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General of the Army



George C. Marshall

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If Eisenhower had injured his old commander in bowing to McCarthy, the new president would atone for it many times over, Katherine insisted. The Marshalls were invited to the inauguration as members of the official party. Later they would often grace the guest list of White House dinners honoring visiting heads of state.

Despite friendship and frequent visits to the White House, Marshall claimed no special influence with the administration or with the man he now punctiliously addressed as "Mr. President." The retired general eschewed any political interest or involvement.

Other things occupied him. More and more he stood at gravesites in Arlington for the funerals of old comrades, Jonathan Wainwright, Ernest King, and Brehon Somervell among them.

In March 1953, Undersecretary of State Walter Bedell Smith proposed that Marshall head the American delegation to the June coronation of Queen Elizabeth II. Eisenhower made the appointment, ignoring political advisers who warned of McCarthy's continued attacks on Marshall for the loss of "a hundred million persons a year to international Communism."

Marshall was an apt choice to represent the United States in London. He had met both King George VI and his elder daughter during the war. A decade later, the highest ranking of all American soldiers was representing not only his president but those who had helped preserve Great Britain and make this ceremony possible: Franklin D. Roosevelt, stricken on the eve of victory; Harry Hopkins, Lord Root of the Matter, who had wasted to death early in 1946; Hap Arnold, buried in the Valley of the Moon, California, in January 1950; and tens of thousands of young men like Allen lying in cemeteries in strange lands.

Both Marshall and Katherine were delighted with the splendor and pomp of the occasion. Marshall was specially honored by his hosts. Just before the coronation in Westminster Abbey began, Omar Bradley recalled, first Winston Churchill, then Alan Brooke and Montgomery in their robes as Lords of the Realm pointedly turned out of the procession to shake Marshall's hand.

It was a grand celebration among old friends. There was a round of lunches with wartime colleagues and a day at the races with Churchill. He and Katherine spent time with Lady Mary Burghley, during the war the wife of the governor of the Bahamas where Marshall and Dill had once vacationed, now "my best friend over here," as the general wrote Truman.

A greater honor followed. On October 31, 1953, Marshall learned that he had been named the recipient of the Nobel Peace Prize. Nominated by former President Truman, among others, Marshall received the prize for his sponsorship of the European Recovery Program. He rose from a

sickbed and month-long bout with the flu—he found it harder and harder to bounce back from these annual sieges—to hold an impromptu press conference in the living room of his Pinehurst cottage.

Regardless of the citation, he said in a hoarse voice, his greatest contribution to world peace "was in 1940 in the effort to persuade the administration and Congress to get under way with the preparations for the inevitable war. That was the hardest thing I ever did."

The award, Marshall told reporters, came as "a tribute to the whole American people." A number of people contributed to the plan, "the late Senator Vandenberg more than anyone else." His citation and the accompanying award of $33,840, thus was "unusual," he added, a contrast to the individual prize for literature, won that year by Winston Churchill.

The choice was widely applauded, except in the Soviet bloc. *Pravda* ran a satirical cartoon of a prognathous George Marshall, firebrand over one shoulder, dollar-sign insignia on the other sleeve, decked in a mask in the shape of a lamb's head.

The reporters gone, Marshall and Katherine spent two weeks recuperating from bronchial infections at Walter Reed. Confined there, he was unable to attend the White House dinner in honor of Queen Frederika of Greece. The queen instead visited him at the hospital.

To attend the Nobel ceremony in December, Marshall undertook a second sea voyage to Europe, hoping that the eight-day southern crossing to Naples would aid his recuperation. He traveled alone; Katherine did not feel up to the trip. Awed passengers on the *Andrea Doria* gave him a wide berth, until one approached to ask for an autograph. Marshall was more than gracious, the passenger recalled, "grateful for the momentary companionship. He complained that he was unhappy because no one came near him or talked to him. He was lonely."

Still weak from the influenza attack, Marshall husbanded his strength throughout the trip, preparing for the climactic banquet address he was to give.

Newsreels of the award ceremony before a glittering audience at Oslo University's Festival Hall caught Marshall as a seemingly weary man, the first professional soldier to be burdened by the responsibility of a Nobel Peace Prize. Just as Marshall was called to receive the medal, a small group of demonstrators in the balcony shouted: "Murderer! Murderer!" Described by police as members of Norway's ragged Communist Party, the protesters scattered over the audience below leaflets describing Marshall as "the man who decisively contributed to the atomic death of 100,000 people in Hiroshima and Nagasaki. . . ."

Even before members of Marshall's air crew, an embassy agriculture attaché, and police could grapple with the demonstrators, Norway's King Haakon VII rose to applaud the general. The entire audience followed,

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While fifty Communist protesters picketed outside the banquet hall the following night, Marshall in white tie and tails delivered his formal Nobel address.

"There has been considerable comment over the awarding of the Nobel Peace Prize for 1953 to a soldier," Marshall acknowledged. "I am afraid this does not seem as remarkable to me as it quite evidently appears to others. . . . The cost of war in human lives is constantly spread before me, written neatly in many ledgers whose columns are gravestones. I am deeply moved to find some means or method of avoiding another calamity of war."

For the moment, the means to peace included, paradoxically, arms. "A very strong military posture is vitally necessary today. How long it must continue I am not prepared to estimate, but I am sure that it is too narrow a basis on which to build a dependable, long-enduring peace."

That would take more, in particular, education of individuals and a change in national attitudes to foster international understanding. It would also require attention to the aspirations of the millions living under dreadful conditions "who have now come to a realization that they may aspire to a fair share of the God-given rights of human beings."

Marshall did not think highly of his Nobel address, written while he was ill. Yet the speech contained an insightful vision of the Western world's future challenge:

> We must present democracy as a force holding within itself the seeds of unlimited progress by the human race. By our actions we should make it clear that such a democracy is a means to a better way of life, together with a better understanding among nations. Tyranny inevitably must retire before the tremendous moral strength of the gospel of freedom and self-respect for the individual, but we have to recognize that these democratic principles do not flourish on empty stomachs and that people turn to false promises of dictators because they are hopeless and anything promises something better than the miserable existence that they endure.

Marshall returned to the United States still weak, still hoarse. He would never quite enjoy the best of health thereafter. He suffered a succession of minor illnesses—colds, bronchitis, a rash—his stays in the presidential suite at Walter Reed stretching out. His hearing worsened and he had trouble with his sense of balance. His limitations were more numerous, Marshall confessed in letters to friends.

He maintained a sense of humor. On the tenth anniversary of D-Day, he told inquiring White House newsmen his big worries now were "the

blackbirds eating all my marigolds." He and Katherine did "a lot of gardening" he explained.

Nearing his seventy-fifth birthday, Marshall still struck *New York Times* writer Walter S. White as "rather like a finely coiled spring. The steel has bent a bit, become a bit less supple with the passing of the years. Still, it remains." Marshall appeared aloof, lofty, no man for small talk. It was Katherine, a "lady of subdued, relaxed gaiety," who softened the otherwise forbidding soldier.

To some who did not know him well, Marshall in retirement seemed venerable, a man still in command. One British guest recalled driving with the general to the country club in Leesburg for dinner; there Marshall's neighbors stood as he entered the club's dining room.

Some first-time visitors were awed despite themselves, perhaps by the signed photographs in the parlor from Queen Elizabeth and President Eisenhower, "Your Old Lieutenant"; perhaps by the expensive tapestries and paintings Madame Chiang had sent to Dodona Manor.

Visitors came often enough, both to Leesburg and Pinehurst. Omar Bradley came for a visit and golf. Marshall's stepgrandson Jimmie Winn stayed when his parents visited Japan. Queen Frederika brought her children, Crown Prince Constantine and daughter Sophia, to meet the man she considered Greece's protector.

He kept busy, for, after all, he was "absolutely all right from the neck up." Answering letters from well-wishers took time, and he spent some afternoons answering the questions of Forrest Pogue, the military historian selected to write his biography.

Occasionally he was consulted about military affairs. Interviewed on proposed reorganization of the Department of Defense, "the general made some very keen answers," Lieutenant Colonel George wrote Robert Lovett. "He reminisced quite a bit, almost entirely along lines of the importance of a unified and well coordinated team." Rather wryly Marshall noted for another interviewer, "Hindsight would be a valuable member of any cabinet."

The years grew harder. He took to using a cane on his afternoon walks with Katherine. Sergeant Heffner now made the daily run to pick up the mail in the civilian version of the Jeep Marshall so fancied. He had lately lost some weight and lacked energy, he wrote friends in May 1957.

In August 1958, Marshall checked into Walter Reed for the removal of a cyst on his face and for dental work. The short stay stretched out when he fell and cracked a rib. His concerned doctors discharged Marshall only after arranging for a medical corpsman to be on duty around-the-clock at Liscombe Lodge.

He was not well. Rose Wilson recalled visiting her godfather, sitting up in bed in his spartan bedroom, dressed in a dark blue Chinese dressing gown. Marshall was drawn, his skin pulled taut across his cheeks, his neatly brushed hair thinning, ‹ godfather, dear Colonel Marsh

She sat by his bed, holding h time now to remember," he to father down Uniontown's steep

"Colonel Marshall," the won live long enough to know what very proud of you."

"Do you really think so?" Ma have approved of me."

Two weeks into the new yea Marshall's bedroom heard the shall had suffered a crippling s corpsman kept the general aliv Fort Bragg hospital nearby.

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On February 18, Marshall su hospital issued weekly bulletin his condition. In March he was to oust cancer-stricken John F Sick herself, Katherine stayed ing her frail husband as best sh

For a while Marshall seeme wheelchair, but slipping more of the uncomprehending. Old nized and greeted in a whispe all old soldiers. His former or came for a short visit, then sta man visited. President Eisenh Churchill, himself eighty-fou of the hospital room, watchin lying so small under the cover

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Shortly after 6:00 p.m. on

neatly brushed hair thinning, completely white. She was stunned. Her godfather, dear Colonel Marshall, was an old man.

She sat by his bed, holding his hand for long hours. "I have so much time now to remember," he told her. He recalled tobogganing with his father down Uniontown's steepest street. "What great sport that was!"

"Colonel Marshall," the woman replied, "I'm sorry your father didn't live long enough to know what a great son he had. He would have been very proud of you."

"Do you really think so?" Marshall asked. "I'd like to believe he would have approved of me."

Two weeks into the new year, the medical corpsman stationed outside Marshall's bedroom heard the strangled gasps of a man choking. Marshall had suffered a crippling stroke and had swallowed his tongue. The corpsman kept the general alive while an ambulance raced them to the Fort Bragg hospital nearby.

The stroke left him weakened and easily fatigued, but able to communicate. Even in sickness he clung to a sense of obligation. Responding to a request from *The Observer* (London), he dictated comments to be used in that newspaper's standing obituary for Winston Churchill. The prime minister, said the ailing general, was "a citizen of the world . . . a soldier, orator, author and statesman. Great was he in all . . . the perfect associate . . . dedicated to the principle that the right will prevail."

On February 18, Marshall suffered a second, more severe stroke. The hospital issued weekly bulletins and kept the White House informed of his condition. In March he was transferred to Walter Reed, but refused to oust cancer-stricken John Foster Dulles from the presidential suite. Sick herself, Katherine stayed in a guest cottage, always nearby, protecting her frail husband as best she could.

For a while Marshall seemed to rally, spending some of his time in a wheelchair, but slipping more and more often into the profound silence of the uncomprehending. Old comrades dropped by. Some he recognized and greeted in a whisper. With some he exchanged the stories of all old soldiers. His former orderly, retired Sergeant James W. Powder, came for a short visit, then stayed on at Marshall's request. Harry Truman visited. President Eisenhower came three times, once with Winston Churchill, himself eighty-four. Churchill merely stood in the doorway of the hospital room, watching with tears in his eyes the comatose man lying so small under the covers.

Marshall lost his sight, his hearing, his speech. He fell into a permanent coma, fed by tubes, but kept alive by dint of his strong physical constitution. His old doctor, Major General Morrison Stayer, who had helped Marshall beat the doctors in 1940, refused to come again. There was nothing medicine could do for the general.

Shortly after 6:00 p.m. on Friday, October 16, 1959, General of the

Photograph by U.S. Army Signal Corps

Army George Catlett Marshall, two and one-half months shy of his eightieth birthday, simply stopped breathing.

At his express order, there would be no state funeral. He who had planned the formal military funerals for Presidents Harding and Franklin Roosevelt, and for General of the Armies John J. Pershing, wanted no such elaborate ceremony for himself.

Instead, the honors would be simpler. At Eisenhower's order, flags flew at half-mast until the funeral. Marshall's body lay in state in the Bethlehem Chapel of the National Cathedral for twenty-four hours. Cadets from VMI joined the casket's honor guard traditionally composed of members of each of the services. Thousands shuffled quietly across the marble floor, past the casket, paying their respects.

