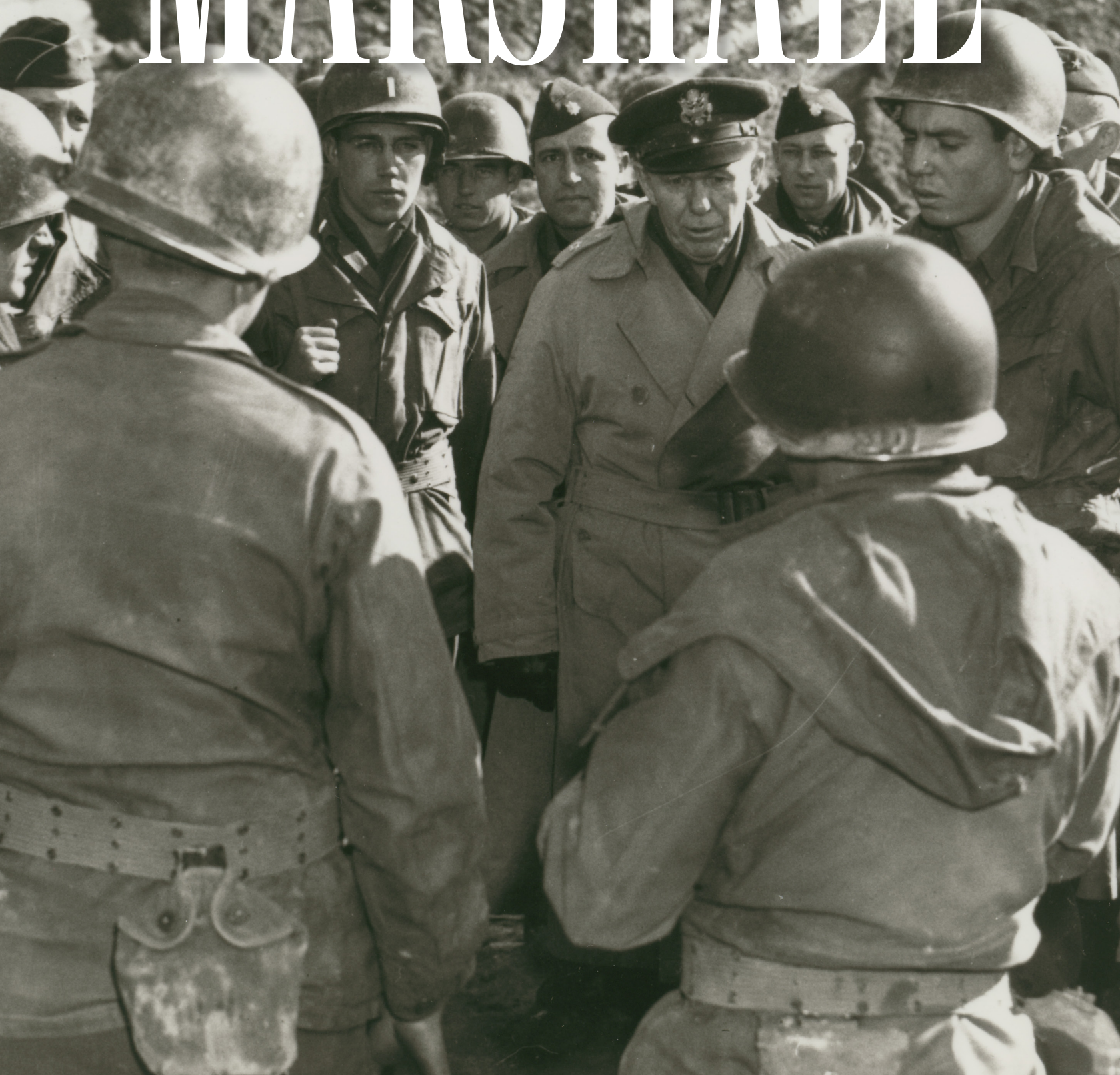


WINTER 2021-2022

THE MAGAZINE OF THE GEORGE C. MARSHALL FOUNDATION

# MARSHALL









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# LETTER FROM THE PRESIDENT



Dear Friends,

The articles in this issue of the magazine may seem rather disparate—the foundation of the Women’s Army Corps, an interesting military tradition, and the interwar years as a shaper of Marshall’s character. And yet, despite their surface differences, they all say something about the quintessential traits of a great man. In the first, by the Foundation’s own librarian, Melissa Davis, we see the wartime exigencies that brought women into the army’s ranks, in no small part due to George C. Marshall pushing for it. And we also see one of the hallmarks of his character—fairness—in how he dealt, swiftly and unequivocally, with the men who objected to this change. In David Cade’s engaging piece on the custom in the military whereby seniority dictates where one positions oneself, we see that Marshall had great respect for seniority but also that on occasion humility and diplomacy called for flexibility. And Casey Brower’s thoughtful article has Marshall’s character as its central focus, and so it should be no surprise that the general’s sense of honor, duty, and selflessness are treated in detail. And yet, even when you know what is coming, you cannot help but be impressed

by quotes like those from FDR and Sam Rayburn marveling at the unswerving candor and honesty of George C. Marshall.

Perhaps it is no surprise that Marshall’s character takes center stage in what you are about to read. After all, even with his many tangible accomplishments—modernizer of the U.S. Army, architect of Allied victory in World War II, savior of western Europe—it is who he was rather than what he did that struck so many. The elements of Marshall’s character are at the heart of what we preserve and promote at the Foundation. For example, our new initiative in K–12 education seeks to encourage an understanding of civics, government, and leadership through the model of Marshall’s life. After all, what better example of selfless service to the nation exists than in the person of George C. Marshall?

If you are holding this in your hands, that means that you are likely already a financial supporter of the George C. Marshall Foundation. And your support means that we have the ability to share these valuable lessons with the nation and the world. For that, I thank you. And if you have not yet made a gift in 2021, we would greatly appreciate your generosity.

I hope you enjoy *Marshall Magazine*. And I hope that you and your family have a wonderful holiday season.

All best,

A handwritten signature in dark ink, appearing to read "G. Marshall". The signature is fluid and stylized, with a large loop at the beginning and a long, sweeping tail.





GENERAL GEORGE C. MARSHALL





# TURNING INTO WACS: GEN. MARSHALL AND THE WOMEN'S ARMY CORPS

BY MELISSA DAVIS



*Marshall supported the Women's Army Corps; he wrote in a February 15, 1944, letter that "I am probably the strongest Army advocate of the WAC organization and I am fully convinced that a great deal of the work of the Army can be done better by women than by men."*

When World War II began in 1939, the Nurse Corps was the only opportunity women had to serve in the U.S. Army. New Army Chief of Staff George Marshall realized that women in the United States would want to serve if the country became involved in the war, and that the army would need them to serve as well. In March 1941, he wrote, "We must plan for every possible contingency, and certainly must provide some outlet for the patriotic desires of our women."

Massachusetts Representative Edith Nourse Rogers had the same idea and introduced the Women's Army Auxiliary Corps Act into Congress three weeks after the attack on Pearl Harbor. Marshall was eager to see the act passed and in February 1942 he wrote to House Majority Leader John McCormack:

I would like to say that I regard the passage of this bill at an early date as of considerable importance. In general, we have secured most of the legislation required for the complete mobilization of the Army so that we can go ahead with its devel-

opment and definitely plan for the future. However, we lack Congressional authority for the establishment of a Women's Army Auxiliary Corps, and as a result we can make no definite plans.

It is important that as quickly as possible we have a declared national policy in this matter. Women certainly must be employed in the "over-all" effort of this nation, and for the activities indicated in the draft of the law proposed to Congress we consider it essential that their status, their relationship to military authority, should be clearly established.

We wish to remedy this situation as quickly as possible, and to start at once the training of the initial cadres of the Women's Army Auxiliary Corps units for the various services concerned.

In March, anticipating the passage of the Women's Army Auxiliary Corps Act, Marshall wrote to Secretary of War Henry Stimson, "Since the House has passed the above measure by a large majority, we anticipate

its quick enactment by Senate.

