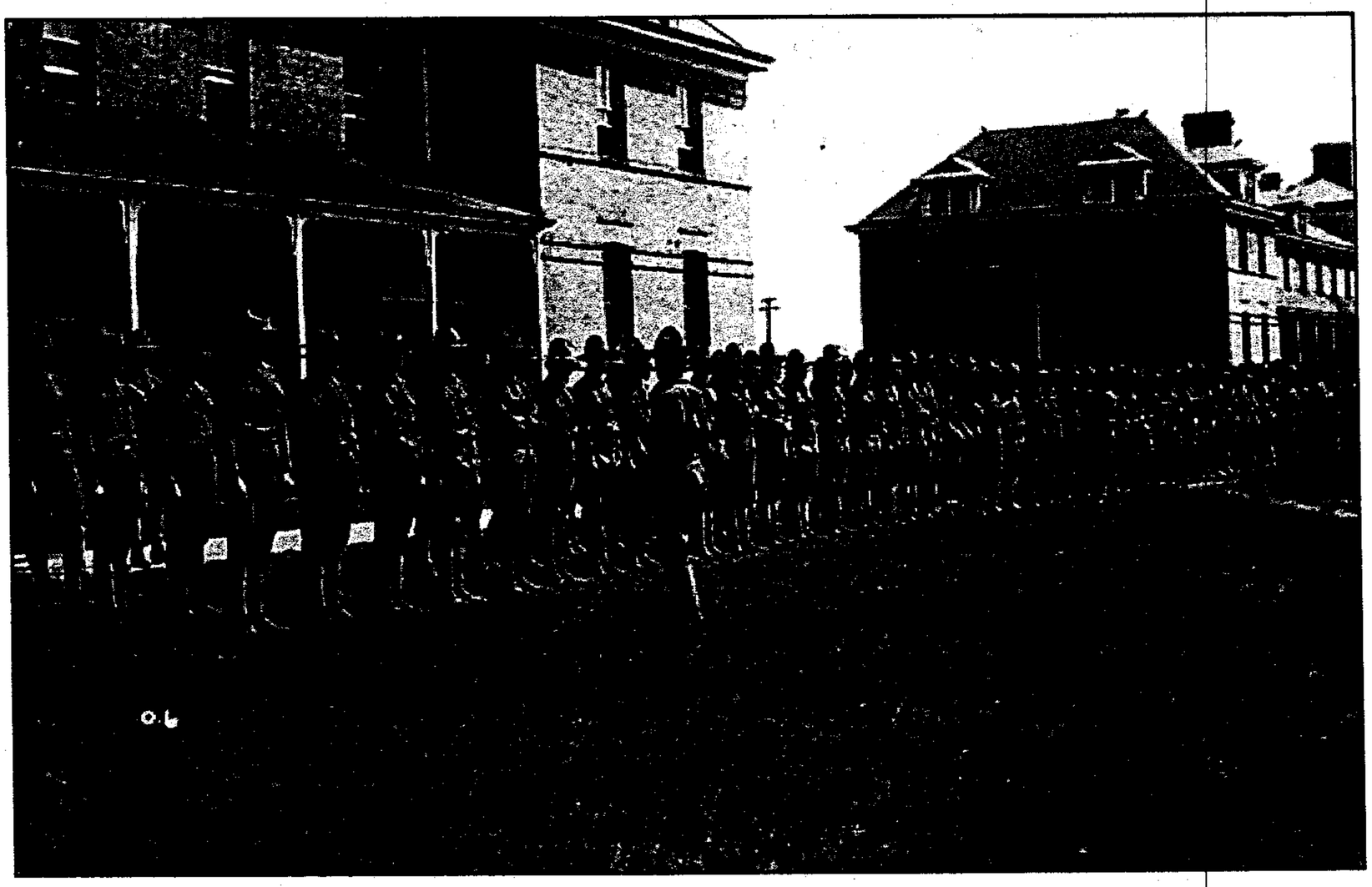


From Frontier to Country Club: A Historical Study of the "New" Fort Snelling

Prepared for:

Minneapolis Park and Recreation Board
200 Grain Exchange
400 South Fourth Street
Minneapolis, Minnesota 55415
612-661-4813

Prepared by:

Abbey Christman, Historian
Charlene Roise, Principal Investigator
Hess, Roise and Company
The Foster House
100 North First Street
Minneapolis, Minnesota 55401
612-338-1987

May 2002

TABLE OF CONTENTS

PROJECT HISTORY **1**

INTRODUCTION **2**

ARMY OPERATIONS **3**

SUBDUING THE WEST 3
WORLD WAR I 4
THE 1920s AND 1930s 6
WORLD WAR II 8

A SOLDIER'S LIFE **12**

WORKING CONDITIONS 12
AN ARMY OF ATHLETES 15

CONSTRUCTING FORT SNELLING **18**

TEMPORARY BUILDINGS 22

TIES WITH THE TWIN CITIES **23**

MINNESOTANS IN UNIFORM 23
EQUESTRIAN SPORTS 25

MODERNIZING THE MILITARY **26**

FIGHTING ON THE FRONTIER 26
INTO THE TWENTIETH CENTURY 28
A RELUCTANT WORLD POWER 30

CAMP SNELLING **31**

RESERVE OFFICERS TRAINING CORPS 34
CITIZENS MILITARY TRAINING CAMPS 35

MOBILIZING CITIZEN SOLDIERS **37**

DRAFTING AN ARMY 37

CONCLUSION **40**

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR INTERPRETATION **42**

WORKS CONSULTED **46**

APPENDICES

CHRONOLOGY

RESEARCH DESIGN

RECONSIDERING THE BOUNDARIES FOR THE FORT SNELLING NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES AND NATIONAL HISTORIC LANDMARK DISTRICTS

MAPS
- BOUNDARY MAPS
- TOPOGRAPHICAL VIEW, FORT SNELLING RESERVATION, 1846-1848
- MAP OF FORT SNELLING RESERVATION, 1882
- FORT SNELLING, 1902
- FORT SNELLING, 1905
- FORT SNELLING, BUILDINGS AND UTILITIES, 1938
- FORT SNELLING, WORLD WAR II
- FORT SNELLING, UPPER BLUFF AREA, CURRENT

This report has been prepared for the Minneapolis Park and Recreation Board with support from the Minnesota Department of Natural Resources. Cliff Swenson served as project manager for the park board. A companion report has been prepared by Christina Harrison, Archaeological Research Services, entitled "Before the Fort: Native American Presence at the Confluence of the Mississippi and Minnesota Rivers."

PROJECT HISTORY

Since its conception in 1819, Fort Snelling has evolved in response to changes in army management and operations, improvements in construction and military technology, and events in the region, nation, and world. The listing of Fort Snelling as both a National Register of Historic Places historic district and a National Historic Landmark recognizes the site's exceptional significance.

Another phase in the fort's history began in the late 1990s when the Minneapolis Park and Recreation Board (MPRB) proposed to develop a youth athletic complex on the artillery drill field and adjacent property to the northwest. The drill field is situated on land managed by the Minnesota Department of Natural Resources (DNR) as part of Fort Snelling State Park. The land was donated to the state by the federal government in 1971 under the Lands to Parks Program, which required that the land be dedicated to public park and recreational use.

To monitor conformance to this stipulation, the federal government retained the right to approve any leases for the property entered into by the DNR. This federal review for the proposed MPRB project triggered Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act and associated regulations outlined in 36 CFR Part 800. Extensive consultation between the National Park Service, the Minnesota State Historic Preservation Office, the Minnesota Historical Society, the DNR, the MPRB, the Veterans Administration, and the Fort Snelling State Park Association led to the conclusion that the proposed project would have an adverse effect on the National Register and National Landmark districts. As a result, a memorandum of agreement was developed specifying mitigation to offset the adverse effect and permit the project to proceed.

One of the mitigation requirements was the preparation of a historical study of the "New Fort" (created in the decades after the Civil War), as well as an evaluation of Native American activities in the area developed for the fort. In response, the MPRB, with financial support from the DNR, commissioned Hess, Roise and Company to prepare the following report. Charlene Roise served as principal investigator for the project, and Abigail Christman as primary author. Marjorie Pearson edited the report. Additional research was completed by Nathan Weaver Olson; Kristine Harley assisted with report production. A companion study addressing Native American issues was prepared by Christina Harrison of Archaeological Research Services as a subcontractor to Hess Roise. The research design for these studies is appended. A reassessment of the National Register and National Historic Landmark district boundaries, which was also required by the memorandum, is also appended.

Research was conducted at the Minneapolis Public Library, University of Minnesota Libraries, and Minnesota Historical Society. Particularly useful were the newspaper clippings in the Lawrence Fuller collection at the Minnesota Historical Society. However, many of these clippings lacked a newspaper name and some a publication date; available information is cited in the footnotes. The photographs illustrating the report are from the digital collection of the Minnesota Historical Society.

INTRODUCTION

Fort Snelling was established in 1819 to defend America's frontier. As Minnesota became settled and the frontier moved westward, the fort was no longer needed. The government sold Fort Snelling in 1858, and soldiers were replaced with sheep as the fort was converted to agricultural use. However, the fort was called back into service to mobilize and train forces during the Civil War. After the war the army retained the fort, making it the base for the Department of Dakota. In 1878, the headquarters office of the Department of Dakota moved from Saint Paul to the fort. More space was needed and construction of a "new" fort beyond the walls of the frontier post began.

As the West was settled and Native Americans were confined to reservations, the army consolidated its small, scattered outposts into larger, centrally located forts. At the beginning of the twentieth century, the "new" Fort Snelling was greatly expanded as part of this consolidation. While new construction was underway at the fort at the beginning of the twentieth century, the *Saint Paul Globe* commented: "The improvements recently completed, with those in progress and in prospect, will make Fort Snelling one of the largest and best appointed posts on American soil. Its strategic position is admirable for defense against domestic or foreign foes. For salubrity and charm of climate and surroundings, for the picturesqueness of its situation, it is not surpassed by any post in the United States."[1] The 1910s, however, were quiet years for the fort, with many of its troops posted on the Mexican border. But when the United States entered World War I in 1917, the fort was a center of activity. Units were mobilized at the fort, and officers training camps and a veterans rehabilitation hospital were located there.

In the 1920s and 1930s, Fort Snelling was dubbed the "country club" of the army. It was a large, scenically situated post, with ample social and recreational opportunities for the men stationed there. Post athletics, especially polo, drew crowds from the Twin Cities. The Third Infantry Regiment, which had served at Fort Snelling from 1888 to 1898, returned to the fort in 1921 with a peacetime duty to maintain its own preparedness for war and to provide military training for civilians. During the summers, Fort Snelling was a lively post with National Guard units, the Citizens Military Training Camps, the Reserve Officers Training Corps, and the Organized Reserves at the fort.

As war raged in Europe in 1940, the government prepared for possible U.S. involvement by enacting the first peacetime draft. With the establishment of a reception center at the post, Fort Snelling was once again a mobilization point for men on their way to war. Units were raised and trained at the fort, including military police and the railway service. The Military Intelligence Service Language School was moved to the fort in 1944, training men to serve as Japanese language translators and interpreters in the Pacific. The army left Fort Snelling in 1946.

---

[1] "The Building Up of Fort Snelling," *Saint Paul Globe*, July 4, 1901.

The following sections identify significant themes in the history of the "new" Fort Snelling, placing the fort within the broad context of American military history: Army Operations, Army Life, Constructing Fort Snelling, Ties with the Twin Cities, Modernizing the Military, Camp Snelling, and Mobilizing Citizen Soldiers.

ARMY OPERATIONS

SUBDUING THE WEST

By the Civil War, the frontier had moved beyond Minnesota, and Fort Snelling had outlived its original function as a defensive frontier post. The army had abandoned it, but put it into service again as a gathering point for Minnesota troops when the war started. After the Civil War soldiers returned to their homes, the primary duties of the Regular Army were to deal with the Indians in the West and to enforce Reconstruction in the South. The army was a skeleton force, spread thinly among numerous posts. In 1866, General William Tecumseh Sherman visited Fort Snelling and judged that though Fort Snelling was of "no use whatever for military defense," it was "a good point for the organization of new regiments" and "a military point from which troops and supplies can be handled for use on the northern frontier."[2]

Officers of the 3rd Infantry Regiment, Fort Snelling, 1895.

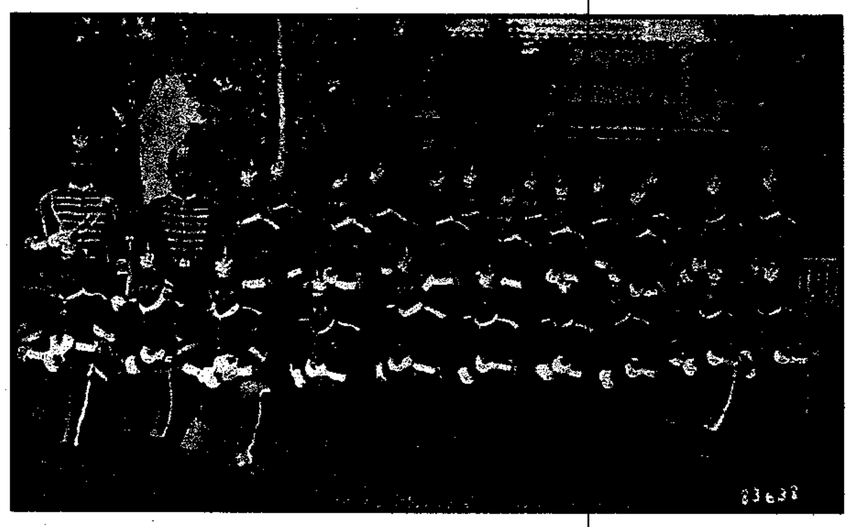
General Alfred Terry was appointed head of the newly established Department of Dakota in 1866. This department had charge over Minnesota and the territories of Dakota and Montana and was based at Fort Snelling with headquarter offices in Saint Paul. Four infantry regiments, of approximately 1,000 men each, were assigned to the Department of Dakota. Minimal forces were posted at Fort Snelling since it was in a settled area. Minnesota was rapidly growing with a population of 6,000 in 1860 that expanded to 440,000 by 1870. Annual reports of the Department of Dakota show very little military action in Minnesota after the Civil War, with the primary occupation of the soldiers escorting supplies to posts further west. Fort Snelling served as a regimental headquarters and headquarters of the District of Minnesota, with its troops available to be sent to other posts as needed. General Terry's real challenge was in the Dakotas and Montana. The Sioux still occupied much of this land and the Department of Dakota was charged with protecting settlers and travelers passing through the territory. General Terry established a series of small posts along the Missouri River and routes from Minnesota to the upper Missouri. During the 1870s, the department's work expanded to "civilizing" the Sioux and confining them to

---

[2] Steve Hall, *Fort Snelling: Colossus of the Wilderness* (Saint Paul: Minnesota Historical Society Press, 1987).

reservations. In 1898, troops from Fort Snelling participated in what has been called the final fight of the Indian Wars, an uprising of a Chippewa band at Leech Lake, Minnesota.[3]

The African-American Twenty-fifth Infantry Regiment was assigned to the Department of Dakota in 1880. Dubbed "buffalo soldiers," African-American units received praise for their service. The units were typically tough, uncomplaining, and disciplined with good morale and endurance. They had a low desertion rate and a higher re-enlistment rate than Caucasian units. However, a legacy of servitude meant that almost all were illiterate and reluctant to act independently. Despite their good service record, there was considerable controversy over African-Americans in the army, and the buffalo soldiers faced constant discrimination. In 1882, the headquarters, band, and Companies B, C, F, and I of the Twenty-fifth were posted to Fort Snelling. The units remained at Fort Snelling until 1888; these were the "least eventful" years in the regiment's history.[4]



Company I, 25th Infantry Regiment, Fort Snelling, 1883.

Fort Snelling was expanded in the early years of the twentieth century, increasing its capacity to an infantry regiment, two cavalry squadrons, and an artillery battery. In the years prior to World War I, the fort was not "used as a regular army post, but . . . served chiefly as a mobilization and demobilization point for the national guard regiments of the northwestern states that were stationed on the Mexican border."[5]

WORLD WAR I

When the United States entered the war in Europe, the army was desperately short of trained officers to lead the force being gathered. Regular Army and National Guard units lost many of their officers as they were detached to train volunteers and draftees. To meet the demand for officers, the War Department established sixteen officers' training camps during the summer of 1917. From May 15 to August 11, 1917, about 30,000 civilians and 8,000 Reserve Corps officers

---

[3] John W. Bailey, *Pacifying the Plains: General Alfred Terry and the Decline of the Sioux, 1866-1890* (Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1979), 11-20, 44; Francis Paul Prucha, "The Army Post on the Minnesota Frontier" (Master's Thesis, University of Minnesota, 1947), 159-160; Virginia Brainard Kunz, *Muskets to Missiles: A Military History of Minnesota* (Saint Paul: Minnesota Statehood Centennial Commission, 1958), 110.

[4] Robert M. Utley, *Frontier Regulars: The United States Army and the Indian 1866-1891* (New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., 1973), 25-27; John H. Nankivell, *Buffalo Soldier Regiment: History of the Twenty-fifth United States Infantry 1869-1926* (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 2001), 36-42.

[5] "Extension of Street Car Line to Fort Snelling Will Pass Over Ground Long Since Historic," *Minneapolis Sunday Times*, October 26, 1902; Franklin F. Holbrook and Livia Appel, *Minnesota in the War with Germany*, vol. 1 (Saint Paul: Minnesota Historical Society Press, 1928), 177.

attended the training camps throughout the United States with more than 27,000 receiving commissions at the end of camp.[6]

An officers' training camp was located at Fort Snelling. Two camps were held at the fort, with each candidate given three months to prove his ability as an officer. The first camp began in May with 2,500 men: 1,891 civilian applicants from Minnesota, Iowa, North Dakota, South Dakota and Nebraska; 295 members of the National Guard from these states; 150 engineers from Washington; 64 reserve officers; and 100 students from military department of the University of Minnesota. Civilians wishing to attend the camp had to submit recommendations attesting to their good character and loyalty and information on their school and work experience. Promising candidates were then given physical exams. More than 6,000 civilian applications were received for the first camp.[7]

Trench training at Fort Snelling, 1917.