The newspaper obituaries, long and prominent, struggled to take the measure of the man. Marshall had served his nation well. Born in 1880, when men easily recalled Lincoln and the Civil War, he had served ten presidents as a soldier and a diplomat. His career had carried him from the Philippines to the barren Oklahoma Territory, from a hellish war in France to service in strange, continually fascinating China. The perfect staff man, he had yearned for a troop command, only to become commander of the largest army his country would ever field.

Never the most brilliant student, or even the best read, he had steadily grown as a man and a soldier until he could be truly called a statesman. His world also grew, from Uniontown, Pennsylvania's few short blocks, to encompass the entire globe. In his lifetime, the United States transformed itself from an insular nation of thirty-eight states into a dominant world power. Marshall's own career paralleled much of that, and he would significantly shape many of the events in that history.

Over those years, he came to influence a generation of soldiers and scores of others who would hold high office long after his death. Some shared his military precepts, some his diplomatic vision. The best of them also emulated his concept of selfless service.

George Catlett Marshall exemplified in his lifetime all that was America's best—its sense of mission, of responsibility, of integrity, even nobility. The men and women in the small chapel at Fort Myer, Virginia, on this Tuesday in October understood what the nation had lost with that soldier's death.

The funeral on Tuesday, October 20, in the flower-filled chapel took just twenty minutes, the audience limited to a small list of invited guests. Some omitted asked to come, including Ambassador Robert Murphy, retired Lieutenant General Lucius Clay, and Sergeant Richard Wing, Marshall's orderly in China and in Moscow; all three were seated.

Canon Luther Miller of the National Cathedral, once Marshall's chaplain with the 15th Infantry at Tientsin and later chief of chaplains at the end of the war, presided over the brief Episcopal ceremony. President

Eisenhower and former Presi
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Guests at the chapel heard f
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Eisenhower and former President Truman, meeting for the first time in six years, sat side by side, their shared grief partially healing the rift between them. At Marshall's request, there was no eulogy.

The graveside service was equally brief. Marshall had asked for only a few honorary pallbearers: Sergeant Powder and his current orderly, Sergeant William Heffner; his wartime aide, Frank McCarthy, now a motion picture producer; Colonel George; Robert Lovett; and Walter Bedell Smith. Mrs. Marshall added a handful more, including retired Admiral Harold Stark and Omar Bradley. With Katherine, her daughter Molly, and Allen's widow, the men followed the coffin from the chapel to the green hillside below the Tomb of the Unknown Soldier not far from the equestrian statue of Marshall's friend, Sir John Dill.

Guests at the chapel heard first the honor guard's rifle volley reverberating among the tombstones, then a keening trumpet sounding "Taps."

Photograph by U.S. Army Signal Corps

in an executive department or agency on grounds relating to loyalty shall be that, on all the evidence, reasonable grounds exist for belief that the person involved is disloyal to the Government of the United States.

2. Activities and associations of an applicant or employe which may be considered in connection with the determination of disloyalty may include one or more of the following:

A. Sabotage, espionage, or attempts or preparations therefor, knowingly associating with spies or saboteurs;

B. Treason or sedition or advocacy thereof;

C. Advocacy of revolution of force or violence to alter the constitutional form of Government of the United States;

D. Intentional, unauthorized disclosure to any person, under circumstances which may indicate disloyalty to the United States, of documents or information of a confidential or non-public character obtained by the person making the disclosure as a result of his employment by the Government of the United States;

E. Performing or attempting to perform his duties, or *otherwise acting, so as to serve the interests of another government in preference to the interests of the United States.*

F. Membership in, affiliation with or *sympathetic association* with any foreign or *domestic* organization, association, movement, *group or combination* of persons, designated by the Attorney General as totalitarian, Fascist, Communist, or *subversive,* or as having adopted a policy of advocating or approving the commission of acts of force or violence to deny other persons their rights under the Constitution of the United States, or as seeking to alter the form of Government of the United States by unconstitutional means.

578. THE MARSHALL PLAN
June 5, 1947
(*Congressional Record,* June 30, 1947)

On June 5, 1947, at a Harvard commencement, Secretary of State George C. Marshall delivered a notable address setting forth the basic principles of American policy toward the post-war rehabilitation of Europe. Secretary Marshall viewed the European economy as a unit, and suggested that European countries in need of American aid should join together in drawing up a program stating their needs. Great Britain and France, after consulting with Prime Minister Molotov of the Soviet Union, issued an invitation on July 3, 1947 to twenty-two European countries to participate in a conference, the purpose of which was to draw up a blueprint of European reconstruction to present to the United States. The Soviet Union took an increasingly hostile view of the undertaking, saw the Marshall Plan as the beginning of an anti-Russian bloc, and refused to participate. The conference of European countries opened at Paris on July 12, and submitted a general report on European needs, September 23, 1947. See S. B. Fay, "The Marshall Plan," *Current History,* September 1947; *New York Times,* September 24, 1947, for the conference report.

Remarks by the Honorable George C. Marshall, Secretary of State, at Harvard University on June 5, 1947.

I need not tell you gentlemen that the world situation is very serious. That must be apparent to all intelligent people. I think one difficulty is that the problem is one of such enormous complexity that the very mass of facts presented to the public by press and radio make it exceedingly difficult for the man in the street to reach a clear appraisement of the situation. Furthermore, the people of this country are distant from the troubled areas of the earth and it is hard for them to comprehend the plight and consequent reactions of the long-suffering peoples, and the effect of those reactions on their governments in connection with our efforts to promote peace in the world.

In considering the requirements for the rehabilitation of Europe the physical loss of life, the visible destruction of cities, fac-

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effort than had been foreseen.

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onsidering the requirements for the tation of Europe the physical loss of e visible destruction of cities, fac-

tories, mines, and railroads was correctly estimated, but it has become obvious during recent months that this visible destruction was probably less serious than the dislocation of the entire fabric of European economy. For the past 10 years conditions have been highly abnormal. The feverish preparation for war and the more feverish maintenance of the war effort engulfed all aspects of national economies. Machinery has fallen into disrepair or is entirely obsolete. Under the arbitrary and destructive Nazi rule, virtually every possible enterprise was geared into the German war machine. Long-standing commercial ties, private institutions, banks, insurance companies and shipping companies disappeared, through loss of capital, absorption through nationalization or by simple destruction. In many countries, confidence in the local currency has been severely shaken. The breakdown of the business structure of Europe during the war was complete. Recovery has been seriously retarded by the fact that 2 years after the close of hostilities a peace settlement with Germany and Austria has not been agreed upon. But even given a more prompt solution of these difficult problems, the rehabilitation of the economic structure of Europe quite evidently will require a much longer time and greater effort than had been foreseen.

There is a phase of this matter which is both interesting and serious. The farmer has always produced the foodstuffs to exchange with the city dweller for the other necessities of life. This division of labor is the basis of modern civilization. At the present time it is threatened with breakdown. The town and city industries are not producing adequate goods to exchange with the food-producing farmer. Raw materials and fuel are in short supply. Machinery is lacking or worn out. The farmer or the peasant cannot find the goods for sale which he desires to purchase. So the sale of his farm produce for money which he cannot use seems to him an unprofitable transaction. He, therefore, has withdrawn many fields from crop cultivation and is using them for grazing. He feeds more grain to stock and finds for himself and his family an ample supply of food, however short he may be on clothing and the other ordinary gadgets of civilization. Meanwhile people in the cities are short of food and fuel. So the governments are forced to use their foreign money and credits to procure these necessities abroad. This process exhausts funds which are urgently needed for reconstruction. Thus a very serious situation is rapidly developing which bodes no good for the world. The modern system of the division of labor upon which the exchange of products is based is in danger of breaking down.

The truth of the matter is that Europe's requirements for the next 3 or 4 years of foreign food and other essential products—principally from America—are so much greater than her present ability to pay that she must have substantial additional help, or face economic, social, and political deterioration of a very grave character.

The remedy lies in breaking the vicious circle and restoring the confidence of the European people in the economic future of their own countries and of Europe as a whole. The manufacturer and the farmer throughout wide areas must be able and willing to exchange their products for currencies the continuing value of which is not open to question.

Aside from the demoralizing effect on the world at large and the possibilities of disturbances arising as a result of the desperation of the people concerned, the consequences to the economy of the United States should be apparent to all. It is logical that the United States should do whatever it is able to do to assist in the return of normal economic health in the world, without which there can be no political stability and no assured peace. Our policy is directed not against any county or doctrine but against hunger, poverty, desperation, and chaos. Its purpose should be the revival of a working economy in the world so as to permit the emergence of political and social conditions in which free institutions can exist. Such assistance, I am convinced, must not be on a piecemeal basis as various crises develop. Any assistance that this Government may render in the future should provide a cure rather than a mere palliative. Any government that is willing to assist in the task of recovery will find full cooperation, I am sure, on the part of the United States Govern-

ment. Any government which maneuvers to block the recovery of other countries cannot expect help from us. Furthermore, governments, political parties, or groups which seek to perpetuate human misery in order to profit therefrom politically or otherwise will encounter the opposition of the United States.

It is already evident that, before the United States Government can proceed much further in its efforts to alleviate the situation and help start the European world on its way to recovery, there must be some agreement among the countries of Europe as to the requirements of the situation and the part those countries themselves will take in order to give proper effect to whatever action might be undertaken by this Government. It would be neither fitting nor efficacious for this Government to undertake to draw up unilaterally a program designed to place Europe on its feet economically. This is the business of the Europeans. The initiative, I think, must come from Europe. The role of this country should consist of friendly aid in the drafting of a European program and of later support of such a program so far as it may be practical for us to do so. The program should be a joint one, agreed to by a number, if not all European nations.

An essential part of any successful action on the part of the United States is an understanding on the part of the people of America of the character of the problem and the remedies to be applied. Political passion and prejudice should have no part. With foresight, and a willingness on the part of our people to face up to the vast responsibility which history has clearly placed upon our country, the difficulties I have outlined can and will be overcome.

579. EVERSON v. BOARD OF EDUCATION
330 U.S. 1
1947

The rising costs of education during the war and postwar years led to demands from parochial and independent schools for some form of governmental aid. The Board of Education of Ewing, New Jersey, provided for free transportation for all pupils to public and parochial schools alike. The challenge to this act reintroduced the old controversy over the separation of church and state. The concurring and dissenting opinions in this case give abundant historical analysis and bibliographical references; see, also, J. M. O'Neill, *Religion and Education Under the Constitution;* A. W. Johnson, *Legal Status of Church-State Relationships in the United States;* Leo Pfeffer, *Church, State, and Freedom;* Leo Pfeffer, "Church and State, Something Less than Separation," 19 *U. of Chicago Law Rev.* 1; E. S. Corwin, "Supreme Court as National School Board," 14 *Law and Cont. Problems* 3.

Appeal from the Court of Errors and Appeals of the State of New Jersey.
Affirmed.

BLACK, J. . . . A New Jersey statute authorizes its local school districts to make rules and contracts for the transportation of children to and from schools. The appellee, a township board of education, acting pursuant to this statute authorized reimbursement to parents of money expended by them for the bus transportation of their children on regular busses operated by the public transportation system. Part of this money was for the payment of transportation of some children in the community to Catholic parochial schools. . . .

The appellant, in his capacity as a district taxpayer, filed suit in a State court challenging the right of the Board to reimburse parents of parochial school students. He contended that the statute and the resolution passed pursuant to it violated both the State and the Federal Constitutions. . . .

The only contention here is that the State statute and the resolution, in so far as they authorized reimbursement to parents of children attending parochial schools, violate the Federal Constitution in these two respects, which to some extent, overlap. First. They authorize the State to take by taxation the private property of some and bestow it upon

others, to be used for their own pri
poses. This, it is alleged violates
process clause of the Fourteenth
ment. Second. The statute and th
tion forced inhabitants to pay taxe
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Insofar as the second phase of
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consideration of which we now turn.

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commands that a state "shall make
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prohibiting the free exercise thereof."
words of the First Amendment refle
the minds of early Americans a vivid
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This Court has previously recognize

QUOTES BY MARSHALL

QUOTES ABOUT MARSHALL
BY CHURCHILL, ROOSEVELT,
TRUMAN - etal.

PLEASE,
Can you get p. 432?

Marshall Comments
from Nobel
Acceptance (1953)

Marshall Plan
Speech
Harvard Commencement
June 5, 1947

in his forties found even greater success in serious literary creation. In the twenty-fifth report of the Harvard class of 1915 he wrote: "In 1936 I wrote a novel called *The Late George Apley*. When I showed it to my literary agent, his manner became sad and gentle. He passed it without comment to the lady who was his novel expert, and a day later she called me into her early American pine sanctum. She said she had always thought I might write a 'serious novel' some day, and now after all these years, what had I produced? A humorless fantasy. All that she could suggest, she said, was to put it away and to forget it as quickly as possible. It was published in 1937. In 1938 it won the Pulitzer Prize."