It is, therefore, important that the preliminary arrangements for the organization of the Corps be set up in order to han-

dle the inevitable avalanche of applications. This corps can be of great assistance to our military effort." Marshall suggested Oveta Culp Hobby, a vice president of the *Houston Post* newspaper, as a good choice to lead this new group.

The act was signed into law by President Roosevelt May 15, 1942. The next day, Hobby was sworn in to lead the new Women's Army Auxiliary Corps, which despite its name was not part of the U.S. military.



*Oveta Culp Hobby swears in as Director of the WAAC as Marshall looks on.*

*Opposite: WAACs in Great Britain await their train after a long voyage from the United States.*



Hobby was titled "Director" and instead of the expected officer ranks, women in the auxiliary corps were called "first officer," equivalent to a captain, or "second officer," equivalent to a first lieutenant.

Women proved eager to serve. According to *Creation of the Women's Army Corps*, more than 35,000 women applied for the anticipated initial 1,000 positions. The first Auxiliary Corps training class consisted of 125 enlisted women and 440 officer candidates; 40 of whom were African Americans, including Charity Early Adams, the first African American female officer. They reported to the Training Center at Fort Des Moines, Iowa, on July 20, 1942, just two months after the Auxiliary Corps was created.

Rebecca Brockenbrough, a teacher at an Episcopal girls' school in Virginia, trained in the first officer class at Fort Des Moines. Her letters to her sister show what life was like for the early Auxiliary Corps members. On arrival at Fort Des Moines, Brockenbrough wrote,

When we arrived we had to be checked in and that is really red tape. There are 450 officer candidate and approximately 200 [enlisted] auxiliaries. Finally we were led to our barracks and assigned beds, metal wardrobes, and foot lockers. There are 43 beds in our dorm. It was 3 a.m. before we got to bed and at 6 a.m. the band was playing up and down our street.







*We need their enthusiasm, their talents and high purpose. This is only the beginning of a magnificent war service by the women of America.”*

These first three days we are being processed—turned into WAACs. The post has been swarming with reporters and photographers. I wish I could write what I feel, but you know. It is a fascinating experience and if we can do something worthwhile the work will be very satisfying.

After the first week of training, she reported in a letter that “My one claim to fame is that I am one of 12 (out of our company of 111) on the Honor Roll (ungigged list) which means I haven’t been caught doing anything I shouldn’t, from minor offenses such as shoes out-of-line and dust on my locker to AWOL. It is a great strain however and luck has been with me.”

Training in the Women’s Army Auxiliary Corps was similar to the basic training men had, including calisthenics and running obstacle courses, attending classes, using military equipment, and becoming proficient in the constant army paperwork. Brockenbrough commented that “when I get out of here I’ll be so full of reports I won’t be able to spend a nickel without wondering which form I should use!”

As the Auxiliary Corps expanded, Fort Des Moines grew as well. Brockenbrough told of the growing pains in another letter:

I am sitting out in the new barracks waiting for the rest of the crew to assemble. In this women’s army you are either rushing or sitting around waiting.

Some sixty-odd buildings are in different stages of production and

the mud is knee deep. A tractor is kept here to push the trucks out of the mud! Eventually we’ll get duck-board walks between buildings in our unit but at present we wade through the mud.

As summer turned to fall in Iowa, she noted the surprising change of weather, much different from her home in Virginia: “I’m listening to the weather forecast over the radio and we are promised snow late this afternoon or tonight! That with summer uniforms and no radiators!”

The changing seasons and shortages of winter uniforms and clothing was a problem for the new Auxiliary Corps members. There were creative solutions—women wore non-regulation long underwear with summer uniforms and wore whatever military coats they could find, as Brockenbrough explained, “I finally got a coat—a man’s overcoat size 36. I am completely lost in it and everyone howls when I come around. The first time the Auxes saw me they were in formation and the whole company burst into gales of laughter. Anyway it feels good and I’m not sensitive about my appearance.”

Upon the graduation of the first Women’s Army Auxiliary Corps officers, General Marshall wrote a congratulatory note to Director Hobby, “Their record of the first few weeks gives me great confidence in the future of the corps and the tremendous assistance they will be to the armed forces. We need their enthusiasm, their talents and high purpose. This is only the beginning of a magnificent war service by the women of America.”

It was not intended that the new Auxiliary Corps members serve overseas, as they were not given the same securities as soldiers: they were not protected by the Geneva Convention, and they didn’t have



military life insurance or veterans' health benefits. However, General Dwight Eisenhower, impressed with the efficient British servicewomen he encountered, asked for five auxiliary corps officers, some of whom spoke French, to serve as executive secretaries just a few days into the North Africa campaign in the fall of 1942.

As this would be a change in the status of the Auxiliary Corps, Marshall wrote to the House Military Committee that

I wish you gentlemen to know that in the development of the operation in North Africa it became apparent that General Eisenhower should have, with the least possible delay, women who could speak French to operate the switchboards in Algiers and to serve in a stenographic capacity. The law provides that these women shall not be employed in combat service. They will not be. However, in their present status they do not enjoy the same privileges that members of the Army do who become a prey to the hazards

of ocean transport or bombing. At a later date it is the purpose of the War Department to submit to Congress a request for a modification of the law to make this Corps a part of the Army.

Marshall noted later in correspondence that this "first group of WAC officers sent to Africa were on a boat which was torpedoed and they made the shore with a loss of most of their clothing," so his concerns for Auxiliary Corps members having the "same privileges that members of the Army" were justified.

The first WAACs who arrived in North Africa were followed shortly by a post headquarters company and a signal company. It became obvious that Auxiliary Corps members would not only replace soldiers in some jobs stateside, but also regularly work overseas. Clearly, changes had to be made to the organization to give the women the same rights as their male army counterparts.

While Marshall and the War Department were supportive of these necessary changes to the Auxiliary Corps, not everyone was happy that women were

*Requested by Lt. Gen. Dwight D. Eisenhower, the first WAACs to serve overseas depart from the docks by truck for the North Africa campaign.*





serving in uniform. During the spring and summer of 1943, there was an unfortunate effort to undermine the efforts of the Corps. This “slander campaign” discussed in *The Women’s Army Corps* was “an onslaught of gossip, jokes, slander, and obscenity about the WAAC, which swept along the Eastern seaboard in the spring of 1943, penetrated to many other sections of the country, and finally broke into the open and was recognized in June, after which the WAAC and the Army engaged it in a battle that lasted all summer and well into the next year before it was even partially subdued.”

Marshall wrote a letter of support to Hobby in June, “On my return from Africa I learned of the attack which had been directed against the integrity of the Women’s Army Auxiliary Corps. The Secretary of War has already stated in forcible terms the views of the War Department in the matter, but I wish to assure you personally of my complete confidence in the quality and value of the organization which has been built up during the past year under your leadership.”

He further reiterated his support of the Army Corps and expected all his subordinates to support them as well, in a memorandum distributed the following spring to every commander throughout the army.

The Women’s Army Corps is now an integral part of the Army and a highly essential part of our war effort. Its units have met their responsibilities with efficiency and are rendering an invaluable service. However, reports indicate that there are local commanders who have failed to provide the necessary leadership and have in fact in some instances made evident their disapproval of the Women’s Army Corps. The attitude of the men has quickly reflected the leadership of their commanders, as always.

All commanders in the military establishment are charged with the duty of seeing that the dignity and importance of the work which women are performing are recognized and that the policy of the War Department is supported by strong affirmative action.



In July 1943, the Women’s Army Auxiliary Corps became the Women’s Army Corps, an official part of the U.S. Army. With this change, the Corps personnel had the same rank structure as the army, and Director Hobby became Colonel Hobby. Marshall supported the Women’s Army Corps; he wrote in a February 15, 1944, letter that “I am probably the strongest Army advocate of the WAC organization and I am fully convinced that a great deal of the work of the Army can be done better by women than by men.”