Regular Army officers served as camp instructors, but the staff was constantly changing as the War Department adjusted the organization of an army of thousands to an army of millions. Existing officers were rapidly promoted to fill newly created positions. The training camp was demanding with reveille awakening the men at quarter past five and lights out at eleven. Officer candidates exercised for thirty minutes before breakfast; spent the morning and afternoon in drill, lectures, and recitations; and studied in the evenings. The men were tested with written exams and practical demonstrations on the drill field. Two practice marches were held each week, building the men's physical endurance and teaching them skills such as finding cover and estimating distances. Each candidate also had to pass a hundred-yard swimming test which was held at Lake Nokomis.[8]

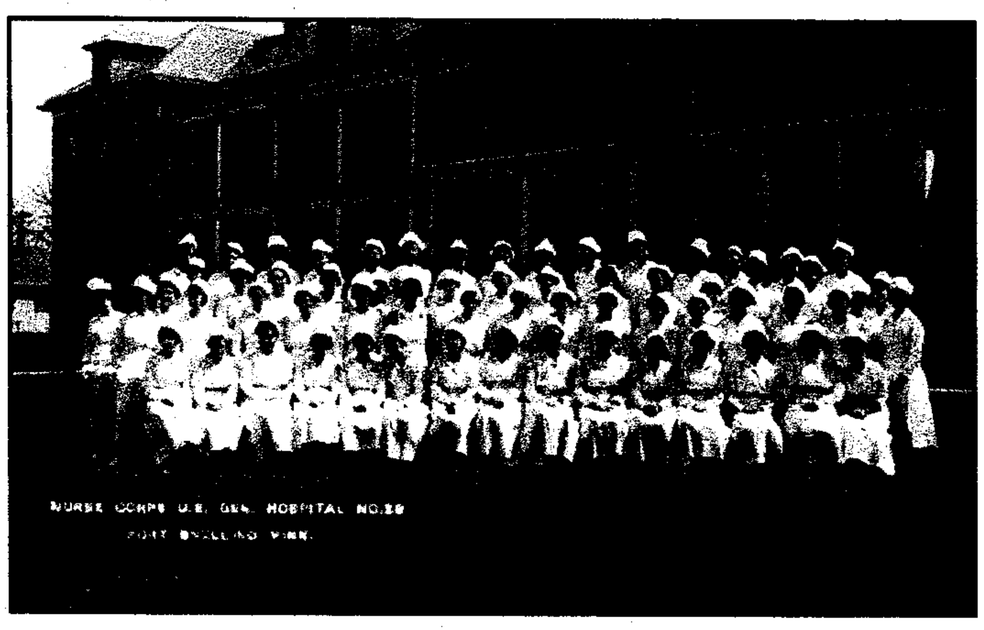
During the first five weeks of camp the men received general military training; in the remaining eight weeks candidates trained in their chosen branches of service. Those training in infantry or artillery remained at Fort Snelling while groups of coast artillerymen and engineers were sent elsewhere for instruction. The final eight weeks were divided into training in skirmish warfare and trench warfare. The latter emphasized combat techniques currently in use on the European front, including bayoneting, grenade-throwing, and trench construction. The camp concluded with a two-day trench battle with the second day's "dramatic military spectacle" attracting

---

[6] Russell F. Weigley, *History of the United States Army* (Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1984), 373.
[7] Holbrook and Appel, vol. 1, 174-177.
[8] Ibid., 180, 182.

thousands of sight-seers from the Twin Cities. On August 13, the names of the 1,551 successful candidates were announced with the majority becoming second lieutenants. The new officers displayed "physical endurance and dignity of bearing, a proper measure of self-confidence, a knowledge of tactics, pedagogical skill, the ability to march long distances and to ride a horse, some knowledge of marksmanship, and a general familiarity with the principles of camp sanitation."[9]

A second officers' training camp began at Fort Snelling on August 28. This time instead of beginning with general instruction, the men were immediately divided according to the branch of service. In the second camp greater emphasis was placed on trench warfare. This camp was also more competitive, with unsuitable candidates eliminated during camp. The camp concluded on November 23 with 971 commissions announced. The Thirty-sixth Infantry Regiment, stationed at Fort Snelling for the winter, then took over the barracks.[10]



Nurse corps, U.S. General Hospital No. 29, Fort Snelling, 1918.

In September 1918, U.S. General Hospital No. 29 was established at the fort and continued in operation until August 1919. The hospital was for the recovery and rehabilitation of veterans. The Red Cross helped provide for the welfare of those at the hospital. This included entertainments to provide diversion, cheer, and therapeutic exercise for the patients. The Red Cross ran a convalescent house at the fort. A gathering place for men during the day, it provided entertainment and refreshments in the evenings.[11]

THE 1920s and 1930s

In 1921, the Third Infantry Regiment returned to Fort Snelling after spending time in the Philippines, Alaska, and along the Mexican border. The unit came to Fort Snelling with less than 200 men, but soon grew to over 1,000 with new enlistments. Other units posted at Fort Snelling during the 1920s and 1930s included Battery F of the Fourteenth Field Artillery, the Seventh Tank Company, the Headquarters Company of the Fourteenth Brigade, and detachments of the Nineteenth Signal Service Company, Quartermaster Corps, Medical Department, and Finance Department.[12]

---

[9] Ibid., 181, 187-190.
[10] Ibid., 191-199.
[11] *Reveille: The Call to a New Life*, vol. 11, Fort Snelling, July 3, 1919, 17.
[12] "University of Fort Snelling Transforms Army of Past," *Minneapolis Sunday Tribune*, February 25, 1923; Maj. John R. Holt, "Historic Fort Snelling" (Fort Snelling: Maj. John R. Holt, 1938), 31.

Training maneuvers at Fort Snelling, 1930.

Under the National Defense Act of 1920, civilian military training was encouraged in order to establish a reserve of citizens ready to serve in case of national emergency. The army took on the role of civilian instructors, planning maneuvers with the National Guard and organizing summer training for the Reserve Officers Training Corps and the Civilian Military Training Camps.

Education became an important part of military training, and the army dubbed its program "The University of Fort Snelling." Three courses were required for officers. The first course began with rules of land warfare, military courtesy and customs, military hygiene and first aid, training methods and principals of teaching, field engineering, military law, military sketching and map reading, and the use of federal troops in civilian disturbances.

Target Practice at Fort Snelling, 1934.

The second course covered drill and command, weapons, equipment, animals and transportation, tactics, and equitation. The final course focused on tactics, command, and the use of the machine gun. These courses were followed by a conference on conducting training programs including methods, schedules, post of command duties, company communications, mess sergeants, cooks, mechanics, buglers, student buglers, student bandsmen, scouting and observation, and equitation. Courses were also offered for those wishing to take the West Point entrance exam or to be commissioned from the ranks. The fort operated a language school to instruct soldiers unable to read or write English. The texts used for instruction were specially designed to foster military pride, focusing on the duties of a soldier and the history of the United States. [13]

The soldiers at Fort Snelling were also taught to instruct others. In addition to their training duties with the National Guard and various civilian camps at held at the fort, the soldiers' teaching ability was a vital component of war preparedness training: "The specialists and post schools are really normal schools, for their object is not only to teach men to perform the various duties that are necessary to the army, but to prepare them to teach others what they have

---

[13] Ibid.; "Citizens Military Training Camp Surpassed All Other in U.S.," January 2, 1926.

Men on snowshoes pulling machine gun, Fort Snelling, 1923.

learned." It was planned that if the country mobilized, up to two-thirds of the unit might be detached to train new recruits and draftees.[14]

Not to be defeated by the Minnesota climate, the Third Infantry introduced specialized winter training. The standard drills and maneuvers were adapted for skis and snowshoes so that the unit could continue to train regardless of snow and ice. Runners were attached to wagons and guns placed on toboggans. This gave the Third Regiment, dubbed the "Alpine Chasseurs," unique preparation for fighting in cold conditions, making it "the one regiment of the Army which is constantly ready for winter duties when snow would make it impossible to employ the usual means of transportation." When budget cuts threatened the closure of Fort Snelling in the 1920s, its distinctive use as a winter training site helped save it. [15]

WORLD WAR II

As war raged in Europe in 1939 and 1940, the United States began to expand its military. Though many in the country hoped to avoid involvement in the war in Europe, the War Department sought to prepare the military for possible U.S. involvement, giving notice to warring nations that the United States could be a major power. In May 1940, Fort Snelling troops participated in army maneuvers in Louisiana and Texas, the largest maneuvers ever held in peacetime. An army force of 67,000 divided into opposing forces to engage in mock battles. The Third Regiment also held training maneuvers in Minnesota, including a march to test its cooks' ability to quickly prepare meals. An army convoy drove from the fort to Rochester, with a team of cooks with gasoline stoves busy inside the army trucks. The training mission was a success with hot meals ready to feed 400 soldiers fifteen minutes after the convoy reached the Rochester fairgrounds.[16]

The Third Infantry Regiment was part of the Sixth Army Division, and in 1940 the division's headquarters moved to Fort Snelling as the War Department underwent a major reorganization. Units were to be stationed closer to their divisional headquarters in order to improve training and allow for quicker mobilization. The following year, the Sixth Division headquarters were moved again to Fort Leonard Wood, Missouri. Part of the Third Infantry Regiment accompanied the

---

[14] A "normal school" was a teacher training school; "University of Fort Snelling Transforms Army of Past."
[15] "Citizens Military Training Camp Surpassed All Other in U.S."
[16] "Third Infantry Marches for New Officer," September 30, 1939; "Ft. Snelling Troops to Be in Mock War," March 10, 1940; "Army Cooks Match Speed of 'Blitz'," February 14, 1941.

Sixth Division, while some units stayed at Fort Snelling until being shipped out in the summer of 1942.[17]

The Third Infantry was replaced at Fort Snelling with a military police battalion and units of army engineers. A new 1,000-man regiment, the Thirty-fifth Engineers was activated at Fort Snelling in the summer of 1941. Efforts to enlarge the army had made Fort Snelling a busy place by the end of 1941; in November the garrison consisted of 240 officers, 3,531 enlisted men, and 18 nurses, not including new recruits being processed at the reception center. With the addition of military families, the population of Fort Snelling had grown to more than 4,000.[18]

Military Police

At the beginning of 1941, the War Department activated nine military police battalions, including a unit of more than 600 at Fort Snelling. The military police units were trained to guard prisoners of war and strategic locations such as factories, harbors, storage depots, and bridges, and to deal with civil unrest. It was a new kind of military unit designed to replace the National Guard units being called into federal service. The 701st Military Police Battalion was activated at Fort Snelling in January 1941 and the 710th was activated there in March 1942. The new units trained at the fort and were then detached to newly forming units or assigned to security duties.[19]

Military Railway Service

The national headquarters of the Military Railway Service (MRS) was established at Fort Snelling in May 1942, with about 200 officers and enlisted men assigned to it. It functioned as a liaison with commercial railroads and prepared to operate railroads in battle zones or any other area under military control at home or abroad. The headquarters for the MRS was in Saint Paul, with the troops commuting daily from Fort Snelling. A key element of training was to study the railroad systems of countries where American forces might see combat. Two Railway Grand Divisions (702nd and 704th) were activated at Fort Snelling in 1942. These units prepared for the Allied invasion of Africa. The headquarters of the railway service was moved to North Africa in 1943 for a more active role in invasion planning, and railway training was moved to Louisiana.[20]

Military Intelligence Service Language School

In the years before Pearl Harbor, as American relations with Japan deteriorated, two army officers, Lt. Col. John Weckerling and Capt. Kai E. Rasmussen, recognized the army's need for Japanese linguists. The officers interviewed Nisei (Americans of Japanese ancestry) in the military, but did not find many fluent in their ancestral language. Plans to offer instruction in military terminology and brief refresher courses for linguists developed into a more intensive

---

[17] "Snelling to Become Division Headquarters," February 22, 1940; "Fort Snelling Made Headquarters of Sixth U.S. Army Division," February 22, 1940; Lt. Col. Floyd E. Eller, "A Soldier Looks at History," *Minnesota History*, March 1943, 5.

[18] Newspaper clipping, January 25, 1941; Newspaper clipping, April 2, 1941; "Snelling Garrison Vital to N.W., Colonel States," November 7, 1941.

[19] "Fort Snelling Gets Military Police Unit," March, 10, 1941; Dale Francis Becker, "Fort Snelling 1938-1945" (B.A. paper, University of Minnesota, 1983), 16-20.

[20] Becker, 21-24; "Fort Snelling is Army Rail Headquarters," April 10, 1942.

MISLS students at Fort Snelling, 1945.

training school. The Fourth Army Intelligence School was established in San Francisco in November 1941 to train Japanese language translators and interpreters. Instructors had to develop their own curriculum and texts. Instruction began with sixty students. On December 7, 1941, Japan attacked Pearl Harbor, and in February 1942 the U.S. government ordered all Japanese and Japanese-Americans living on the West Coast relocated to internment camps. The War Department wanted to move the school away from the racially charged atmosphere on the West Coast. Rasmussen chose Minnesota because it "not only had room physically but also had room in the people's hearts." In June 1942, the school moved to Camp Savage, Minnesota, into facilities previously used as a Civilian Conservation Corps camp and a shelter for indigent men. Classes in Minnesota began with eighteen instructors and 200 enlisted students. As the first graduates of the program proved their usefulness, the War Department recognized the importance of the school and placed it under its direct jurisdiction, renaming it the Military Intelligence Service Language School (MISLS).[21]

As the school grew it needed more students and in April 1943 instructors from the school visited relocation camps to recruit more Nisei for language training. Some European-Americans with knowledge of Japanese, either from living in Japan or university courses, were also admitted to the school. Classes began at 7:30 A.M. and ended at 5 P.M. with two hours for studying after dinner. The curriculum included translating Japanese texts, reading cursive or *Sosho* writing, learning Japanese military terminology, training in POW interrogation, studying Japanese culture, history and geography, and translating intercepted radio communications. The students received practical training by translating captured documents sent to the school and translating Japanese radio messages at the school's shortwave radio station. Messages broadcast in Tokyo were intercepted, translated, and sent to the War Department within hours. Takashi Matsui, an instructor at the school, also "instilled in the students an awareness of the seriousness of the

---

[21] United States Military Intelligence Service, *Unsung Heroes, the Military Intelligence Service Past—Present—Future* (Seattle: MIS, 1996), x-xi; Masaharu Ano, "Loyal Linguists: Nisei of World War II Learned Japanese in Minnesota," *Minnesota History*, Fall 1977, 278; Stanley L. Falk and Warren M. Tsuneishi, eds., *MIS in the War Against Japan: Personal Experiences Related at the 1993 MIS Capital Reunion, "The Nisei Veteran: an American Patriot"* (Vienna, VA: Japanese American Veterans Association of Washington, DC, 1995), 4-5.

study because on their ability to translate and interrogate lay the lives of many members of our armed forces."[22]

On Wednesday afternoons, the men took a break from the classroom for military training, which often constituted long marches. Examinations were given on Saturday mornings, with Saturday afternoon and Sunday free for recreation. The students joined post athletic activities and dances were held most weekends. They could also take the streetcar into Minneapolis or Saint Paul. An Office of Special Service was established to help students take advantage of the Twin Cities' recreational and cultural activities.[23]

As the school grew to meet the increasing demand for linguists in the Pacific, it outgrew Camp Savage. Much of the administration and supply of the school was already handled through Fort Snelling and in August 1944, the school, with an enrollment then over 1,000, moved to Fort Snelling. At Fort Snelling the curriculum was diversified. Three new sections were added to the school in 1945: a Chinese language class, a Korean language class, and a Women's Army Corps (WAC) Japanese language class. Forty-seven Nisei, three European-Americans, and one Chinese-American were in the WAC class. The women received the same instruction as the men, except oral instruction was excluded since the women were to serve as translators rather than interpreters or interrogators. After V-E day, instruction at Fort Snelling was intensified and shortened to prepare linguists for the possible invasion of Japan. More emphasis was placed on spoken Japanese.[24]

The MISLS played a vital, but little publicized, role in military intelligence and psychological warfare in the Pacific. Their success was assisted by a complacent belief among the Japanese that Americans could not understand their complex language. Graduates from the school served throughout the Pacific. Many were posted to the Allied Translator and Interpreter Section in Australia where they translated captured military documents. Others were assigned to combat units of the Army, Navy, and Marines with duties including interrogation, receiving and sending radio transmissions, writing propaganda, and persuading enemy soldiers to surrender . Military commanders praised the contribution of the MISLS graduates. General Douglas MacArthur stated that, "never in military history did an army know so much about the enemy prior to actual engagement," while Major General Willoughby, his Chief of Staff, believed that "the Nisei saved a million lives and shortened the war by two years."[25]

The war with Japan ended in August 1945, but the work of the MISLS continued, preparing linguists to serve with the occupation force in Japan. Training changed focus from military needs

---

[22] Falk and Tsuneishi, 5-6; Ano, 282; Duane R. Shellum, *America's Human Secret Weapon* (Minneapolis, Minn.: Minnisei Printers, Inc., 1977), 14-15.
[23] Ano, 280-281.
[24] Falk and Tsuneishi, 7; Shellum, 12, 15; Tad Ichinokuchi, ed., and Daniel Aiso, asst., *John Aiso and the M.I.S.: Japanese-American Soldiers in the Military Intelligence Service, World War II* (Los Angeles: The Club, 1988), 47; Military Intelligence Service, xii.
[25] Military Intelligence Service, xiii; Falk and Tsuneishi, 7; Shellum, 16.

to governmental and civilian requirements, including more refined language skills as well as a knowledge of Japanese culture and manners. New courses in civil affairs terminology and Japanese government were added. At the end of 1945, MISLS enrollment was at its peak with around 3,000 students. The twenty-first MISLS class graduated from Fort Snelling in May 1946 with more than 6,000 linguists trained since the school's inception. In June the MISLS moved to Monterey, California, becoming the Army Language School and continuing today as the Defense Language Institute.[26]

A SOLDIER'S LIFE

WORKING CONDITIONS

1865-1900

In the nineteenth century, the ranks of the army were largely composed of men who did not fit elsewhere in society. The enlisted men had varied backgrounds, but the largest group was the urban poor. The average recruit was in his mid-twenties and more than 50 percent were foreign born, with the largest numbers from Ireland and Germany. The military had little to offer society's more educated, trained, or well-adjusted members. The ranks were filled with criminals, outcasts, and drunks as well as immigrants and adventure seekers, making soldiers characteristically a rough, profane, and uneducated group. As an army general observed in 1872, the government had produced a greatly improved rifle, but "I rather think we have a much less intelligent soldier to handle it."[27]

Life was not easy for the frontier soldier. Conditions were rough and rewards were few. Enlisted men earned between $13 and $22 a month, which they were paid irregularly. A soldier typically lived in shoddy barracks, ate bad food, performed menial tasks, suffered strict discipline, and experienced long periods of tedium broken by the occasional patrol or campaign. Boredom and loneliness were as much a threat as the Native Americans. For relief soldiers turned to gambling, whiskey, women, suicide, and desertion. Desertion was a significant problem with 8,800, about one-third of the Army, deserting in 1871. This seriously affected efficiency and morale. Reformers suggested that improving food and living conditions, increasing pay, and providing more opportunities for advancement would make it easier to recruit men and would decrease desertions. But improvements were slow to come, due to minimal funding from Congress, public apathy, and conservative officers who argued that improvements would hurt discipline.[28]

---

[26] Shellum, 8; Ichinokuchi and Aiso, 43; Falk and Tsuneishi, 8.
[27] Alan R. Millett and Peter Maslowski, *For the Common Defense: A Military History of the United States of America* (New York: The Free Press, 1984), 261; Utley, 22-23.
[28] Utley, 22-23, 87; Russell F. Weigley, *History of the United States Army* (Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1984), 270; Millett and Maslowski, 261-262.

The military was rigidly stratified, with rank determining privilege and social standing. While the officers who choose the military as a career received more respect than the enlisted men under their command, army life still held many frustrations and hardships. Officers could bring their families with them and could periodically escape on leave. They had their own quarters, but these were often little better constructed than enlisted barracks. Few enlisted men were married, since few could afford it. While the military provided housing for officer's families, the enlisted men were expected to live in communal barracks.[29]

With the end of the Indian Wars and the consolidation of forts, living conditions began to improve. Around 1890 cooperative post exchanges, operated for the benefit of the soldiers, were introduced. Previously goods were sold to soldiers by merchants seeking as much profit as possible. Post-exchange profits were used to for such things as athletic equipment, furniture for lounges, extra food for the mess, and periodicals.[30]

The Spanish-American War brought the army into the national spotlight. During the war, the army quickly expanded with the addition of National Guard units and civilian volunteers. Many of these volunteers spent the war in camps where supplies were short, hygiene poor, and morale low; disease spread rapidly. These difficulties, publicized by a muckraking press, drew public attention to the military shortcomings: "a middle class that would soon grow intolerant of the wasting of human lives in slums, tenements, and anthracite fields was already unwilling to tolerate a waste of lives in which its own sons were involved, as they were in the regiments of the volunteer army."[31]

1900-1946

In the nineteenth century little concern had been given to the welfare of individual soldiers, but in the twentieth century progressivism and the entry of the civilians into the military during the world wars inspired concern for soldiers' welfare and morale. The Y.M.C.A. established an office at Fort Snelling early in the century which it expanded when the U.S. entered World War I. The Y.M.C.A. provided books, magazines, writing materials, and musical instruments for the use of the men. While troops were preparing for war, the Y.M.C.A. organized local talent to provide nightly entertainment including "musical recitals, speeches by well-known individuals, athletic contests, chalk talks, moving pictures, dramatic productions, and community 'sings.'" The Y.M.C.A. also held religious services, Bible study, and classes in English and French. During the war, the Knights of Columbus also provided for the welfare of those at the fort, with a chapel and social center furnished with a piano, victrola, games, writing materials, and magazines. The Twin Cities branch of the Jewish Welfare Board invited men at the fort to picnics, lawn parties, home entertainments, and family meals on holidays. Twin Cities residents also sponsored and attended social events at the fort. During World War I, the Y.M.C.A. at Fort Snelling praised the hearty support it received from welfare organizations in the Twin Cities in providing entertainment for the men at the fort. During the 1920s, organizations in the Twin

---

[29] Utley, 83.
[30] Col. John Robert Elting, *American Army Life* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1982), 159, 167.
[31] Weigley, 309.