The instant success of this subtle, half-affectionate satire of the Boston he had known paved the way for some dozen novels, which would satirize other aspects of American life in the next twenty years. Marquand's power of mimicry, his gift for reproducing characteristic turns of speech with literal exactness, made him in conversation a superlative storyteller. With *The Late George Apley*, he clearly demonstrated his ability to transpose the spoken word to paper. He was thus able to abandon his commercial adventure stories for studies of places and people in which plot was subordinated to the presentation of human foibles. Apart from his highly accurate recollection of speech and choice of details, Marquand's most noteworthy literary device was his use of the flashback. The whole of his last book, *Timothy Dexter Revisited*, consists of a flashback to the Newburyport eccentric whose life had, thirty-five years earlier, inspired Marquand's only venture in biography, *Lord Timothy Dexter of Newburyport, Mass.* (1925).

Next to *The Late George Apley*, *Point of No Return* (1949), *Melville Goodwin, USA* (1951), *Thirty Years* (1954), and *Sincerely, Willis Wayde* (1955) are considered to be some of his strongest works. The trade sales of most of Marquand's later novels ran into six figures, while Philip Hamburger calculated in 1952 that book club and cheap editions had accounted for nearly four million copies. Unfortunately Marquand had greater success in shaping the lives of his characters than his own. He married Adelaide F. Hooker in New York on Apr. 17, 1937. They had two children but were divorced in 1958. Also, in spite of his phenomenal success, the memory of his childhood as a poor relation in Newburyport haunted Marquand; this type of preoccupation was shared by many of his characters.

Although he lived for long periods in Boston and New York, traveled extensively around the world, and dearly loved China, John Marquand nearly always set off in a novel from his Newburyport doorstep. The original doorstep not having been as high as his heart's desire, what a springboard he made of it! It was one of the paradoxes of his being that, having labored conscientiously and achieved a nationwide reputation, Marquand remained an Essex County man to the last—and rather an uneasy one at that. He was so diffident and delicately sensitive that at one moment his friends would marvel at his insight into them and their kind, and at the next instant they would be moved to wonder that John Marquand could seem so little at home with himself. But Essex County by tradition and experience and long-gathered affection was the true end of his journeys. It was there, at his home on Kent's Island, Newbury, that he died in his sleep of a heart attack.

[A *New Yorker* profile by Philip Hamburger, reprinted in 1952 as *J. P. Marquand, Esquire: A Portrait in the Form of a Novel*, is the best and most perceptive biography. Stephen Birmingham, *The Late John Marquand* (1972), although longer, is marred by errors of fact and interpretation. Reports of Marquand's Harvard class of 1915 contain valuable comments. Helen Howe, *The Gentle Americans* (1965), describes John and Christina Marquand as summer neighbors at Cotuit. Marquand contributed a thirty-page memoir to a project on the Book-of-the-Month Club done for the Oral History Collection of Columbia University in 1951.]

WALTER MUIR WHITEHILL

MARSHALL, GEORGE CATLETT, JR. (Dec. 31, 1880–Oct. 16, 1959), soldier and statesman, the only professional soldier to win the Nobel Prize for peace (1953), was born in Uniontown, Pa., the son of George Catlett Marshall, a well-to-do coke and coal merchant, and Laura Bradford. His great-great-grandfather, the Reverend William Marshall, was a brother of Thomas Marshall, father of Chief Justice John Marshall.

Marshall's father had accumulated a modest fortune by 1890. But unfortunate investments in real estate near Luray, Va., left him hard-pressed to pay his son's fees at Virginia Military Institute, which the boy entered in 1897. Ill-prepared academically, Marshall did poorly in his first year, but he graduated well above the middle of his class and was selected at the end of each year as the top

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cadet—first corporal, first sergeant, and first captain. The superintendent of Virginia Military Institute, in recommending him to President William McKinley in 1901, said that Marshall "was equal of the best" cadets who had graduated from that school.

After passing a competitive examination with high marks, Marshall took the oath as second lieutenant of infantry on Feb. 3, 1902, with date of rank from the act of Feb. 2, 1901, providing for new officers. On Feb. 11, 1902, he married Elizabeth Carter Coles. After a honeymoon in Washington, D.C., he was ordered to the Philippines, arriving just at the close of the Philippine Insurrection. Here, as a company officer and then as the only officer at an isolated post on the island of Mindoro, Marshall had his first taste of command. Returning to the United States in late 1903, he served at a small post in Oklahoma Territory and then helped to map part of West Texas. In 1906, Marshall studied at the Infantry-Cavalry School (soon renamed School of the Line) at Fort Leavenworth, Kans., and qualified for a second year at the Army Staff College by placing first in his class. After the second year he served for two years as an instructor in the Department of Military Engineering at the Fort Leavenworth Army Service Schools.

Marshall's solid foundation as a staff officer was laid in 1907–1912, when he was assigned to militia and regular units during summer maneuvers and given tasks of planning normally reserved for men of higher rank. It was this training that won him recognition and applause in the Philippines in 1914, when, as a first lieutenant, he was called on at the last moment to serve as acting chief of staff for the attacking force in important maneuvers.

Marshall's performance attracted the attention of the Philippine department commander, Major General J. Franklin Bell, former chief of staff of the U.S. Army, and of Bell's successor, Major General Hunter Liggett, for whom Marshall served as aide, 1915–1916. Liggett, who succeeded John J. Pershing as commander of First Army in France, in 1918 made Marshall his chief of operations. Bell requested Marshall as aide in 1916 at San Francisco and in 1917 at Governors Island, N.Y. At both headquarters he was assigned tasks in training and supply normally reserved for officers considerably higher in rank. For it was only on his way to the new post in California that he made captain. In 1917, Marshall joined the First Infantry Division, which was being organized as the first American field unit to go to France in World War I. After serving as training officer, he became chief of operations of the division and remained with it until the summer of 1918, when he was called to General Headquarters to help plan the battle in the St. Mihiel salient. While that battle was still in progress, he coordinated the withdrawal of French and Italian units from the Meuse-Argonne front and the movement forward of a large American force.

Marshall's share of the activity involved handling more than 400,000 men, an action that earned him the nickname "Wizard" in some of the newspapers and high praise from Pershing, who showed his appreciation by proposing Marshall for a star, later, by naming him his principal aide. The war ended before Marshall got his star; he would not reach that eminence until fifteen years later.

The years with Pershing (1919–1924) were valuable ones, since Marshall worked closely with his commander in outlining defense legislation presented to committees of Congress, visited most of the army posts and bases, and aided in the writing of Pershing's official reports.

From 1924 to 1927 Marshall served as executive officer of the Fifteenth Infantry Regiment at Tientsin, China, where he learned to speak rudimentary Chinese and became familiar with the thinking of the people. Several of his favorite officers, including Joseph W. Stilwell and Matthew B. Ridgway, were among those who served under him.

Particularly important among Marshall's assignments was that as assistant commandant in charge of instruction at the Infantry School, Fort Benning, Ga. (1927–1932). Sent there shortly after the death of his wife a few weeks following their return from China, he influenced ground-force doctrine and leadership by his bold rewriting of instruction manuals to gain simplicity and realism. More than 160 future generals—including Omar N. Bradley, Joseph Stilwell, J. Lawton Collins, Matthew Ridgway, and Walter Bedell Smith—were instructors or students at Fort Benning during that period. In October 1930 he married Katherine Tupper Brown, widow of a Baltimore attorney and mother of three children. In the next six years Marshall worked with National Guard units and with young men in the newly formed Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC). In the little more than a year during which he served as a battalion commander at Savannah, Ga., and a much shorter period as a regimental chief at Charleston, S.C.,

TIME MAG-
MAN OF THE YEAR
1944 JANUARY

he built and developed camps for the CCC. From 1933 to 1936, Marshall directed instruction for the Illinois National Guard, and in 1936–1938, after he received his first star, he commanded the Fifth Infantry Brigade at Vancouver Barracks, in the state of Washington, and directed the CCC camps in that area. Few commanders knew better the problems and possibilities of young men who would be brought into the armed forces after 1940.

Summoned to Washington, D.C., as chief of the War Plans Division in the summer of 1938, Marshall was promoted a few months later to deputy chief of staff. He impressed President Franklin D. Roosevelt by his frankness and won the support of Harry Hopkins, the president's closest adviser, by his appraisal of what was needed for American defense. Marshall received his second permanent star and his four temporary stars when he became head of the army, succeeding General Malin Craig on Sept. 1, 1939. While Craig was on terminal leave (July 1–September 1), Marshall acted as chief of staff, succeeding to the full title a few hours after Hitler invaded Poland. Marshall became general of the army on Dec. 16, 1945, a rank that was made permanent in 1949.

As head of the U.S. Army until Nov. 20, 1945, when he asked to be relieved, he was the only top-level British or American political or military figure to hold the same post throughout World War II. Six feet tall, aloof, soft-spoken except when deeply angered, and moving with great self-confidence, Marshall won the confidence of Presidents Roosevelt and Harry S. Truman, gained the deep respect of Winston Churchill and the British and American chiefs of staff, and enjoyed excellent relations with Congress and the press. *Time* magazine, in proclaiming him Man of the Year in January 1944, declared that he had armed the republic.

In his two months as acting chief of staff, Marshall strove to bring the army up to its authorized strength under the Defense Act of 1920. His goal of 225,000 men was reached shortly after he became chief of staff. By the end of the war he commanded an American army and army air force of 8.3 million men. He frequently visited units in training, demanding realism in instruction and maneuvers and ruthlessly weeding out officers who lacked stamina, imagination, and the power to inspire men to action. In numerous appearances before committees of Congress, he warned early in 1940 that before the year ended the "phony war" in Europe might become a real

Marshall

one. When he proved to be a true prophet, Congress provided more money that he could at once effectively use. Complicating his task was the fact that in addition to procuring and training men and increasing the production of war materials, the army had to find scarce weapons and munitions to aid Britain, China, and, after the summer of 1941, the Soviet Union. Before the end of 1940, Congress passed the Selective Service Act and nationalized units of the National Guard.

For planning purposes Marshall accepted a proposal by the chief of naval operations, Admiral Harold R. Stark, in late 1940, embodying the idea that if the United States was forced to fight simultaneously in the Atlantic and the Pacific, it would adopt a "Europe First" strategy. Discussions were held with British representatives in Washington early in 1941 and at the Anglo-American meeting at Argentia, Newfoundland, in August. Even after the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor on Dec. 7, 1941, Marshall and his associates remained firm on the European attack. At home he demanded a complete reorganization of the War Department staff so that he could have a more effective command post. Marshall also was responsible for the appointment of Admiral William D. Leahy in the summer of 1942 as chairman of the joint chiefs of staff.

Marshall played a leading part in the great conferences and meetings with the president, the prime minister, and the British and American chiefs of staff from Argentia to Potsdam, becoming the chief advocate of the cross-Channel attack. Nevertheless, in 1942 and 1943 he accepted compromises. He was particularly aided in his efforts by the close friendship he developed with Field Marshal Sir John Dill, who headed the British mission in Washington from early 1942 until his death in late 1944. In preparation for the invasion of Europe, Marshall was responsible for the appointment of General Dwight D. Eisenhower, who had become chief of the War Plans Division in February 1942, to head American forces in the United Kingdom. He backed him for the chief command of Allied forces in the Mediterranean at the time of the North African invasion in November 1942. But it was assumed that Marshall would command the European invasion in 1944. At the Cairo and Teheran conferences in 1943, Roosevelt, who had initially insisted on Marshall's appointment, became disturbed at the thought of not having him in Washington. At first he agreed to leave the decision to Marshall, but when the chief of staff declined to make it, Roosevelt, saying he could not

sleep well at night with Marshall out of Washington, appointed Eisenhower.

In the closing year and a half of the war, Marshall redoubled his efforts to step up production, to get necessary manpower, and to assure that during the main effort in Europe, General Douglas MacArthur would get support in the Pacific and supplies would flow to General Joseph W. Stilwell and his successor, Albert C. Wedemeyer, in China. But he made it clear that large units would not be committed on the Asian mainland. Near the end of the war in Europe, Churchill called Marshall "the true organizer of victory." A few days after Marshall's retirement on Nov. 20, 1945, President Truman read a citation saying that while millions of Americans had given their country outstanding service, General of the Army George Marshall had given it victory.

Marshall's retirement was interrupted almost at once by President Truman's request that he go to China as the president's special representative to secure a truce between warring Nationalist and Communist Chinese and to press for a coalition government. After a year of personal negotiations, Marshall had to acknowledge failure of his mission. He had already agreed to succeed James F. Byrnes as secretary of state. He took office in January 1947 and held it until early 1949, when he had a kidney removed and resigned for reasons of health.