The number of roles filled by members of the new Army Corps expanded to include the expected secretarial work but also car mechanic, photographer, printer, aircraft plotter, armorer, laboratory technician, as well as a variety of such communications jobs as switchboard or teletype machine operator, finance officer, mail and package sorter, gunnery instructor, electrician, and driver.

Sergeant Viola Burleson was a high-school graduate who worked as a typist before the war. When she enlisted in the Women’s Army Corps, she trained as an Army photographer and served stateside at March Field, California, with the Army Air Forces. Her photographs document many of the jobs Army Corps personnel performed, including one of herself manipulating a photo enlarger, used to prepare aerial photos suitable for classroom use.

After commissioning, Captain Rebecca Brockenbrough was sent to Salisbury, England, to serve as a mail censor. In a letter home, she wrote about her job, “I have read other peoples’ letters until I am nearly blind but at least I’ve caught up on them! As





*General Marshall inspects WACs in 1944 at Fort Oglethorpe, Georgia.*

yet we have received no mail since we've been on this side of the pond but we have hopes of it catching up with us before too long." She also told her family that she had to censor her own mail.

While serving in combat theaters, Army Corps personnel wore fatigues, boots, and helmets just as the men did. They were billeted with other women serving in the theater, including Red Cross volunteers. Brockenbrough was interviewed regarding her overseas experience while in the Women's Army Corps for the article "Wacky Times: An Analysis of the WAC in World War II and its Effects on Women." When asked what life was like in the army, she replied, "We are all doing operational jobs and releasing the men for combat—what most of us came in the army for' but admits that 'we five [Army Corps] and three or four Red Cross girls will live together—the only women in this man's camp. I surely was glad to see those Red Cross girls and I don't mean maybe!'"

The Women's Army Corps personnel lived in the same camp conditions as men when they worked overseas. First Lieutenant Lelia Cocke initially served as the Personnel Officer at the Allied Translator and Interpreter Section at Indooroopilly, Brisbane, Australia, and later in Manila with the Philippines War Crimes Commission. Cocke arrived in Australia in May 1944 with a group of 640 Army Corps person-

nel billeted at nearby Yeronga Park. According to *Queensland WWII Historic Places*, the women assigned to Yeronga Park found the "barracks were somewhat more primitive than those in the United States, with bucket latrines, outside showers, and limited laundry facilities."

The Army Corps personnel did not complain about living or working conditions but focused on their jobs. The 6888th Central Postal Directory Battalion consisted of 850 officers and enlisted personnel and was the only female African American unit sent overseas. Their workspaces in Birmingham, England, were unheated and poorly lit airplane hangars stacked floor to ceiling with mailbags, some two years old. Much of the mail was addressed incorrectly—to old addresses, or simply no address. Many service members shared names, including 7,500 who were named Robert Smith. The 6888th worked around the clock, three shifts a day, handling an average 68,000 pieces of mail a shift, which they sorted, and rewrapped and readdressed when necessary. Their motto was, "No mail, low morale."

From the vital role played by the women of the 6888th to countless others, by the end of World War II, more than 150,000 women had served in the Women's Army Auxiliary Corps and the Women's Army Corps in North Africa, the Mediterranean, Europe, the Southwest Pacific, China-Burma-India,



and the Middle East. Making the ultimate sacrifice, approximately 550 were killed in the line of duty; three members of the 6888th are among the four women buried in the Normandy American Cemetery.

The Women's Army Corps expanded both in number and in function over the thirty-six years of its existence. In 1978, the U.S. Army abolished the Women's Army Corps, and women were fully integrated into the army.



*Melissa Davis is the director of Library and Archives at the George C. Marshall Foundation. She received her Master of Library Science degree from Clarion University of Pennsylvania and has previous experience in both public and academic libraries. Her expertise is in American history, with a focus on the 20th century.*



*Clockwise from top:  
Gunnery instructions from WAC Sgt. Neva Hudson at Gowen Field, Idaho, in 1943.*

*WACs embark from southern England to France in July 1944.*

*Two WACs at Gowen Field, Idaho, train to become decontamination specialists for the Chemical Warfare Service in November 1943.*





# MARSHALL AND HIS WORLD WAR II CONTEMPORARIES

AS SEEN THROUGH THE EYES OF  
AN ANCIENT MILITARY CUSTOM

BY COLONEL DAVID J. CADE, USAF (Retired)



## *How did the backgrounds of Marshall, MacArthur, and Eisenhower come into play in regards to the military custom of senior officers assuming a position on the right side in any situation?*

**Y**ou have heard the old adage “A picture is worth a thousand words.” That maxim certainly applies to photos of the top U.S. military figures in World War II—George Marshall, Douglas MacArthur, and Dwight Eisenhower—with fascinating results in the context of military customs, courtesies, and traditions. One long-standing military custom that is little known or not fully appreciated by most civilians is that senior officers are always positioned on the right side of more junior officers when walking, sitting, standing or riding together in a vehicle. Of course, circumstances sometimes preclude following that custom, such as informal gatherings and sitting at round conference tables. But when there is time for forethought and advance planning, it is always put into practice, either by administrative staffs or instinctively by the officers themselves.

How this custom got started, and then how it became adopted by modern armed forces, makes for an interesting story. It actually began in medieval times when knights fought with swords. Because most men are right handed, the heaviest fighting usually occurred on the right side of battle. With a defensive shield on the left arm, combatants with the most fighting prowess considered the right side of the battle line to be a post of honor, a position which came to be recognized as belonging to the most prominent warrior, and which over time was

accorded to the senior officer.

This practice was reinforced in the days of the cavalry when officers wore a saber. The weapon was worn on the left side, because when it was drawn out in a sweeping motion it ended up on the right. To prevent injuring a fellow officer on the right side, the bearer walked on the left, a positioning which also allowed for a junior ranking officer to protect a higher ranking individual on the right. This custom/courtesy is codified in an Army Field Manual. (FM 7-21.13, Chapter 4), which directs: “Walk on the left of an officer or NCO of superior rank.” In an article in *Army* magazine in December 2011 soldiers made the point that walking to the left of more senior officers along with similar other courtesies is a sign of respect and argued that that knowing and demonstrating such customs and traditions makes for a stronger, cohesive, more disciplined army. Moreover, this practice enables soldiers to look at a group and immediately identify the senior person.

How then did this tradition find expression among the senior United States military figures of World War II? To answer this question, it is instructive to understand the background and relationships of Douglas MacArthur, George Marshall, and Dwight Eisenhower. MacArthur came from a military family on both sides. His father was a West Point graduate and Civil War Medal of Honor recipient who rose to the rank of lieutenant general. His mother’s side included officers in the Confederate Army. This lineage was arguably a contributing factor to MacArthur’s later rapid advancement. George Marshall graduated from VMI in 1901 at the top of his class militarily and entered the army as a second lieutenant, while MacArthur graduated first in his class at West Point in 1903, and also came on active duty as a second lieutenant. Both officers had exemplary records in World War I, although MacArthur distinguished himself in combat as a brigade and then division commander as a temporary brigadier general, while Marshall became Commander of the American Expeditionary Force General John J. Pershing’s most celebrated planner as a temporary colonel. In this role he was recognized for designing and executing the movement of more than half a million soldiers with guns and supplies in the decisive Meuse-Argonne Offensive that brought an end to the war.

*Opposite:  
Gen. Marshall  
and Gen.  
MacArthur  
stand side-by-side  
at headquarters  
on Goodenough  
Island, Papua  
New Guinea,  
December 1943.*



MacArthur's battlefield bravery and prowess as the most decorated U.S. officer in the war, no doubt enhanced by his already sterling family reputation, facilitated his promotion to regular army brigadier general in 1920—sixteen years ahead of Marshall. While MacArthur's World War I peers, including Marshall, were demoted to their prewar ranks, war hero MacArthur kept his with a plum assignment as superintendent of West Point. MacArthur then went on to gain promotion to major general in 1925—as the youngest two-star in the Army—when Marshall was still a lieutenant colonel. Five years later, MacArthur was promoted to four-star general and appointed army chief of staff in 1930, when Marshall had just made colonel and Dwight Eisenhower was a major.