Cities began to take an interest in the welfare of the men at the fort, hosting a variety of entertainments at the post, including popular monthly dances to which "various clubs of girls in the cities" sent members "to help give the soldiers a good time." During World War II, the United Service Organization (USO) put on two stage shows a month for the men at the fort. Regular dances were held at the fort to entertainment the new recruits with newspaper announcements inviting the Twin Cities' girls to attend.[32]

As the twentieth century began, improved living conditions were making military life more attractive. Shoddily constructed frontier posts were closed, and Congress provided funds for a major building effort at the consolidated posts. Conditions at Fort Snelling greatly improved with the construction of new barracks as well as a post gymnasium at the beginning of the century. The quality of food also improved as the army established training for cooks. There were still many foreign-born in military, but the army also began to attract American farm boys looking for excitement; in the army "their existence was Spartan, but often comfortable enough compared to the homes they had left." When the century began, a private's pay was still at the pre-Civil War level of $13 a month, making recruiting and desertion a continuing problem. In 1908 a private's pay was raised to $15 a month and extra pay was offered for good marksmanship. During World War I, a private's pay was raised to $30 a month but cut back to $21 a month after the war. By World War II, privates were earning $50 per month.[33]

Working conditions also improved, and the practical training and education offered by the army made it a stepping stone to later success in civilian life rather than an escape from it. By the 1920s, the *Minneapolis Sunday Tribune* announced that "instead of a refuge for men who were of no use in other walks of life, the army is today a great training school for ambitious young men who desire to learn trades and fit themselves for better positions in civil life." During a recruiting drive in 1923, a colonel at the fort promoted the advantages of enlisting with the Third Infantry Regiment, which offered "young men an outdoor life and an opportunity to obtain an education and learn a trade." After a few years with the army, an enlisted man could be a qualified automobile mechanic or electrician.[34]

In the 1920s and 1930s, Fort Snelling became an attractive assignment, "known among army men as one of the best and most sought-after posts in the United States." There was no excuse for boredom with numerous recreational opportunities at the fort and street car connections to Minneapolis and Saint Paul. The men at the fort got a half-day holiday on Wednesdays. Typically the afternoon was filled with sport, with baseball being the most popular, while others played tennis or golf, swam, or went fishing. Soldiers were allowed to leave the fort for the city on Wednesday and Saturday afternoons and Sundays. A service club provided a place for men to

---

[32] Holbrook and Appel, Vol. II, 137-141; *Reveille*, 22; "University of Fort Snelling Transforms Army of Past"; "Fort Assured Stage Shows: 2 a Month to Help Entertain Troops," April 4, 1942; "Snelling to Resume Dances for Inductees," September 18, 1945.
[33] Elting, 183-189, 226; Eller, 9.
[34] "University of Fort Snelling Transforms Army of Past"; "Third Infantry to Open Drive for 250 Men," November, 18, 1923.

gather in their free time and hosted social events. A post library supplied the men with books and magazines. The officers club also organized a variety of entertainments. There were informal suppers with bridge, bowling, and other games as well as formal dinner-dances. The officers' wives sponsored a Ladies' Reading club and Ladies' Bridge club.[35]

AN ARMY OF ATHLETES

In the nineteenth century, the military accepted sports as a diversion from the hardships of military life but offered no formal encouragement or organization for athletics. During the Civil War, soldiers on holiday engaged in baseball, boxing, wrestling, horseracing, shooting matches and foot races. Horse races, foot races, and baseball games might be seen at a frontier fort, but such events were haphazard, and there was no army policy to provide recreation for the men.[36]

Company A baseball team
At Fort Snelling, 1928.

Popular team sports and a sporting culture developed in late nineteenth century America. During the Spanish-American War sports were incorporated into military life as a way to entertain troops and relieve tension. After the war, the military, seeking a way to maintain the morale of the troops stationed abroad, introduced a formal sports program for the first time. A new generation of young officers began to use organized sports as a means to not only improve the physical fitness of troops, but to lessen desertion, prevent vice, and make army life more appealing. These reform-minded officers saw it as their moral responsibility to provide for the welfare of those under their command. Athletics were embraced as promoting good citizenship and a martial spirit among the men.[37]

Major General Leonard Wood, Army Chief of Staff, was one of the first army leaders to promote the use of athletic training to instill teamwork and cooperation among soldiers, as well as to improve physical fitness. Wood sought uniform fitness standards for the Regular Army as well as the National Guard, distributing the *Manual of Physical Training for Use in the United States Army* in 1914. Suggested physical training activities included marching, increasing upper body strength with dumbbells, rifles, or rope climbing, and training on gymnastic apparatus such as

---

[35] Kunz, 163; "Play is Both Duty, Fun at Ft. Snelling," May 27, 1937; "University of Fort Snelling Transforms Army of Past"; "Fort Activities to Open," October 4, 1938.
[36] Steven W. Pope, "An Army of Athletes: Playing Fields, Battlefields, and the American Military Sporting Experience, 1890-1920," *The Journal of Military History*, July 1995, 438.
[37] Wanda Ellen Wakefield, *Playing to Win: Sports and the American Military, 1898-1945* (Albany: State University of New York Press, 1997), 1-5; Pope, 436, 441.

the pommel horse. Athletic competitions including swimming, boxing, and wrestling were also encouraged. The manual made sporting activities an integral part of general military training.[38]

When the United States entered World War I, military leaders debated how best to meet the social and emotional needs of the soldiers as well as how to train, feed, and supply them. Athletic activities were viewed as a wholesome activity to entertain the troops while also improving their bodies, minds, and spirits. Leaders hoped that if soldiers' off-duty time was filled with sports, they wouldn't have time to be tempted by alcohol and prostitutes. The young recruits were "encouraged to direct their energies towards preparing for war, and toward the wholesome recreational opportunities being made available on base, rather than toward the enticing possibilities presented by being away from home and watchful family." The military hoped that athletics would promote masculinity and toughen recruits weakened by physically undemanding office jobs. The army also sought to create unit cohesion through athletics, creating a functional fighting force with team spirit out of a diverse collection of recruits. At a typical camp, athletic offerings might include baseball, football, boxing, tug-of-war, volleyball, and basketball. Fencing was rejected as too effeminate.[39]

The military also turned to charity organizations to help provide athletics for the troops. The Y.M.C.A., National Catholic War Council, Jewish Welfare Board, the American Library Association, the Salvation Army and the War Camp Community Service organization assisted the military with organizing activities for the soldiers and collecting athletic equipment. After the war, the military took over welfare and athletic programs from these charity organizations, creating its own programs for soldiers.[40]

Upon becoming superintendent of West Point after World War I, General Douglas MacArthur introduced athletics to the school curriculum, with offerings including baseball, football, basketball, soccer, lacrosse, track, tennis, golf, and hockey. According to MacArthur, athletic competition developed "the qualities of leadership, quickness of decision, promptness of action, mental and muscular coordination, aggression, and courage" that an officer needed. A West Point student in the 1930s said that football was the most important sport played at the school because of its resemblance to war; football "embodied the use of strategy, tactics, and required intensive training to prepare for its ultimate commitment to action, and it provided a means for developed leadership and teamwork."[41]

Athletics became an intrinsic part of military training. The experience of the World War I had shown "a lack of physical development in the average young man in American that is appalling." In addition to the obvious advantages of physical conditioning, athletics were a means to build teamwork, bond men, and develop confidence. Athletics could also keep the men out of trouble, improve morale, and increase the appeal of military life. The cover of the Fort Snelling Book of

---

[38] Wakefield, 6-7.
[39] Ibid., 12-15.
[40] Ibid., 13.
[41] Ibid., 53, 64.

Champions for summer 1921, announcing athletic results for the season, promoted the fact that "this regiment participates in a great variety of sports all seasons of the year . . . .A most attractive station at which to serve. Consider this when enlisting or reenlisting in the army."[42]

Fort Snelling during the 1920s and 1930s offers an excellent example of the growth and promotion of sporting activities in the military. Athletics were encouraged at Fort Snelling, both for physical training and morale. American soldiers were expected to be athletes. According to a Twin Cities' newspaper: "To the American soldier the business end of a baseball bat is as much his duty to manipulate as one of the high-powered, rapid-fire rifles. Uncle Sam will stand for no mollycoddles in his khaki, and to insure himself that he doesn't get them, or if he does that he doesn't keep them, prescribes a stiff daily round of compulsory athletics and recreation." Boxing and wrestling were played by strict rules which encouraged fair play and good sportsmanship and barred questionable punches or holds: "Boxing and wrestling are the oldest and most natural form of competitive exercise known to man. They give the soldier mental courage and fearless eagerness to clash personally with the enemy, a state of mind invaluable to himself and to his country in the crisis of battle."[43]

A wide variety of sports were offered at the post, with every soldier involved in at least one sport. An officer was assigned to oversee all athletic activities, and talented officers and enlisted men served as team coaches. During the winter men could participate in hockey, ski jumping, cross-country skiing, snow-shoeing, curling, speed and figure skating, and tobogganing. Summer sports included football, baseball, basketball, softball, volleyball, track and field, rugby, soccer, lacrosse, and trap ball. Every soldier was required to prove swimming proficiency. There were competitions between companies, and teams from the post competed against various local teams. Athletic competitions were also held between forts, such as a weekend in 1939, which included basketball and bowling matches against teams from Fort Sheridan, Illinois and a boxing and rifle matches against men from Fort Lincoln, North Dakota.[44]

Fox hunt at Fort Snelling, 1930.

Polo, hunting, and horse exhibitions were popular pursuits for army officers throughout the U.S. during this period, and these elite equestrian sports at Fort Snelling enhanced

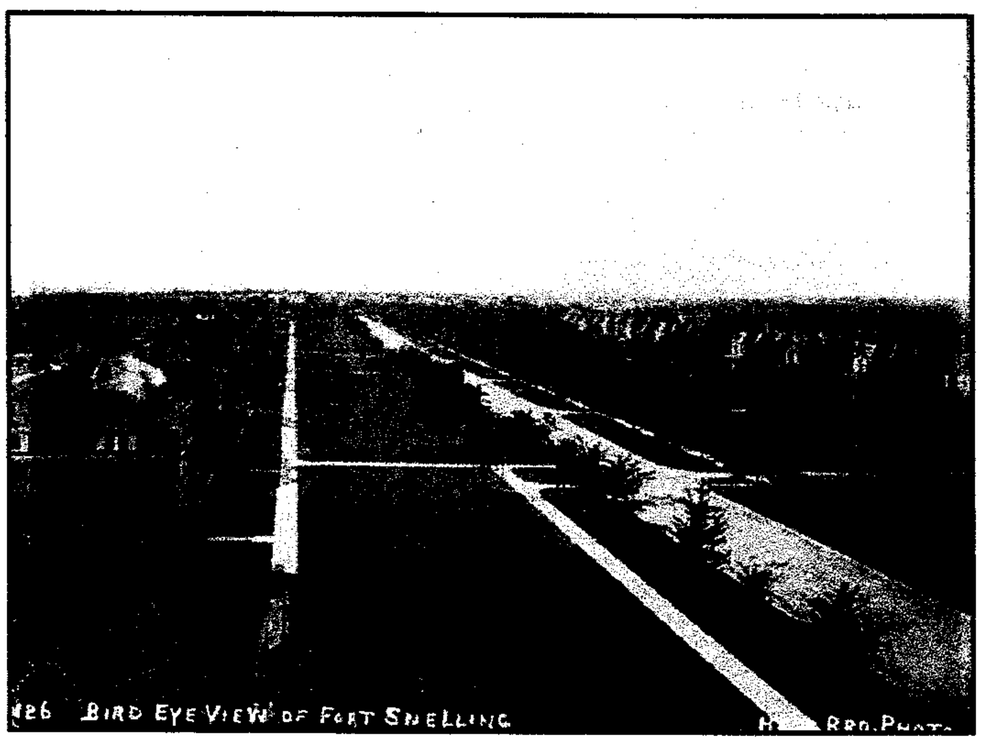
---

[42] "University of Fort Snelling Transforms Army of Past"; "Book of Champions: Summer Sports—Forty-Ninth Infantry," Fort Snelling, 1921.
[43] "Play is Both Duty, Fun at Ft. Snelling," May 27, 1937; *The Barracks Bag*, Citizens Military Training Camp, Fort Snelling, 1922, 29.
[44] "University of Fort Snelling Transforms Army of Past"; "Post Plays Host to Athletes from Fort Lincoln and Fort Sheridan Over Weekend," Fort Snelling Press Release, March 22, 1939.

its "country club" image. Polo was introduced to Fort Snelling in 1921 by Colonel A. W. Bjornstad, the post commander. A popular army sport, a local newspaper proclaimed that "there is no sport that is of more value . . . . it is a game that involves bodily contact, quick thinking, prompt division, team work and a considerable element of danger, all of which are characteristics of essential success on the battlefield." The Fort Snelling Officers' Club brought foxhunting to the fort in 1928. The fort introduced the sport with thirty-eight hounds, housed in cantonment buildings. For the drag hunts, a trail was laid for the foxhounds to follow using raw meat and anise. The trails were around five miles in length across the varied terrain of the fort's reservation. Hunting was a sport in which both sexes could participate; many of the women involved in hunting were officers' wives, but there were also women from the community. The fort also had a golf course, located near the officers club.[45]

CONSTRUCTING FORT SNELLING

The original Fort Snelling, constructed between 1820 and 1825, was a key link in a chain of forts established north to south from Minnesota to Texas to defend U.S. interests on the frontier. The design of the fort reflected the need for security as the soldiers stationed there carried out their role of protecting and controlling the new territory. In placing a frontier fort, transportation and defensibility were essential considerations. Fort Snelling was located above a river on a bluff. The quarters of the fort were surrounded by towers linked by fortified stone walls.[46]



Looking down Taylor Avenue; barracks on the left and officers quarters on the right, 1895.

In 1858, the government sold the fort to Franklin Steele, who planned to develop a town on the land. An economic slump prevented the new development and Fort Snelling became a sheep pasture. When the Civil War started, the military reoccupied the fort as a place to gather and train Minnesota forces. Temporary wood structures were erected beyond the walls of the original fort to house the men and their horses. Fort Snelling was reestablished as a permanent military post after the Civil War. However, there was little activity at the fort until the headquarters for the Department of Dakota

---

[45] "University of Fort Snelling Transforms Army of Past"; "Fort Snelling Opens Hound Chase Sport," October 8, 1928; Ben S. Woodworth, "Gone Away!" *The Amateur Golfer*, November 1928, 18-19,40.
[46] Willard B. Robinson, *American Forts: Architectural Form and Function* (Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1977), 133-147.

was moved from Saint Paul to Fort Snelling in 1878. With this new administrative function, the fort became more active and more space was needed. At this time construction of the "new" fort began to the south and west of the original fort. Located in a settled urban area, the new fort buildings did not need to be able withstand an attack or siege and thus moved away from the frontier plan of closely grouped buildings encircled by a strong wall. In 1879 construction of a headquarters building for the department began. By 1885, a row of officers' housing, enlisted barracks, quartermaster shops, and an ordnance depot had been added, and the new fort was the focus of activity. In 1886, the headquarters of the Department of Dakota returned to Saint Paul, but the new fort continued to grow with a new row of enlisted barracks constructed in 1888. The old post was abandoned.[47]

At the end of the nineteenth century, the military began to introduce reforms designed to improve the condition of enlisted men (and reduce the high rates of desertion). These efforts could be seen in the construction of more permanent and spacious barracks, replacing the shoddy quarters of the frontier posts. New buildings were built by construction professionals rather than the soldiers. More attention was also given to fort sanitation. These improvement efforts were evident in the more than thirty buildings constructed at the new Fort Snelling from the late 1870s to the early 1890s. New barracks were commonly two- or three-storied brick structures with steam heat and plumbing, each barrack holding two to six companies.[48]

After the Spanish-American War, the army grew to meet America's new imperial role. With increased Congressional funding, the army began a major construction campaign across the United States. In 1898, Congress funded the construction of new hospitals at several posts, including Fort Snelling. In 1903 Congress allocated $5.5 million for new housing and expansion of posts. For the first time, funds were also designated for post exchanges and gymnasiums. In 1904, funding increased to over $10 million, followed by more than $11 million the following year. Fort Snelling received a good share of these funds, bringing dramatic changes to the post. As part of its continuing effort to consolidate small, scattered posts into larger, central posts, the army decided to make Fort Snelling a brigade-level post, holding infantry, cavalry, and artillery units. In 1903, the cost of improvements underway at the fort was estimated at $1,500,000, and the officer in charge of construction proudly stated that "the government had never erected better buildings." With the new buildings, Fort Snelling would be a premier post, comparable only to Fort Leavenworth, Kansas and Fort Riley, Kansas, in garrison strength and the "fineness and completeness of its buildings and equipment."[49]

The enlarged post could hold a full regiment of infantry, four cavalry troops, and two artillery batteries, a total of 1,300 men. New buildings were grouped by function and distinguished by

---

[47] Robert Alan Clouse and Elizabeth Knudson Steiner, "All that Remains: A Study of Historic Structures at Fort Snelling, Minnesota" (Draft prepared for the Minnesota Department of Natural Resources, 1998), 21, 25, 75; "Story of the Origin and the Growth of Fort Snelling," *Saint Paul Globe*, October 4, 1903.
[48] Clouse and Steiner, 23, 31-32.
[49] Clouse and Steiner, 32, 70; "Work Progress at Fort Snelling," *Saint Paul Pioneer Press*, October 25, 1903; "Story of the Origin and the Growth of Fort Snelling."

color, with separate areas of the fort designated for the artillery, cavalry and infantry units. Two barracks were constructed for the artillery, each holding one battery. The red-brick barracks were two-storied with wood porches running along the facade. The interior was "fitted up with modern improvements" and the barracks had electricity and their own heating plants. New artillery gun sheds, stables, and workshops for blacksmithing and horseshoeing were constructed near the artillery barracks. The infantry also received new barracks, which were similar in design to those built for the artillery though they were visually distinguished by the use of white brick. A kitchen, dining hall, and offices were located on the first floor with a dormitory on the second floor. The new troops of cavalry were located near the old fort, with new cavalry barracks and stables constructed and the old fort's officers quarters remodeled to hold six lieutenants.[50]

New officers' housing was also constructed. The layout of housing at the fort reflected the divisions between officers and enlisted men. This was not just a distinction in military status but also a social division. Officers' housing was physically separate from that of the enlisted men. Officers' Row was distinguished by sidewalks, landscaping, and deeper setbacks from the road. Officers lived in low-density, single-family housing while enlisted men lived in higher density housing. While an enlisted man might have his own bunk in a large barracks, an officer would, at minimum, have his own room and possibly his own house, depending on his rank and martial status. During the post expansion, several duplexes were constructed for married officers. In 1903, the *Saint Paul Pioneer Press* described the new quarters for artillery officers as "modern and cozy," with porches and shutters providing "a pleasing contrast" against the red-brick exteriors; the quarters "are built well back from the street, and the ground which intervenes is being graded level with it, so that a continuous plot of grass will run the length of the main street." A large building to house bachelor officers was also constructed, with spacious parlors, an assembly room, and private bedrooms. Separate housing was also constructed for non-commissioned officers.[51]

There were other improvements as well. A new barracks was constructed for the post band. The three-story building was constructed of white brick and included a tailor shop, dining room, offices for the band's non-commissioned officers, rehearsal space, and a dormitory. A post gymnasium, open to all, was also part of the construction effort. Included in the building were a kitchen and restaurant, bowling alley, a forty-five- by sixty-five-foot gym floor with gymnastic apparatus and a running track, a library, reading rooms, a post exchange, billiard room, and post telephone office. The landscaping at the post received attention as well. The ground along the main street was graded, 500 trees were planted, a new parade ground was prepared for the use of the artillery and cavalry, sidewalks were laid, all roads were macadamized, and the post was illuminated by arc lights. Between 1909 and 1910, frame houses for civilians employed at the fort were added on the northwest edge of the post.[52]

---

[50] "Story of the Origin and the Growth of Fort Snelling"; "Work Progress at Fort Snelling"; Clouse and Steiner, 25, 58, 61.
[51] Clouse and Steiner, 25, 124-126; "Work Progress at Fort Snelling."
[52] "Story of the Origin and the Growth of Fort Snelling"; "Work Progress at Fort Snelling"; Clouse and Steiner, 130-138.