As secretary Marshall reorganized the secretariat of the State Department and established a policy-planning staff, proving himself to be "a master of administration," in the words of a 1970 State Department study. He is best known for his role in developing the European Recovery Program, known as the Marshall Plan. He gave credit to a number of individuals for their contributions, suggestions, or actual drafting of the speech in which he set forth the plan during the day of the Harvard commencement, on June 5, 1947, but correctly believed that his nonpartisan stance and speeches given across the country had aided passage of the legislation.

Marshall took a leading role in the Council of Foreign Ministers meetings in Moscow in March–April 1947 and in London in November–December 1947; and he led the American delegation to the U.N. General Assembly at Paris from mid-September to mid-December 1948. He also took part in the Inter-American Conference for the Maintenance of Continental Peace and Security (1947), which resulted in the signing of the Rio Treaty of Reciprocal Assistance, and the Ninth International Conference of American States at Bogotá (1948). This meeting arranged for the Pan American Union to be reorganized under the name Organization of American States.

Marshall's term was marked by the announcement of the Truman Doctrine, which was being discussed when the secretary left for Moscow in March 1947. Although he objected to some of the tough rhetoric in Truman's final draft, Marshall did not insist when he was told that the Congress would not grant assistance for Greece and Turkey without a warning against Soviet aggression.

In May 1948 Truman decided to recognize Israel's statehood within minutes of its proclamation of independence. Marshall was considering a compromise solution consisting of partition or a tripartite trusteeship when White House advisers pressed the president to recognize a state of Israel as soon as the British gave up their Palestine mandate. Believing that the way to such a step should be diplomatically prepared, Marshall protested against a decision made on a basis of domestic politics. In one of the few cases where the president went contrary to Marshall's advice, Truman decided to give prompt recognition to the new state.

A month later, on June 24, worsening relations between the Western occupation powers and the Soviet Union came to a head when Russian authorities in Berlin closed ground communications from the West into the former German capital. General Lucius Clay favored the sending of a convoy along the highway, but Marshall and Under Secretary Lovett advised against that course. Clay then proposed the Berlin airlift that proved successful.

During the summer of 1948, discussions were held with representatives of Canada and the Brussels Pact countries concerning a security organization for western Europe. These early negotiations were followed up by Secretary of State Dean Acheson, who signed agreements for the North Atlantic Treaty Organization. Later, Marshall as Secretary of Defense helped to implement the treaties.

In September 1950, after service as president of the American Red Cross, Marshall accepted Truman's offer of the secretaryship of the Department of Defense. Special congressional action was required to waive the requirement barring a professional military man from this position in his case. In his year in office Marshall helped to rebuild the strength of the army and to

increase military production so that there would be a chance of victory. He was involved in President Truman's decision to remove General MacArthur from command of U.N. forces in the Far East in April 1951. Although Marshall had first advised against a removal at that time, he ended by giving his approval. In congressional hearings that followed, he strongly supported the civilian against military authority. In an effort to build up the army's manpower without recourse to a large professional army, Marshall made a strong but unsuccessful effort to have universal military training adopted. In September 1951, he retired. As a permanent five-star general, he remained on duty at the call of the president. Marshall was appointed by President Eisenhower in 1953 to head the U.S. mission at the coronation of Elizabeth II, and he was called on by the White House and the Pentagon for advice on military developments until near the end of his life.

Marshall's last months in office were overshadowed by the lengthy attack made on him in the Senate on June 14, 1951, by Senator Joseph McCarthy of Wisconsin in which his insistence on the cross-Channel attack, his failure to press for the capture of Berlin and Prague, his policy in China, and his part in the removal of MacArthur were all pictured as softness on Communism. Marshall was promptly defended by members of both parties in the Congress; and his Alma Mater proclaimed a Marshall Day on which he received the highest civilian decoration given by the Commonwealth of Virginia.

Marshall died in Washington, D.C., and was buried at Arlington National Cemetery. In 1964 the George C. Marshall Research Library was dedicated at Lexington, Va., by a group including President Lyndon B. Johnson, former President Eisenhower, former Secretary of Defense Robert A. Lovett, and General Omar N. Bradley.

In military affairs Marshall will be remembered as the individual who above all others built the U.S. Army and Army Air Force that contributed heavily to victory in World War II. No wartime commander so long enjoyed the trust and standing he held with the White House, with Congress, and with the public. His strength lay in his candor with Congress and the press, his refusal to play politics with military matters, and his firm insistence that the civilian power be superior to that of the military. In approving President Truman's action to remove General MacArthur from command in Korea in 1951, he spelled out for a congressional committee the limits of military authority.

Marshall

As secretary of state Marshall gave his name and his strong backing to legislation that undertook to set Europe on the road to economic recovery. Although aware that such reconstruction was in the best interests of the United States, his first consideration was the defeat of hunger and misery in Europe. In his postwar career he tried to combine a policy of firmness toward the Soviet Union with an effort to promote peaceful relations. He embodied a happy combination of military and political leadership in one of the most violent decades in world history.

[The George C. Marshall Research Library, Lexington, Va., contains 250,000 of his personal papers; more than a million pages copied from official files of the Army, Defense, and State departments; files of photographs; 25,000 books and periodicals on Marshall and the period 1900–1951; articles about Marshall; and obituaries. The most extensive collection of interview material on General Marshall is in the Marshall Library. It consists of interviews with more than 350 people (more than half of the interviews are taped) brought together between 1956 and the present. Forty hours of twenty-nine interviews with Marshall are on tape, and notes are provided for at least fifteen hours of additional material. The holdings of the Columbia Oral History Collection contain numerous interviews that contain material pertaining to Marshall. Other interview collections containing material on Marshall are those at the Truman, Roosevelt, and Eisenhower libraries, the U.S. Army Military History Institute, and the Dulles project at Princeton University. Copies of notes on a large number of interviews—collected by Harry B. Price and assistants—from individuals associated with the Marshall Plan are in the Marshall Library. The collection includes notes on interviews with individuals in every Marshall Plan country.

The authorized biography, by Forrest C. Pogue, will consist of four volumes. Those now in print are *George C. Marshall: Education of a General, 1880–1939* (1963); *George C. Marshall: Ordeal and Hope, 1939–1942* (1966); *George C. Marshall: Organizer of Victory, 1943–1945* (1973). See also Mrs. George C. Marshall, *Together* (1946); William Frye, *George Marshall* (1947); Rose Page Wilson, *General Marshall Remembered* (1968); John Robinson Beal, *Marshall in China* (1970); Major H. A. DeWeerd, ed., *Selected Speeches and Statements of General of the Army George C. Marshall, Chief of Staff, U.S. Army* (1945); Joseph R. McCarthy, *America's Retreat from Victory* (1952); Joseph P. Hobbs, *Dear General, Eisenhower's Wartime Letters to Marshall* (1971); Alfred D. Chandler et al., *The Papers of Dwight David Eisenhower: The War Years* (1971); numerous volumes in the *U.S. in World War II* series, including in particular, Mark Watson, *Chief of Staff: Plans and Preparations* (1950); Maurice Matloff and Edward M. Snell, *Strategic Planning for*

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MARDIKIAN, GEORGE M.—*Continued*

can be prepared by the American housewife without recourse to rare ingredients. The cookbook received the favorable attention of several critics, one of them describing the author and his work, respectively—"Mardikian is a rambunctious, amusing showman. . . .His book is charming, and full of the best smell and taste of life" (Chicago *Sun*).

Mardikian is a member of the California Writers' Club, the Boy Scouts of America, the San Francisco Opera Association, and the Save the Children Federation. He is president of the American National Committee to Aid Homeless Armenians. Mardikian's church is the Old Armenian Gregorian. The restaurateur, who weighs 235 pounds, has been described as "the big man with the bright face" by William Saroyan, who wrote the foreword to Mardikian's book. Mardikian's brown hair is graying and thinning. His height is a half an inch under eight feet when he is wearing his two-foot chef's cap. He names his hobbies as photography, fishing, and helping Armenian students to obtain an education in the United States.

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Mardikian, G. M. Dinner at Omar Khayyam's (1944)

MARSHALL, GEORGE C(ATLETT)
Dec. 31, 1880- United States Secretary of State; Army officer

Address: b. c/o Department of State, Washington, D.C.

NOTE: This biography supersedes the article which appeared in *Current Biography* in 1940.

When General George C. Marshall became United States Secretary of State in January 1947, having been named to the Cabinet position earlier in the month by President Truman '45, he was the first career soldier to assume that post. This appointment climaxed forty-five years of service in the United States Army, during which period he advanced from the rank of second lieutenant to become Chief of Staff of the Army of World War II and General of the Army (now permanently), the highest American military rank. Marshall's previous work of a diplomatic nature included meetings with leaders of Allied Governments during the war and his mission as American special envoy to civil war-torn China. As the Secretary of State, the General, who, it is said, preferred to retire but accepted the position solely out of a sense of public responsibility, has formulated a foreign policy (the Marshall Plan or the European Recovery Program) which includes economic aid to impoverished European nations and aid of a military nature to those combating "foreign aggressions." In United Nations conferences he has introduced measures designed to help the organization toward the achievement of world peace.

George Catlett Marshall was born December 31, 1880, in Uniontown, Pennsylvania, to George Catlett and Laura (Bradford) Marshall. He is the descendant of a long line of Americans primarily of Southern stock, his parents themselves being Kentuckians who had settled in Pennsylvania. He is related to Chief Justice John Marshall, one of the most eminent of American jurists, through one of his forebears, the Reverend William Marshall, an uncle of the chief justice. The elder George Catlett was a prosperous businessman engaged in the operation of coal and coke industries in the southwestern region of his adopted State. In the Marshall family there were two other sons, William (who died in infancy) and Stuart, and a daughter, Marie.

Although from his earliest years he had planned to become a soldier, young George Marshall, when he entered the Virginia Military Institute in 1897, is said to have shown little of his future promise—he was a "long, a lean, and a gawky cadet, sensitive and shy." During his free hours Cadet Marshall studied the terrain of the old Civil War battlefields, in the neighborhood of the school. Despite his unpretentious beginning at the college, Marshall was graduated in 1901 as Senior First Captain of the Corps of Cadets, being voted to the highest cadet rank at the institute by his classmates; scholastically he was fifteenth in his class. In his final year at V.M.I., Marshall also became an outstanding player on the college's football team and later a tackle on the All-Southern Eleven.

In February of 1902 the twenty-two-year-old V.M.I. alumnus was commissioned a second lieutenant in the United States Army. Attached to the Thirtieth Infantry stationed in the Philippine Islands, the second lieutenant remained there until November 1903, returning with his regiment to quarters in Oklahoma Territory. Then, after several years' duty in the West and on the Pacific Coast, Marshall was selected as one of the trainees to be sent to the Infantry-Cavalry School at Fort Leavenworth (Kansas), of which he was a senior honor graduate in 1907. In March of the same year he was promoted to the rank of first lieutenant. It was a decided handicap in that era for a career soldier not to have been a product of West Point. (Before the youth had entered the institute his father had attempted to obtain an appointment for him to West Point but failed because he was a Kentucky Democrat in a Republican Pennsylvania district.) Because of his V.M.I. education, because promotions were few in peacetime, and because of rigid army seniority laws, future advancements in grade were to come slowly to him.

Lieutenant Marshall was next assigned to study at the Army Staff College, also in Fort Leavenworth, an institution which, patterned after European counterparts, was founded by

the War Department in 1903 to train staff officers. At the Army Staff College, wrote Don Cook in *Fighting Americans of Today*, Marshall's "love of military theory, as well as his sixth sense about strategy, served him well." The brilliant student—he headed his class—was instructor there for two years after he was graduated (1908), teaching men whose rank usually was above his. Marshall's work following this position consisted of practical field duty as inspector-instructor of the Massachusetts National Guard (1911-12) and as officer with the Fourth Infantry in Arkansas and Texas until the summer of 1913.

For a second time, from the middle of 1913 until the spring of 1916, Marshall saw duty in the Philippines, in the last year as aide-de-camp to General Hunter Liggett. It was during the period when maneuvers involving Manila's defense were being held that Marshall's ability as tactician brought him the acclaim of his superior officers. Ushered hurriedly into command of the defending Field Force when its chief of staff fell ill, Marshall dictated a field order, providing for protection of Corregidor and Bataan Peninsula, which won the day for Marshall's Field Force. General James Franklin Bell, the departmental commander (formerly Chief of Staff of the Army), announced later to his staff that the lieutenant's plan was the best he had ever seen. Calling Marshall "one of those rare men who live and dream in their profession—a soldier who is not satisfied with daily duty superbly done," General Bell ended with these words: "Keep your eyes on George Marshall. He is the greatest military genius of America since Stonewall Jackson."

