy Institute analysis claiming Trump's earlier tariffs "*showed no correlation with inflation*" ([Fact Sheet: President Donald J. Trump Declares National Emergency to Increase our Competitive Edge, Protect our Sovereignty, and Strengthen our National and Economic Security – The White House](#)). Even former Fed Chair Janet Yellen is enlisted, quoted (selectively) as saying "*I don't believe...consumers will see any meaningful increase in prices*" ([Fact Sheet: President Donald J. Trump Declares National Emergency to Increase our Competitive Edge, Protect our Sovereignty, and Strengthen our National and Economic Security – The White House](#)). These talking points suggest a view that the benefits of tariffs outweigh any consumer costs, or that foreign exporters will absorb the tariffs by cutting their prices.

- **Tariffs will raise revenue and boost growth.** President Trump has boasted that tariff revenues could reach "*trillions*" and help pay down the national debt ([Key moments and reaction to Trump's "Liberation Day" announcement of new tariffs](#)). A White House-cited analysis even claims that a **global 10% tariff could increase U.S. GDP by \$728 billion, create 2.8 million jobs, and raise real household incomes by 5.7%** ([Fact Sheet: President Donald J. Trump Declares National Emergency to Increase our Competitive Edge, Protect our Sovereignty, and Strengthen our National and Economic Security – The White House](#)). This optimistic projection envisions tariffs as an expansionary economic policy – effectively a massive import-substitution stimulus that channels spending to domestic producers.

These claims set a high bar. If accurate, the tariff policy could indeed mark the dawn of what the President calls a "*new golden age*" of American industry ([Fact Sheet: President Donald J. Trump Declares National Emergency to Increase our Competitive Edge, Protect our Sovereignty, and Strengthen our National and Economic Security – The White House](#)). However, they also run counter to much of classical economic theory and empirical evidence. To evaluate them, we turn next to the economic research on tariffs, trade balances, and manufacturing.

Do Tariffs Reduce Trade Deficits and Bring Back Jobs? (Theory vs. Evidence)

At the heart of the 2025 tariff policy is a conviction that trade deficits are an unambiguous drag on the economy – a sign of unfair trade that can be fixed through protectionism. Mainstream economic theory offers a very different interpretation. In theory, a country's **trade balance** reflects macroeconomic factors like aggregate savings and investment, not just trade policy. A persistent deficit means a nation spends more than it produces, fi

Historical evidence supports the macroeconomic view. During the 1980s, the U.S. government aggressively pressured Japan to reduce its trade surplus with America through quotas, voluntary export restraints, and other barriers. Yet “*in spite of all the trade restrictions, the bilateral trade deficit with Japan did not go away*” ([Do trade restrictions work? Lessons from trade with Japan in the 1980s | PBS News](#)). The gap persisted and even grew in later years, shrinking only when recessions reduced Americans’ purchasing power (e.g. the late-2000s downturn) ([Do trade restrictions work? Lessons from trade with Japan in the 1980s | PBS News](#)). The reason, as analysts noted, was that tariffs “*did not address the underlying economic conditions*” – namely, low U.S. savings and high budget deficits – fueling the imbalance ([Do trade restrictions work? Lessons from trade with Japan in the 1980s | PBS News](#)). In other words, unless the U.S. curtails its fiscal deficits or boosts domestic savings, consumers will continue to demand imports (or alternatively, if imports are restricted, demand will shift to domestic goods causing higher prices but not necessarily improving overall balance if investment and spending remain high). **Trade policy alone cannot magically erase a current account deficit** ([Do trade restrictions work? Lessons from trade with Japan in the 1980s | PBS News](#)). This lesson from the 1980s U.S.–Japan trade tensions directly challenges the White House’s assertion that tariffs will “*balance our chronic goods trade deficit*” ([Fact Sheet: President Donald J. Trump Declares National Emergency to Increase our Competitive Edge, Protect our Sovereignty, and Strengthen our National and Economic Security – The White House](#)).

Another claim to scrutinize is that tariffs will *automatically* revive manufacturing and create jobs. It is true that import competition has contributed to job losses in certain industries – a well-documented example being the “*China shock*” of the 2000s, when surging Chinese imports displaced an estimated 2 million U.S. manufacturing jobs. Restricting imports can redirect demand to domestic firms, potentially increasing output and employment in those protected sectors. However, broad tariffs also raise input costs for many U.S. producers (e.g. American auto and appliance makers rely on imported steel, aluminum, and components). Higher input prices can *reduce* output and employment in downstream industries. Economists Justin Pierce and Aaron Flaaen studied the Trump-era steel tariffs and found that while U.S. steel production rose, downstream manufacturers saw job losses due to cost increases – offsetting the gains ([Four years into the trade war, are the US and China decoupling? | PIIE](#)). Similarly, a Federal Reserve analysis estimated that by 2019, the first round of tariffs actually slightly *reduced* U.S. manufacturing employment overall, as losses in industries facing higher input costs or foreign retaliation outweighed the jobs saved in protected industries ([Four years into the trade war, are the US and China decoupling? | PIIE](#)) ([Four years into the trade war, are the US and China decoupling? | PIIE](#)).