A soldier's description of the post in the 1920s, make the summers sound much more idyllic than the winters: "The many trees, smooth parades, even, long white drives, make it a place of supreme beauty in summer, much like the campus of a college. The buildings of white brick stand out like large, old southern dwellings against their background of blue and far distant hills, and above it all floats 'OLD GLORY' seeming to look down with pride on the fort below. And then the winter, when the deep snows transform the parades and roads into sheets of white, and the sharp northern winds whistle and howl thru the bare trees and around the corners of desolate barracks; it seems a fitting place for the hardening of Uncle Sam's fighting machines." The country club image was enhanced by a new officers club, with lush landscaping and an adjacent golf course. Built in 1934, the club was designed by the post commander Brig. Gen. David L. Stone. The club was constructed of native rough-cut sandstone and funded by the officers. A sunken garden "interwoven with sandstone walks leading past artificial waterfalls and the garden pool," surrounded the club. This building became the center of much of the social activity at the fort.[53]

WPA at Fort Snelling, 1937.

No major improvements were made at the fort from the first years of the century until the 1930s. During the 1930s, federal relief programs provided workers and funds for much needed maintenance. The Works Progress Administration (WPA) funded a "general reconditioning" or "rejuvenation" of Fort Snelling, with 200 to 300 men usually active at the fort. Building projects included the construction of 200 garage spaces, a two-story addition to the quartermaster's building, and a new bakery. WPA landscape improvements included grading the parade ground, removing old trees, clearing out brush, and draining swamps. Existing roads were graded and resurfaced and new roads, curbs, and sidewalks were constructed. Infrastructure improvements included laying new sewer and water mains. The WPA repaired many buildings at the fort including the barns. Old porches were removed from several buildings. The target range was also repaired. At the officers' club, an addition was constructed and the landscaping and swimming pool improved. The WPA also improved athletic facilities at Fort Snelling, including constructing a running track and baseball diamonds. As part of a $48,000,000 grant from the

---

[53] *The Barracks Bag*, 58; "Fort Snelling Has Newest of Twin City Country Clubs," August 12, 1934.

Public Works Administration (PWA) to improve army facilities across the nation, Fort Snelling received $100,000 for the construction of a new barracks and telephone exchange in 1938.[54]

TEMPORARY BUILDINGS

Temporary buildings have been an important feature at the fort, meeting the needs for quick enlargement often associated with war. During the Civil War, temporary buildings were constructed for the gathering troops. When the U.S. entered World War I, a cantonment of over 150 buildings was constructed at the south end of Taylor Avenue. The cantonment included barracks, mess halls, and training facilities including trenches.[55]

Between the wars, the cantonment area was used by the National Guard, Civilian Military Training Camps, Reserve Officer Training Corps, and Organized Reserve Corps for summer training. During these years the ranks of roughly 2,000 army officers and enlisted men stationed at Fort Snelling swelled during the summer to as many as 7,000. In 1933, the cantonment buildings were used again as Minnesota inductees to the newly established Civilian Conservation Corps gathered at Fort Snelling before being sent to camps, mostly in Northern Minnesota. In the late 1930s, the WPA removed the frame buildings of the cantonment, which were in poor condition since they were not intended to last more than a few years. They were replaced with new facilities for civilian training groups including showers, kitchens, and mess halls, and concrete bases for tents to be pitched on.[56]

In response to the war in Europe, the army increased its recruitment and a conscription bill was passed in September 1940. The army began quickly erecting cantonments across the United States to house the new soldiers, with tent camps in the south and frame buildings in colder climates. Fort Snelling was designated as a receiving point for new recruits and draftees into the expanding army, and a reception center was constructed in the cantonment area of the fort. Construction of the center began with seventeen buildings in September, including ten two-storied barracks to house 500 men, mess halls, a recreation building, a post exchange, and a headquarters building. These frame buildings were completed by the end of November. The buildings were occupied as soon as they were finished. It quickly became clear that these buildings would not meet the demands on the center and fifteen additional buildings were soon underway including ten barracks, three mess halls, a storehouse, and an infirmary completed by January 1941. After the U.S. entered the war in December 1941, the reception center became even busier. Temporary structures used by the summer camp were winterized to provide additional housing. By the fall of 1942 thirty-one larger buildings and 200, sixteen- by sixteen-

---

[54] "Projects Keep 250 Men Busy," n.d.; "$1,210,297 WPA Grant Given to Fort Snelling," n.d.; "Snelling Becomes Spick and Span Under General Reconditioning," n.d.; "Snelling WPA Work Starts," n.d.; "$100,000 Allotted for Snelling Improvements," June 23, 1938.
[55] Clouse and Steiner, 34.
[56] Ibid., 36, 40; Kunz, 167; "$1,210,297 WPA Grant Given to Fort Snelling"; Becker, 7.

foot hutments housing five to eight men had been added. As 1943 began, the reception center occupied more than three hundred buildings with beds for about 4,500 men.[57]

TIES WITH THE TWIN CITIES

MINNESOTANS IN UNIFORM

A large number of the men stationed at Fort Snelling were often from Minnesota. When the Third Regiment left Fort Snelling, heading to war in 1898, "elaborate preparations were made to give a rousing farewell" to a regiment that many Minnesotans had joined during its ten years at Fort Snelling. The Third Infantry Regiment returned to Fort Snelling in 1921 and once again recruited many Minnesotans to its ranks, becoming known as "Minnesota's Own." When 1,000 men were needed to enlarge the unit in 1922, the men were recruited largely from the state, and a local paper "hoped the organization will absorb and reflect the tradition and spirit of the Northwest." The history of service of the Third Infantry Regiment stationed at Fort Snelling served as inspiration to local youth "in preparing themselves to uphold the nation's honor whether in peace or in war."[58]

As civic duty and the importance of civilian preparedness were on the minds of Twin Cities' residents in the 1920s and 1930s, Fort Snelling played an increasingly influential role in the community: "The fort and its garrison are today aiding to carry out the parting injunction of Washington to the nation to maintain a respectable state of national preparedness while avoiding the overgrown military establishments which the world had found inauspicious to liberty. Today the role of Fort Snelling and its small garrison is that of a training center for the youth of the Northwest, not only in that which is primarily military but a center of civic, moral and physical training as well." During the summer, many Twin Cities' residents received military training at the fort as part of the National Guard, Civilian Military Training Camps, or Reserve Officer Training Corps.[59]

Soldiers were no longer misfits, but good citizens serving their community. A 1926 newspaper article lauded the men of Minnesota, Wisconsin, and the Dakotas who were serving at the fort, "being prepared for increased responsibilities in the event of a national emergency and at the same time . . . offered the opportunity to improve their standing as citizens in their various communities when their enlistment has expired. . . today Fort Snelling is not only a center of military training, but it is striving to do its full share in the development, morally and physically,

---

[57] "Fort Snelling to Get Recruit Cantonment," *Pioneer Press*, August 24, 1940; "Fort Snelling Will Get 17 New Buildings," August 12, 1940; "Northwest Conscripts May Be Housed in Quarters," August 24, 1940; "Barracks to House State Draft Units," n.d.; Eller, 6-8.

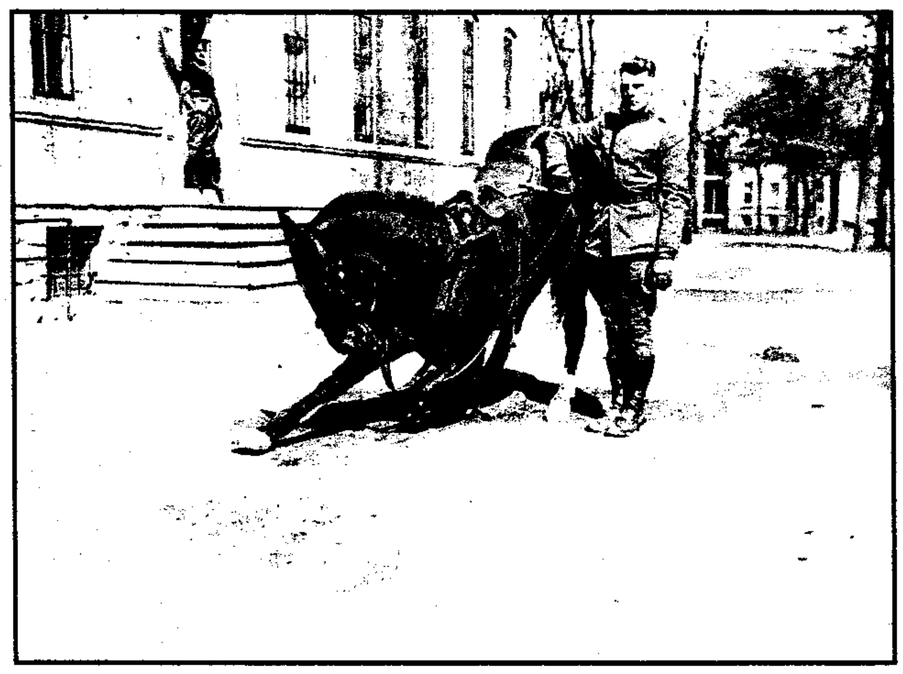
[58] Franklin F. Holbrook, *Minnesota in the Spanish-American War and the Philippine Insurrection* (Saint Paul: Minnesota War Records Commission, 1923), 10-11; Holt, 30; "1,000 Men to Be Added Third Infantry," January 8, 1922; "Eighth Fort Snelling Polo Season," Official Program, 1928, 27.

[59] "Eighth Fort Snelling Polo Season," 27.

of the youth who are to be tomorrow's leaders in this community." The army offered new opportunities through classroom instruction and practical training with local youths able "to learn a trade or achieve the fundamentals of an occupation which would have been closed to them except for the Army."[60]

During the Great Depression, men from the Twin Cities. In 1934, a headquarters company of the Civilian Conservation Corps was assigned to Fort Snelling, with 200 to 300 men stationed at the fort. Fort Snelling also received funding from the Works Project Administration for improvements, providing work for many unemployed men.[61]

During the 1920s and 1930s, Twin Cities' residents were frequent spectator at fort military displays and athletic contests. The army put on drills and parades for the public as well as staging sham battles. The displays allowed the soldiers to show off their military prowess and entertained the public as well as exposing them to modern military practice and encouraging community pride in soldiers at Fort Snelling. Military displays might also be combined with sporting events, often providing an opportunity for the men at the fort to raise funds, such as a battle and street dance held to benefit the construction of the new chapel in 1923. Activities included a mock battle with trench mortars, howitzers, and tanks in use, as well as the talents of Whiskey the horse, and a boxing exhibition. Whiskey was the most popular attraction for those visiting Fort Snelling. A horse from Montana who arrived at Fort Snelling in 1921, he became a celebrity under the training of Lieutenant William Hazelrigg. Whiskey impressed crowds with tricks such as leaping through a hoop of fire, playing dead, and jumping over a dining table set with china and crystal and surrounded by eight guests. Whiskey could also be seen on the polo field or following the hounds.[62]



Whiskey at Fort Snelling, 1922.

In 1938, Fort Snelling authorities estimated that more than 25,000 people attended a military exhibition at the fort. The evening began with drills by the mounted field artillery, including lancers in historic uniforms and a firing battery. The main event was a mock battle, designed to "follow as closely as possible actions in a real war." Men were trucked to the battlefield, where riflemen and machine gunners established a firing line. Planes from the Marine Corps' Reserve

---

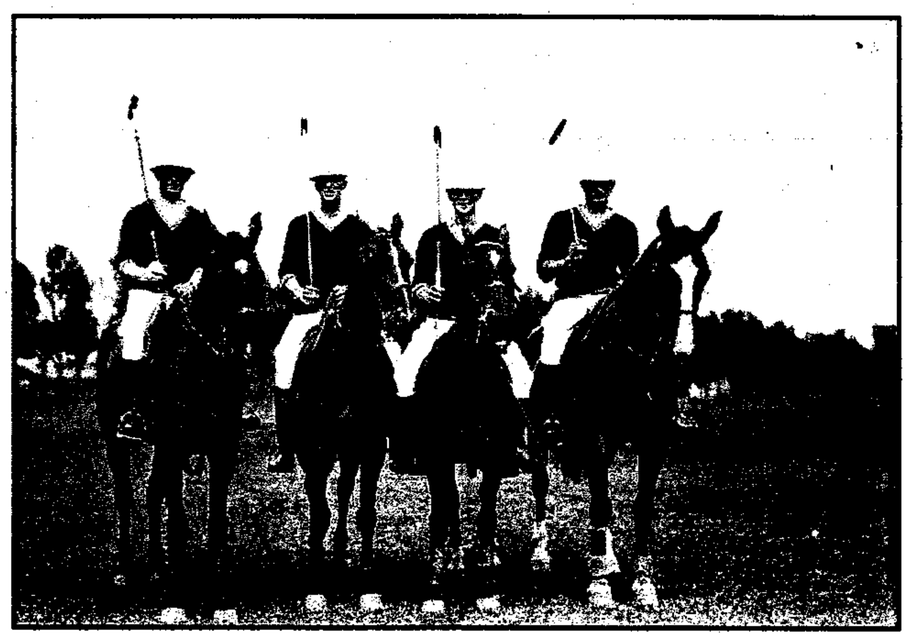
[60] "Citizens Military Training Camp Surpassed All Other in U.S.," January 2, 1926.
[61] Clouse and Steiner, 37; "Snelling Becomes Spick and Span Under General Reconditioning."
[62] "Guns to Roar in Sham Battle at Snelling Today," June 2, 1923; Aileen Kilgore Henderson, "A Stout Heart: How a hopeless rogue from the Montana range became the pride of the U.S. Army," *Equus*, volume 203, 1994, 49-53.

flew over the field as the large artillery offered support to the men in the front line, making a racket that could be heard for miles.[63]

EQUESTRIAN SPORTS

Fort Snelling played an important role in the sporting life of the Twin Cities during the 1920s and 1930s, especially the equestrian community. The military realized that by inviting the general public to attend military sporting events, athletics could enhance military-civilian relationships. General James H. Polk, serving in the Southwest during the 1930s, reported that his "personal interest in horses and horsemanship helped him and his fellow officers maintain good relations with the civilian community as they invited the townspeople of El Paso, Texas, to post horse shows and polo tournaments." This was certainly true in the Twin Cities, where a common interest in equestrian sports brought Fort Snelling officers and Twin Cities' residents together. One resident praised fort polo for enabling "us to meet and to form bonds of friendship with the splendid group of Officers—as well as their wives and families—stationed with the Third United States Infantry at Fort Snelling."[64]

Fort polo was a major sporting and social event for the Twin Cities. Major tournaments would draw crowds of thousands from the Twin Cities to the fort, while hundreds gathered for the regular matches held at the fort on Sunday afternoons. Polo clubs from Minneapolis and Saint Paul played against those at the fort, and members of the Twin City Polo Club had free access to stabling and practice fields at Fort Snelling. Fort Snelling was the place to be during the summer polo season: "Socialites motored in from their 'cottages' by the lakes, the women wearing their sport frocks, their large, beautiful hats and their furs—even in June. They mingled with governors, mayors, U.S. cabinet members, fleet commanders and movie stars. Whatever the day's event, the elite gathered afterward for tea on the lawn of the officers' club under the historic elms. Lavish summer blossoms decorated the long tables. Bunting, flags and rosettes fluttered in the soft breezes. Following tea, the Third Infantry Band presented a concert, then came an evening of dancing in the mellow glow of colored lanterns strung among the trees."[65]



Fort Snelling Polo Team, 1926.

---

[63] "25,000 View Ft. Snelling Sham Battle," May 3, 1938.
[64] Wakefield, 62; "Eighth Fort Snelling Polo Season," 33.
[65] "University of Fort Snelling Transforms Army of Past"; "Eighth Fort Snelling Polo Season," 17; Henderson, 49-53.

Women riders at horse show,
Fort Snelling, 1940.

In 1928, hunting, the sport "of the English gentry descended from feudal days" was taken up by the Army "to promote the interests of equestrianship" at Fort Snelling. Riders from the Twin Cities were invited to participate in hunts to popularize the sport. Enthusiastic local sportsmen reported that the hunt would be "received with great interest in Twin Cities society circles because of the vogue of fox hunting in the East and the close linking of Fort Snelling activities with those of the social world of Saint Paul and Minneapolis." Hunts were followed by breakfast at the officers' club. The hunt season lasted from September from December, with as many as seventy scarlet-coated riders gathering on Sunday mornings to follow the hounds.[66]

The fort also held equestrian competitions at the fort's show ring. Entrants included soldiers and civilians. Civilian classes included saddle, harness, hunters, and jumpers while there were military classes for machine guns going into action (with mule-drawn gun carts), officers' chargers, escort wagons (with four-line mule teams pulling regulation equipment), and three-gaited saddle mules. At an event in 1939, a ladies' drill team trained by Captain E. N. Frakes opened the competition. Women competed against the men in many of the classes as well as in separate ladies' divisions. The popularity of equestrian sports among the officers' wives is indicated by a class just for the wives and daughters of army officers, though these women competed in many of the other events as well. Captain Frakes' wife competed in five events and was a member of the ladies' drill team.[67]

MODERNIZING THE MILITARY

FIGHTING ON THE FRONTIER

In the decades after the Civil War, the primary role of the army was guarding the frontier. The army in this period numbered around 25,000, scattered across the United States. America traditionally kept a small standing army, because large armies were considered a threat to democracy and freedom. The United States relied on physical distance and oceans rather than a large military force for security. Service on the frontier isolated the army from the majority of the American population. Only when a major conflict made it into the newspapers, did the Army generate public interest. Congress was hostile to the army, providing little funding, and leading businessmen argued that the army was an anachronism in the new industrial age. Civilians had

---

[66] Frank Murray, unidentified newspaper clipping, September 13, 1928; "Riding to Hounds Will Be Feature of Fall Season at Fort Snelling," September 13, 1928; Henderson, 49-53.
[67] "First Annual Military and Civilian Horse Show," Souvenir Program, June 7-9, 1929.

little respect for the military and often treated soldiers with contempt. The army was torn between settlers who wanted the soldiers to be harsher and humanitarians who portrayed them as monsters.[68]

On the frontier the army faced an unconventional opponent that was skilled but would avoid conflict unless the odds were in its favor. The army's task of trying to protect settlers and confine Native Americans to reservations made the conflict more of a police action than a military campaign. Tactics based on European-style manuals did little to prepare the army for the foe they were facing, but the army continued to use conventional military methods against an opponent using guerilla tactics.[69]

Due to rapid turnover, most units of the frontier army had men with little or no military training. With too few men and too many duties there was often little time for training. Much of a soldiers' day was filled with manual labor. In addition to guard duty, soldiers were expected to construct and maintain their posts, care for horses, repair equipment, and cook meals. The lack of proper training was most evident in the horsemanship and marksmanship of the soldiers, with strict economy contributing to the latter since men were only allotted a handful of cartridges a year for target practice. [70]

The frontier army was also poorly supplied due to Congressional disinterest in the military. Minimal funding was provided for weapons, uniforms, and other equipment. In 1876, Congress actually failed to provide any funding for the Army, leaving the men without pay until the next year. The second half of the nineteenth century brought rapid advancements in small arms, and repeating rifles were put into mass production. Other significant achievements included improved breech-loading artillery and the introduction of smokeless powder, allowing concealment of gun positions as well as providing superior range and precision. Though America had scientific and industrial talent equal to Europe, there was little interest in applying it to warfare. Congressional economy kept the U.S. technologically behind Europe as the army was forced to use surplus stock from the Civil War until it wore out instead of developing improved arms. Even the Native Americans had superior weapons. The army continued to issue Springfield single-shot breech loaders, while Native Americans obtained repeating rifles from traders or stole them from settlers. Officers were driven to purchase their own arms, but enlisted men could rarely afford such a purchase. The Gatling gun, with barrels turned by a hand-crank, was the only machine gun used by the army from the Civil War until 1898. In 1892, soldiers were finally issued new rifles, Krag-Jorgensens, the army's first high velocity, smokeless-powder shoulder arm.[71]

---

[68] Utley, 65.
[69] Ibid., 45-46; Millett and Maslowski, 238.
[70] Utley, 24, 83-84.
[71] Elting, 156; Weigley, 291; Dupuy, *The Compact History of the Army* (New York: Hawthorn Books, Inc., 1973), 151-160.