Marshall finally made brigadier general in 1936 after MacArthur retired, and in 1938 was promoted to major general as army deputy chief of staff before being selected over a number of more senior officers as acting army chief of staff by Franklin Roosevelt on July 1, 1939, and sworn in as chief in his own right on September 1, the day Hitler invaded Poland. Thus, his date of rank as a four-star general was September 1, 1939. For purposes of this narrative, it is important to note that when MacArthur was recalled to active duty in World War II, his date of rank as a four-star general was adjusted to September 1936, which made him the most senior four-star general. However, the chief of staff is always accorded the role of senior general in the army, regardless of the date he or she assumes that position.

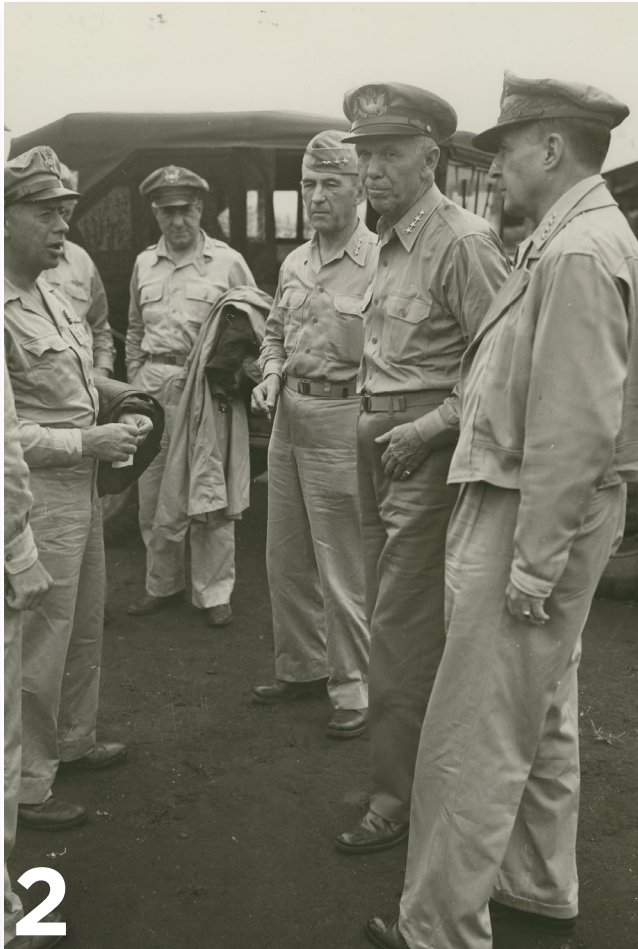
As to Dwight Eisenhower, he was always junior to both other officers—coming on active duty in 1915 after his graduation from West Point. But once World War II started, he rose rapidly under George Marshall: getting promoted to colonel and then brigadier general in 1941, major general and then lieutenant general in 1942, and full general in 1943. Of course, in 1944 when the U.S. felt it necessary to create a rank higher than four-star general to match British field marshals, it elevated all three men. However, Marshall's date of rank as five-star General of the Army was December 16, while MacArthur's was December 18, and Eisenhower's December 20. So at that point, Marshall was the senior officer not only by position, but also by the army's system of rank.

With all the preceding as background of the three protagonists, how did it come into play in regards to the military custom of senior officers assuming a position on the right side in any situation? With MacArthur's lineage, he was always steeped in military lore and traditions. In fact he was a stickler for discipline and doing things “by the book,” and had a reputation that dated from World War I for impeccable behavior. It is therefore not surprising that after his promotion to four-star general as chief of staff in 1930, he would always be (and expect to be) the officer on the right. In the early years of World War II, as we have seen, he had a date of rank that was earlier than Marshall's. However, the chief of staff had primacy by virtue of position. So here are two photos, clearly taken on the same day during the war, when they were both four-star generals; in photo 1, Marshall apparently defers to MacArthur and is on the left, but in photo 2, he is on the right. Any residual deference by Marshall seems to have receded in two later photos, one late in the war (photo 3) and one after the war (photo 4), when both men were five-star generals. Marshall clearly occupies the senior position in both.

In all these photos, MacArthur does not appear to be his usual flamboyant self with his typical swagger, although that observation is of course a matter of conjecture. Compare those photos with these of MacArthur and officers clearly his junior—Lt. General Richard Sutherland, his chief of staff in the Pacific (photo 5), and one with Eisenhower when they were both five-star generals (photo 6), but MacArthur was senior by virtue of date of rank. It is interesting to look back and see that their physical position looked consistent with the same two in 1932 when Major Eisenhower was General MacArthur's aide in Washington. (photo 7).

After his tour of duty as army chief of staff, MacArthur declined retirement and took a position as U.S. military advisor to the president of the Philippines in a reduced rank as major general, taking Eisenhower on the assignment with him in 1935. In an online article written for History Collection, Larry Holzwarth writes: “Eisenhower and MacArthur were frequently at odds in the Philippines. ‘Probably no one has had tougher fights with a senior than I had with MacArthur,’ Ike later said. Ike also disapproved of his commander's theatrical behavior—he called it ‘irrational’—and his vanity. To Ike,











MacArthur had been ‘raised in the conception of Douglas MacArthur superiority.’”

That was MacArthur. Brilliant as he was in military strategy, he had serious character flaws. When the Japanese attacked Manila on the day after Pearl Harbor, MacArthur had not heeded Marshall’s prior warning, and his Philippine command was severely damaged, especially his air forces—including eighteen precious B-17 bombers and fifty-six fighters destroyed on the ground. This blatant disregard of orders would have been grounds for Marshall to relieve MacArthur, but the chief of staff realized that there was no logical replacement as a competent theater commander. Nevertheless, as David Roll points out in his definitive 2019 book *George Marshall: Defender of the Republic*, while Marshall remained deferential toward MacArthur, this episode changed the very nature of the relationship. Marshall was no longer the junior partner, and henceforth would call the shots in terms of which generals would command and which would be relieved in all theaters of the war. With this in mind, the change in status in those photos suddenly becomes clearer.

As army chief of staff and Roosevelt’s “go-to” global military maestro, George Marshall played a key role in planning and prioritizing operations in both the Pacific and European theaters. This meant skillfully supporting MacArthur while keeping him under control. In fact, Marshall was widely recognized as being the only general officer who could do so in light of MacArthur’s senior date of rank, monumental ego, and rogue operating style. It seems that MacArthur was too self-centered to appreciate the fact that his best ally in Washington during the war was George Marshall. Contrary to widespread belief, Marshall always backed MacArthur as best he could in view of: one, the Allies’ “Germany first” strategy; two, the U.S. Navy’s efforts to undercut MacArthur in mounting a separate, second major strategic thrust in the Pacific; and three, MacArthur’s own frequent intransigence, self-promotion, and presidential political ambitions.