Crucially, consumers bear many of the costs. Contrary to the White House’s implication that foreign exporters pay the tariffs, multiple studies have shown **U.S. importers and consumers pay the vast majority of tariff costs in the form of higher prices** ([Four years into the trade war, are the US and China decoupling? | PIIE](#)) ([Measuring Aggregate Price Indexes with Taste Shocks: Theory and Evidence for CES Preferences](#)). In trade theory, if the U.S. were the sole big buyer (“large country”), some tariff incidence could fall on foreign suppliers through lower export prices. But in practice, analyses of the 2018–2019 tariffs found near-complete pass-through to U.S. prices – foreign firms generally did *not* slash prices enough to offset the tariffs ([Four years into the trade war, are the US and China decoupling? | PIIE](#)) ([Measuring Aggregate Price Indexes with Taste Shocks: Theory and Evidence for CES Preferences](#)). For instance,

Amiti, Redding, and Weinstein (2020) conclude that by the end of 2019, “*U.S. tariffs continue to be almost entirely borne by U.S. firms and consumers.*” ([Measuring Aggregate Price Indexes with Taste Shocks: Theory and Evidence for CES Preferences](#)). These higher costs ripple through the economy: one study found the 2018 tariffs on steel, aluminum, and Chinese goods increased U.S. producer prices and led to the loss of about 75,000 manufacturing jobs that would have existed absent the tariffs ([Four years into the trade war, are the US and China decoupling? | PIIE](#)) ([Four years into the trade war, are the US and China decoupling? | PIIE](#)). While some industries were “protected,” others that export (like agriculture) were hit by retaliatory foreign tariffs, and many more that use imported inputs faced competitive disadvantages.

The **consensus of empirical economic literature** is that broad-based tariffs are a blunt instrument: they may boost employment in a few protected sectors but will *reduce* overall economic welfare and often hurt more workers than they help in the long run. The Peterson Institute for International Economics summarized in 2022 that “*numerous studies have documented the negative impact of the trade war tariffs on the US economy. Tariffs have hurt US manufacturing output, employment, and exports.*” ([Four years into the trade war, are the US and China decoupling? | PIIE](#)). These findings directly contradict the administration’s rosy scenario that tariffs strengthen the economy cost-free. For example, the White House fact sheet cites a study claiming the first-term tariffs “*led to significant reshoring*” ([Fact Sheet: President Donald J. Trump Declares National Emergency to Increase our Competitive Edge, Protect our Sovereignty, and Strengthen our National and Economic Security – The White House](#)). It is true that domestic output of some tariffed goods (like washing machines or steel) increased. But often this came at a steep price to consumers. One well-known case: after tariffs on washing machines were imposed in 2018, U.S. washer prices jumped nearly 12%, burdening consumers roughly \$1.5 billion – **far more than the gains to U.S. washer producers or the tariff revenue** (essentially a transfer from millions of consumers to a handful of companies) ([Four years into the trade war, are the US and China decoupling? | PIIE](#)) ([Four years into the trade war, are the US and China decoupling? | PIIE](#)). This illustrates the classic economic insight that tariffs create **deadweight loss**: consumers pay higher prices (a loss not fully recouped by the government’s tariff revenue), and resources are diverted from more efficient uses.

Another point of tension is the **inflation impact**. Administration advisors claim the tariffs have only a “*temporary*” price effect ([Fact Sheet: President Donald J. Trump Declares National Emergency to Increase our Competitive Edge, Protect our Sovereignty, and Strengthen our National and Economic Security – The White House](#)), but Fitch Ratings and other analysts warn that taxing “*everything from foreign cars and Chinese-made goods to groceries*” will raise costs for American households ([Key moments and reaction to Trump's "Liberation Day" announcement of new tariffs](#)). Tariffs function much like a sales tax – and a regressive one, since lower-income families spend a higher share of income on imported necessities (apparel, food, etc.). By one estimate, the new steel, aluminum, and lumber tariffs alone could add over **\$9,000 to the price of a typical new home**, worsening housing affordability ([Key moments and reaction to Trump's "Liberation Day" announcement of new tariffs](#)). This comes *just as U.S. inflation had been easing* in early 2025, threatening to re-ignite price pressures ([Key moments and reaction to Trump's "Liberation Day" announcement of new tariffs](#)). The Federal Reserve may respond by keeping interest rates higher for longer, which can dampen investment and broader growth. In sum, **economic theory and evidence indicate that broad tariffs tend to act as a tax on consumers and as a drag on the economy**, rather than a pure benefit to domestic

production.

To be sure, there are nuanced academic debates on trade policy. Some heterodox economists argue that carefully targeted protection (e.g. **infant industry** tariffs or strategic trade policy) can help develop certain industries under specific conditions. Historically, the U.S. itself used high tariffs in the 19th century when nurturing its manufacturing base. However, the context of today – a mature, service-oriented \$25 trillion economy – makes it unlikely that across-the-board import taxes will spur a manufacturing renaissance. The 2018–2019 trade war experience reinforces this skepticism: while the U.S. trade deficit with China did shrink, the deficit with the rest of the world grew as imports shifted to suppliers like Vietnam and Mexico ([Four years into the trade war, are the US and China decoupling? | PIIE](#)) ([Four years into the trade war, are the US and China decoupling? | PIIE](#)). American consumers kept buying many goods, just from different countries, or from China via tariff exclusions. Meanwhile U.S. exporters struggled with retaliatory barriers and lost market share abroad. By 2019, surveys showed many manufacturing firms scaled back or postponed capital investments due to trade policy uncertainty, undermining the very re-shoring the tariffs sought to encourage.

In light of this, the White House’s assumption that tariffs will *automatically* boost GDP and jobs appears overly optimistic. Tariffs **can** protect specific industries in the short run, but the broader economy often adjusts in ways that offset their intended benefits – via currency appreciation, cost inflation, demand shifts, and retaliation. The next sections will examine whether historical precedent supports the administration’s expectations, and how our current moment compares to past episodes of protectionism.

What Does History Teach Us About Protectionism?