The eventual conquest of the Native Americans was aided by railroads, the disappearance of the buffalo, and unstoppable waves of settlers. This was the end of an era for the army. Subduing Native Americans had been its chief duty since the founding of the first American regiment. In 1883, the Northern Pacific became the fourth transcontinental railroad and opened the West to increased settlement and trade. With new railroads stretching across the United States, soldiers could be quickly transported anywhere in the country in time of need. This made the network of small frontier posts obsolete, and the army began to consolidate its forces into larger posts. From 1880 to 1889 forts were consolidated from 111 to eighty-two and further reduced to sixty-two by 1891. But as "the troops settled into their fewer, more permanent installations, officers began debating a disturbing question. What was the Army's purpose now that its foremost traditional mission was gone?"[72]

INTO THE TWENTIETH CENTURY

While European armies expanded, developed new weapons, and introduced new command structures in the second half of the nineteenth century, American forces had been stagnant. Through the 1880s, America had very limited foreign policy goals and felt secure in the protection provided by its oceans. At the end of the nineteenth century, American foreign policy switched from isolation to imperialism, inspired by "idealism, cultural arrogance, and economic expediency." America's growing wealth and power inevitably led to increased foreign involvement: "having become the leading industrial power during the 1890s, having completed the task of settling the North American continent, placed upon a globe shrunken by improving communications, the United States now possessed a wealth and military potential that drew her into international political activity whether she willed it or not."[73]

The U.S. Army at the turn of the century had no experience with large troop maneuvers, though the army was working to further consolidate bases in order to create larger troop concentrations. The army sought to concentrate them into forts that could accommodate an entire regiment, enhancing training and organization. Collection in larger formations (brigades of two or more regiments and divisions of two or more brigades) was rare except on paper, though fighting in Cuba and along the Mexican border would provide some experience with large maneuvers.[74]

The U.S. entry into war with Spain marked the beginning of the growth of the military, with its size never failing below pre-1898 levels again. Following the explosion of the *Maine* in Havana harbor, Congress added two regiments of artillery to the army, bringing its authorized strength to 28,747. Spain had about 80,000 soldiers stationed in Cuba. Once again, America relied largely on civilian recruits and volunteer militia units, which filled out the army to roughly 275,000 by the end of the war. In 1898, these civilian soldiers had little training, equipment, or discipline and their lack of knowledge of camp sanitation led to serious outbreaks of dysentery and typhoid.

---

[72] Utley, 47; Millett and Maslowski, 241.
[73] Peter Karsten, *The Military in America: From the Colonial Era to the Present* (New York: The Free Press, 1980), 247; Millett and Maslowski, 223, 249; Weigley, 313.
[74] Millett and Maslowski, 314.

Many still carried black powder rifles while the Spanish troops were equipped with modern smokeless-powder rifles.[75]

The difficulties in organizing, transporting, and supplying the troops involved in the war, required the military to face the challenge of keeping a modern army fed, clothed, armed, and ready for action. Troops in camp suffered from illness and low morale, and the military was harshly criticized in the press. The Spanish-American War was followed by fighting in the Philippines and participation in the international force sent to deal with the Boxer Rebellion in China. These campaigns emphasized the U.S. role as a world power but also exposed its military weaknesses and primitive organization.[76]

In the last decades of the nineteenth century, military professionalism grew among Army officers. New opportunities for advanced military training were introduced. A major influence was the example of the Prussian military in the Franco-Prussian War of 1870-1871. Army professionals admired Prussia's large, well-trained, well-equipped force and lobbied for a larger and better-equipped U.S. military. Traditionally, the U.S. had kept a small peacetime army and extemporized a larger force in times of conflict. But military professionals argued that the increasingly complexities and rapid technological innovations of modern warfare demanded advance preparation. Influenced by the Progressive Movement, military professionals also sought ways to make soldiers more efficient, adapting scientific management techniques to military needs.[77]

After the Spanish-American War exposed problems with the military's ability to mobilize and supply troops, President William McKinley reorganized the War Department. He appointed Elihu Root, a lawyer, as the new Secretary of War. Root led a reform movement based on the concept that "the real object of having an army is to provide for war." Root introduced many reforms including a General Staff and an enhanced army education system. The General Staff was modeled after European military organizations and was designed to plan for the future, studying military planning and theory and collecting intelligence. Each post was to provide instruction in military theory and practice for its officers, with advanced schools available to those showing particular promise.[78]

Army progressives got to judge the effectiveness of reform when troops were sent to guard the border with Mexico in 1912. General John J. Pershing's force was supplied by motor truck and mule wagon, proving the superiority of motorized transports but also emphasizing the need for good mechanics. Aircraft did not have a chance to prove their value in the search for Pancho Villa since the Army's six planes all crashed within a month.[79]

---

[75] Weigley, 296-298; Elting, 187-188.
[76] Elting, 182.
[77] Utley, 44; Millett and Maslowski, 255.
[78] Millett and Maslowski, 310; Jerry Cooper, *The Rise of the National Guard: The Evolution of the American Militia, 1865-1920* (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1997), 108; Weigley, 325.
[79] Weigley, 351.

A RELUCTANT WORLD POWER

Though America had become more involved with international politics in the early twentieth century, the Regular Army was still puny compared to European forces. The German Army numbered around 800,000, with its citizens required to serve two years, followed by service in a reserve force. France had an army of similar size, and required three years of service, followed by enlistment in the reserves.[80]

When the U.S. entered World War I in April 1917, the Regular Army numbered 133,111 with an additional 185,000 men in the National Guard. According to military historian Russell Weigley, "the United States Army was less ready for the task ahead of it than at the opening of any previous conflict, not excepting the War of the Revolution or the War of 1812. Never before had the foe been so formidable in numbers and military skill; never before had conflict demanded so complete a mobilization of the whole nation; never before had the government faced problems of the magnitude of those posed by the decision to carry the Army to the battlefields of Europe itself." Despite a Preparedness Movement, little preparation had actually been made.[81]

The U.S. military would grow to 3,685,458 by the end of the war. The training these recruits received was far beyond the basic instruction in discipline and weaponry given to the mass armies of the Civil War or Spanish-American War. Pershing insisted that his men be adequately prepared, which meant a long delay between America's declaration of war and the arrival of troops at the front. Men could not just be issued weapons and sent to fight. Pershing insisted that even the general infantry troops receive thorough training in trench warfare including instruction in the mechanics and operation of the machine gun, the hand grenade, and the mortar, as well as shovels and barbed wire.[82]

The disappointments of peacemaking after World War I turned the United States inward. Public feeling was against further involvement in foreign conflict. Once again the United States would rely "on its military potential rather than standing forces." This was a difficult environment for military planning. President Woodrow Wilson was uninterested in the military and focused on achieved future peace through the formation of a League of Nations. Some Americans shared Wilson's vision while others were isolationist, wishing to reject U.S. entanglements in any foreign disputes. The United States demobilized quickly with the army reduced to 130,000, mainly Regulars, by 1920, serving occupation duty in Germany and normal peacetime duties. The cornerstone of American defense policy remained the navy.[83]

The U.S. Army stayed far behind Europe in modernizing its forces. Weapons development was slow, "Congress apparently thought World War I weapons should be used until they wore out, so the Army limped along with them into the early 30s, when they were literally wearing out as well

---

[80] Ibid., 336.
[81] Millett and Maslowski, 331; Weigley, 352.
[82] Weigley, 358, 374-375.
[83] Ibid., 395-396; Millett and Maslowski, 363.

as obsolescent." In the 1930s, the Regular Army was approximately seventeenth in size among the armies of the world. The General Staff sought "tank and artillery mechanization, field force motorization, aircraft, communications equipment, and a new semiautomatic rifle," to help the army keep pace with European forces, but there was little funding or public support for the development and introduction of new weapons. In 1939, only 1.2 percent of the army budget was dedicated to research and development.[84]

An example of the conservative nature of the U.S. military during this period is its Tank Corps. During World War I, the Tank Corps had 5,000 vehicles and nearly 20,000 men, but by 1920, this had been reduced to 700 French and British model tanks and 2,600 men. The U.S. military saw tanks as infantry support, and tank units trained with the regular infantry. The United States maintained the status quo while Europe and Russia looked for innovative ways to use the tank, combining firepower, mobility, and armor to find a way to end the stalemates of World War I. The tank unit at Fort Snelling trained with World War I-era tanks until 1937, when five new tanks were delivered to the fort.[85]

In 1939, on the eve of a new world war, the United States had a small army accustomed to the combat style of World War I, very far from the German tanks and aircraft set to overtake Europe. At Fort Snelling the army reenacted World War I for the public with mock trench battles fought with vintage tanks and horse-drawn artillery. Fort Snelling did not receive a mechanized artillery unit until 1939 when a stable fire killed 129 of 131 horses of Battery F of the Fourteenth Field Artillery based at the fort.[86]

As the German army spread across Europe, many in the United States were afraid. Memories of World War I inspired a movement towards preparedness, but disillusion over the failure to achieve a lasting peace and misgivings about foreign entanglements created a reluctance to become involved.[87]

CAMP SNELLING

The National Guard began as volunteer militia units, an institution brought to the U.S. from Great Britain. These militia units were the traditional reserve army of America, which distrusted large standing armies. Militia units also functioned as social and fraternal organizations. In the years between the Civil War and World War I, the militia underwent a dramatic transition from a loose collection of independent, self-supporting units to a centralized force receiving federal funds and following federal regulations. State militias after the Civil War were

---

[84] Elting, 226; Millett and Maslowski, 380; Weigley, 414.
[85] Millett and Maslowski, 381; "Snelling Gets New Tanks," June 26, 1937.
[86] "Horse-Artillery at Fort Is Ready for Last Ride," June, 30, 1939.
[87] Weigley, 423.

First Minnesota National Guard at Fort Snelling, 1886.

controlled locally, elected their own officers, and varied a great deal in quality and training. During the 1870s and 1880s, militias began to receive more state support as states came to rely on their militias to deal with civil disorders, especially labor demonstrations. In 1883, the Minnesota legislature passed a military code, establishing a Minnesota National Guard of two infantry regiments and an artillery battery. Enlistments were to be for five years. The state would inspect the units annually and provide $7 for each officer and enlisted man properly uniformed and equipped. A seven-day encampment would be held each year, for which the state would pay attendees $1.50 a day. From 1884 to 1890, the National Guard held encampments at White Bear Lake, Lake Calhoun, New Ulm, Fort Snelling, Lake City, and Mankato.[88]

The National Guard Association was founded in 1879 to lobby for federal support. The Regular Army, however, wanted no money to go to a reserve force it had no control over. It sought a more reliable and uniform reserve force, controlled by the War Department. When the United States went to war with Spain in 1898, the National Guard had an opportunity to prove its significance as a national reserve force, but its troops were not adequately trained or equipped. After the Spanish-American War, the War Department, Congress, and guardsmen worked to establish a new military policy that the army and the guard could accept. The guard sought funding, but wanted to retain its independence. The War Department wanted a reliable, federally regulated, reserve force. [89]

The Militia Act of 1903 made the guard part of the military establishment. Under the act, the president could call the reserves for up to nine months of service for defense of the nation, to suppress civil unrest, or enforce federal law. The act included a $2 million grant to supply the guard with modern arms and equipment. Guard officers could attend army schools and the military provided funding for joint guard and army training. In exchange for federal funds, guard units had to meet at least twenty-four times per year for drill, hold an annual training camp at least five days in length, and undergo inspection.[90]

The struggle between the National Guard and the army continued with the guard seeking federal pay for drill, and the army seeking more control over the National Guard. The army remained very critical of the National Guard, with the chief of the Division of Militia Affairs reminding Guardsmen that federal funds were not "for the purpose of providing a summer's entertainment

[88] Kunz, 115-116.
[89] Cooper, xii-xvi.
[90] Ibid., 110-111.

for officers and men" but to provide "an opportunity for instruction in their field military duties." Military professionals wanted a federal reserve force or universal military service based on the European model.[91]

A National Defense Act was finally passed in 1916, influenced by the war in Europe, preparedness agitation, and the Mexican Revolution. The military establishment was divided into three parts: active forces (Army, Navy, and Marines), the National Guard, and a newly created Organized Reserves. The reserves would be a federal force composed largely of veterans of the regular forces. A Reserve Officers Training Corps was also created. Under the act the federal government gained greater control over the National Guard. A standard enlistment contract was established for all guardsmen, who would be required to take a federal as well as a state oath upon enlistment. National Guard officers would have to pass federal standards of "physical, moral, and professional fitness." Training requirements increased to forty-eight drill days and a fifteen-day summer training camp. The President could draft the guard into federal service. In exchange the National Guard received increased federal funding.[92]

Following the experience of World War I, Congress passed additional legislation to provide for the expansion of America's military forces in time of need, with a core of regulars supported by part-time soldiers. The National Defense Act of 1920 reorganized the military, replacing the territorial divisions of the U.S. Army with nine corps areas. Each area would have one Regular Army Division, two National Guard Divisions, and three Organized Reserve Divisions. The act also emphasized the need for civilian military training. [93]

Preparing America's citizens for war became a major function of Fort Snelling in the 1920s and 1930s. In 1920, Major General Leonard Wood, a leader of the pre-war Preparedness Movement, visited Fort Snelling and declared it "an excellent place for training militia and high school cadets." Fort Snelling became a busy place during the summer, with the post providing instruction for the National Guard, Reserve Officer Training Corps (ROTC), Citizens Military Training Camp (CMTC), and Organized Reserve Officer Corps.[94]

During the 1920s and 1930s, the cantonment area of Fort Snelling became Camp Snelling used for training by the ROTC, CMTC, National Guard and Organized Reserves. In his welcome to those attending Camp Snelling in 1927, the fort's commanding officer reminded men that: "In order to be a worthy citizen of a worthy country one must conserve his health, improve his physical development, train his mental faculties and strengthen his moral character. To become a successful citizen as well as a successful soldier, one must possess the quality of leadership, the ability to gain the cooperation of one's fellow-men and control their actions, their words and even their thoughts." A service club at Camp Snelling provided entertainment and relaxation for

---

[91] Ibid., 112-113.
[92] Michael S. Neiberg, *Making Citizen Soldiers: ROTC and the Ideology of American Military Service* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 2000), 23; Cooper, 153-154.
[93] Weigley, 400.
[94] "Fort Snelling May Be Cadet Training Camp," August 24, 1920.

all at the camp. The club was located off Taylor Avenue at the center of the cantonment area. The club included a writing room where the men wrote letters home, and a reading room with rocking chairs and magazines. The club was open until ten at night, and those at the camp were welcome any time they were off duty. A Camp Morale Officer organized movies, dances, and other social events at the club.[95]

RESERVE OFFICERS TRAINING CORPS

ROTC at Fort Snelling, 1932.

The Reserve Officers Training Corps (ROTC) reflected America's efforts to be prepared to defend the nation's economic and political interests without the expense and threats to democracy associated with a large, professional army. The ROTC would train civilian youth to serve as officers during national crisis. The first military training provided for civilian students was under the Morrill Act of 1862, which authorized the sale of public lands to fund the establishment of state universities. In return, the universities had to include "agriculture, mechanical arts, and military tactics" among their course offerings. By 1900, forty-two universities provided military training programs, but they lacked organization, standard training, and modern equipment.[96]

The National Defense Act of 1916, formalized the military training offered at universities by creating the ROTC. The War Department established standards for ROTC training and provided funding. The program would provide trained officers for the National Guard, who were pleased by ROTC's local emphasis, with most men receiving training at state universities near their homes. By 1919, ROTC programs had been established at 135 universities. Training consisted of a two-year introductory course meeting at least three hours per week, followed by a two-year advanced course, meeting at least five hours per week. The courses included instruction in "map reading, military history, military law, basic tactics, camp sanitation, drill, and marksmanship." The introductory course was a graduation requirement at many universities, including the University of Minnesota until the mid-1930s. Those completing both courses qualified for a commission in the National Guard or Organized Reserves. The

---

[95] "Handbook: Camp Snelling at Fort Snelling Minnesota," June 1st to August 31st, 1927, 3, 14, 32; *The Blue Torch*, Fort Snelling: Reserve Officers Training Camp, 1921, 39.
[96] Neiberg, 13-22.

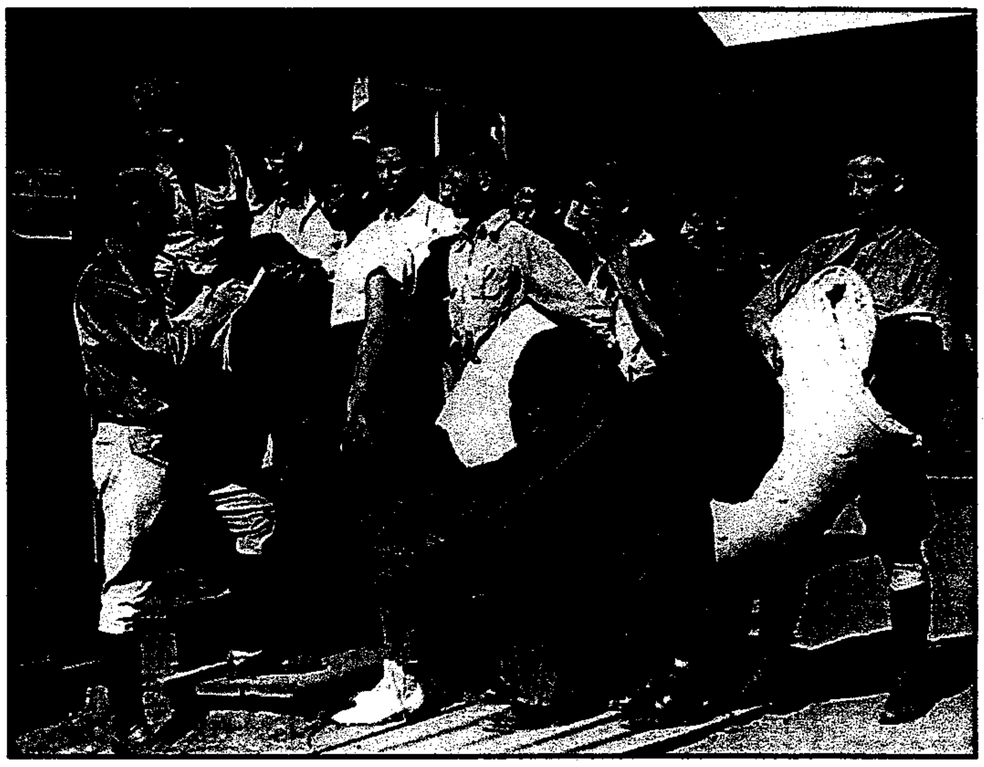
president of Rutgers University lauded the ROTC for providing "good physical and moral training for the student."[97]

ROTC summer camps were organized to provide additional training. During a five-week ROTC camp at Fort Snelling in 1921, participants receiving training in Military Courtesy, Infantry Drill, Infantry Signals and Communications, Infantry Pack and Field Equipment, Interior Guard Duty, Military Map Reading, Sketching, Bayonet Training, Musketry, Machine Guns, Automatic Rifles, Trench Mortars, Grenades, Marksmanship and Minor Tactics.[98]

The ROTC continued to expand with the program offered at 220 universities by 1940. When World War II began, the army relied heavily on the men trained through the program. More than 100,000 graduates of the ROTC served as officers during the war.[99]

CITIZENS MILITARY TRAINING CAMPS

The National Defense Act of 1920 provided for one-month training camps during which young men would receive basic military training. These camps followed the model of the Plattsburg Camps founded by General Wood before World War I. The first Citizens Military Training Camps were held in 1921, with 10,000 young men attending twelve camps. The response was very positive, and the next year the program was expanded to accommodate 27,000 men at twenty-five camps. The goal of the camps was to introduce young men to military skills while promoting citizenship, civic responsibility, and "clean, healthy, vigorous American manhood." It was hoped the experience would encourage participants to join the National Guard or the Reserves. The camps were open to men from seventeen to twenty-five of "good character, intelligence, and physical condition." The government paid all expenses relating to the camps, including food, uniforms, and transportation.[100]



CMTC participants arriving at Camp Snelling, 1930.