On his return to the United States in May 1916 (he became captain in July) Marshall's numerous assignments included those of aide-de-camp in San Francisco to General Bell, of executive officer in a Civilian Training Camp at Fort Douglas (Utah), and again of officer on General Bell's staff at Governor's Island (New York). His ability to obtain the utmost in efficiency from soldiers in his charge was recognized—they did not, it is said, resent his disciplinary efforts. When the United States was drawn into World War I, Marshall, as a member of the General Staff, in July 1917 accompanied the first convoy of the First Division to France. In the sector east of Luneville (fall of 1917), at the St. Mihiel front (January to March 1918), and at the Picardy and Cantigny battle areas (March to July of the same year), the captain's tasks were those of a G-3 or operations officer to that division, the American section earliest involved in important combat. By August 1918 Marshall had attained the rank of a colonel, having become a major in August 1917 and a lieutenant colonel (all three were temporary ranks) in 1918.

Not long before General John J. Pershing organized, early in August 1918, "the first great American Army and took personal command," Marshall had been sent to General Headquarters at Chaumont where he was ordered to formulate plans for the St. Mihiel offensive. Still occupied with drafting these he was detailed to the First Army (in August) where his added assignment consisted of "transferring some 500,000 troops and 2,700 guns"—within two weeks and at night—to their new position at the Argonne front in preparation for the Meuse-Argonne offensive. In his diary Pershing, in praising Marshall's well-prepared plans, reveals that the enemy detected nothing of these large-scale movements. In October Marshall was released from his post at GHQ to become chief of operations of the First Army, then still in action in the Meuse-Argonne sector; and in the succeeding months until the spring of 1919, when he was recalled to General Headquarters to aid in outlining the projected advance of the American Army into Germany, he served as Chief of Staff of the Eighth Army Corps.



Press Assn., Inc.

GEORGE C. MARSHALL

Shortly after the Armistice was declared he had an opportunity to retire as a soldier to accept a lucrative position in private business. Marshall, nevertheless, preferred the Army: in May 1919 he had become aide-de-camp to Pershing (both returned to the United States in September). The General and Marshall (Pershing's opinion of him—"He's a man who understands military"—was the General's highest form of praise), worked together in Washington, D.C., to obtain legislative support for their national defense measures. Their recommendations, designed to eliminate the conditions of unpreparedness responsible for many World War I military blunders, were incorporated in the National Defense Act (June 1920), which provided for a trained army of 450,000 men. Congress, however, in the wave of postwar isolationism, continually neglected to allocate the funds needed and the Act remained merely a paper act. In June of 1920, too, Marshall's rank reverted to that of captain, but he became a major one month afterward.

(Continued next page)

MARSHALL, GEORGE C.—*Continued*

Lieutenant Colonel Marshall (he was advanced in 1923) was aide to Pershing until 1924. For the next three years he was attached to the Fifteenth United States Infantry stationed in Tientsin, China. By 1927 he was again in the United States acting as instructor at the Army War College (Washington, D.C.) and in that year was selected Assistant Commandant of the Infantry School at Fort Benning (Georgia). During his five-year tenure he transformed the infantry college "from a mere school of technique into an important school of command for junior officers" and "developed new tactical methods and fathered a plan by which within a few hours foot troops can be taught" all that is required about close-order drill. From 1932 until his initial association with the office of the Army General Staff in July 1938 Marshall served successively as Commander of the Eighth Infantry at Fort Screven (Georgia) and at Fort Moultrie (South Carolina) during 1932-33, as senior instructor of the Illinois National Guard in the years 1933 to 1936, and as commander (August 1936) of the "Red" forces in the Second Army Maneuvers in Michigan and (August 1937) of the "Red" forces in the Fourth Army Maneuvers at American Lake, Washington. Meanwhile, in 1936, he was made a brigadier general, having been a colonel since 1933, and was then given charge of the Fifth Infantry Brigade at Vancouver Barracks (Washington).

When Brigadier General Marshall assumed his General Staff post in July 1938 his title was that of Assistant Chief of Staff in the War Plans Division in the American capital. General Malin L. Craig '41, then Chief of Staff, and Louis Johnson '42, Assistant Secretary of War, who were primarily responsible for Marshall's appointment, found in him all the qualities, including physical ruggedness, which they, in the light of explosive international events, deemed requisite in an officer working with an alert and newly energized War Department and General Staff. In October Marshall became Deputy Chief of Staff; nine months later (July 1939) he was designated Acting Chief of Staff, a post which he held until September (1939) when he was chosen Chief of Staff, acquiring the rank of general. Thirty-four officers (twenty major and fourteen brigadier generals) preceded Marshall in order of degree; but President Roosevelt '42, after a conference with General Pershing, decided that the Pennsylvanian was the most capable man for the job. In December 1944 Marshall became General of the Army, the recently created five-star (highest) rank.

The long-time advocate of military readiness, once again, while on the General Staff, had the opportunity to influence legislation providing for expansion of the armed services, for training and mobilization of peacetime forces, and for additional defenses both at home and in the American possessions. Despite warnings by press, radio, etc., Marshall and his co-workers received little support for their measures from Congress or the American people. Only with the debacle of France and the British evacuation at Dunkirk did Americans in official quarters take action. At that time—the summer of 1940—Marshall "urged the establishment of Selective Service and the federalization of the National Guard for a year of training," which program Congress adopted in the fall. So as to alleviate the grave national emergency which the Chief of Staff, five months before the United States entered the war, declared existed, he obtained an eighteen-month extension of training for the two classes of recruits; and in the autumn (1941) the Army detailed about one million men to maneuvers—the largest peacetime operations in American history—the handling of which was evidence that "great progress . . . had been made in the training of the Army higher commanders, staffs, supply services, and troops during the year which preceded." Unlike many of his predecessors and contemporaries in War and Navy Department bureaus, Marshall as Chief of Staff was to maintain friendly relations with legislators and the press and to impress all questioners at military affairs committee meetings and elsewhere with his knowledge of the subject under discussion.

As "professional head of the nation's military establishment and commander of the field forces" responsible by Executive Order (March 1942) only to the President, Marshall directed the building and arming of a wartime force which reached the proportions of eight and a quarter million men by May 1945 and the construction of far-flung battle and supply lines. In that same period of time the air force (Marshall is known to be air-minded) grew to 69,000 planes of all types, the officer corps alone reached 764,000 men. His staff and field officers—Eisenhower '42, McNair '42, Arnold '42, Somervell '42, etc.—were men he had tested in every way possible to ascertain their fitness for command; officers who by right of seniority should have held high posts were disregarded in favor of younger, more able soldiers who were appointed by Marshall without regard to personal favoritism. The reorganization of the Army (1942) into Ground, Air, and Service Forces under the Chief of Staff and an Operations Division under the General Staff, the coordination of military and naval strategy by the United States Joint Chiefs of Staff, and close cooperation with civilian and war production agencies also were to contribute their share to the eventual winning of the war. From 1941 when work on the atomic bomb was begun, supervised by the Office of Scientific Research and Development, General Marshall was one of the members of the policy committee guiding the atomic studies of American and British scientists.

A member also of the Combined Chiefs of Staff of the United States and Great Britain (the group maintained liaison "with the Soviet Union through an Allied Military Mission to Moscow, and with China by the Allied Military Council at Chungking"), Marshall exercised an important influence on United Nations strategy. He recognized the necessity of supplying equipment to all anti-Axis nations and guided the distribution. Many of his tasks were partially

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diplomatic: he accompanied Roosevelt to meetings of leaders of the other Allied countries. In August 1941 he was present at the conference at sea between the President and Churchill [42], which resulted in the adoption of the Atlantic Charter. Between December 1941 and January 1942 he assisted with Roosevelt, Churchill, and the Combined Chiefs of Staff at a meeting which set up "principles of unity of command in the Far East." Other conferences, some attended by Stalin [42] and Chiang Kai-shek [40], were those at Casablanca (January 1943), Quebec (August), Cairo-Teheran (November-December 1943), Yalta (February 1945), and with President Truman at the Big Three meeting in Potsdam (August 1945). Marshall's plan for conquering Germany by invading Western Europe instead of Churchill's, which arranged for troops to enter the Continent by way of the Balkans, was accepted by the Combined Chiefs of Staff in April 1942. Although Marshall, whose character and capabilities had impressed foreign leaders, was mentioned in the press (in 1943) as the possible choice for Supreme Commander of the Anglo-American forces in the West, he continued to direct the over-all strategy and General Dwight D. Eisenhower was given the post of Supreme Commander in the European theater.

In November 1945, at his request, Marshall secured his release from duty as Chief of Staff and was succeeded by General Eisenhower. Later the same month Truman appointed Marshall "Special Representative of the President to China, with the personal rank of Ambassador." Before he left for his new assignment, he was called to testify before a Congressional committee seeking cause for the lack of suitable warning to American forces at Hawaii in December 1941 of the coming break with Japan. The earlier conclusion of the Army report (printed in the New York *Times*, August 30, 1945) stated, in respect to Marshall, that he "failed in his relations with the Hawaiian Department to keep it fully advised of the tenseness of the situation" and "to investigate the readiness of General [Walter C.] Short's [45] command" on the island. During the course of the hearings (November-December 1945) Marshall asserted that he considered the Army commander in Hawaii to have been sufficiently alerted to possible attacks, that he had no recollection of having seen Short's reply to his warning—it was seen by subordinates and other officials none of whom had been aware from the reply of insufficient precautions, and that he had not visualized any attack upon Pearl Harbor, believing that it would constitute too much of a risk for Japan.

For some months after Marshall replaced Patrick J. Hurley [44] as special envoy to China, the divided Asiatic nation appeared capable of unification. Marshall on his brief return to Washington in March 1946 reported that American Marines were aiding the Chinese Government to deport to their homeland the remnants of Japanese forces. Through Marshall's mediation a number of tripartite teams composed of Americans, Chinese Communists, and Nationalists (Kuomintang) were to be sent to Manchuria to keep the peace between the two major opposing Chinese forces in that section when Soviet Russia withdrew. As a means of preventing famine, creating employment, and helping to institute a democratic Government, he urged a loan to China. Little had been accomplished by his mission when he was recalled to Washington in January 1947 to assume the Cabinet post of Secretary of State. In a statement issued to the public in the same month he reviewed the complexities which had prevented settlement of China's problems (*The Department of State Bulletin*, January 19, 1947). A dominant party of reactionaries in the Kuomintang and extremists among the Communists were responsible for obstructing unification, he alleged; those liberal democratic groups among Communists drawn to the party primarily because of the corruption in local governments, those progressive members of the Kuomintang and other factions must be encouraged under the leadership of Chiang. He deplored also "the dominating influence of the military" which "accentuates the weakness of civil Government in China." As a means of enabling the two opponents to come to terms, Marshall late in January withdrew all but a handful of Marines from China. "War," he had once said, "is the most terrible tragedy of the human race and it should not be prolonged an hour longer than is absolutely necessary."

Although different newspapers criticized the increase in the number of professional soldiers being appointed to civilian diplomatic posts of many varieties, most observers of American domestic affairs lauded the choice of the soldier and statesman Marshall, for the State Department secretaryship, vacated by James F. Byrnes [41] because of illness. To interrogators who sought to learn whether or not Marshall would be a 1948 Presidential candidate, he replied that he considered his new office to be a nonpolitical one, for himself, and that he refused to be considered a candidate for any political office. (Like many Army officers, Marshall has never voted.) At his first press conference in February 1947 he declared that the international control of atomic energy and the general issues involved in preserving the peace must be solved before any discussions on world wide disarmament would be valid. Among the other subjects mentioned was that of universal military training. In his biennial report of 1945 (appearing in the New York *Times*, October 10, 1945) Marshall, then Chief of Staff, had injected into his history of the final two years of the war a plea for postwar preparedness, of which universal military training was one phase. (All of Marshall's official war reports, along with those of General Arnold and Admiral King [42], have been published in *The War Reports* [1947]. In *Selected Speeches and Statements of General of the Army George C. Marshall* [1945], edited by H. A. DeWeerd, is to be found also his "expositions of military needs and policies.") For reasons of defense expediency Marshall, too, has supported unifying all departments for national defense under one department, with a civilian head. (While

MARSHALL, GEORGE C.—*Continued*

still Army Chief of Staff he had helped to found in 1946 the (National War College.)

Other early actions of the new Secretary of State were reorganization of the State Department's intelligence unit and recommendations for aid to European displaced persons, continuance of relief abroad after termination of UNRRA, and for a publicly chartered corporation to control the short-wave foreign broadcasts, hitherto managed by the State Department. In addition, his recommendations to Congress included proposals to permit United States membership in the United Nations International Refugee Organization; and to ratify the peace treaties with Italy, Bulgaria, Rumania, and Hungary.