The Smoot-Hawley Tariff and the Great Depression (1930s)

No discussion of U.S. tariff policy can ignore the **Smoot-Hawley Tariff Act of 1930**, often cited as a cautionary tale. Passed in the early stages of the Great Depression, Smoot-Hawley raised U.S. tariffs on over 20,000 imported goods to an average level of around 40–60%. The intent was to protect American farmers and factories from foreign competition during a downturn. The result, however, was an international trade war of unprecedented scale. U.S. trading partners retaliated fiercely, and global trade collapsed. By 1933, world merchandise trade had plummeted by roughly two-thirds in value compared to 1929 ([Smoot-Hawley Tariff Act - Wikipedia](#)). While economists debate the extent to which Smoot-Hawley *caused* the Great Depression versus exacerbating it, there is broad agreement that it “*worsened the Depression, rather than alleviating it*” ([Did tariffs cause the Great Depression? Here's what to know - NPR](#)). U.S. exports fell sharply as other countries erected their own tariff walls, deepening the misery for export-oriented sectors like agriculture. One contemporary observer labeled the act “*tragic-comic*” policy ([At the time of the Smoot-Hawley tariffs - The Economist - Facebook](#)) – it was meant to save jobs, but by prompting foreign retaliation and shrinking global demand, it arguably cost more jobs than it saved.

The Smoot-Hawley episode ingrained in policymakers a crucial lesson: **beggar-thy-neighbor protectionism can be mutually destructive**. In the post-World War II era, the United States led

the effort to avoid repeating the 1930s spiral. This led to the creation of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (**GATT**) in 1947, under which countries committed to progressively lower trade barriers. Over successive negotiating “rounds,” average industrial tariffs among major nations fell dramatically – from about **22% in 1947 to around 5% by the late 1990s** ([General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade - Wikipedia](#)). This liberal trade regime coincided with decades of robust economic growth worldwide. Global trade volumes exploded 27-fold between 1950 and 2008, growing about three times faster than world GDP, which raised the world trade-to-GDP ratio from ~25% in the 1960s to about 60% by the 2010s ([Trade and growth – end of an era? | CEPR](#)). While many factors drove this prosperity (technological advances, peace and reconstruction, etc.), the reduction of tariff barriers certainly played a role in expanding markets and efficiency. **The postwar consensus** – embodied by both Republican and Democratic administrations – was that freer trade, governed by multilateral rules, was a pillar of stability and growth. Even as certain industries needed adjustment assistance, the U.S. chose negotiation over unilateral protection. This historical backdrop makes the 2025 tariff surge an especially stark departure: it represents a deliberate return to protectionism that the U.S. and its allies had long since shunned after witnessing the 1930s disaster.

Postwar Trade Policy and Occasional Protectionist Episodes

Although the general trend after 1945 was toward liberalization, the U.S. did sometimes resort to protection in limited cases. For example, in 1971 President Nixon imposed a short-lived 10% import surcharge (as part of the “Nixon shock”) to pressure other countries into adjusting currency values. That tariff was removed within months once a new exchange rate system was negotiated. President Reagan, confronting a surge of imports in the 1980s, opted for targeted measures like **voluntary export restraints (VERs)** on Japanese cars and tariffs on specific goods (e.g. motorcycles to aid Harley-Davidson in 1983). These actions were usually narrow in scope and often accompanied by negotiations. In fact, Reagan’s approach to the **U.S.-Japan trade imbalance** combined pressure with diplomacy: the 1985 Plaza Accord helped significantly appreciate the yen (making Japanese goods costlier), and numerous U.S.-Japan agreements in the late 1980s aimed to open Japan’s market or limit its exports ([Do trade restrictions work? Lessons from trade with Japan in the 1980s | PBS News](#)) ([Do trade restrictions work? Lessons from trade with Japan in the 1980s | PBS News](#)). Over 100 sectoral deals were struck – from semiconductors to beef – in an effort to reduce Japan’s trade surplus ([Do trade restrictions work? Lessons from trade with Japan in the 1980s | PBS News](#)). Despite these efforts, as noted earlier, the overall bilateral deficit with Japan remained “*stubbornly high*”. One reason was that Japan’s advantages were rooted in high savings rates and competitive manufacturing, not easily reversed by quotas. Another reason: when Japanese exports to the U.S. slowed, other countries (Taiwan, Korea, later China) often filled the gap with similarly competitive products. This *trade diversion* phenomenon is relevant to today’s context – early evidence suggests the 10% baseline tariff is shifting U.S. imports toward countries not hit with extra penalties, rather than solely boosting U.S. output. For instance, after the first-term tariffs, imports from China declined, but imports from Vietnam, Mexico, and others rose to substitute many of those goods ([Four years into the trade war, are the US and China decoupling? | PIIE](#)) ([Four years into the trade war, are the US and China decoupling? | PIIE](#)).

A key takeaway from the 1980s “*trade war*” with Japan is that **even massive pressure on a close ally achieved only limited results in altering trade balances**. Moreover, it was

economically costly. Studies found that the Japanese auto VER (which limited Japan to exporting a certain number of cars) functioned like a very high tariff – equivalent to over 60% in some estimates ([Do trade restrictions work? Lessons from trade with Japan in the 1980s | PBS News](#)). American consumers paid higher prices for cars as a result, effectively transferring billions of dollars to Japanese firms (who enjoyed higher profits due to the quota) and to U.S. auto companies (who faced less competition) ([Do trade restrictions work? Lessons from trade with Japan in the 1980s | PBS News](#)). This policy arguably hurt American consumers more than if a modest tariff had been levied and at least collected as revenue. It did spur Japanese automakers to build factories in the U.S. to circumvent the restraints, which created some U.S. jobs – an outcome the White House today might view as a win. However, those jobs came via *foreign direct investment* in the U.S., not through American companies alone. Similarly, in response to new tariffs, foreign companies might choose to invest in U.S.-based production to avoid the tariffs (as some did between 2018–2020), which can help employment. But such shifts are driven by avoiding a tax, not by inherent competitiveness – and they risk reversing if the policy changes.