President Warren G. Harding urged all young men to attend a Citizens' Military Training Camp:

---

[97] Ibid., 24-30.
[98] *The Blue Torch*, 25.
[99] Neiberg,, 29-32.
[100] *The Barracks Bag*, 9, 11-19.

"In this way he will increase his worth to the nation and obtain individual benefits of priceless value to himself and to the community in which he lives." House Representative Julius Kahn was another strong supporter of the training camps: "The physical benefits derived by the participants will be invaluable. It will add materially to the virility of our young men; it will teach them self-reliance, respect for law and order, obedience to constituted authority—essentials that are absolutely necessary in a Republic like ours."[101]

Three courses were organized for the training camps, the Red, White, and Blue Courses. The Red Course was for those without military experience, with completion preparing men for enlisted status in the National Guard or the Reserves. The White Course could be taken the year following the Red Course and offered more advanced training, preparing one to be a non-commissioned officer in the Reserves. Those who did well in the White Course could take the Blue Course to qualify for a commission in the Reserves. The Red Course offered general military training while participants in the White and Blue Courses choose a specialty: Infantry, Cavalry, Artillery, Engineers, Signal Corps, or Air Service.[102]

Fort Snelling was one of the posts chosen to host a camp in 1921. During the first week of camp, the men received an introduction to the military, physical training, and camp sanitation. The focus of the next two weeks was basic use of the rifle on the range and in maneuvers. The final week provided instruction in military strategy including scouting, patrolling, terrain problems, and general field lessons as well as reviews and parades. The men left with "nerves and bodies coordinated, their minds more completely the masters of their bodies, and ready for harder, more refined, and more responsible positions among their fellow-men."[103]

Athletics, overseen by the Post Athletic Officer, were encouraged at the Camp Snelling. It was hoped that participants would continue to use athletics to maintain their physical health after leaving camp. Activities included baseball, tennis, track, boxing, and wrestling. Officers from the fort were assigned to organize and supervise competitions during camp free time. [104]

In 1926, the largest Citizens Military Training Camp in the United States was held at Fort Snelling with more than 2,000 young men attending. The men were introduced to military discipline and training, while absorbing "the basic principles of good citizenship and loyalty to the flag." The CMTC at Fort Snelling were continued until 1941, when the training camp area was taken over by the reception center.[105]

---

[101] Ibid., 7-9.
[102] Ibid., 9.
[103] Ibid., 19, 26-27.
[104] Ibid., 9, 28.
[105] "Citizens Military Training Camp Surpassed All Other in U.S."; "CMTC Camp at Snelling To Be Disbanded This Year," April 30, 1941.

MOBILIZING CITIZEN SOLDIERS

Fort Snelling has served as important role as a gathering point for troops on their way to war: "The stalwart manhood of the Northwest has poured into Fort Snelling for a period of intensive training during every national emergency and out again to every blood-stained battlefield where 'Old Glory' has been raised aloft in freedom's cause."[106]

During the Civil War, Fort Snelling was a gathering place for state regiments. Here units were collected and trained before marching off to war. In the Spanish-American War the Fifteenth Minnesota Volunteer Infantry camped at the Fort Snelling, and in 1899 the Forty-Fifth United States Volunteer Infantry was organized at the fort for service in the Philippines. During the Mexican Revolution, National Guard units gathered at Fort Snelling before being shipped to service along the Mexican border. When the U.S. entered World War I, the First Minnesota Artillery (which became the 151st Field Artillery) was mobilized at Fort Snelling.[107]

Fort Snelling survived many government economizing efforts because of its usefulness as a mobilization point: "Fort Snelling is in a strategic position in event there is need for mobilization of the regular army, or if there is a call for the concentration of the reserves or of the national guard in that section. The state troops and the reserves could be moved to Fort Snelling quickly, organized into regiments and brigades and dispatched to any point in the country because of railroad facilities available."[108]

DRAFTING AN ARMY

When the United States entered World War I, the army numbered 133,111, with 185,000 National Guardsmen in reserve. While this was large by U.S. standards, it was pitiful compared to the forces at war in Europe. The War Department decided a draft would be the most efficient way to enlarge the army, and Congress passed the Selective Service Act in May 1917. The term "selective service," was deemed more acceptable to Americans than "conscription," which was associated with the evasion of and violent resistance to the Civil War draft. The act was based on the principal of universal military obligation, but it would "select" those most fit to serve. Men between the ages of twenty-one and thirty were required to register for the draft, with the age requirements extended to those between eighteen to thirty-five in August. Those with vital wartime occupations or family obligations were exempted; 90 percent of those taken were unmarried and a large majority farmhands or manual laborers. A system of local citizen boards was established to carry out the draft. Draftees composed a much larger percentage of the World

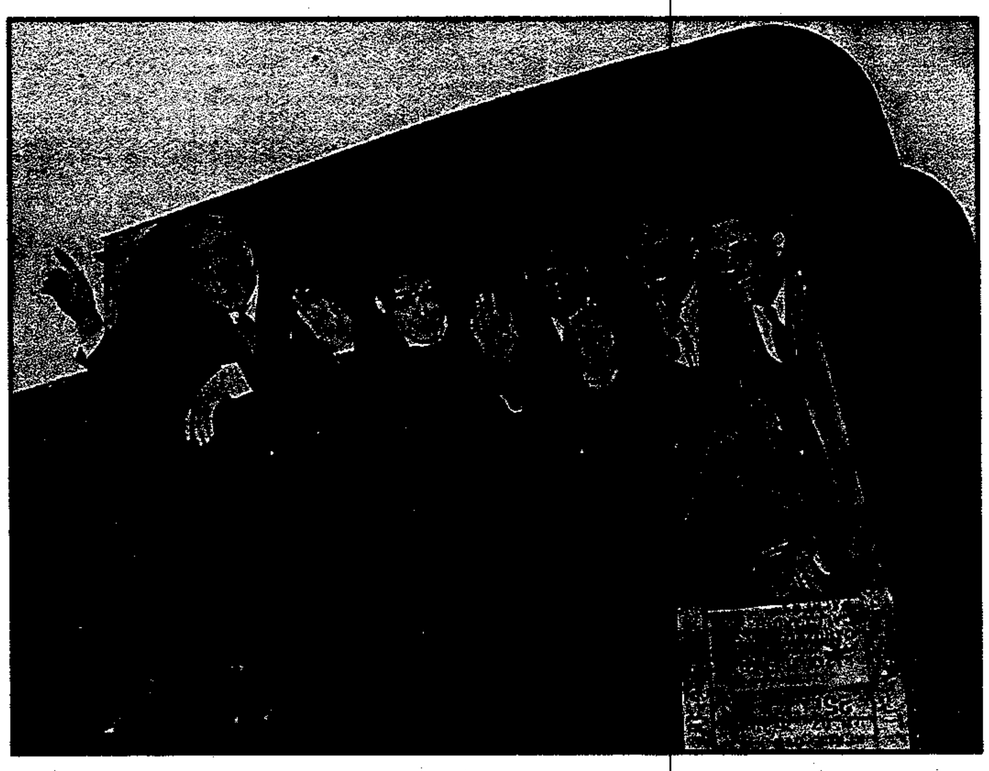
---

[106] "Handbook: Camp Snelling at Fort Snelling Minnesota," 41.
[107] "Story of the Origin and the Growth of Fort Snelling"; Holbrook, 87, 105; Louis L. Collins, *History of the 151st Field Artillery Rainbow Division* (Saint Paul: Minnesota War Records Commission, 1924), 7, 14.
[108] "Snelling Will Be Kept, Says Good," October 2, 1929.

War I army than in any previous conflict; in the Civil War about 6 percent of the Union forces were draftees while about 67 percent of World War I forces were draftees.[109]

When war broke out in Europe in 1939, the United States remained neutral but began to enlarge the army, preparing for possible involvement. In August 1940 the construction of a cantonment at Fort Snelling to handle new recruits was announced. In September, Congress passed the Selective Service and Training Act, America's first peacetime draft, and Fort Snelling became a reception center for draftees as well. The act brought a deluge of phone calls to Fort Snelling, more than quadruple the usual number, as men called with concerns about the draft. Common questions included: When will I be called? Where will I be sent? What should I wear? Would getting married help me avoid the draft? What's the penalty for draft evasion? The questions kept five men and two women busy twenty-four hours a day. An open house was held for Twin Cities residents concerned about the draft. Visitors toured the barracks, dining rooms, kitchens, day rooms, orderly rooms, and squad rooms, led by members of the Third Infantry, 701st Military Police Battalion, and Company No. 1 of the Reception Center. Weapons and other equipment were displayed on the polo fields and the Third Infantry put on an attack demonstration, drill, and retreat parade.[110]

Fort Snelling was designated as an induction and reception center, where all Minnesota draftees, as well as those volunteering for service, would come to begin their military experience. New buildings were quickly erected to receive the men, near the site of the World War I cantonment. A draftee was first examined by a local draft board doctor. Upon passing this exam, he was sent on to an induction center, where staff doctors gave him a more through examination to determine his fitness for battle. Next the draftee went to a reception center. Fort Snelling served both as an induction center for the draftees from Minnesota as well as a reception center for draftees from the Dakotas and Iowa.[111]



Inductees on their way to Fort Snelling, 1942.

The fort received its first draftees in November 1940, and by January 1941, thirty-two new buildings had been constructed accommodating around 1,200 men. By May 1941 roughly a

---

[109] Millett and Maslowski, 331-332; Weigley, 354-358.
[110] "Fort Snelling to Get Recruit Cantonment"; Millett and Maslowski, 396; "Conscription Quadruples Fort Telephone Calls," October 21, 1940; "See for Yourself! Public Invited to Fort Open House," n. d.
[111] "Northwest Conscripts May be House in Quarters"; "Completion of Barracks Is Being Rushed," November 3, 1940; "New Buildings at Fort Ready Ahead of Time," January 21, 1941.

1,000 men a week were being processed at Fort Snelling. With the entry of the U.S. into the war in December 1941, the reception center became even busier. By the following spring the reception center was dealing with 1,500 men at a time and three additional receiving companies had been created to help process the new soldiers.[112]

The influenza epidemic during World War I made the military especially concerned about the spread of disease among the troops. Those arriving at the fort induction center were immediately checked for communicable diseases, including eye, throat, mouth, and nasal infections, scarlet fever, measles, mumps, and skin diseases. Men who passed this check then went for more thorough physical exams, during which they were inoculated for typhoid and smallpox. After completing an examination, doctors could determine a man unfit for service, Class 1A, or Class 1B. The Class 1A designation meant fit for any service, while Class 1B meant restricted service such as office work. At Fort Snelling roughly 30 percent of those reporting to the induction center were rejected for physical, mental, or moral reasons. And of those accepted, about 35 percent were below set physical standards and required additional strengthening as part of their training.[113]

When men arrived at the reception center they were checked in and then sent to the processing office for an orientation lecture and were issued toilet articles. Next came a film on the classification system. Due to the complexities of modern warfare, five to ten men would be required behind the lines to support each soldier at the front. For the first time the Army made a major effort to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of its force by assigning men according to their skills and intelligence, "trying to get cooks for cooks, blacksmiths for blacksmith jobs, and not mixing them up willy-nilly." During World War I, "before the problem of the sorting of man power was solved," units were disrupted by frequent transfers of men between units in order to try to get qualified men where they were needed. The chief function of the reception center was classifying men, in order "to provide each army organization with men that it can use, train, and keep." The first step of classification was the Army General Classification Test After testing, the new soldiers were then sent to the clothing warehouse to receive their uniforms. Next the soldiers were given an opportunity to purchase life insurance and war bonds. This was followed by an interview, the second part of classification. Interviewers asked questions about the inductee's occupations, hobbies, and background. The test results and interview were then used to determine a soldier's assignment. Before departing, soldiers also attended a chaplain's lecture and saw films on the articles of war, military courtesy, and sex hygiene.[114]

---

[112] "115 Trainees Begin Army Life at Fort," November 22, 1940; "New Buildings at Fort Ready Ahead of Time"; "833 Men to Go to Claiborne," May 5, 1941; Becker, 15.
[113] "Completion of Barracks Is Being Rushed"; "Third of Inductees Below Standards at Fort Snelling," October 24, 1942.
[114] Charts and Graphs drawn by Bill Broenen, Fort Snelling Reception Center, 1943; "Completion of Barracks Is Being Rushed"; Eller, 8-9; "New Trainees Get First Taste of Modern, Streamlined War," January 22, 1941; Becker 12-13.

Draftees were usually at Fort Snelling for three to five days. The military originally planned for stays at Fort Snelling to last about a month and include some basic training, but due to the high volume of men the stay was reduced to the essentials. The Assignment Office in the Reception Center received requisitions from the War Department for the numbers and classifications of men needed. A soldier might be assigned to a newly formed unit whose members would go through basic and advanced training together or be sent to a Replacement Training Center from which he would join an established unit. In 1943, 27 percent of the men processed at Fort Snelling were sent to an existing unit, 37 percent were sent to a Replacement Training Center, 32 percent were sent to the Air Corps, and the remainder received miscellaneous assignments.[115]

CONCLUSION

Fort Snelling evolved in response to international trends, national policies and politics, and local needs. The role of the U.S. military has been determined by the American public acting through Congress, with the size and mission of the force reflecting the mood of the country. Believing a large peacetime military to be anti-democratic, the United States has traditionally relied on a mixed force of professionals and citizen soldiers for defense. In the years after the Civil War, the army was sent to establish peace on the frontier and suppress Native American opposition to westward expansion. As the West was settled and Native Americans were confined to reservations, U.S. foreign policy moved from isolationism to imperialism. In 1898, the United States fought Spain for Cuban independence. The new involvement of the United States in world affairs called for a larger military. During the first two decades of the century, the military was kept busy occupying the Philippines and guarding the border from Mexican revolutionaries. In 1917, the United States entered World War I. A military force of just over 130,000 grew to more than 3.5 million by the end of the conflict. After the war, however, the United States became disillusioned with world politics and the failure of the President Woodrow Wilson's peace efforts. The public mood was isolationist, and throughout the 1920s and 1930s the United States remained far behind European nations in the size and technological development of its military. During these decades, the role of the military was to maintain preparedness, through training and conditioning of its regular forces as well as instructing citizens. The focus was on national defense rather than U.S. intervention. As World War II spread across Europe in 1939, the United States tried to stay out of the conflict. In 1940, however, Congress passed America's first peacetime draft, mobilizing citizens for possible entry into the war. Thus, when the United States declared war on Japan and Germany in December 1941, it was much better prepared than in 1917.

From the mid-nineteenth century to the mid-twentieth century, the U.S. military was gradually nationalized and professionalized. During the Indian Wars, the army was stationed at small posts across the West and isolated from mainstream society. As those conflicts ended, these scattered posts were consolidated into larger posts with more modern facilities. With the end of frontier

---

[115] Eller, 9; "Draft Roads Will Lead to Snelling," n.d.; Becker 13-14; Charts and Graphs drawn by Bill Broenen.

service, the soldier's chief duty became training. This included military instruction as well as physical conditioning, which was enhanced by the introduction of mandatory athletic activities after World War I. Army education also improved, with specialized instruction based on a soldier's rank and assignment. Legislation provided new organization for the military establishment. Disorganized and individualistic state militias became a National Guard with federal funding and regulations. A federal reserve force was established, and the quality of future citizen soldiers improved through civilian training programs.

Though not as revered or romanticized as its frontier predecessor, the "New" Fort Snelling has an important place in local and national history. The fort had close ties to the Twin Cities. Many local residents served with the units stationed at Fort Snelling or were mobilized at the fort on their way to fight in the Civil War, Spanish-American War, World War I, or World War II. Minnesotans in the National Guard, Reserve Officers Training Corps, Organized Reserves, and Citizens Military Training Camps received training at the fort. Twin Cities' residents interacted with the fort's soldiers through athletic events and were entertained by their military displays and parades. The post also has national significance as a vital part of the military's system of forts. Here soldiers were housed, trained, and mobilized. Fort Snelling played a role in Native-American conflicts during the second half of the nineteenth century as the headquarters for the Department of Dakota. The influence of imperialist policy is clear in the expansion of the fort in the early years of the twentieth century. During World War I, officers' training camps were held at the fort. As part of the preparedness movement of the 1920s and 1930s, thousands of civilians came to the fort for military training each summer. When a draft was enacted in 1940, a large reception center for inductees was established at the fort. And during World War II, the fort played an essential role as home to the Military Intelligence Service Language School.

Fort Snelling was decommissioned in 1946, and the site turned over to the Veterans Administration. It has since served a variety of military, government, recreational, and educational uses.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR INTERPRETATION

The following section identifies what buildings and places at the fort today best represent the historical themes. Construction dates follow the name of the building. The number most recently assigned to each building by the army is included in parenthesis.

ARMY OPERATIONS

This theme examines military activities at the "new" fort from support of the Department of Dakota to training Japanese linguists during World War II. The Administration Building is an ideal place to interpret this theme. Constructed in 1879, the building held the headquarters of the Department of Dakota until 1886, after which it housed the administrative offices of the post. The quartermaster area on Bloomington Road is a good place to interpret daily operations at the fort.

Buildings associated with this theme include:

Ordnance Storehouse—1880 (22)
Cavalry Stables—1904 (30)
Post Hospital—1898 (55)
Dead House—1904 (62)
Quartermaster Shops—1879-1880 (63)
Fire Station House—1903 (64)
Post Guard House—1891 (65)
Telephone Exchange—1927 (66)
Administration Building—1879-1880 (67)
Post Bakery—1891 (112)
Cavalry Drill Hall—1907 (201)

Quartermaster Area:
Shops—1907 (210)
Quartermaster Stable—1909 (211)
Quartermaster Stable—1910 (214)
Quartermaster Storehouse—1879-80 (217)
Forage House—1894 (218)
Saw Mill—1895 (219)
Post Exchange Oil and Gas House—c.1928 (220)
Subsistence and Quartermaster Storehouse—1904 (222)
CCC Commissary Warehouse—1935 (223)
Forage House—1902 (224)
Quartermaster Storehouse—1917 (225)
Powder Magazine—1904 (237)

A SOLDIER'S LIFE

This theme examines the living and working conditions of soldiers posted at Fort Snelling. The gymnasium is a good place to interpret this theme. Constructed in 1903, it represents the efforts of the government to improve conditions for soldiers. The gymnasium held a restaurant, bowling alley, gymnastic equipment, a running track, a library, reading rooms, and a billiard room. It also included a post exchange, a store operated for the benefit of the soldiers. New officers' housing and barracks were also constructed at this time. Living conditions, as well as the as well as the division between officers and enlisted men, could be interpreted through these buildings.