In a 2010 article for *Saturday Evening Post*, “Douglas MacArthur: Controversial Hero,” Jeff Nilsson captures the general’s contradictory qualities: “MacArthur’s critics cannot be dismissed; they point to the general’s arrogance and self-absorption, his short-sighted preparations in the Philippines, his

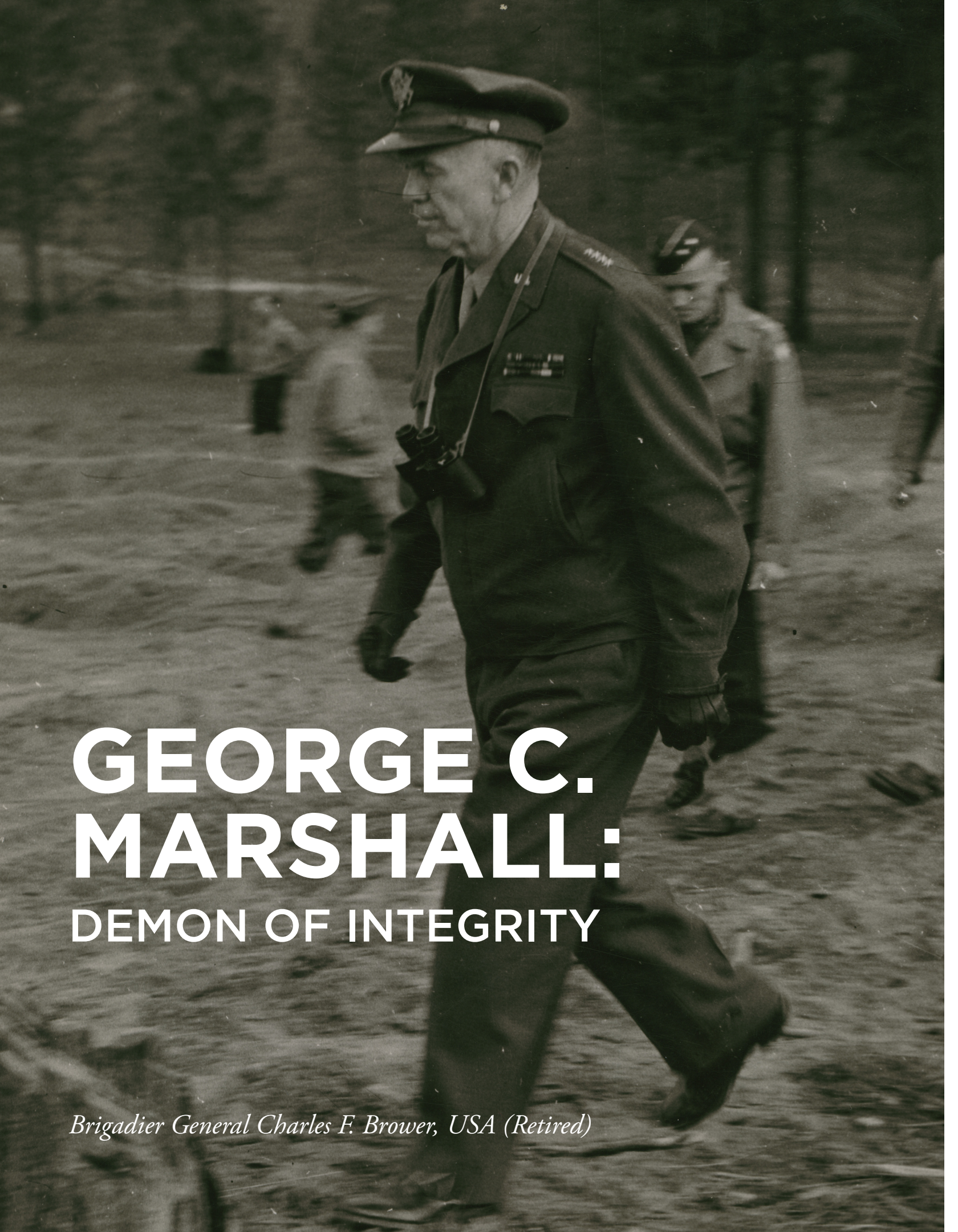
readiness to promote a war with China, and his political posturing in the ‘40s and ‘50s. They also compare MacArthur’s performance with those of Generals Eisenhower and Marshall—men who achieved greater things without his posturing or recklessness. Still, MacArthur was a powerful figure to Americans during the war years. He became a symbol of America’s strength and determination. He inspired devotion and confidence, both of which proved valuable to our success in the World War. Any man who draws such lasting admiration from so many Americans must represent something great about our country.” Indeed, George Marshall astutely recognized the importance of this fact. Following MacArthur’s arrival in Australia after the surrender of Corregidor, Marshall orchestrated the effort to award MacArthur the Medal of Honor, and personally wrote the citation—principally to give the American people a hero to rally behind in those early dark days of the war.

Now, let’s fast forward to 1950 when George Marshall had long since retired from active duty. Omar Bradley had been promoted to five-star rank as Chairman of the Joint Chiefs, usually the senior military officer, however by date of rank he was junior to MacArthur, then commander of United Nations forces in Korea. In a change from his later photographs with Marshall, photos of this period show MacArthur again on the right (photos 8 & 9). This latter photo is one of the few times when the chairman of the Joint Chiefs, the most senior officer by position in the military, is not placed on the right side in a formal ceremony setting. Perhaps in light of MacArthur’s unique personality, Bradley deferred to him, with Secretary of Defense Louis Johnson on the far right. In any case, this represented a break with a long-standing military custom and courtesy. Many readers may have seen these photographs before but never known that their subjects’ arrangement was far from random.

*David J. Cade served for 22 years as a U.S. Air Force officer before taking early retirement to pursue a second career in business. He is a published author on Russian military strategy and WWII military leadership, and is a member of the Board of Directors of the Washington, D.C.-based Center for Democracy and Human Rights in Saudi Arabia (CDHR).*







# GEORGE C. MARSHALL:

DEMON OF INTEGRITY

*Brigadier General Charles F. Brower, USA (Retired)*



*“He would tell the truth even if it hurt his cause,” Speaker of the House Sam Rayburn remembered. “Of all the men who ever testified before any committee on which I served,” Rayburn said, “there is no one of them who has the influence with a committee of the House that General Marshall has.”*

General George Catlett Marshall is widely accepted as this nation’s most esteemed 20th century military figure and has been recognized as a paragon of professionalism by generations of Americans. His leadership, selfless service, honesty, sense of duty, and abiding commitment to the Constitution and the American civil-military tradition were simply extraordinary, and venerated by those with whom he worked, regardless of rank or station. Indeed, these Marshall attributes continue today to mark a clear path guiding the citizens and soldiers of American democracy. *Time* magazine was surely correct to characterize him in 1944 as a “trustee for the nation.”

My task is to bring this historical monument to life, and to relate aspects of Marshall’s remarkable career to the theme of character. I will first sketch a portrait of his character and moral habits developed during the years before 1939. Although much more attention has been given to his career after 1941, those earlier years were a crucible that forged Marshall’s character and strengthened his special relationship with President Franklin D. Roosevelt, the Congress, and the citizens of America in preparation for his enormous wartime responsibilities.

Next, I will apply our understanding of the kind of officer that Marshall had become by the time he was appointed army chief of staff in 1939 to an analysis of his role during the difficult months between the German invasion of Poland in September 1939 and American entry into the war in December 1941.

Those twenty-seven months were also the first twenty-seven months of Marshall’s tenure as chief of staff and coincided with stunning Axis military victories and the subsequent need to prepare the United States for war. Marshall later called these years the most difficult of all during the war. The challenges of preparing for a global coalition war and mobilizing the nation’s resources into that effort were unprecedented in the American experience. Marshall also found the task made more difficult by the fact that he had to accomplish it while Americans were sharply divided over the appropriate nature of the American involvement in that war. And clearly, Marshall’s task was complicated by the formidable presence of his enigmatic commander-in-chief, Franklin Delano Roosevelt.

Marshall had concluded early that his most urgent mission as chief of staff was to secure the support of FDR and the Congress for a crash effort to bolster American preparedness through the building of a balanced military capability. As Marshall saw it, rearming America was an absolute priority. Yet in the days following the fall of France in June 1940 and with the rearmament process barely under way, Roosevelt concluded that the nation must simultaneously aid Britain in its lonely struggle against Germany. Fears that the modest gains in American readiness thus far realized would be dissipated by FDR’s eagerness to sustain Britain brought Marshall into conflict with the president—and into the harsh glare of partisan politics when congressional opponents of Roosevelt’s policies sought to draw Marshall into the foreign policy debate.

Marshall’s actions during those twenty-seven months provide revealing insights into his ethical leadership. Moreover, by demonstrating how Marshall was able to stand steadfastly for his beliefs while at the same time maintaining his loyalty to his civilian commander-in-chief, his actions during that period offer an especially emulative perspective on American civil-military relations and the American professional military ethic.





*Colonel  
Marshall, 1919  
or 1920.*

In November 1920, making good on his promise to share insights on successes in World War I with cadets at his alma mater, the Virginia Military Institute, Marshall provided VMI's superintendent his observations on the elements of successful leadership in combat in the American army in France.