The **2002 steel tariffs** under President George W. Bush provide another instructive example. Intended to protect the domestic steel industry, those tariffs were rescinded after 18 months, following WTO litigation and EU retaliation targeted at politically sensitive exports (like Florida oranges). The episode demonstrated the pitfalls of unilateral protection even in a targeted sector: studies found minimal long-term benefit for steel jobs, but clear harm to steel-using industries and consumers. The Bush administration ultimately judged the costs – including diplomatic costs – to outweigh the benefits, and removed the tariffs earlier than planned. The contrast with the Trump approach is striking: rather than retreat under pressure, the 2025 policy doubles down, extending tariffs to nearly all imports at once.

Trump’s 2018–2019 Trade War

President Trump’s first term (2017–2021) already tested protectionist strategies via tariffs on solar panels, washing machines, steel and aluminum (under Section 232 national security provisions), and broad tariffs on Chinese goods (under Section 301 for unfair trade practices). By 2019, roughly \$300 billion of U.S. imports from China faced additional duties of 7.5%–25%. What were the results? U.S. imports from China did fall – by about 20% for products with a 25% tariff ([Four years into the trade war, are the US and China decoupling? | PIIE](#)) – but U.S. imports from other countries rose as companies rerouted supply chains ([Four years into the trade war, are the US and China decoupling? | PIIE](#)) ([Four years into the trade war, are the US and China decoupling? | PIIE](#)). The overall U.S. goods trade deficit actually *widened* in 2018 to a record high, then dipped in 2019 as domestic demand slowed. Meanwhile, **American exporters were hit hard**. U.S. goods exports to China dropped sharply (over 20% for some sectors like agriculture and automobiles) due to retaliatory Chinese tariffs. One analysis concluded U.S. farmers lost tens of billions in sales and required substantial government subsidies to stay afloat, effectively negating the tariff revenues collected.

By 2020, several rigorous economic studies of the trade war were published. A National Bureau of Economic Research (NBER) paper by Fajgelbaum et al. (2020) titled “*The Return to Protectionism*” found that the tariffs’ costs were entirely borne by U.S. consumers and importers, and that politically, the tariffs’ incidence fell disproportionately on U.S. counties that

supported Trump (due to retaliatory hits on agricultural exports) – a somewhat paradoxical outcome. The U.S. manufacturing sector, which initially saw a uptick in certain protected industries, slipped into a mild recession by late 2019, partly attributed to rising input costs and uncertainty. In fact, manufacturing output and investment declined in 2019 even as the overall economy grew, suggesting the protection was not sparking a broad manufacturing revival.

One might argue that the first-term tariffs were not given enough time to work or were partial, whereas the 2025 policy is far more sweeping and thus could have larger effects. It is true that a blanket 10% (plus surcharges) is a more comprehensive shock to the system, and firms will respond in various ways: some domestic production will increase, no doubt. But **history consistently shows that large, sudden tariff increases bring significant collateral damage**. The Smoot-Hawley era taught us about global retaliation and trade collapse. The 1980s taught us that even strategic tariffs and forced agreements might not cure a deficit driven by macroeconomics. The 2018–2019 mini-war taught us that modern supply chains are highly adaptable – tariffs simply rewire trade flows and burden consumers, while eliciting targeted retaliation that can harm unrelated industries.

In summary, the historical record does not support the notion that broad protectionism leads to net economic gains for the country imposing it. Instead, it tends to provoke retaliation, reduce overall trade, raise domestic prices, and strain international relationships. The next section will look at how similar protectionist impulses have played out in other countries' recent experiences – providing further context for what the U.S. might expect.

What Can We Learn from International Case Studies like Brexit and Japan?

Case Study: Brexit – Sovereignty at an Economic Cost

The United Kingdom's exit from the European Union (Brexit) in 2020 is often cited as a parallel to U.S. protectionism, in that the UK chose to prioritize national sovereignty over the frictionless trade it enjoyed as an EU member. Brexit reintroduced tariffs and, more significantly, non-tariff barriers (customs checks, regulatory divergence) between the UK and its largest trading partner (the EU). More than five years on, the empirical evidence is becoming clear. **Brexit has acted as a drag on the UK economy**. Recent analyses estimate that UK GDP is currently **2–3% smaller** than it would have been without Brexit, purely due to trade and investment losses ([The impact of Brexit on the UK economy: Reviewing the evidence | CEPR](#)). UK trade intensity (trade as a share of GDP) has fallen significantly and **“considerably more than other advanced economies”** in the same period ([The impact of Brexit on the UK economy: Reviewing the evidence | CEPR](#)). This suggests that the new trade barriers – even though modest (zero tariffs on many goods remain under the UK-EU trade deal, but with added red tape) – have made British exports and imports more costly and reduced overall trade volumes. Business investment in the UK also stagnated amid uncertainty and reduced market access, contributing to slower productivity growth.

Importantly, Brexit was not even a tariff increase in the classical sense (the UK actually kept zero tariffs with the EU on most goods via the Trade and Cooperation Agreement). But the

introduction of **regulatory barriers and loss of single market benefits** had effects analogous to tariffs. Firms faced higher costs to move goods across the border, and some supply chains were disrupted. The UK's service sector (which relies on easy cross-border movement of professionals and data) also took a hit. In short, Brexit underscores how **increased trade frictions of any kind tend to reduce economic output relative to a frictionless baseline**. British consumers have seen rising prices for some imported goods and less variety on shelves, while exporters have lost EU market share. The political promise of "*taking back control*" came with a tangible economic price tag, one that was perhaps underestimated initially. Two-thirds of Britons now believe Brexit has harmed the economy ([The impact of Brexit on the UK economy: Reviewing the evidence | CEPR](#)). This case is instructive for the U.S.: It shows that **even a wealthy nation can ill-afford to erect new barriers without sacrificing growth**. While the U.S. is more self-sufficient than the UK and less dependent on any single trade partner, a sudden rise in trade costs (via tariffs) can similarly act as a supply shock and dampen economic performance.