Life at Fort Snelling could also be interpreted through the post's athletic facilities. By the 1920s, athletics were an important part of life at the fort, providing recreation as well as physical training. While the present golf course and athletic fields postdate the closing of the army post, similar facilities were located at the post. The original golf course had nine holes and was located near the Officers' Club, extending along the bluff and then running west of Officers' Row, east of Bloomington Road, and south of Leavenworth Avenue. The construction date of the golf course is not known, but it was installed sometime prior to 1930. The Artillery Drill Field (bounded by Tower Avenue, Bloomington Road, Taylor Avenue, and Minnehaha Avenue), where new athletic facilities are currently being constructed, was used for sports and recreation during the 1920s and 1930s. Equestrian competitions were held in the Cavalry Drill Hall.

Buildings associated with this theme include:

Post Hospital—1898 (55)
Gymnasium—1903 (53)
Cavalry Drill Hall—1907 (201)
Fort Snelling Memorial Chapel—1928 (32)
Golf Course—c.1956

Residential Buildings:
Cavalry Barracks—1904 (17 and 18)
Medical Detachment Barracks—1939 (54)
Hospital Steward's Quarters—1900 (56)
Band Barracks—1903 (57)
Quartermaster Shops—1879-1880 (63): converted to non-commissioned officer housing in 1930s
Fire Station House—1903 (64)
Civilian Employees' Quarters—1879-1880 (76): converted to non-commissioned officer housing in 1912
Infantry Barracks—1885/1889 (101)
Infantry Barracks—1885/1889 (102)
Infantry Barracks—1885/1889 (103)
Bachelor Officers' Quarters—1904 (151)
Officer's Quarters—1879-1880 (152)

Officer's Quarters—1892 (153)
Officer's Quarters—1879-1880 (154)
Officer's Quarters—1892 (155)
Officer's Quarters—1879-1880 (156)
Officers' Quarters—1905 (157)
Officer's Quarters—1879-1880 (158)
Officers Quarter's—1892 (159)
Officers Quarter's—1879-1880 (160)
Officers Quarter's—1892 (161)
N.C.S.O. Quarters—1904 (227)
N.C.O. Quarters—1907 (229)
Officers' Club—1934 (395)

CONSTRUCTING FORT SNELLING

This theme examines the physical development of the fort. As this theme encompasses all the buildings, roads, and landscapes of the fort, it could be interpreted anywhere. The Administration Building contributes to this theme as the first building of the "new" fort. The fort roads, Bloomington Road (c.1879), Leavenworth Avenue (c.1890), Minnehaha Avenue (c.1879), and Taylor Avenue (c.1878-1879), are an important part of the design of the fort. Taylor Avenue was the primary artery of the "new" fort and connected the "new" fort to the original fort; a point near the center of Taylor Avenue might provide a good perspective from which to interpret the general layout of the fort.

This theme includes all of the built and designed landscapes of Fort Snelling.

TIES WITH THE TWIN CITIES

This theme examines the connections between Fort Snelling and the cities of Minneapolis and Saint Paul. The athletic fields currently under construction would be an ideal location for interpreting the role of the fort in the sporting life of the Twin Cities. Twin Cities' residents were frequent spectators at fort athletic events as well as participating in polo, fox hunting, and horse shows at the fort. This theme could also be interpreted at the Officers' Club, where Twin Cities' residents attended many social gatherings.

Buildings associated with this theme include:

Cavalry Drill Hall—1907 (201)
Officers' Club—1934 (395)

MODERNIZING THE MILITARY

This theme examines the evolution of the military from a frontier force to a modern world power, including changes in organization, size, and technology. This theme could be interpreted through the buildings associated with the enlargement of Fort Snelling in the early years of the twentieth century. A significant step in the modernization of the military was the consolidation

of small, scattered posts into larger, centrally located forts. Fort Snelling was expanded to hold an infantry regiment, two cavalry squadrons, and an artillery battery.

Buildings associated with this theme include:

Cavalry Barracks—1904 (17 and 18)
Cavalry Stables—1904 (30)
Gymnasium—1903 (53)
Band Barracks—1903 (57)
Dead House—1904 (62)
Fire Station House—1903 (64)
Bachelor Officers' Quarters—1904 (151)
Subsistence and Quartermaster Storehouse—1904 (222)
Forage House—1902 (224)
N.C.S.O. Quarters—1904 (227)
N.C.O. Quarters—1907 (229)
Powder Magazine—1904 (237)

CAMP SNELLING

This theme examines the role of Fort Snelling in providing military training for civilians in the National Guard, Reserve Officer Training Corps, Organized Reserves, and Civilian Military Training Camps. The training area, dubbed Camp Snelling, was located south of the main buildings of the fort where the World War I cantonment was previously located. The area is now occupied by the airport. This theme could perhaps be interpreted at the south end of Taylor Avenue, which once led to the camp or cantonment area. The theme could also be interpreted at the Administration Building, as the headquarters of the post.

No buildings associated with this theme remain.

MOBILIZING CITIZEN SOLDIERS

This theme examines the importance of Fort Snelling as a mobilizing point for new recruits during war, particularly the World War II reception center. During World War I, more than 150 temporary structures as well as training areas were located at a cantonment at the south end of Taylor Avenue. During World War II, more than 300 temporary buildings were erected in this area to house the fort's reception center. The airport now occupies the area where the cantonment was located. This theme could perhaps be interpreted at the south end of Taylor Avenue or at the Administration Building, as the headquarters of the post.

No buildings associated with this theme remain.

WORKS CONSULTED

PUBLISHED SOURCES

Alt, Betty Sowers, and Bonnie Domrose Stone. *Campfollowing: A History of the Military Wife.* New York: Praeger, 1991.

Ano, Masaharu. "Loyal Linguists: Nisei of World War II Learned Japanese in Minnesota." *Minnesota History* 45 (Fall 1977): 273-287.

Bailey, John W. *Pacifying the Plains: General Alfred Terry and the Decline of the Sioux, 1866-1890.* Westport, Connecticut: Greenwood Press, 1979.

Bond, P. S., O. O. Ellis, E. B. Garey, and T. L. McMurray. *The Red, White and Blue Manual: A Text Book for the Citizens' Military Training Camps.* Vol. One, Red Course. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1921.

Chambers, John Whiteclay. *To Raise an Army: The Draft Comes to Modern America.* New York: The Free Press, 1987.

Collins, Louis L. *History of the 151st Field Artillery Rainbow Division.* Saint Paul: Minnesota War Records Commission, 1924.

Cooper, Jerry. *The Rise of the National Guard: The Evolution of the American Militia, 1865-1920.* Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1997.

Dupuy, Col. R. Ernest. *The Compact History of the United States Army.* New York: Hawthorn Books, Inc., 1973.

_____. *The Evolution of Weapons and Warfare.* New York: Da Capo Press, Inc., 1984.

Eller, Lt. Col. Floyd E. "A Soldier Looks at History." *Minnesota History* 24 (March 1943): 1-10.

Elting, Col. John Robert. *American Army Life.* New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1982.

Falk, Stanley L., and Warren M. Tsuneishi, eds. *MIS in the War Against Japan : Personal Experiences Related at the 1993 MIS Capital Reunion, "The Nisei Veteran: an American Patriot."* Vienna, Virginia: Japanese American Veterans Association of Washington, D. C., 1995.

Hall, Steve. *Fort Snelling: Colossus of the Wilderness.* Saint Paul: Minnesota Historical Society Press, 1987.

Henderson, Aileen Kilgore. "A Stout Heart: How a Hopeless Rogue from the Montana Range Became the Pride of the U.S. Army." *Equus* 203 (1994).

Holbrook, Franklin F. *Minnesota in the Spanish-America War and the Philippine Insurrection.* Saint Paul: Minnesota War Records Commission, 1923.

Holbrook, Franklin F., and Livia Appel. *Minnesota in the War with Germany*. 2 Vols. Saint Paul: Minnesota Historical Society Press, 1928.

Holt, Maj. John R. *Historic Fort Snelling*. Fort Snelling, Minn.: John R. Holt, 1938.

Ichinokuchi, Tad, ed., and Daniel Aiso, asst. *John Aiso and the M.I.S.: Japanese-American Soldiers in the Military Intelligence Service, World War II*. Los Angeles: The Club, 1988.

Karsten, Peter. *The Military in America: From the Colonial Era to the Present*. New York: The Free Press, 1980.

Kunz, Virginia Brainard. *Muskets to Missiles: A Military History of Minnesota.* Saint Paul: Minnesota Statehood Centennial Commission, 1958.

Millett, Alan R., and Peter Maslowski. *For the Common Defense: A Military History of the United States of America*. New York: The Free Press, 1984.

Nankivell, John H. *Buffalo Soldier Regiment: History of the Twenty-fifth United States Infantry, 1869-1926.* Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 2001.

Neiberg, Michael S. *Making Citizen-Soldiers: ROTC and the Ideology of American Military Service.* Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 2000.

Pope, Steven W. "An Army of Athletes: Playing Fields, Battlefields, and the American Military Sporting Experience, 1890-1920." *The Journal of Military History*, July 1995.

Robinson, Willard B. *American Forts: Architectural Form and Function*. Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1977.

Shellum, Duane R. *America's Human Secret Weapon*. Minneapolis: Minnisei Printers, Inc., 1977.

United States Military Intelligence Service. *Unsung Heroes, the Military Intelligence Service Past—Present—Future*. Seattle: Military Intelligence Service, 1996.

Utley, Robert M. *Frontier Regulars: The United States Army and the Indian 1866-1891*. New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., 1973.

Wakefield, Wanda Ellen. *Playing to Win: Sports and the American Military, 1898-1945*. Albany: State University of New York Press, 1997.

Weigley, Russell F. *History of the United States Army*. Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1984.

Woodworth, Ben S. "Gone Away!" *The Amateur Golfer*, November 1928.

UNPUBLISHED SOURCES

Becker, Dale Francis. "Fort Snelling 1938-1945." B. A. paper, University of Minnesota, 1983.

Clouse, Robert Alan, and Elizabeth Knudson Steiner. "All That Remains: A Study of Historic Structures at Fort Snelling, Minnesota." Draft prepared for the Minnesota Department of Natural Resources, 1998.

Prucha, Francis Paul. "The Army Post on the Minnesota Frontier." M. A. thesis, University of Minnesota, 1947.

NEWSPAPER ARTICLES

"The Building Up of Fort Snelling." *Saint Paul Globe*, July 4, 1901.

"Extension of Street Car Line to Fort Snelling Will Pass Over Ground Long Since Historic." *Minneapolis Sunday Times*, October 26, 1902.

"Fort Snelling to Get Recruit Cantonment." *Pioneer Press*, August 24, 1940.

"Story of the Origin and the Growth of Fort Snelling." *Saint Paul Globe*, October 4, 1903.

"University of Fort Snelling Transforms Army of Past." *Minneapolis Sunday Tribune*, February 25, 1923.

"Work Progress at Fort Snelling." *Saint Paul Pioneer Press*, October 25, 1903.

ARCHIVAL SOURCES, MINNESOTA HISTORICAL SOCIETY

The Barracks Bag. Fort Snelling, Minn.: Military Training Camps Association, Central Department, 1922.

The Blue Torch. Fort Snelling, Minn.: Reserve Officers Training Camp, 1921.

"Book of Champions: Summer Sports—Forty-Ninth Infantry." Fort Snelling, 1921.

Broemer, Bill. Charts and Graphs drawn for Fort Snelling Reception Center, 1943.

"Eighth Fort Snelling Polo Season." Official Program, July 21, July 29, Aug. 25, and Sept. 2, 1928.

"First Annual Military and Civilian Horse Show," Souvenir Program, June 7-9, 1929.

"Fourth International Polo Tournament." Official Program. Aug. 30-Sept. 6, 1925.

"Fourth International Polo Tournament." Official Social Program. Aug. 30-Sept. 6, 1925.

"Handbook: Camp Snelling at Fort Snelling Minnesota." June 1 to August 31, 1927.

The Model C.C.C.. Vol. 1, Ed. 1. Camp Snelling, Minn. October 18, 1934.

"Post Plays Host to Athletes from Fort Lincoln and Fort Sheridan Over Weekend." Fort Snelling Press Release, March 22, 1939.

Reveille: The Call to a New Life. Vol. 1, No. 11. Fort Snelling, Minn.: July 3, 1919.

CLIPPINGS COLLECTION, MINNESOTA HISTORICAL SOCIETY

"Army Cooks Match Speed of 'Blitz'," February 14, 1941.

"Barracks to House State Draft Units," n.d.

"Citizens Military Training Camp Surpassed All Other in U.S.," January 2, 1926.

"CMTC Camp at Snelling To Be Disbanded This Year," April 30, 1941.

"Completion of Barracks Is Being Rushed," November 3, 1940.

"Conscription Quadruples Fort Telephone Calls," October 21, 1940.

"Draft Roads Will Lead to Snelling," n.d.

"833 Men to Go to Claiborne," May 5, 1941.

"Fort Activities to Open," October 4, 1938.

"Fort Assured Stage Shows: 2 a Month to Help Entertain Troops," April 4, 1942.

"Fort Snelling Gets Military Police Unit," March, 10, 1941.

"Fort Snelling May Be Cadet Training Camp," August 24, 1920.

"Fort Snelling Has Newest of Twin City Country Clubs," August 12, 1934.

"Fort Snelling is Army Rail Headquarters," April 10, 1942.

"Fort Snelling Made Headquarters of Sixth U.S. Army Division," February 22, 1940.

"Fort Snelling Opens Hound Chase Sport," October 8, 1928.

"Fort Snelling Troops to Be in Mock War," March 10, 1940.

"Fort Snelling Will Get 17 New Buildings," August 12, 1940.

"Guns to Roar in Sham Battle at Snelling Today," June 2, 1923.

"Horse-Artillery at Fort Is Ready for Last Ride," June, 30, 1939.

Murray, Frank, unidentified newspaper clipping, September 13, 1928.

"New Buildings at Fort Ready Ahead of Time," January 21, 1941.

"New Trainees Get First Taste of Modern, Streamlined War," January 22, 1941.

Newspaper clipping, January 25, 1941.

Newspaper clipping, April 2, 1941.

"Northwest Conscripts May be House in Quarters," August 24, 1940.

"115 Trainees Begin Army Life at Fort," November 22, 1940.

"$1,210,297 WPA Grant Given to Fort Snelling," n.d.

"$100,000 Allotted for Snelling Improvements," June 23, 1938.

"1,000 Men to Be Added Third Infantry," January 8, 1922.

"$1,210,297 WPA Grant Given to Fort Snelling," n.d.

"Play is Both Duty, Fun at Ft. Snelling," May 27, 1937.

"Projects Keep 250 Men Busy," n.d.

"Riding to Hounds Will Be Feature of Fall Season at Fort Snelling," September 13, 1928.

"See for Yourself! Public Invited to Fort Open House," n.d.

"Snelling Becomes Spick and Span Under General Reconditioning," n.d.

"Snelling Garrison Vital to N.W., Colonel States," November 7, 1941.

"Snelling Gets New Tanks," June 26, 1937.

"Snelling to Become Division Headquarters," February 22, 1940.

"Snelling to Resume Dances for Inductees," September 18, 1945.

"Snelling Will Be Kept, Says Good," October 2, 1929.

"Snelling WPA Work Starts," n.d.

"Third Infantry Marches for New Officer," September 30, 1939.

"Third Infantry to Open Drive for 250 Men," November, 18, 1923.

"Third of Inductees Below Standards at Fort Snelling," October 24, 1942.

"25,000 View Ft. Snelling Sham Battle," May 3, 1938.

APPENDICES

CHRONOLOGY

RESEARCH DESIGN

RECONSIDERING THE BOUNDARIES FOR THE FORT SNELLING NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES AND NATIONAL HISTORIC LANDMARK DISTRICTS

MAPS
BOUNDARY MAPS
TOPOGRAPHICAL VIEW, FORT SNELLING RESERVATION, 1846-1848
MAP OF FORT SNELLING RESERVATION, 1882
FORT SNELLING, 1902
FORT SNELLING, 1905
FORT SNELLING, BUILDINGS AND UTILITIES, 1938
FORT SNELLING, WORLD WAR II
FORT SNELLING, UPPER BLUFF AREA, CURRENT

CHRONOLOGY

1650s- French exploration and fur trading begins in the Upper Mississippi region.

1680- An exploration party, including Father Louis Hennepin, discovers and names St. Anthony Falls.

1803- The United States purchases the Louisiana Territory containing Arkansas, Iowa, Louisiana, Missouri, and South Dakota as well as parts of Colorado, Minnesota, Montana, North Dakota, Oklahoma, and Wyoming.

1804- Louis and Clark explore the newly acquired territory. The explorers recommend the establishment of forts at vital locations along the Missouri and Mississippi Rivers, including Saint Anthony Falls.

1805- Lieutenant Zebulon Pike negotiates a treaty with the Dakota to obtain 100,000 acres at the junction of the Mississippi and Minnesota Rivers.

1819- Fort Saint Anthony established to defend the frontier. Troops erect temporary quarters at Camp Coldwater at a spring considered sacred by the Dakota.

1820- Colonel Josiah Snelling takes command of the post and begins construction of a permanent stone fortress on a bluff at the junction of the Minnesota and Mississippi Rivers. Major Lawrence Taliaferro is sent to establish an Indian Agency among the Sioux (Dakota) and Chippewa (Ojibway). At first Taliaferro has an office at the fort, but he gradually establishes separate agency headquarters a short distance to the southwest.

1824- Taliaferro begins planning a Native American agricultural community and, within a few years, negotiates with Chief Cloudman to establish this community (Eatonville) at Lake Calhoun near the western edge of the military reservation.

1826- Fort Saint Anthony is renamed Fort Snelling.

1830s- Taliaferro continues efforts to promote education and agriculture among the Dakota, inviting missionaries to serve as teachers of secular subjects as well as religion.

1834- Henry Sibley, agent for the American Fur Company, establishes a trading post at Mendota, south of Fort Snelling across the Minnesota River.

1836 to 1837- Joseph Nicollet, explorer, cartographer, and keen observer of Dakota linguistics, customs, and social organization, spends the winter at the Indian Agency. One of his maps includes a sketch of the Agency and suggests the presence of Indian tepees nearby.

1837 to 1838- Taliaferro holds treaty negotiations with the Dakota near the Agency, prior to leading a delegation to Washington for ratification. The Dakota cede their lands east of the Mississippi, and the Ojibway cede their lands on the Saint Croix River and its tributaries. This

opens the land to Euro-American settlement. Squatters' claims mark the beginning of the Twin Cities.

1839- Dissatisfied with local fur traders and the U.S. government's failure to carry out the provisions of the treaty, Taliaferro resigns and leaves the Indian Agency in 1839.

1849- The Minnesota Territory is established. The territorial government is based in Saint Paul, and Fort Snelling loses importance.

1851- In the Treaties of Mendota and Traverse des Sioux, the Indians cede lands west of the Mississippi and begin to move to reservations. The Fort Snelling military reservation is reduced in size and much of the land is platted for urban development.

1858- The army leaves Fort Snelling after the military reservation is sold to Franklin Steele. Minnesota becomes the thirty-second state admitted to the Union.

1861- The Civil War begins. Fort Snelling is called into military use again as a gathering point and training area for Minnesota troops. Temporary structures and tents are erected beyond the walls of the fort to accommodate the thousands of recruits.

1865- The Civil War ends with the surrender of the Confederacy at Appomattox Courthouse.