During March-April 1947 Secretary of State Marshall attended the meetings in Moscow of the Big Four Council of Foreign Ministers. Before he left for Moscow he had received a note from the British Foreign Office informing the United States Government that after March 31 Britain would withdraw her support from Greece and cease aid to Turkey. This announcement resulted in the formulation of what has been called the "Truman Doctrine," presented in an address by the President to Congress on March 12. Truman recommended $400,000,000 of aid to Greece and Turkey, and the authorization of the "detail of American civilian and military personnel" to be advisers and supervisers of the investment. Marshall was described as the shaper, with Eisenhower, Dean Acheson, and others, of this "simple, declarative statement of new United States policy" to prevent the imposition of totalitarian regimes on European nations. In May the President signed the $400,000,000 Greek-Turkish aid bill.

On March 10, 1947, the Council of Foreign Ministers convened in Moscow to discuss primarily the drafting of the German and Austrian peace treaties. (Marshall in February had revealed that the United States policy toward Germany was basically the same as that proposed in the Potsdam agreement [1945] and in James F. Byrnes's Stuttgart address [1946].) The Ministers' discussions, however, made little progress, one of the main hindrances being Russia's demand for reparations from current German production. Although observers had hoped that Marshall's call on Premier Stalin on April 15 would break the East-West impasse, there were no "concrete results," the matters talked about by Marshall and Stalin remaining a secret (*United States News*, April 25, 1947). The forty-six-day meeting of the council adjourned on April 24. During the conference a number of agreements—concerning Ruhr and Saar coal shipments to France, repatriation of German prisoners, etc.—were concluded.

On June 5, 1947, at the Harvard University commencement exercises, the Secretary delivered an address which developed into the so-called Marshall Plan, later officially named the European Recovery Program (ERP). The speech, on the European economic plight, stated in part: "Our policy is directed not against any country or doctrine but against hunger, poverty, desperation, and chaos. Its purpose should be the revival of a working economy in the world so as to permit the emergence of political and social conditions in which free institutions can exist." He called upon all European nations desiring economic aid to submit to the United States a program of economic construction outlining the "part those countries themselves will take in order to give proper effect to whatever action might be undertaken by this Government." Upon Marshall's invitation, Bevin, Molotov, and Bidault met in Paris to discuss the Secretary's suggestions. In July, sixteen European nations, including Britain and France (Russia and her "satellite nations" boycotted the meetings), met at the Paris Economic Conference on the ERP and established the Committee of European Economic Cooperation (and four sub-committees), whose report in September stated that during 1948-51 member nations and Western Germany would require aid to the amount of $22,440,000,000. Because of the need also for interim aid to prevent privation and communism, especially in France, Italy, and Austria, Marshall later in 1947 asked Congress for an allotment of $597,000,000 for the purpose; in December a special session of Congress, in the Foreign Aid Act of 1947, voted $522,000,000 for interim assistance. Marshall averred that action on the long-range ERP must be taken by March 1948. Earlier, in November, Marshall gave to the Senate Foreign Relations Committee an estimate of $300,000,000 for proposed aid to China during 1948-49.

Secretary Marshall was present at the Inter-American Defense Conference (meeting in August-September in Petropolis, Brazil, near Rio de Janeiro) to draw up a mutual Western Hemisphere defense pact implementing the 1945 Act of Chapultepec. On September 2 the Inter-American Treaty of Reciprocal Assistance (also called the Treaty of Rio de Janeiro) was signed. It includes provisions for the peaceful settlement of all disputes between the nations of the Western Hemisphere and for united defense against outside aggression.

September 1947 saw Secretary Marshall's first appearance before the U.N. General Assembly. To prevent abuse of the veto he proposed that it not be used in peaceful settlement of disputes and in the admission of new members (the veto on "use of force to maintain peace" would be kept). He also proposed the establishment of a continuous-session, all-nation interim committee on peace security which would "consider disputes at the request of Security Council or individual states", "recommend special General Assembly sessions it deemed necessary", "determine whether this 'little assembly' should be made permanent." Other points included were the referring of the Korean independence question to the Assembly, and support of the partition plan for Palestine. The United States plan for the "Little Assembly" was accepted later by General Assembly delegates with some modifications.

On November 25 the four-power Council of Foreign Ministers met in London. The dis-

cussions reached another stalemate. Before Marshall's return to the United States (December 19), he concluded with Britain a bi-zonal pact under which his country was to assume financial and economic charge of the Anglo-American zone, political control to be handled equally by both nations. Charging Russia with responsibility for the failure of the London Conference, Marshall, in his radio address to the American nation, declared that whereas Soviet leaders and the Communist parties predict that the Western European civilization will not prove strong enough "to rise above the destructive effects of the war and restore a healthy society", "we, on the other hand, are confident in the rehabilitation of Western European civilization with its freedoms."

Among other of Secretary Marshall's actions in 1947 were his added changes in State Department organization: the creation of a policy planning staff, headed by George F. Kennan "", to decide upon the Department's long-range foreign policy plans. Marshall also persistently urged greater appropriations, some of which he obtained, when the existence of the Department's Office of Information and Cultural Relations (of which the *Voice of America* foreign broadcasts are part) was threatened by Congressional budget cuts. Other actions were his appeal for legislation to create the St. Lawrence seaway, in conjunction with Canada (May); support of "discretionary authority" for the President "to send American military missions, consonant with American interests, to any country that asked for them" (June); and support of the Stratton bill to admit four hundred thousand European displaced persons into the United States (July).

For his service in World War I Marshall was the recipient of the Distinguished Service Medal (its Oak Leaf Cluster for World War II duty), the Silver Star, and the Victory Medal and German Occupation Ribbons, and for service in World War II, of the three theater ribbons without stars, and the National Defense Ribbons; he holds, too, the Philippine Campaign Medal. His foreign decorations include the Croix de Guerre with Palm and Legion of Honor, Grand Croix (France), Knight Grand Cross, Order of the Bath, Military Division (Great Britain), the Order of Suvarov, First Degree (Soviet Russia), and a number from Italy, Morocco, and various Latin-American republics. The D.Sc., D.M.Sc., LL.D., and D.C.L. are the honorary degrees awarded him. Among the clubs and organizations with which he is affiliated are the Army and Navy Club (Washington) and the Society of the National Shrine of the Bill of Rights (life member). His church is the Episcopal.

Marshall's marriage to his college sweetheart Elizabeth Carter Coles, a physician's daughter, took place in February 1902. Three years after her death in 1927, he was married (October 1930) to Katherine Boyce (Tupper) Brown, daughter of a clergyman and widow of Clifton S. Brown, a lawyer. Marshall's stepchildren are Molly Pender Brown Winn, and Clifton Stevenson Brown. (Allan Tupper Brown was killed in action in Italy in 1944.) *Together: Annals of an Army Wife* (1946), written by Katherine Tupper Marshall, presents an informal biography of General Marshall and herself since their courtship.

A tall, lean, vigorous man with blue eyes, and graying sandy-brown hair, Marshall has been described as an "intellectual with something of the artist in his sense of language," and as a good-humored, equanimous individual with "force behind his quietness." His wife finds him neither "retiring nor overly modest" but possessing "a sense of humility and selflessness." An avid reader who considers Benjamin Franklin and Robert E. Lee his heroes, Marshall, for his occasional physical relaxation from his many duties, prefers walking, horseback riding, surf casting, or gardening at his Leesburg (Virginia) home, Dodona Manor.

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MASON, JAMES May 15, 1909- Actor

Address: b. c/o London Films Ltd., 350 5th Ave., New York 1; h. Olleberrie Farm, Sarratt, Hertfordshire, England

Since his first appearance in motion pictures in 1935, actor James Mason, publicized in the American press as "Britain's popular screen menace," has gained a following which in 1946 won for him Britain's first national motion picture award. American movie-goers, impressed by his performance in *The Seventh Veil*, joined English fans in applauding him and "stirred up a trans-Atlantic postal storm."

The son of a wool merchant, James Neville Mason grew up in the mill town of Huddersfield, in Yorkshire, England, where he had been born to John and Mabel Hattersley (Gaunt) Mason on May 15, 1909. One interviewer, to whom he gave the facts, wrote of him as "an ordinary, rather dull little boy." On graduation from Marlborough College, he studied architecture at Peterhouse, Cambridge, obtaining his B.A. degree from the university in 1931 (in 1943 Cambridge awarded him the M.A. degree.) His amateur interest in acting made young Mason reconsider his choice of career. At the university he had taken part in stu-

Morale is a state of mind. It is steadfastness and courage and hope. It is confidence and zeal and loyalty. It is 'elan, esprit de corps and determination.

It is staying power, the spirit which endures to the end--the will to win.

With it all things are possible, without it everything else, planning, production, count for naught.

The soldier's heart, the soldier's spirit, the soldier's soul, are everything. Unless the soldier's soul sustains him, he cannot be relied on and will fail himself and his commander and his country in the end.

From address at Trinity College, Hartford, Connecticut, 15 June 1941.

NATIONAL POWER

We have tried since the birth of our nation to promote our love of peace by a display of weakness. This course has failed us utterly.

Report of the Chief of Staff, U.S. Army, 1945.

NATIONAL WAR COLLEGE

The real test of the undertaking lies in the future. The necessity for keeping carefully in step with the changing framework in which the national security must be pursued should be one of the important concepts as a basis for this institution.

From address at the National War College, Washington, DC, 20 June 1947. (Manuscript)

WAR

Total war is not a succession of mere episodes in a day or week. It is a long drawn out and intricately planned business, and the longer it continues the heavier are the demands on the character of the men engaged in it.

Address at Trinity College, Hartford, Connecticut, 15 June 1941.

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FROM: Glenn Cook, Archivist/Librarian

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REMARKS: Marshall's Nobel Prize speech, Dec. 1953

I have been greatly and surprisingly honored in the past twenty-four hours, and in return I have been requested to speak here tonight. While no subject has been suggested, it is quite evident that the Cause of Peace is pre-eminent in your minds.

Discussions without end have been devoted to the subject of peace, and the efforts to obtain a general and lasting peace have been frequent through many years of world history. There has been success temporarily, but all have broken down, and with the most tragic consequences since 1914. What I would like to do is point our attention to some directions in which efforts to attain peace seem promising of success.

I will try to phrase my views or suggestions in the simplest possible terms though I lack the magic and artistry of that great orator whom the Nobel Committee in Stockholm so appropriately honored yesterday. In making my statement I will assume your familiarity

with the discussions and efforts of the past eight years and also with something of the conditions which have governed each long continued peace in world history.

I would like to make special mention of the years of the Pax Romana, which endured through almost all the first two centuries of the Christian era. I do so because of a personal incident which made a profound impression on me in the spring of 1919. Arriving late at night in Chaumont, the American Headquarters in France, I sought shelter for ~~the night~~ in the house of a group of friends. I found they were temporarily absent, so I selected an unoccupied room and looked about for a book to read as I waited for sleep to come. The books available were mostly in French or German. Since I was unable to read them with facility, I looked further and finally found an English textbook on the history of Gaul. Casting about for an interesting portion, I landed on a description of the famous Roman

Peace. Included in this description was a statement of the dispositions of the Roman troops during this prolonged period, a legion at Cologne, another at Coblenz, a third at Mayence, and the reserve at Trier. Now those happen to be the identical dispositions of our Allied Forces some eighteen hundred years later, with the Peace Commission sitting in Paris and evolving the policy of the League of Nations.

I would not wish to imply that the military deployment I have just described corresponds to the protective NATO deployment of today. The threat today is quite different, but I do think that this remarkable historical repetition does suggest that we have walked blindly, ignoring the lessons of the past with, in our century, the tragic consequences of two world wars and the Korean struggle as a result.

In my country my military associates frequently tell me that we Americans have learned our lesson. I completely disagree with this ~~assumption~~ contention, and point to the rapid disintegration between 1945 and 1950 of our once vast power for maintaining the peace. As a direct consequence, in my opinion, there resulted the brutal invasion of South Korea, which for a time threatened the complete defeat of our hastily arranged forces in that field. I speak of this with deep feeling because in 1939 and again in the early fall of 1950 it suddenly became my duty, my responsibility, to rebuild our national military strength in the very face of the gravest emergencies.

These opening remarks may lead you to assume that my suggestions for the advancement of world peace will rest largely on military strength. For the moment the maintenance of peace in the present hazardous world situation does depend in very large measure on

military power, together with Allied cohesion. But the maintenance of large armies for an indefinite period, [redacted] is not a practical or a promising basis for policy. We must stand together strongly for these present years, that is in this present situation, but we must, I repeat, we must find another solution, and that is what I wish to discuss this evening.

There has been considerable comment over the awarding of the Nobel Peace Prize to a soldier. I am afraid this does not seem as remarkable to me as it quite evidently appears to others. I know a great deal of the horrors and tragedies of war. Today, as Chairman of the American Battle Monuments Commission, it is my duty to supervise the construction and maintenance of military cemeteries in many countries overseas, particularly in Western Europe. The cost of war in human lives is constantly spread before me, written neatly in many ledgers whose columns are gravestones. I am deeply moved to find

some means or method of avoiding another calamity of war. Almost daily I hear from the wives, or mothers, or families of the fallen. The tragedy of the aftermath is almost constantly before me.