Case Study: Japan's Protectionist and Industrial Policies

Japan presents a different angle. In the post-WWII era, Japan famously pursued a development strategy that combined export promotion with **protection of its domestic market**. Through the 1950s–1980s, Japan maintained high tariffs and quotas on agriculture and certain manufactured goods, and employed a web of non-tariff barriers (complex distribution systems, standards, etc.) that made it difficult for foreign firms to penetrate its home market. At the same time, Japanese firms – often with government support (MITI's industrial policy) – aggressively competed abroad, leading to huge trade surpluses by the 1980s. This mercantilist model did foster the rise of globally competitive industries (autos, electronics, semiconductors) and contributed to Japan's rapid economic growth in the postwar decades. In that sense, Japan's experience might be seen as vindication that **protectionism can work under certain conditions**. However, there are caveats. Japan's boom occurred under the U.S. security umbrella and with access to the open U.S. market; it was an export-led strategy during an era of expanding global trade. Japan's import barriers also led to distortions: for example, Japanese consumers paid notoriously high prices for food (rice tariffs effectively over 700%) and for imported goods, reducing consumer welfare at home. Ultimately, Japan's economy hit a wall in the 1990s after an asset bubble burst – leading to the "Lost Decade" (and beyond) of stagnation. While not caused by trade policy per se, Japan's economic model had to shift. Over time, Japan liberalized many sectors and signed trade agreements (including being a key part of CPTPP today). Protection of inefficient sectors like agriculture remains, but Japan's growth rate never returned to the high levels of its catch-up era.

The lesson from Japan is nuanced: targeted protection as part of a broader industrial strategy *can* accelerate development for emerging industries, but in a mature economy it can also entrench inefficiencies. By the 1980s, Japan's allies complained loudly about its market closeness (hence the forced trade agreements mentioned earlier). The U.S. today makes similar complaints about countries like China (state-led growth, closed sectors) – but as Japan's case showed, forcing a country to open or change its model is difficult. Japan yielded in part because it relied on the U.S. militarily and diplomatically. In contrast, China may be far less pliable. Thus, if the U.S. expects that tariffs will coerce structural changes in other nations (e.g. make China abandon industrial subsidies or make EU slash its agricultural tariffs), history suggests skepticism. It took decades of pressure to get even incremental openings in Japan, and the core competitive

advantages (high quality manufacturing) remained with Japanese firms. Likewise, tariffs alone may not induce China to suddenly respect intellectual property or stop subsidizing high-tech sectors – those issues likely require sustained negotiation (and even then, outcomes are uncertain). Meanwhile, U.S. consumers and import-using industries would bear the interim costs.

Other Examples

We can also consider the experience of **developing countries** that embraced protectionism versus those that opened up. In the mid-20th century, many Latin American nations pursued **Import Substitution Industrialization (ISI)** – erecting high tariffs and import bans to spur domestic industry. Initially, this led to some industrial growth, but over time, the protected industries often became inefficient monopolies producing subpar goods, and consumers suffered from high prices. By the 1980s, growth stagnated and a number of those countries (e.g. India, Brazil, Argentina) began liberalizing trade as part of broader economic reforms. Empirical studies generally find that the shift from autarkic policies to more open trade in these countries was associated with faster growth and innovation, although sequencing and complementary policies mattered. On the flip side, **East Asian economies** like South Korea and Taiwan combined selective protection with export discipline – they protected infant industries but also pushed them to compete globally, phasing out support once industries matured. That model proved successful in raising income levels rapidly. The key distinction is that protection was used as a temporary tool within an export-driven framework, not as a permanent shelter for all sectors. In the U.S. 2025 tariff plan, the protection appears broad and open-ended (tariffs remain “*until the threat...is resolved*” ([Fact Sheet: President Donald J. Trump Declares National Emergency to Increase our Competitive Edge, Protect our Sovereignty, and Strengthen our National and Economic Security – The White House](#)), with discretion to increase further). The risk is that this could foster complacency in some domestic industries (shielding them from competition) without a plan to restore competitiveness in a sustainable way.

In sum, international cases show that **context and implementation are everything**. Blanket protectionism in already-developed economies tends to backfire or at least impose large costs (as Brexit and historical U.S. examples show). Targeted, time-bound protection can help in specific cases (as in East Asia), but the U.S. tariff policy is not particularly targeted – it’s extremely broad. The global economy today is also far more interconnected, which amplifies the repercussions. Countries around the world – allies and adversaries alike – are already responding to the U.S. tariffs, which leads us to the next question: what are the likely consequences and reactions in the coming years?

What Are the Likely Economic Consequences Over the Next Four Years?

The 2025 tariff policy sets in motion complex economic dynamics. We analyze the potential outcomes through three lenses: **macroeconomic effects, industry-level impacts, and geopolitical responses**. All projections must be caveated – outcomes will depend on how other nations respond (do they retaliate symmetrically, seek exemptions, or concede to U.S. demands?) and on domestic policy adjustments (monetary policy, fiscal moves to offset impacts). With that said, we can outline several plausible consequences through 2029:

1. Macro growth and inflation: The broad consensus of forecasters is that the tariffs will be a net drag on U.S. GDP growth relative to a no-tariff baseline. The chief mechanism is reduced efficiency and higher consumer prices. **Consumers will pay more** for a wide range of goods – everything from apparel and electronics (much of which are imported from Asia) to food products (many off-season fruits, coffee, etc., face new tariffs). Estimates vary on the magnitude: in the short run (2025–2026), inflation could be boosted by on the order of 1–3 percentage points due to tariffs, according to various private analyses (e.g. if half of the roughly \$3 trillion in annual imports see a ~15% average tariff, that’s effectively a ~\$450 billion cost, some of which filters into consumer prices) ([Key moments and reaction to Trump's "Liberation Day" announcement of new tariffs](#)) ([Key moments and reaction to Trump's "Liberation Day" announcement of new tariffs](#)). This comes at a time when inflation had been cooling to ~2%. Higher inflation will erode real incomes and likely prompt the Federal Reserve to raise interest rates or hold them high longer than otherwise, dampening investment. As a result, **real GDP growth is expected to slow**. Some economists predict a mild stagflation scenario: by 2026, growth could be a full percentage point lower than it would be without tariffs, and unemployment modestly higher, as sectors exposed to retaliation or higher input costs shed jobs.