His insights were indicative that he had reflected deeply on the art of leadership. Optimism, stamina, the love of one's soldiers, determination, and loyalty were qualities for Marshall

that distinguished successful officers from the common pack. They were the solid qualities on which a commander could depend, qualities which would make a large organization function effectively, qualities that would be the bedrock of readiness. "When conditions are difficult, the command is depressed and everyone seems critical and pessimistic, you must be especially cheerful and optimistic," he wrote. Especially then, leaders needed to lay "aside any thought of personal fatigue and display marked energy in looking after the comfort of [their] organization, inspecting your lines and preparing for tomorrow." This ability to reach deep within one's personal reserves of stamina and perseverance to lift-up and inspire exhausted and dispirited soldiers during such low points was an important Marshall hallmark of leadership. Indeed, he warned, the more "alarming and disquieting" the situation, "the more determined must be your attitude."

Further, Marshall emphasized that he valued loyalty enormously as a leadership virtue. The most successful officers, in his view,

made "a point of extreme loyalty, in thought and deed," both to their superiors personally and to one's efforts to execute their superior's plans or policies. There could be no role for individual ego in a soldier's respect for superior authority, he counseled. Indeed, "the less you approve, the more energy you must direct to their accomplishment."

From his vantage point in the War Department's Operations Division in 1941, then-Brigadier General Dwight D. Eisenhower saw Marshall every day and noted the types of personalities that did not win favor with his boss. Eisenhower believed Marshall viewed with special distaste "self-seeking officers" who sought to bring pressure to bear on their own behalf. In the competition in 1939 as FDR was seeking a new army chief of staff, Marshall had been true to this trait. "My strength with the army," he firmly told friends seeking to promote his candidacy, "has rested on the well-known fact that I attended strictly to business and enlisted no influence of any sort."

Another category that vexed him, Marshall told Ike, was officers who could do detailed work but would not take the responsibility for making decisions.





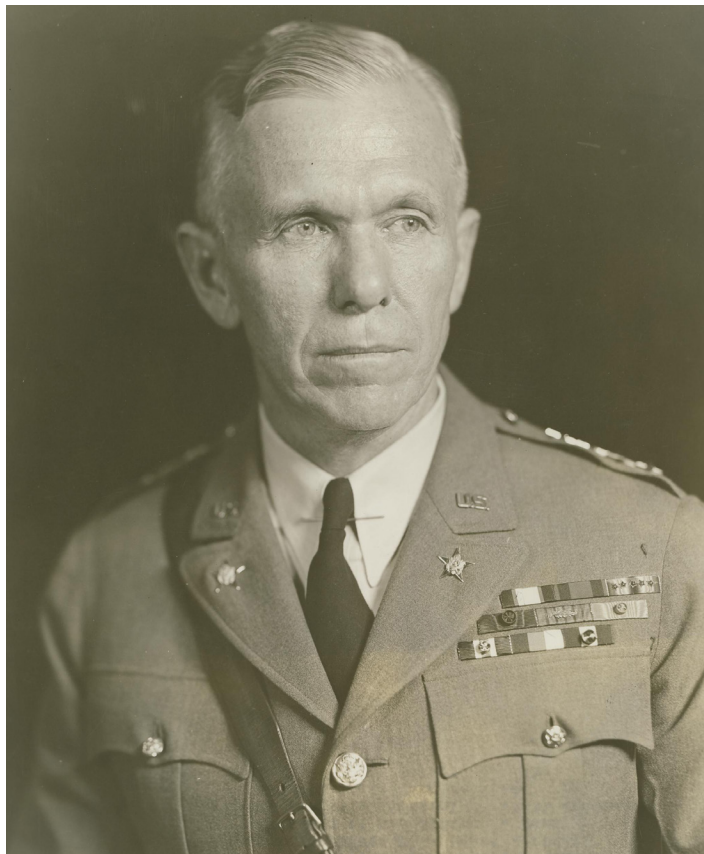
*Frankness of expression and the inability to quibble were in his mind directly related to trust and sincerity, the elements that reached to the very core of one's integrity.*

Similarly, he objected to men who immersed themselves in minor details and so lost sight of general issues. The group in disfavor also included those who loved the limelight and those who had trouble getting along with others. Nor could he stand pessimists. He would never give command to an officer who was less than enthusiastic about the post or the operation in question.

However, the quality of leadership most prized by Marshall and perhaps the one most reflective of his character was that of candor. Frankness of expression and the inability to quibble were in his mind directly related to trust and sincerity, the elements that reached to the very core of one's integrity. Simply put, Marshall gave—and expected to get—the unvarnished facts of a case, and he developed early in his career a reputation for straightforwardness and integrity that in his later career gave him immense credibility with Roosevelt, the Congress, and the American people.

Evidence from Marshall's pre-army chief of staff career that illustrates Marshall's commitment to providing frank and independent advice to his superiors is familiar and plentiful: among others there is Major Marshall speaking truth to power during

American Expeditionary Force commander General John J. Pershing's visit to the 1st Infantry Division in 1917; there is Army Deputy Chief of Staff Marshall in 1938 bluntly telling a startled FDR at a White House conference that he did not agree at all with his plan to divert U.S. aircraft to the European democracies; and there is Marshall reminding the president—who had just informed him that he would be the next chief of staff of the army—of his habit of saying exactly what he thought and that “it would often be unpleasant.”



Thus, at the outset of his relationship with his commander-in-chief, Marshall had emphasized his intent to speak truth to power in a candid, direct, and respectful manner. To be sure, Marshall had strongly desired to be selected as the next chief of staff but he neither camouflaged his views nor quibbled about his opinions. And to his credit, FDR had not invited any such behavior. As Thomas Parrish

*A portrait of General Marshall taken at Fort Myer, Virginia, on September 28, 1939—a mere four weeks after being appointed army chief of staff by President Roosevelt.*

has noted, the job of chief of staff came to Marshall without strings, with his integrity intact. He was therefore positioned to provide his commander-in-chief candid advice insulated and independent from the wizardry of FDR's beguiling personality.

Just how much ethical independence existed in the





*President Franklin D. Roosevelt signs the Selective Training and Service Act on September 16, 1940, as Marshall watches behind him.*

FDR-Marshall relationship was tested in the period after the fall of France in the summer of 1940 by the tension between Marshall's deep commitment to improving the army's readiness and Roosevelt's commitment to providing Britain the resources necessary to ensure its survival.

From the beginning of the war Marshall had sought to convince the president, Congress, and the public that the United States was in a bad way in terms of its military capabilities. Its army of nine understrength divisions totaling fewer than 175,000 men ranked only nineteenth in the world, trailing among others, such "military powers" as Spain, Portugal, and Bulgaria.

Roosevelt was not opposed to preparedness; however, in Marshall's view, FDR's vision too much relied upon air power and gave too little value and emphasis to the development of a balanced force.

Marshall instead proposed and strongly advocated for a \$675-million crash program that called for the creation of a balanced force of 1.25 million men by 1941, the bare minimum need, in his mind, for a nation still at peace but prepared for war.

When Marshall and Treasury Secretary Henry Morgenthau went to the White House in May 1940 to ask FDR for the necessary authorization, the president breezily dismissed the program. Morgenthau then asked the president if he would hear Marshall. "I know exactly what he would say," Roosevelt replied. "There is no necessity for me hearing him at all."

Marshall, his face red and his temper barely under control, then asked the president for three minutes to speak. When FDR agreed, he stood over the president and passionately elaborated upon the stark dangers and risks that any continued de-



lay in addressing the nation's unpreparedness would present. Although no verbatim record of Marshall's commentary exists, most historians agree with Forrest Pogue's phrasing of his conclusion: "You must act, Mr. President, and act quickly, or God help the country!"