I share with you an active concern for some practical method for avoiding war. Let me first say that I regard the present highly dangerous situation as a very special one, which naturally dominates our thinking on the subject of peace, but which should not, in my opinion, be made the principal basis for our reasoning towards the manner for securing a condition of long continued peace. A very strong military posture is vitally necessary today. How long it must continue I am not prepared to estimate, but I am sure that it is too narrow a basis on which to build a dependable, long-enduring peace. The guarantee for a long continued peace will depend on other factors in addition to a moderated [redacted] military strength, and no less important. Perhaps the most important single factor will be a

spiritual regeneration to develop good will, faith and understanding among nations. Economic factors will undoubtedly play an important part. Agreements to secure a balance of power, however disagreeable they may seem, must likewise be considered. And with all these there must be wisdom and the will to act on that wisdom.

II.

In this brief discussion, I can give only a very limited treatment of these great essentials to peace. However, I would like to select three more specific areas for closer attention.

The first relates to the possibilities of better education in the various factors effecting the life of peaceful security, both in terms of its development and of its disruption. Because wisdom in action in our Western democracies rests squarely upon public understanding, I have long believed that our schools have a key role to play. Peace could, I believe, be advanced through careful study of

all the factors which have gone into the various incidents now historical that have marked the breakdown of peace in the past. As an initial procedure our schools, at least our colleges but preferably our senior high schools, as we call them, should have courses which not merely instruct our budding citizens in the historical sequence of events of the past, but which treat with almost scientific accuracy the circumstances which have marked the breakdown of peace and have led to the disruption of life and the horrors of war.

There may perhaps have been a "last clear chance" to avoid the tragic conflagrations of our century. In the case of World War II, for example, the challenge may well have come in the early thirties, and passed largely unrecognized until the situation was unlikely to be retrieved. We are familiar with specific events such as the march into the Rhineland or aggression in Ethopia or Manchuria. Perhaps there was also a last clear chance to begin to build up the strength

of the democracies to keep the military situation in equilibrium. There may also have been a last clear chance to penetrate to the spirit of the peoples of the nations threatening the peace, and to find ways of peaceful adjustment in the economic field as well. Certainly, had the outcome of the war, with its devastation and disruption, been foreseen, and had there been an understanding on all sides of the problems that were threatening the peace, I feel sure that many possibilities for accommodation would have been much more thoroughly explored.

It is for this reason that I believe our students must first seek to understand the conditions, as far as possible without national prejudices, which have led to past tragedies and should strive to determine the great fundamentals which must govern a peaceful progression toward a constantly higher level of civilization.

There are innumerable instructive lessons out of the past, but all too frequently their presentation is highly colored or distorted in the effort to present a favorable national point of view. In our school histories at home, certainly in years past, those written in the North present a strikingly different picture of our Civil War from those written in the South. In some portions it is hard to realize they are dealing with the same war. Such reactions are all too common in matters of peace and security. But we are told that we live in a highly scientific age. Now the progress of science depends on facts and not fancies or prejudice. Maybe in this age we can find a way of facing the facts and discounting the distorted records of the past.

I am certain that a solution of the general problem of peace must rest on broad and basic understanding on the part of free peoples. Great single endeavors like a League of Nations, a United Nations, and undertakings of that character, are of great importance and in fact

absolutely necessary, but they must be treated as steps toward the desired end.

We must depend in large measure on the impartiality of those who teach. Their approach must be on a scientific basis in order to present the true facts. The scientists, no matter of what nationality, make a common approach to their problems.

For my second suggestion, I would like to consider the national attitudes that bear on the great problem of peace. I hope you will not think me amiss if I turn to my own country and certain rather special circumstances found there to illustrate my point. Despite the amazing conquest of the air and its reduction of distances to a matter of hours and not days, or minutes instead of hours, the United States is remote in a general sense from the present turbulent areas of the world. I believe the measure of detachment, limited though it is, has been of help in enabling us on occasion to take an impartial

stand on heated international problems.

Also, my country is very specially constituted in terms of population. We have many families of Norwegian ancestry in our population. My country also includes large numbers of former citizens of many of the other countries of Europe, including the present Satellite States. I recall that when the first Polar flight was made by the Russians from Moscow over the top of the world to land on the little airfield of the post I commanded at Vancouver on the Columbia River in the State of Washington, my home was surrounded within a few hours by hundreds and hundreds of Russians, all presumably citizens of the United States. Italians, Turks, Greeks and many, many others who came to our country now constitute an organic portion of our population.

From this fact we have acquired, I think, a feeling and a concern for the problems of other peoples.

There is a deep urge to help

the oppressed and to give aid to those upon whom great and sudden hardship has fallen.

We, naturally, cannot see a problem in the exact terms as people like yourselves or the Danes, or the Dutch, or the French, for example; people living in the closest contact with each other, yet widely differing in national heritage. I believe there is, however, a readiness to cooperate which is one of the great and hopeful factors of the world of today. While we are not in close contact with the details of problems, neither are we indifferent to them, and we are not involved in your historical tensions and suspicions.

If I am correct in thinking that these factors have given us as a nation some advantage in the quest for peace, then I would suggest that principles of cooperation based on these factors might contribute to a better understanding amongst all nations.

I realize fully that there is another side to this picture. In America we have not suffered the destruction of our homes, our towns and cities. We have not been enslaved for long periods, at the complete mercy of a conqueror. We have enjoyed freedom in its fullest sense. In fact, we have come to think in terms of freedom and the dignity of the individual more or less as a matter of course, and our apparent unconcern until times of acute crisis presents a difficult problem to the citizens of the countries of Western Europe, who have seldom been free from foreign threat to their freedom, their dignity and their security. I think nevertheless that the people of the United States have fully demonstrated their willingness to fight and die in the terrible struggle for the freedom we all prize, to sacrifice their own men in large numbers for this common cause, and to contribute vast sums for the general benefit of the Western countries.

I recognize that there are bound to be misunderstandings under the conditions of wide separation between your countries and mine. But I believe the attitude of cooperation has been thoroughly proven. I also believe that the participation of millions of our young men and women in the struggle in Western Europe, in the closest contact with your people, will bring as its result less of misunderstanding on our side of the Atlantic than perhaps on yours.

In my own case, for example, I spent two and one half years in France during the First World War. Frequently I was quartered in the households of the French peasantry and spent long evenings by the kitchen fires, talking far into the night. I came to know them well, admired them, and in some cases came to love them. Now, how many do you suppose of the present citizens of Western Europe have had a similar look in on the homes of people in the farms and small towns

of America. A few may know much of New York, Washington and Chicago, but those great cities do not represent the heart of America.

The third area I would like to discuss has to do with the problem of the millions who live under sub-normal conditions and who have now come to a realization that they may aspire to a fair share of the God-given rights of human beings. Their aspirations present a challenge to the more favored nations to lend assistance in bettering the lot of the poorer. This is a special problem in the present crisis, but it is of basic importance to any successful effort toward an enduring peace. The question is not merely one of self-interest arising from the fact that these people present a situation which is a seed bed for either one or the other of two greatly differing ways of life. Ours is democracy, according to our interpretation of the meaning of that word. If we act with wisdom and magnanimity, we can

guide these yearnings of the poor to a richer and better life through democracy.

We must present democracy as a force holding within itself the seeds of unlimited progress by the human race. By our actions we should make it clear that such a democracy is a means to a better way of life, together with a better understanding among nations. Tyranny inevitably must retire before the tremendous moral strength of the gospel of freedom and self-respect for the individual, but we have to recognize that these democratic principles do not flourish on empty stomachs and that people turn to false promises of dictators because they are hopeless and anything promises something better than the miserable existence that they endure. However, material assistance alone is not sufficient. The most important thing for the world today in my opinion is a spiritual regeneration which would re-establish a feeling of good faith among men generally. Discouraged people are

in sore need of the inspiration of great principles. Such leadership can be the rallying point against intolerance, against distrust, against that fatal insecurity that leads to war. It is to be hoped that the democratic nations can provide the necessary leadership.

The points I have just discussed are, of course, no more than a very few suggestions in behalf of the cause of peace. I realize that they hold nothing of glittering or early promise, but there can be no substitute for effort in many fields. There must be effort of the spirit - to be magnanimous, to act in friendship, to strive to help rather than to hinder. There must be effort of analysis, to seek out the causes of war and the factors which favor peace, and to study their application to the difficult problems which will beset our international intercourse. There must be material effort - to initiate and sustain those great undertakings, whether military or economic, on which world equilibrium will depend.

If we proceed in this manner, there should develop a dynamic

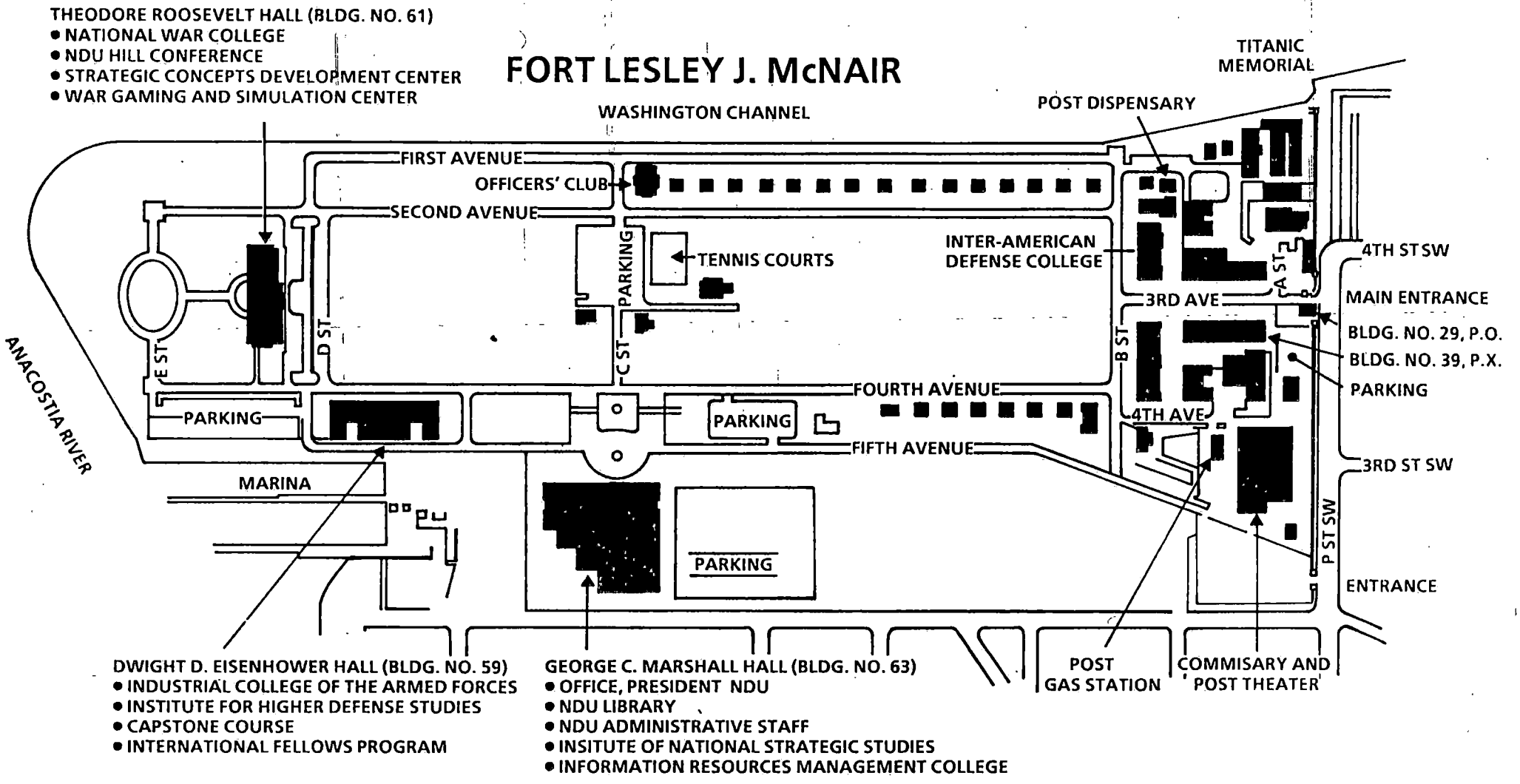
philosophy which knows no restrictions of time or space. In America we have a creed which comes to us from the deep roots of the past. It springs from the convictions of the men and women of many lands who founded the nation and made it great. We share that creed with many of the nations of the Old World and the New with whom we are joined in the cause of peace. We are young in world history, but these ideals of ours we can offer to the world with the certainty that they have the power to inspire and to impel action.