It is true that tariff revenues (effectively a tax collection) could fund other spending or tax cuts. President Trump touts the potential revenue windfall over the next years – claiming over \$1 trillion in the first year alone ([Key moments and reaction to Trump's "Liberation Day" announcement of new tariffs](#)). However, economists are skeptical of such rosy revenue figures ([Key moments and reaction to Trump's "Liberation Day" announcement of new tariffs](#)) ([Key moments and reaction to Trump's "Liberation Day" announcement of new tariffs](#)). The reason is twofold: (a) as tariffs raise prices, **consumers will cut back on import purchases**, so the tax base shrinks (this behavioral response means you can’t just multiply the tariff rate by last year’s import value and get the revenue – imports will likely decline significantly in volume) ([Key moments and reaction to Trump's "Liberation Day" announcement of new tariffs](#)) ([Key moments and reaction to Trump's "Liberation Day" announcement of new tariffs](#)); and (b) if the economy slows due to the shock, overall consumption (including of domestic goods) may weaken, reducing other tax revenues. Some of Mr. Trump’s own officials reportedly project much lower tariff revenue than the President claims ([Key moments and reaction to Trump's "Liberation Day" announcement of new tariffs](#)). Any net fiscal gain might be partially offset by increased spending needs – for example, bailouts to farmers or industries hit by retaliation (as happened in 2018–2019 when the government spent billions aiding farmers hurt by lost exports). Overall, while tariffs reallocate money (from consumers/importers to the government and protected producers), they do not create new wealth – they actually reduce aggregate efficiency, which tends to *reduce* the total economic pie slightly. Thus, by 2029, most forecasts show U.S. GDP a few percentage points smaller than it would have been without the tariff policy, all else equal. The unemployment rate might rise above its pre-tariff trend as well, though precise estimates vary (one analysis by the **Trade Partnership** in 2018 estimated that a similar across-the-board tariff could cost millions of U.S. jobs net once retaliation is factored). On the flip side, if the administration uses tariff revenues to, say, finance infrastructure or manufacturing subsidies, that could mitigate some losses or even create jobs in those projects – but that veers into broader fiscal policy beyond just the tariff’s direct effect.

2. Industry winners and losers: Some U.S. industries will clearly benefit from import

substitution. Sectors like **steel, aluminum, apparel, appliances, furniture, and perhaps consumer electronics assembly** may see upticks in demand as imports become pricier. There is already anecdotal evidence of domestic producers planning to expand capacity – for instance, steel mills hiring more workers as foreign steel faces 10%+ tariffs on top of existing Section 232 duties. The **auto industry** is a special case: foreign-made cars now face a 10% baseline plus (for some countries like Japan or Germany) additional tariffs, making imported cars significantly more expensive. This should help U.S.-assembled cars gain market share domestically. However, major automakers warn of **supply chain disruption**: many “American” cars rely on parts from Mexico, Canada, or Asia. If those parts are subject to tariffs (depending on USMCA compliance and other exemptions), the cost of U.S. car production rises, which could actually lead to *higher car prices* even for domestic models. Indeed, **Stellantis (Chrysler)** announced temporary layoffs and even idled some North American plants in response to the tariffs, due to rising input costs and lost Canadian/Mexican component supply ([Trump stokes trade war as world reels from tariff shock | Reuters](#)) ([Trump stokes trade war as world reels from tariff shock | Reuters](#)). This exemplifies how complex supply chains complicate the simple narrative of tariffs = domestic jobs. Some companies may simply find it unprofitable to produce certain models in the U.S. if inputs are too costly, leading to production cuts or shifts abroad despite the tariffs.

Export-oriented industries are **likely losers**. U.S. farmers, aerospace companies, and high-end manufacturers that rely on foreign markets face retaliatory tariffs that make their goods less competitive overseas. China, the EU, and others have already announced tit-for-tat duties targeting iconic American exports ([Trump stokes trade war as world reels from tariff shock | Reuters](#)). For example, China’s 54% tariff on U.S. imports will severely curtail U.S. sales of products like soybeans, automobiles, and aircraft to China (China has alternative suppliers or domestic replacements in many cases). The EU’s 20% tariff on U.S. goods could hit industries ranging from Harley-Davidson motorcycles to bourbon whiskey. If foreign retaliation follows the 2018 pattern, it will be laser-focused on products from politically sensitive U.S. regions (e.g. farm states, swing-state industries) to maximize pressure. Over four years, one can expect U.S. export-oriented sectors to shrink relative to baseline: farmers might plant less, farm incomes will drop without heavy subsidies, and some manufacturing exporters may cut jobs.