"He stood right up to the President," an admiring Morgenthau recorded in his diary, convinced that Marshall had brought the president around. And he was correct: two days later Roosevelt sent the program to Congress and soon after Congress appropriated nearly \$900 million in defense authorizations supplemented by an additional \$286 million in contracting authority for airplanes, anti-aircraft guns, and associated training for personnel to use those weapons. Two weeks later the president requested another \$1 billion. America's mobilization and rearmament was now underway.

The presidential and congressional shifts on defense expenditures were also clearly influenced by the disastrous defeat of the French in the summer of 1940 and the isolation of Great Britain as it stoically endured the battle of Britain through the summer and fall. David Haglund has detailed how American divisions deliberated how best to deal with this threatening development. Should the United States provide substantial military assistance to Great Britain to ensure its survival? Must the United States become a belligerent itself? Or should it decree that a German victory would result in no clear and present danger to its vital interests and thereby maintain its historically isolationist policy toward European wars and concentration on hemispheric defense?

Marshall found himself at the center of the

debate. Instinctively supportive of FDR's interventionist perspective, he nonetheless wrestled with the troubling question of whether aid to Britain should take precedence over the readiness of American forces.



This question was brought into sharp focus when FDR pressed Marshall in the days after Dunkirk to use American military equipment and ammunition to replenish the lost British stocks. Torn between sympathy for Britain and the necessity of meeting his own defense obligations, Marshall struggled with a matter of conscience that would not be completely settled until the passage of the Lend-Lease Act in March 1941.

*Marshall's outspoken pragmatism and unwillingness to mince words led to a reputation of integrity—and a temper when frustrated.*

First, there was the legal question: American neutrality legislation passed in 1939 forbade the sale or transfer of munitions and implements of war to belligerent powers. Moreover, Marshall believed that only a few items—mostly obsolete weapons and ammunition



from World War I—could be spared. Otherwise, he saw little help for the British. "The shortage is terrible," he explained to FDR. "and we have no ammunition for anti-aircraft guns and will not for six months. So, if we give them the guns, they could not do anything with them....Anti-tank guns, the situation is similar...50-caliber, our situation is the

*The aftermath of a bombing by German forces in London, September 1940.*

same."

After some legal gymnastics the Roosevelt administration used a loophole in the neutrality legislation to transfer World War I reserve stocks to Britain, where they were quickly consumed by the British war machine. Believing further diminution of resources unwise, Marshall appealed to FDR to consider more carefully the effect of more transfers on American military readiness. In fact, as Andrew Bace-





*Marshall, followed by his dog Fleet, takes a ride in Fort Myer, 1941.*

vich has shown, FDR proved more prescient than his military advisor in this case. He was convinced that the survival of Great Britain was vital to American security and thus just the place to be investing scarce American military resources.

Marshall believed that FDR was ignoring the main point of his argument: the question as to whether Britain would survive at all. He feared that committing more of America's meager munitions reserves ran the risk of falling into a trap

which provided Britain resources inadequate to its salvation, while simultaneously increasing American vulnerability.

Not unaware of this dangerous predicament, Congress in June forbade the sale of additional surplus materiel unless the chief of naval operations and army chief of staff certified that it was not "essential" for American defense. Given his fears, Marshall faced an ethical dilemma. It was possible—but not provable—that the nation could improve its defensive position by sending additional aid to Britain. If Britain fell, however, it would be very difficult to justify the diversion. One of Marshall's staff put it more bluntly: "If we were required to

*Boeing B-17Es under construction in Seattle, Washington, 1942.*

mobilize after having released guns and airplanes necessary for mobilization and were found to be short . . . everyone who was a party to the deal might hope to be hanging from a lamp post."

As Britain weathered the German blitz during the summer and fall of 1940, FDR increasingly demanded that the army allocate a larger share of American war plane production to Britain. In fact, he expected that every other B-17 Flying Fortress bomber be

turned over to the British as it came off the assembly line. Expert by now at finding legal loopholes, Roosevelt blandly suggested that the army send the bombers to Britain for "combat testing" by the British. Marshall thus found himself trapped between the congressional requirement for certification and his commander-in-chief's policy. His conscience troubled, Marshall resolved "to do the best we could under the circumstances, which often were quite embarrassing." Reassured by encouraging reports from his men in London of Britain's resilience, he agreed to transfer the aircraft, and immediately felt better about it.

"[W]e turned over fifteen, I think it was, Flying Fortresses to the British for experimental purposes," he told Forrest Pogue later. "I was a little bit ashamed of this because I was straining at the subject in order to get around the resolution of Congress." He added, "Actually, when we got into it and did it, it soon became apparent that the important thing was exactly that, to let them have the planes for experimental purposes. And we should have done it much earlier, because we found difficulties with the planes that the Air Corps had not perceived at all."

Such recollections might justifiably be characterized as juicy rationalizations, and I am willing to concede the point. In my mind, two things are striking here: first, Marshall's acknowledgment of and evident shame about his ethical compromise and second—and especially—the absence of other such compromises in his career. And Marshall could have taken some comfort in the fact that Congress soon followed suit, taking its sympathies as well as its doubts into FDR's camp in March by passing





*...when [Marshall] takes the witness stand, we forget whether we are Republicans or Democrats. We remember that we are in the presence of a man who is telling the truth...*

the Lend-Lease Act, and thus ensuring Great Britain full access to America's arsenal of democracy.

These months in 1940 probably mark the point when Marshall's trusted relationship and influence with the Congress truly blossomed. "Members of both Houses and both parties trust him as they trust no other witness," *Life* magazine explained at mid war, "being persuaded he has no axes to grind, no personal ambitions, no motives save the welfare of the Army and the safety of the U.S. At hearings he

I served," Rayburn said, "there is no one of them who has the influence with a committee of the House that General Marshall has." The reason was simple, he continued, "It is because when he takes the witness stand, we forget whether we are Republicans or Democrats. We just remember that we are in the presence of a man who is telling the truth, as he sees it, about the problems he is discussing."

Speaker Rayburn's commentary reminds us once again of the priceless value of one's integrity.



Partly obscured by the differences separating Roosevelt and Marshall over readiness and aid to Britain is the way the commander-in-chief and his senior army advisor resolved their problems. Marshall clearly was not alone in seeing aid to Britain as a dubious proposition. Many influential sources of support for his position existed outside the administration, yet he chose not to exploit the opportunities offered by such allies. Instead, he directed his objections forthrightly to the president and he loyally accepted FDR's decision when it was reached. Once the decision was made, Marshall did his utmost to make the president's policy a suc-

*General Marshall speaks before the Senate Military Affairs committee, July 17, 1941.*

is never mysterious or pompous, egotistical or dramatic. His candor is disarming, his veracity unquestionable. He avoids politics and oratorical clichés."

Indeed, Marshall's candor—his refusal to ignore ugly facts—only added to his image. "He would tell the truth even if it hurt his cause," Speaker of the House Sam Rayburn remembered. "Of all the men who ever testified before any committee on which

cess. As he remarked later, "I had early made up my mind that I, so far as possible, was going to operate as a member of the team, political and otherwise military; that while it would be difficult at times and [there] would be strong pressures for me to appeal to the public, I thought it was far more important in the long run that I . . . try to do my convincing within that team, rather than to take action publicly contrary to the desires of the president . . ."



Neither by foot dragging nor by coy maneuvering would Marshall presume to challenge the legitimacy of the president's authority.

Roosevelt deeply appreciated Marshall's abiding loyalty



General Marshall and President Roosevelt review the Washington, D.C., Memorial Day Parade, May 30, 1942.

Marshall sits with instructors from the Infantry School at Fort Benning, 1929 or 1930.

to the principle of civilian control. Responding one day to Speaker Rayburn's praise of Marshall's integrity and effectiveness with the Congress, FDR insisted that no one admired Marshall more than he did: "I'm not always able to approve his recommendations; history may prove me wrong. But when I disapprove his recommendations, I don't have to look over my shoulder

to see . . . whether he's going to the Capitol, to lobby against me, or whether he's going back to the War Department. I *know* he's going back to the War Department, to give me the most loyal support as chief of staff that any President could wish."