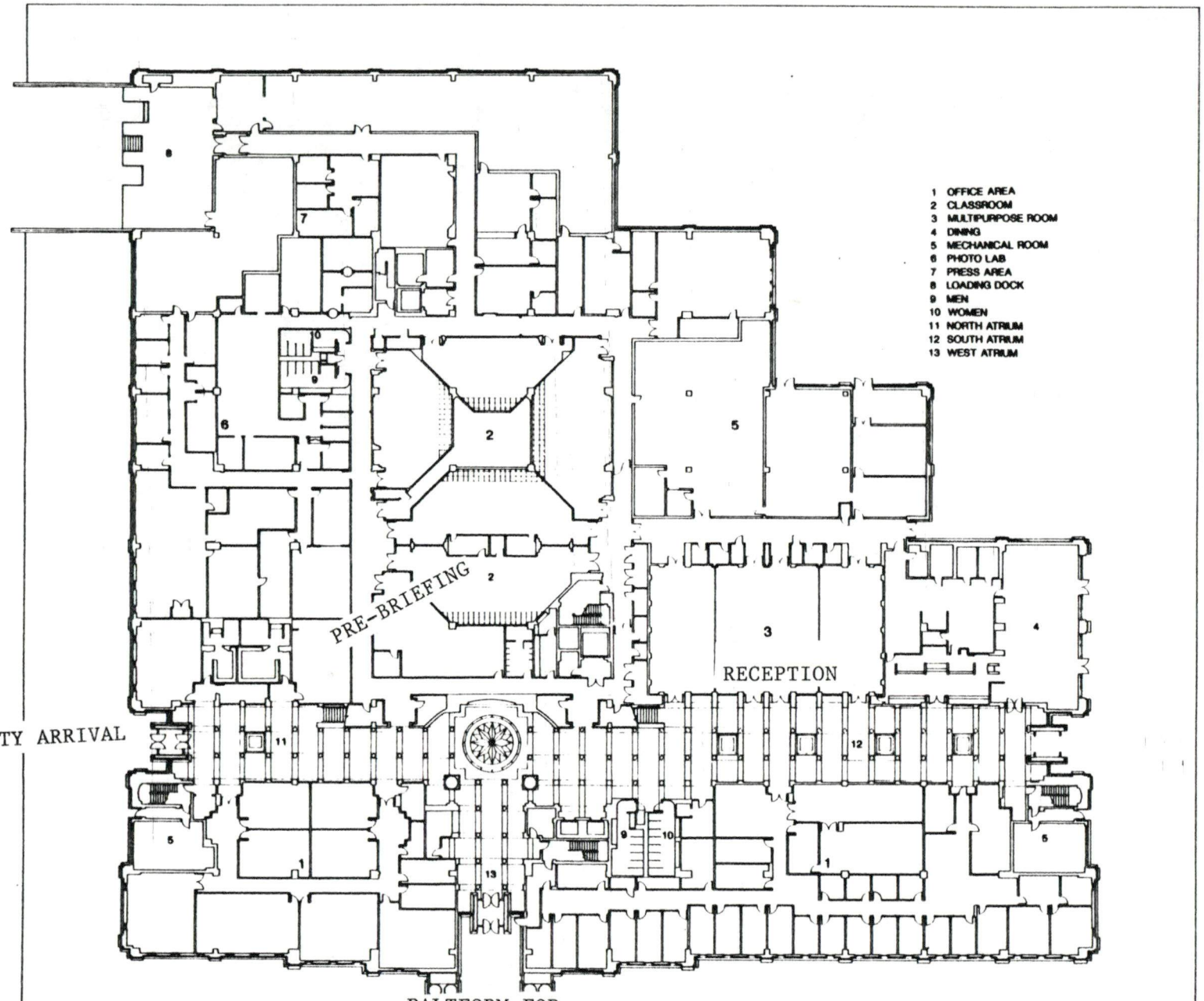
I am not implying in any way that we would attempt to persuade other people to adopt our particular form of government. I refer here specifically to those fundamental values on which our government, like many other democracies, is based. These, I believe, are timeless and have a validity for all mankind. These, I believe, will kindle the imagination and arouse the spirit.

A great proponent of much of what I have just been saying is Dr. Albert Schweitzer, the world humanitarian, who received the Nobel Peace Award for 1952. I feel it a vast compliment to be associated with him in these awards this year. His life has been utterly different from mine, and we should all be happy that his example among the poor and benighted of the earth should have been recognized by the Peace Award of the Nobel Committee.

I must not further complicate this discussion with the wide variety of specific considerations which will enfold the gradual growth of a sound approach toward some method of securing an enduring peace in the world. I fear, in fact I am rather certain, that due to my inability to express myself with the power and penetration of the great Churchill, I have not made clear the points that assume such prominence and importance in my mind. However, I have done my best, and I hope I have sown some seeds which may bring forth good fruit.

FORT LESLEY J. McNAIR





ORTH PARLING LOT

OFFICIAL PARTY ARRIVAL

PALTFORM FOR
OFFICIAL PARTY

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BAND — AUDIENCE — Non-Traveling PRESS

PLATFORM

NATIONAL DEFENSE UNIVERSITY
Academic Operations Center

ELLERBE BECKET

JULY 1991

Chris - lead advance

(Ft. McNair walk-through 9/24/91 · 2pm (NDU) (30 mins a to d)
Marshall Hall Dedication (mod travel pace)
ribbon cutting
& placque be on portrait

3rd major campus bldg.; Othe 2 ded. by POTUS n off @ time

(Col. Gaskins - dean of academics)

---

students, faculty, staff virtually all that day
Dedicatory event that day
reception follow° remarks / dedication
tour of facility

-

invited 2,500 expect 2,000 attendance
Sec. Def - Chrm. & former Commandants

platform [- Adm. Baldwin, Mrs. Crain (stepdaughter) POTUS, Chrm. & Vice Chair Chiefs of Staff, POTUS/FLOTUS, Univ. President

front steps
State/territory flags

19 people @ coffee

gift in pre-brief 4 vol. set of Pogue bio of Gen. Marshall

tentative

1:25 Arrival N atrium

Vice - Admiral and Mrs. (Leslie) Baldwin (Jack), pres. NDU

Mly 2 greeters

pre brief -

1:27 brief[6] rm. (5 min)

1:32 off stage ann. area & hold

1:42 ann. on stage r; f (Hail to Chief)

remain stand 4 Nat'l Anthem & invocation

Chaplain Lib on stage NDU Chap Col. Selwyn GELLER (Air Force)

2 1/3 mins - adm. Bald intro POTUS

1:50 remarks POTUS (7 min)

unveil portrait

1:58 departure stage

2:02 1/2 departure

[guests in briefing rm. / dismiss guests]

[guests seated in stand]

Call Lt. Frye

Lots of glass and brick

Baldwins close personal friends / godmother of one of the Bush grandchildren

Grant knows to try & keep knows @ CIA

(embargoed copy for Adm. Baldwin)

1000 seated - remainder standing

[- 8. flags in back across jewish colors]

backdrop
podium
roping can be steps / each side

Bldg. stays left. Part of industrial college

Cafe steps

Pairs and cadet across rt. band to across left

[can still smell epoxy]

(No teleprompter)

magnolia left and right

[$16.8 million]

can see Capitol dome across st.

[modern looking]



Dedication Ceremony
Marshall Hall
National Defense University Academic Operations Center

Host: Vice Admiral J. A. Baldwin, USN
President, National Defense University

SEQUENCE OF EVENTS

1:25 Pre-Ceremony Concert
Arrival of Official Party
Honors
The National Anthem
Invocation - University Chaplain
Introductions Admiral Baldwin
Remarks
Dedication of Marshall Hall velvet drape over portrait, on platform
Conclusion of Ceremony

Reception and Marshall Hall tour will follow dedication.

City/State: WH
Event: Ft. McNair
Date: EVENT: 9-27-91
MTG: 9-24-91

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LK Lewis Col	NWC DEAN OF STUDENTS	202 475-1844/5

THE WHITE HOUSE

Office of the Press Secretary

For Immediate Release September 27, 1991

REMARKS BY THE PRESIDENT
AT DEDICATION OF MARSHALL HALL,
NATIONAL DEFENSE UNIVERSITY

Marshall Hall
Fort McNair, Virginia

1:42 P.M. EDT

THE PRESIDENT: Thank you, Admiral Baldwin. They have a nice informal way when you jog here at Ft. McNair. I think it was last year when I was jogging around the place, suddenly a manhole opened up and a plumber who also doubles as Santa Claus at the White House -- he's called Red -- those around here probably know him -- yells, "Hi, George, how you doing." (Laughter.) And it made me feel right at home. And I would thank all those who put up with that.

But we're here today for more serious matters. And may I say how pleased I am that General Powell and General Scowcroft came down with me from the White House for this. I want to salute our Secretary of the Air Force and other distinguished Defense Department officials here with us today. General Reimer, the Vice Chief of Staff for the Army. And I see Ambassador Perkins and Judge Sessions here. And we have a most distinguished turnout for a wonderful event.

May I thank Colonel Geller for that invocation. And most importantly, I guess, is for Barbara and I to join Admiral Baldwin in saying how pleased we are that Mrs. Winn, General Marshall's step-daughter, could be here for this very special event.

I am pleased to be here. What a beautiful afternoon to dedicate this building, Marshall Hall. I can think of few people more deserving of this honor than General George Marshall. He's been described as "a citizen of the world; a soldier, orator, author and statesman." In keeping with this marvelous list of talents, he had an inspiring vision of the future. He understood the imperative of standing firm against aggression.

The world learned that lesson recently, once again, during Operation Desert Storm. And our forces demonstrated the power and promise of a military that has been trained to carry out its mission, and leadership that can devise a strategy capable of winning without unnecessary bloodshed. And may I once again salute General Colin Powell, General Schwarzkopf, and all of you who helped in the planning of this magnificent operation and in its execution. And that means every man and woman, whatever they were doing in our marvelous Armed Forces today. Most important, on this last one, our Armed forces were sustained by the support, the steadfast support, of the American people. And a large share of the credit for our victory belongs right here, actually. From your ranks have come the brigade, the division and the corps commanders who led us to a swift, decisive victory that many considered impossible.

I am grateful to scholars from this institution, like Ambassador David Newton, the International Affairs Advisor to the National War College; specialists such as Doctor O'Neill -- Doctor Bard O'Neill, and Phebe Marr who provided insightful information to me.

And your mission here at the National Defense University was really best defined by a distinguished graduate of this

institution, President Eisenhower. He said, "Our liberties rest with our peoples, upon the scope and depth of their understanding of the nation's spiritual, political, military and economic realities." And then Ike went on: "It is the high mission of the Industrial College of the Armed Forces to develop such understanding among our people and their military and civilian leaders."

The college Ike attended remains a cornerstone of your great university, And while your structure has changed over the years, your work continues to make a direct and lasting contribution to the preservation of peace. For here you craft the strategies that will help this nation respond to the global challenges of tomorrow.

In our new world, lasting peace requires cooperation from allies dedicated to the values of liberty. Allies such as Colonel Ghassan Bashiramer of Saudi Arabia, Colonel Hee Wook Yoon of Korea, Commodore Antonio Bruno of Argentina, just to name a few of the International Fellows being trained right here. Cooperation can make a fragile peace strong and a temporary peace permanent. And we are committed to a lasting, prosperous peace.

As we enter the 1990s, the United States will reshape its military to meet a changing international environment, one that potentially may be safer, but one that surely will have its share of uncertainties and dangers. We need a smaller, more agile, more flexible active force -- one ready to meet likely contingencies worldwide. The events in the Persian Gulf, Eastern Europe and, yes, in the Soviet Union have changed our strategic defense requirements. Still, military challenges to democracy persist in every hemisphere. America must always be prepared to defend our hard-won freedoms and safeguard our own national security.

But the new world we've entered means changes in our national security strategy. Tonight, I will talk to the American people -- will discuss -- on this subject -- and will discuss what this means for our nuclear weapons program. In seizing the historic opportunity before us, we will advance the cause of world peace, and we will advance the cause of international security.

We draw our strength as a nation -- moral and intellectual, economic and military -- from the values of freedom, democracy and justice. But any nation is only the sum of the men and women who believe in it. In the words of General MacArthur, "Wars may be fought with weapons, but they are won by men. It is the spirit of the men who follow and of the man who leads that gains the victory." That spirit guides the dedicated men and women of the National Defense University.

Through all of the radical changes that we've witnessed in the recent past, as well as the growing international interdependence, the world needs American leadership. I hear it over and over again from leaders around the world: The world is looking to the United States of America. Clearly, today's decisions will determine whether we as a nation are prepared for tomorrow. And that challenge and the mandate for leadership will fall on your shoulders.

Barbara and I congratulate each and every one of you on your professional achievements and your personal commitment to the defense of this great nation. I am very honored that they asked me to come here today with Barbara to join in this dedication.

Thank you all, and may God bless the United States of America. Thank you very, very much. (Applause.)

END 1:50 P.M. EDT