Supply chain restructuring: A portion of global supply chains will reorient to circumvent U.S. tariffs. Multinational firms might accelerate moving final assembly of products destined for the U.S. to countries not hit by extra tariffs. For instance, electronics manufacturers could route more production through Taiwan, Vietnam, or India to evade the high China tariffs (this was already happening after 2018 ([Four years into the trade war, are the US and China decoupling? | PIIE](#))). However, under the new policy *all* countries face at least 10%, so the incentive now is to relocate production *into* the U.S. (to avoid any tariff) or into Mexico/Canada (to exploit USMCA duty-free provisions for qualifying goods). We may see increased investment in Mexico especially – it has relatively low labor costs and under USMCA, many goods can enter the U.S. tariff-free. Some firms may try to slightly tweak their supply chains to meet USMCA “rules of origin” and then ship to the U.S. tariff-free. There is a risk of **customs evasion and fraud** – past big tariff hikes have led to surges in mislabeled goods, transshipment via third countries, etc., as suppliers try to dodge duties. The U.S. Customs and Border Protection will be under pressure to enforce against such tactics.

3. Geopolitical and system-wide effects: Internationally, the tariff policy is straining alliances

and the multilateral trading system. Allies like the EU, Japan, and South Korea have expressed **outrage and vowed retaliation**, seeing the U.S. action as a breach of trust and WTO principles ([Trump stokes trade war as world reels from tariff shock | Reuters](#)) ([Trump stokes trade war as world reels from tariff shock | Reuters](#)). European Commission President Ursula von der Leyen warned of “*dire consequences for millions around the globe*” if the tariff war escalates ([Trump stokes trade war as world reels from tariff shock | Reuters](#)). While some U.S. partners are negotiating (South Korea, India reportedly sought concessions before the higher tariffs kick in ([Trump stokes trade war as world reels from tariff shock | Reuters](#))), the overall tenor is defensive. We may witness the fragmentation of the global trading order into blocs: e.g., the EU could deepen trade ties with China or other countries in response, forming a counterweight to U.S. protectionism. Countries excluded from U.S. markets might double down on regional agreements (like RCEP in Asia) that don’t include the U.S., effectively **isolating the U.S. from new trade networks**. On the extreme end, if the U.S. tariffs persist, some countries might bring cases to the World Trade Organization. The U.S. will invoke national security (which is largely exempt from WTO discipline), but this undermines the WTO’s authority. If enough countries flout WTO rules citing “emergency,” the institution could be fatally weakened. That in turn removes a key forum for peacefully resolving trade disputes, potentially leading to more ad-hoc retaliation cycles.

Another consequence is the breakdown of **trade cooperation with developing countries**. For instance, the tariffs on African countries signal the effective end of the **African Growth and Opportunity Act (AGOA)**, a U.S. program that gave duty-free access to African exports to spur development ([Steep US tariffs on Africa signal end of trade deal meant to boost development | Reuters](#)) ([Steep US tariffs on Africa signal end of trade deal meant to boost development | Reuters](#)). With high tariffs now hitting African goods, American trade policy is *punishing some of the world’s poorest economies*. This could reverse development gains and push African nations closer to trade partners like China, who might offer favorable terms to fill the void. As one African economist lamented, the U.S. “*reciprocal trade...pull[s] the AGOA rug from under our feet*” ([Steep US tariffs on Africa signal end of trade deal meant to boost development | Reuters](#)). Such shifts have long-term geopolitical implications: reduced U.S. influence in the Global South and a narrative of U.S. protectionism versus China’s (relative) openness.

National security implications: While the tariffs are justified on national security grounds, in the short run they may actually create frictions with allies whose cooperation the U.S. needs on security issues (NATO, Indo-Pacific strategy, etc.). If allies feel economically betrayed, they may be less willing to align with U.S. geopolitical goals. Over four years, if the economic pain is significant, we could even see leadership changes in some allied countries with more anti-American sentiment, complicating diplomacy.

On the positive side, if the U.S. uses the tariffs as leverage to negotiate better trade arrangements, we could envision a scenario by 2029 where some tariffs are lifted in exchange for partners lowering theirs. For example, perhaps the EU agrees to reduce its auto tariff and other barriers, and the U.S. in turn lowers or removes the reciprocal tariffs on the EU. Such an outcome would validate the *threat* as a bargaining chip (this was arguably the administration’s strategy). There is precedent: the **Reciprocal Trade Agreements Act** in the 1930s allowed FDR to negotiate tariff reductions bilaterally – but that was reciprocal lowering, not raising. Here, the U.S. is using higher tariffs as a stick to force mutual lowering later. It might work with some

countries, especially those that cannot afford a prolonged trade fight. Already, some smaller nations with deficits might comply or offer concessions to avoid punitive U.S. tariffs. If enough trading partners do reduce their tariffs or unfair practices, this could, in theory, benefit the U.S. in the longer term with a more level playing field. But it's a high-risk gamble; it assumes others will yield rather than retaliate in kind or seek alternatives.

In the **worst-case scenario**, by 2029 the world could be in a full-blown trade war and possibly a recession. If the U.S. and China keep ratcheting up tariffs (the President has threatened he can go higher if countries retaliate ([Fact Sheet: President Donald J. Trump Declares National Emergency to Increase our Competitive Edge, Protect our Sovereignty, and Strengthen our National and Economic Security – The White House](#))), the two largest economies might decouple significantly. This decoupling could extend to **technology and finance** (China could restrict exports of rare earth metals vital to U.S. tech, the U.S. could broaden export controls on semiconductors, etc.). In a tit-for-tat spiral, global businesses would face enormous uncertainty, likely curtailing investment. Financial markets already reacted negatively to the initial tariff shock – U.S. stock indices saw their worst quarter since 2022 amid tariff and recession fears ([Key moments and reaction to Trump's "Liberation Day" announcement of new tariffs](#)). A protracted conflict raises the risk of a global downturn reminiscent of the 1930s, though likely milder given policy buffers available.