For Marshall had taken an oath to the Constitution and had internalized its values. He had enormous respect for American democracy and clearly understood—and strongly endorsed—the vital but subordinate role that the military played. The military's job was to provide its best professional military advice to the commander-in-chief and to Congress, while guarding against acquiring any taint of partisanship. Indeed, Marshall's lack of partisanship was a defining feature for him, to the point that he would not even vote. "He saw himself," Mark Stoler has sagely observed, "as an officer who would have to take orders from his commander in chief no matter which party the individual belonged to, and as a servant of the republic, its government and its people."

Eliot Cohen has described this civil-military relationship in terms of an "unequal dialogue" of frank, often unpleasant, and extended debate understood by all to be "unequal, in that the final authority of the civilian leader was unambiguous and unquestioned." Marshall understood that lawful orders required obedience, but unlawful orders must not be

obeyed. But there was no right to challenge publicly the wishes of the commander-in-chief. Such defiance would lead to the collapse of good order and discipline in the services and weaken the fabric of a democratic society.

It is little wonder then that *Time* magazine, when naming Marshall "Man of the Year" in 1944, concluded simply: "In a general's uniform, he stood for the civilian substance of this democratic society."

Marshall's restrained and professional behavior during the politically explosive tangles with FDR over the tension between readiness and aid to Britain provide a polar star for members of America's armed forces to guide upon as they consider their civil-military responsibilities. He did not attempt to advance his cause through leaks to favored journalists. He did not attempt end runs of FDR to the president's congressional critics. And he did not publish in the *New York Times* or *Washington Star* op-ed pieces articulating alternative solutions to the administration's policies. Instead he privately provided his commander-in-chief independent and candid advice, not partisan advocacy of alternative policies, and he loyally supported and actively assisted their execution once the president had decided.

Marshall's thoughts on civilian control and military subordination to civil authority detailed in his charge to the director of the Civil Affairs Division established in 1942 to plan for military occupation responsibilities remain to me the most articulate on the subject. "[The American armed forces] have a great asset," Marshall observed, "and that is that our people, our countrymen, do not distrust us and do not fear us. . . . They don't harbor any ideas that we intend to alter the government of our country or the nature of this government in any way. This is a sacred trust . . . We are completely de-





voted, we are a member of a priesthood really, the sole purpose of which is to defend the republic. We concentrate our time and attention on that subject. That doesn't mean that we don't understand other things, but it simply means that we devote our time and attention exclusively to this. And I don't want you to do anything . . . to damage this high regard in which the professional soldiers in the Army are held by our people. . . . This is my principal charge to you, this is the one thing I never want you to forget in the dust of battle and when the pressure will be on you. . . ."

This essay tries in an impressionistic way to illustrate how the record of Marshall's interwar year career provides useful insights into his character and the American professional military ethic. General Marshall appreciated the priceless nature of his own integrity and understood that his behavior was interpreted by others as a reflection of the integrity of the American armed forces in general. Indeed, his every action seemed governed by these considerations.

In his poem, "George C. Marshall (1880–1959)," the late Thomas Hawkins Johnson, an Army officer

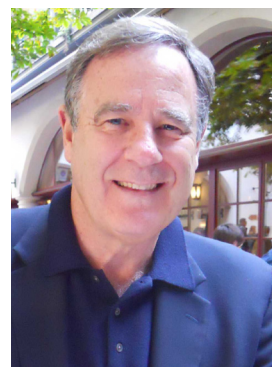
himself, captured nicely the central role that integrity played in Marshall's life:

In the photograph there are two rows of men,  
 Twelve or thirteen in all. Their drab uniforms  
 Look stiff in the midday glare: boots, riding  
 Breeches, thick wool blouses over khaki  
 Shirts strapped in with polished Sam Browne  
 belts.  
 Hatless, they seem to squint at the camera-  
 man,  
 Though it may be only the poor focus—still  
 One recognizes all of them slowly—Bradley,  
 Patton, Bedell Smith, even the young balding  
 Eisenhower smiling at some lost remark.  
 In the rear row, on the end, stands Major  
 Marshall,  
 Sober, impassive, his gaze impenetrable.  
 Perhaps such a photograph exists, taken,  
 Say, 1931 at the Infantry School,  
 Fort Benning; or perhaps it's only pasted  
 In the nation's worn album of apocrypha.  
 Because many events have intersected, we  
 Allow that inference: cause: a small, dull  
 army,  
 A few ambitious men trapped in  
 A generation of waiting, and one careful  
 Demon of integrity. The picture snapped,  
 They stroll toward the officer's club for  
 lunch,  
 Their conversation stunted in the heat.  
 Marshall, walking behind, keeps staring back.

"One careful demon of integrity": the ethical legacy that George Catlett Marshall, servant of the American nation, left for the American profession of arms.



*Casey Brower is Emeritus Dean of Faculty and Professor of International Studies at the Virginia Military Institute, where he taught courses in American foreign policy and grand strategy. He served also on the faculty of the United States Military Academy as a professor and department head. He is the author of Defeating Japan: The Joint Chiefs of Staff and Strategy in the Pacific War.*





# 2021 GOODPASTER AWARD



*Left:  
General David  
L. Goldfein  
(Ret.)*



*Right: General  
Andrew J. Good-  
paster*

In 2008, the George C. Marshall Foundation established the Goodpaster Award to honor the life and service of General Andrew J. Goodpaster, a longtime trustee and chairman of the Foundation, a champion of the Marshall legacy, an American hero and an extraordinary public servant. The Goodpaster Award is presented to Americans in a variety of fields who, like General Goodpaster, have exhibited great courage, selfless service, patriotism and leadership in their lives and careers. Past recipients have been Lt. Gen. Brent Scowcroft, General Gordon Sullivan, General Raymond Odierno, General John Jumper, General Richard Cody, General Mark Milley, General Joseph Dunford, and Dr. Mark Esper.

Staff of the Air Force, received the Goodpaster Award from the Marshall Foundation at a dinner at the Army Navy Country Club in Arlington, Virginia, on December 8, 2021. General Goldfein was recognized for his distinguished career and his many contributions to our nation's Air Force.

Born at Laon-Couvron Air Base in France, General Goldfein is a 1983 graduate of the U.S. Air Force Academy and completed a 37-year career as a combat fighter pilot. He commanded at every level and finished his career as the 21st Chief of Staff, the service's highest-ranking four-star officer.

As Chief, Goldfein had wide-ranging operational and advisory responsibilities, including oversight of the organization, training, and equipping of more





than 693,000 personnel serving in the United States and in over a dozen countries around the world, plus management of a \$168-billion operating budget.

Prior to serving as the Air Force Chief of Staff, Goldfein was the Air Force Vice Chief of Staff, the second-highest-ranking officer, and presided over the air staff and served as a member of the Joint Chiefs of Staff Requirements Oversight Council and Deputy Advisory Working Group, advising on high-interest acquisitions and assessing joint military capabilities for the Department of Defense.

Goldfein has held numerous command positions, including serving as the deployed air component commander for the U.S. Central Command, where he directed all air and space operations across twenty countries spanning the broader Middle East.

General Goldfein was sworn in as the 21st Chief of Staff of the Air Force on July 1, 2016, and served in this position until his retirement in August 2020.

Goldfein currently serves as Senior Advisor to the Blackstone Group, the world's largest alternative

investment firm based in New York City. In addition to serving on a number of boards, he is a Senior Fellow with Johns Hopkins Applied Physics laboratory and a Professor of Practice in the College of Business with the University of Texas in El Paso and San Antonio.

For more information about the Andrew J. Goodpaster Award event, contact Leigh McFaddin at 540.463.7103, ext. 138.

*General Goldfein delivers remarks at the December 2021 Goodpaster Award event.*



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### INSIDE THIS ISSUE

This magazine, in tandem with the Marshall Legacy Series and other initiatives, brings Marshall to life substantially and in a fashion that does justice to the complexities of his life, character, and career.

General Marshall and the Women's Army Corps

Marshall and His World War II Contemporaries as  
Seen Through the Eyes of an Ancient Military Custom

George C. Marshall: Demon of Integrity