One should also consider **dynamics within the U.S.** over four years. As tariffs raise prices, public opinion might shift. If inflation resurges or certain industries (like farming) are visibly hurt, domestic political pressure could mount against the policy. Businesses are already vocal – a multitude of U.S. companies have warned that “*new tariffs will hurt us and our customers*” ([Key moments and reaction to Trump's "Liberation Day" announcement of new tariffs](#)). If the promised manufacturing revival does not clearly materialize, by 2028 the policy could be seen as a failure by many voters, potentially influencing elections and leading to a reversal under a new administration. The policy's longevity is therefore not guaranteed. Many economists suspect the tariffs will be dialed back before 2029, either due to successful deals or due to economic/political strain forcing a change of course.

To encapsulate, **the likely economic consequences by 2029 include**: slightly slower U.S. growth, higher consumer prices, a reshuffling (but not elimination) of the trade deficit, **modest gains in a few industries** offset by losses in others, strained **global trade relationships**, and a less stable international trade environment. These outcomes broadly repeat historical patterns seen with past protectionist experiments: short-term wins for some domestic producers, diffuse costs on consumers and exporters, and difficult-to-quantify long-term damage to the country's innovative and competitive edge due to reduced foreign competition and cooperation.

Conclusion: Are Broad Tariffs a Path to Prosperity or a Historic Misstep?

Using a Socratic lens, we asked whether the 2025 tariff policy's benefits outweigh its risks. The evidence assembled – from economic theory, past U.S. and international experiences, and initial reactions – suggests deep skepticism is warranted. **The rationale behind the tariffs**

Trade deficits stem largely from macroeconomic imbalances; tariffs are a blunt tool that treat the symptom, not the cause ([Do trade restrictions work? Lessons from trade with Japan in the 1980s | PBS News](#)). The promised manufacturing resurgence faces headwinds from higher input costs and foreign retaliation, which historically have undercut the net gains from protection ([Four years into the trade war, are the US and China decoupling? | PIIE](#)) ([Do trade restrictions work? Lessons from trade with Japan in the 1980s | PBS News](#)).

Historical patterns echo loudly: Smoot-Hawley taught the world that tit-for-tat tariffs can spiral into global depression. The 1980s showed that even under threat, allies conceded only marginally, and trade flows found new routes. Brexit illustrates that reclaiming “economic independence” in trade can come at a significant GDP cost ([The impact of Brexit on the UK economy: Reviewing the evidence | CEPR](#)). Japan’s long experiment with mercantilism had successes but also led to blowback and stagnation. These precedents all caution against viewing tariffs as a panacea for economic ills.

Empirical research on recent tariff actions finds that tariffs function as a tax on one’s own consumers and producers. They protect some jobs while costing others – often leaving workers no better off overall ([Four years into the trade war, are the US and China decoupling? | PIIE](#)) ([Four years into the trade war, are the US and China decoupling? | PIIE](#)). They do raise government revenue, but in doing so they shrink the overall economic surplus (the classic deadweight loss). The **White House’s optimistic claims** (no inflation impact, huge growth boost ([Fact Sheet: President Donald J. Trump Declares National Emergency to Increase our Competitive Edge, Protect our Sovereignty, and Strengthen our National and Economic Security – The White House](#)) ([Fact Sheet: President Donald J. Trump Declares National Emergency to Increase our Competitive Edge, Protect our Sovereignty, and Strengthen our National and Economic Security – The White House](#))) are outliers against the bulk of studies by neutral economists who find the opposite. For instance, rather than increasing real incomes by 5%, the tariffs are more likely to *reduce* real household incomes by reducing purchasing power and possibly wages in export-hit sectors.

On the other hand, this analysis also recognizes the *motivation* behind the policy. There are genuine concerns about supply chain resilience and unfair practices by certain countries (e.g. intellectual property theft, subsidies, etc.). The question is not whether those issues exist, but whether across-the-board tariffs are an effective or prudent response. A more nuanced strategy could involve multilateral pressure (e.g. with allies, through WTO cases) and targeted measures (on specific strategic goods or technologies) rather than a sweeping tariff that also hits allies and innocuous imports. By **treating friends and foes alike** with the tariff broadside, the U.S. may have undermined potential coalitions to address the very problems it cites (such as a united front against China’s trade policies). The invocation of IEEPA to impose tariffs on such a scale is also legally adventurous and may not survive judicial scrutiny in the long term ([What lies ahead for tariffs on "liberation day"? | Reuters](#)).

Ultimately, whether this policy is remembered as a bold rebalancing or a historic misstep will depend on outcomes that will unfold in the next few years. If major trading partners significantly lower their tariffs and open markets in response to U.S. pressure, the administration could claim vindication – a scenario where short-term pain yields long-term gain. However, as this white paper has detailed, the **preponderance of historical and economic evidence leans toward a**

more pessimistic scenario: one where the tariffs persist or escalate, global trade contracts, and the U.S. and world economies grow more slowly than they otherwise would have. Already, the policy has “*shaken global alliances*” and “*unleashed turbulence across world markets*,” in the words of news reports ([Trump stokes trade war as world reels from tariff shock | Reuters](#)) ([Trump stokes trade war as world reels from tariff shock | Reuters](#)). Those are early warning signs reminiscent of past trade wars.

In the spirit of Socratic inquiry, we close by reflecting on the core question: **Do the ends (economic security and fairness) justify the means (indiscriminate tariffs)?** The analysis herein suggests that while the ends are laudable – every nation seeks robust industry and fair trade – the chosen means are fraught with hazard. Protectionism carries well-documented risks of sparking retaliation and inefficiency, a lesson hard-earned through history. As the U.S. embarks on this far-reaching experiment, it does so against the advice of most economists and the lessons of its own past ([Four years into the trade war, are the US and China decoupling? | PIIE](#)) ([Did tariffs cause the Great Depression? Here's what to know - NPR](#)). If history is any guide, the next four years will test whether this time is truly different, or whether, as George Santayana warned, those who do not remember the past are condemned to repeat it.

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