1866- The army decides to retain Fort Snelling. A military reorganization of the United States creates the Department of Dakota to oversee Minnesota, the Dakota Territory, and much of Montana. General Alfred Terry is appointed head of the department, which is based at Fort Snelling, though Terry's office is in Saint Paul.

1869- The first transcontinental railroad is completed.

1870 to 1871- The Franco-Prussian War marks the rise of German military power and imperialism. U.S. Army professionals admire Prussia's large, well-equipped, well-trained force and lobby for modernization of the army.

1878- The headquarters office of the Department of Dakota moves from Saint Paul to Fort Snelling.

1879- The National Guard Association is formed.

1879 to 1880- The construction of the "new" fort begins with a headquarters building for the Department of Dakota and officers' housing constructed on Taylor Avenue.

1882 to 1888- Units of the Black Twenty-fifth Infantry Regiment are posted at Fort Snelling.

1888 to 1898- The Third Infantry Regiment is stationed at Fort Snelling.

1889- North and South Dakota become the thirty-ninth and fortieth states admitted to the Union.

1898- The Spanish-American War is fought for Cuban independence from Spain; units are assembled at Fort Snelling. Troops from Fort Snelling are sent to suppress an uprising of a Ojibway band at Leech Lake, Minnesota, considered the final fight of the Indian Wars.

1899- The United States annexes the Philippines, Guam, and Puerto Rico.

1903- The Militia Act of 1903 makes the National Guard part of the national military establishment.

1903 to 1905- Congress allocates roughly $26.5 million for the expansion of military posts. Fort Snelling receives funds to construct many new buildings, giving it the capacity to hold an infantry regiment, two cavalry squadrons, and an artillery battery.

1910 to 1920- The Mexican Revolution prompts the United States to post troops on the border with Mexico.

1914- World War I begins.

1916- The National Defense Act of 1916 divides the military into three parts: active forces (Army, Navy, and Marines), the National Guard, and a newly created Organized Reserve. The act also establishes the Reserve Officers Training Corps.

1917- The United States enters World War I. The Selective Service is established. Officers' Training Camp is held at Fort Snelling.

1918- U.S. General Hospital No. 29 is established at Fort Snelling for treatment of veterans. World War I ends with the signing of an armistice in November.

1920- The National Defense Act of 1920 divides the United States into nine corps areas, each with one Regular Army Division, two National Guard Divisions, and three Organized Reserve Divisions. The act also emphasizes the importance of civilian military training.

1920s- Fort Snelling becomes known as the "country club" of the army. Polo and fox hunting are introduced at the fort.

1920s and 1930s- Civilian training is held at the fort during the summer with the National Guard, Reserve Officers Training Corps, the Organized Reserves, and Citizens Military Training Camps.

1921- The Third Infantry Regiment returns to Fort Snelling. Whiskey, the soon-to-be celebrity horse, arrives at the fort.

1929- The Great Depression begins with the October 29th stock market crash.

1930s- The WPA and CCC are at Fort Snelling as part of federal relief programs.

1939- World War II begins.

1940- In September, Congress passes the Selective Service and Training Act, America's first peacetime draft. Construction of the reception center at Fort Snelling begins.

1941- Japan attacks Pearl Harbor on December 7th. The United States enters World War II.

1944 to 1946- The Military Intelligence Service Language School is based at Fort Snelling.

1945- World War II ends with the Japanese surrender in September.

1946- The Army decommissions Fort Snelling, and the property is transferred to the Veterans Administration.

1960- Fort Snelling is declared a National Historic Landmark.

1961- The Minnesota legislature creates Fort Snelling State Park.

1966- Fort Snelling becomes a National Register Historic District.

1969- The Minnesota legislature transfers the old fort to the Minnesota Historical Society, which operates it as a historic site.

1971- The State of Minnesota receives 141 acres at Fort Snelling, known as the Upper Bluff, from the federal government under the Land to Parks program. This land is incorporated into Fort Snelling State Park.

2001- The Minneapolis Park and Recreation Board breaks ground for the Leonard H. Neiman Sports Complex.

Research Design:
Historical Assessment of Fort Snelling
Focusing on the "New Fort"
And Native American Uses of the Land

Prepared by Charlene K. Roise, Hess, Roise and Company
And Christina Harrison, Archaeological Research Services
April 2001

Objectives

This study is being prepared to provide a foundation for future interpretive work on the area of Fort Snelling southwest of Highway 55, sometimes known as the "New Fort" or the "Upper Bluff" area. Native Americans utilized the Upper Bluff long before Euroamerican settlement, and continued to visit the area after the original fort's construction in the 1820s. The first significant military use of the Upper Bluff area occurred after the Civil War. The area's current appearance is largely the result of development following the fort's designation as headquarters for the Department of Dakota in 1879. Specific objectives of the study include:

- Addressing historic Native American uses of the area later developed for the new fort.
- Identifying significant phases of the development of the new fort.
- Explaining the function and interrelationship of different activities at the fort during these significant periods, and the physical locations associated with these activities.
- Providing a basis for the interpretation of the site by establishing this framework of periods and themes.
- Addressing the boundaries of the National Register and National Historic Landmark districts and recommending whether either of these boundaries should be expanded.

Research Questions

Research questions include:

- What were the key legislative acts and appropriations, strategic considerations, philosophical and policy issues, technological advances, and other influences that resulted in significant changes in operations at Fort Snelling?
- Under what overriding themes can these changes be grouped?
- What individuals are associated with these changes?
- How did these changes influence the layout of Fort Snelling and the construction of specific buildings?

- What buildings and places at the fort today best exemplify the major historical themes?

Anticipated Findings

- A chronology (or chronologies) of major periods of Native American occupation, as well as key influences on the fort's development.
- Identification of significant themes and associated physical changes.
- Recommendations related to National Register and National Historic Landmark Districts.

Work Plan

- Literature search:
  - Review existing studies, identify research gaps.
  - Conduct research as needed at the Minnesota Historical Society, the government documents repository at the Minneapolis Public Library, and other appropriate collections.
- Develop chronology (or chronologies).
- Draft outline of themes.
- Discuss outline and chronology/ies with interested parties (NPS, SHPO, Fort Snelling scholars at the Minnesota Historical Society, DNR).
- Revise outline and chronology/ies as needed.
- Draft narrative overviews for each theme; append list of associated properties at Fort Snelling.
- Prepare developmental maps.
- Evaluate boundaries of National Register and National Historic Landmark Districts.

Reconsidering the Boundaries for the Fort Snelling National Register of Historic Places and National Historic Landmark Districts

Fort Snelling was declared a National Historic Landmark in 1960. By virtue of this designation, it was automatically listed as a National Register historic district in 1966 with the passage of the National Historic Preservation Act, which created the register. The fort became a state historic site in 1971. The boundaries associated with these designations have been a subject of much debate ever since. Various attempts to delineate the boundaries were outlined in a memorandum from Scott Anfinson to Dennis Gimmestad, both staff of the State Historic Preservation Office, dated February 2, 1998.

The Fort Snelling Military Reservation once included a vast area. Parcels were gradually ceded to Minneapolis and its suburbs as these communities attracted settlers in the nineteenth century. Additional fort land was consumed by the airport established on farmland to the south in the early twentieth century. As air traffic grew, the airport needed to expand. Runway construction to accommodate new jet aircraft in the late 1950s was particularly damaging to the historic fort, resulting in the demolition of a number of nineteenth-century officers' residences and infantry barracks on the south end of Taylor Avenue, as well as other fort facilities. Military aviation bases clustered around the east, north, and northwest edges of the airfield, their development catalyzed by World War II and the Cold War. It could be argued that these complexes were an extension of the fort's military mission and, hence, worthy of inclusion in the historic district. Significant alterations to these facilities within recent decades, however, have compromised their historical integrity, making the issue moot.

Since the fort was decommissioned in 1946, more parcels were carved from the remaining area for the construction of new federal facilities, including the Whipple Building and the Bureau of Mines research complex. Changes in transportation have also altered the terrain. The crude trails that once radiated from Fort Snelling have grown into important highways bisecting the historic outpost. These roads helped make obsolete the railroad and streetcar lines, only traces of which remain, that were once significant elements in the fort's landscape.

The current district boundaries include a number of modern intrusions while not encompassing all of the historic resources associated with the fort: both the pond at Camp Coldwater and a building constructed in 1968, for example, are bisected. Also, boundaries of the National Landmark, National Register, and State districts differ. Ideally, these should be identical.

The least disputed boundary is to the south-southwest, where the airport (under the jurisdiction of the Metropolitan Airports Commission) abuts the fort. The existing National Landmark boundary extends northeast along Bloomington Road from the edge of the airport, while most versions of the National Register boundary turn northeast 600 feet northwest of Bloomington Road and run parallel to that road. Both delineations ignore the buildings in that area. A modern Naval-Marines Reserve building is included in the National Register boundary; a number of late nineteenth- and early twentieth-century fort buildings are excluded from the National Landmark boundary. The edge of the property owned by the Veterans Administration provides a more

defensible boundary in this area. For much of the remainder of the western edge, the proposed boundary adopts other property and right-of-way lines when appropriate and establishes a new course when necessary, based on current conditions. The existing National Historic Landmark boundary is maintained to the north, while the National Register district boundaries are used to the east and south. In the following description, proposed new boundaries are indicated by bold, italicized text.

Scott Anfinson and Susan Roth of the State Historic Preservation Office provided invaluable assistance in developing these revisions.

Revised Boundaries for Fort Snelling Historic District

Beginning at the intersection of the Metropolitan Airports Commission airport property and the northwestern edge of the Bloomington Road right-of-way, following that right-of-way northeast approximately 900 feet until reaching the southern corner of a parcel owned by the Veterans Administration (VA); thence northwest and northeast along the boundary between VA and U.S. Navy property. This line is roughly traced by a driveway that intersects Bloomington Road south of Building 229 and curves behind that building; the line turns at a right angle to follow a row of trees extending perpendicularly to the northwest, then turns northeast along the southeastern edge of a recreation field to the field's eastern corner and continues along the field's northeast edge, which is marked by a chain-link fence. At the field's northern corner the boundary makes a right-angle turn to the northeast, following a chain-link fence marking the division between VA and Minnesota Department of Transportation property and extending that line to its intersection with Minnehaha Avenue; then proceeds in a southeasterly direction along the southwestern edge of the Minnehaha right-of-way to a point approximately 450 feet northeast of the intersection of Minnehaha Avenue and Bloomington Road; thence northeasterly in a line paralleling Bloomington Road, running northwest of Buildings 214, 211, and 210, and southeast of the Fort Snelling Employees' Club, a modern building. At a point approximately 760 feet northeast of the centerline of Minnehaha Avenue, the boundary turns to the southeast, running northeast of, and parallel to, the northeast side of Building 210, along a line once marked by a chain-link fence, until reaching the northwestern right-of-way of Bloomington Road. The boundary follows this right-of-way to the northeast about 650 feet until reaching the southwesterly boundary of the former Bureau of Mines property occupied by Building 201; then traces the existing southwest and northwest borders of this property, continuing the latter line straight across State Highway 55 to the northerly right-of-way of that road. The boundary follows that right-of-way to the north and west until reaching the intersection of a line extended southwest from the southeastern wall of the main Bureau of Mines administration building north of Camp Coldwater Spring; thence northeast along that line to the western side of the historic right-of-way of the Fort Snelling spur of the Chicago, Milwaukee, and Saint Paul Railway (abandoned); thence north on that right-of-way to its intersection with the railway's main line (abandone; now a state trail), following the west side of the main line's right-of-way to East 54th Street; thence east along the extension of East ***54th*** Street to the easterly county line of Hennepin County (center line of Mississippi River); thence southerly and easterly along said

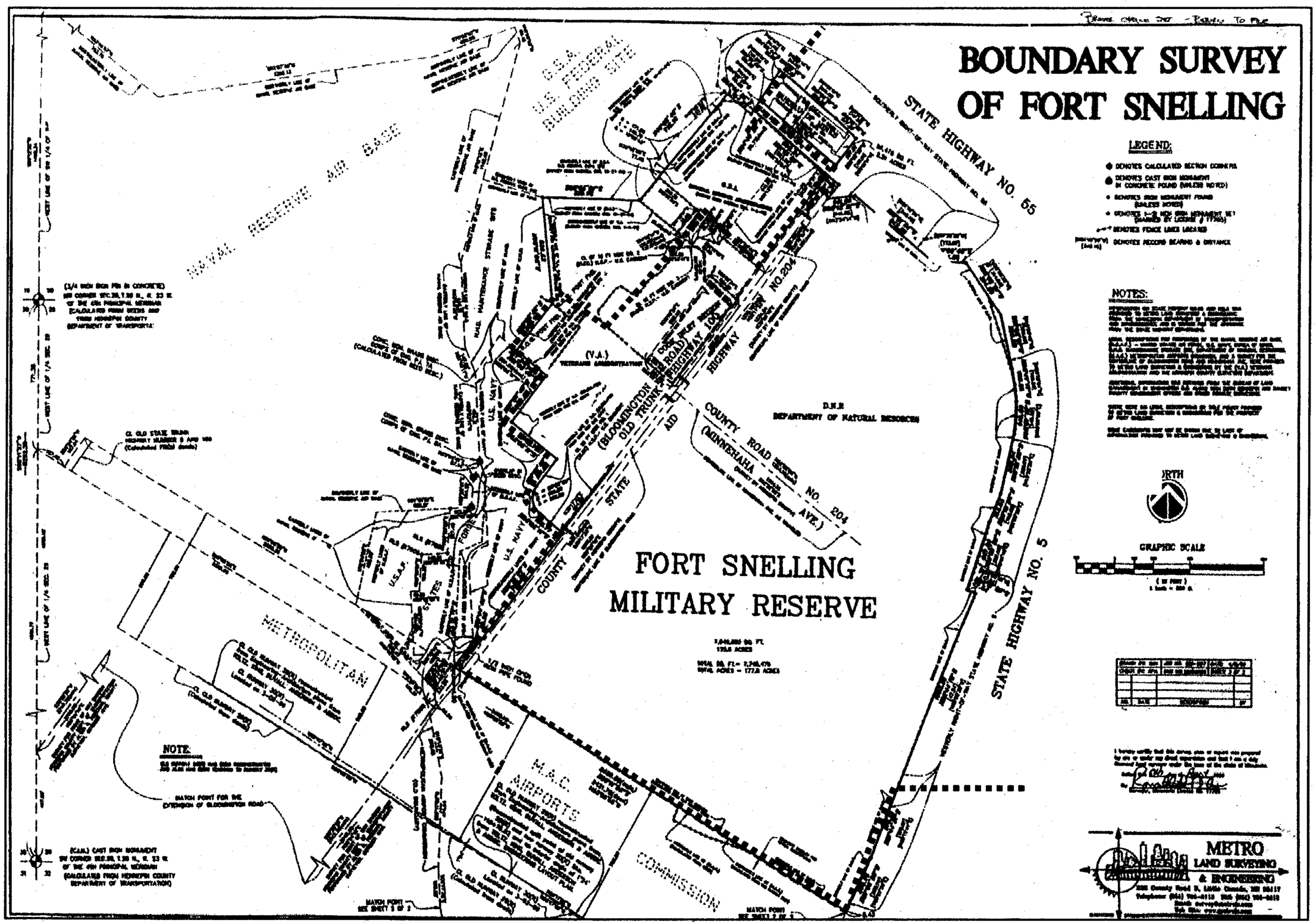
county line to the point of intersection of Hennepin, Ramsey and Dakota Counties; ***thence a straight line directly south until its*** intersection with the east-west quarter line of Sec. 28 [T 28 N, R 23 W]; thence westerly on said east-west quarter line to the intersection with the easterly right-of-way line of Minnesota State Highway #5; thence southerly on said right-of-way line to intersect with the Metropolitan Airports Commission boundary line extended; thence northwesterly along last described boundary line ***to the northwestern right-of-way of Bloomington Road, the point of beginning.***

Maps

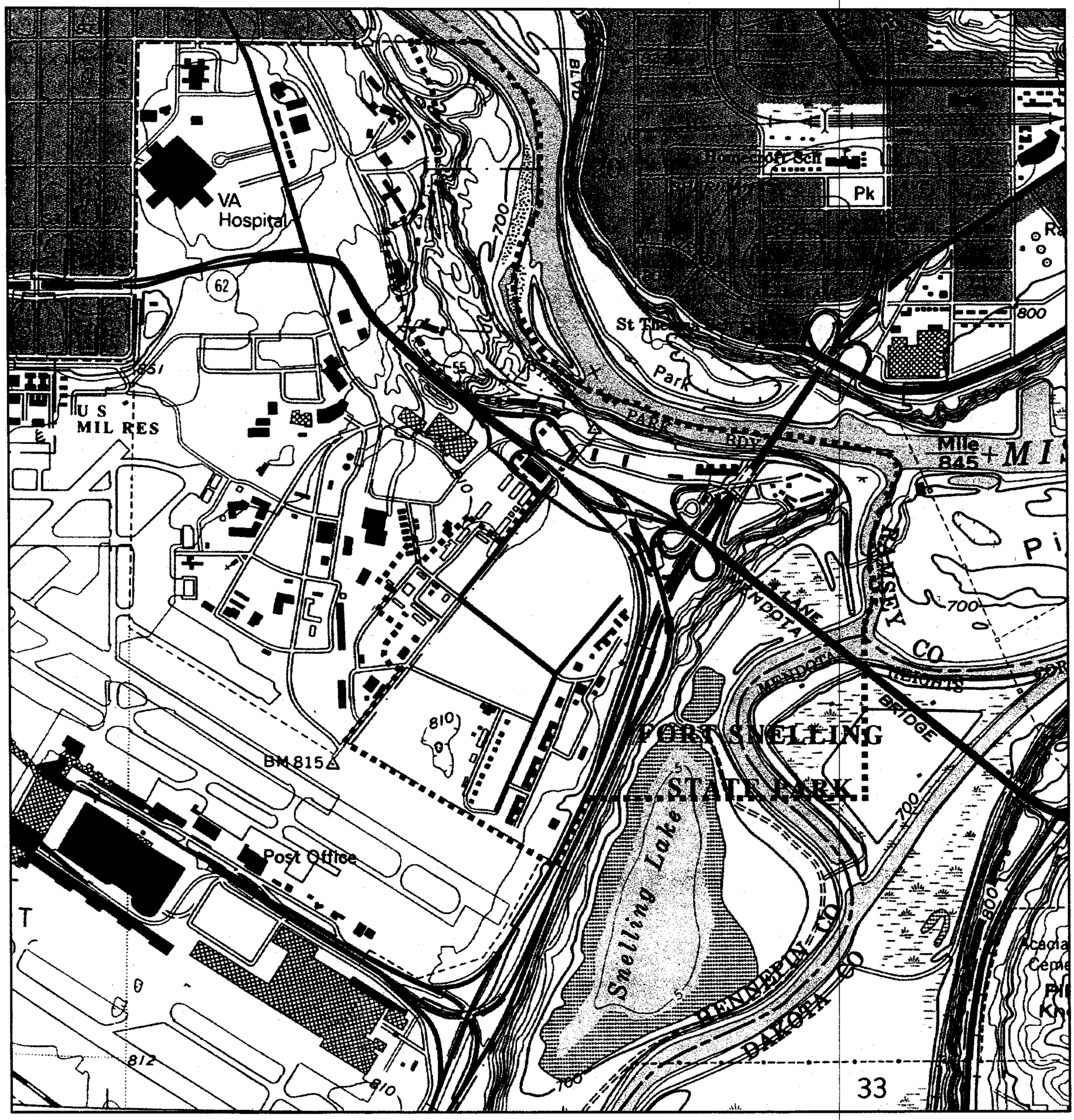
The approximate boundary of the proposed historic district is illustrated by a dashed line on the following maps. The written boundary description is more accurate. In the event of variances between the written boundary description and the maps, the written boundary description has authority.

1. United States Geological Survey, *St. Paul West, Minn.*, 1967, revised 1993. Original scale 1:24,000; enlarged, not to scale.

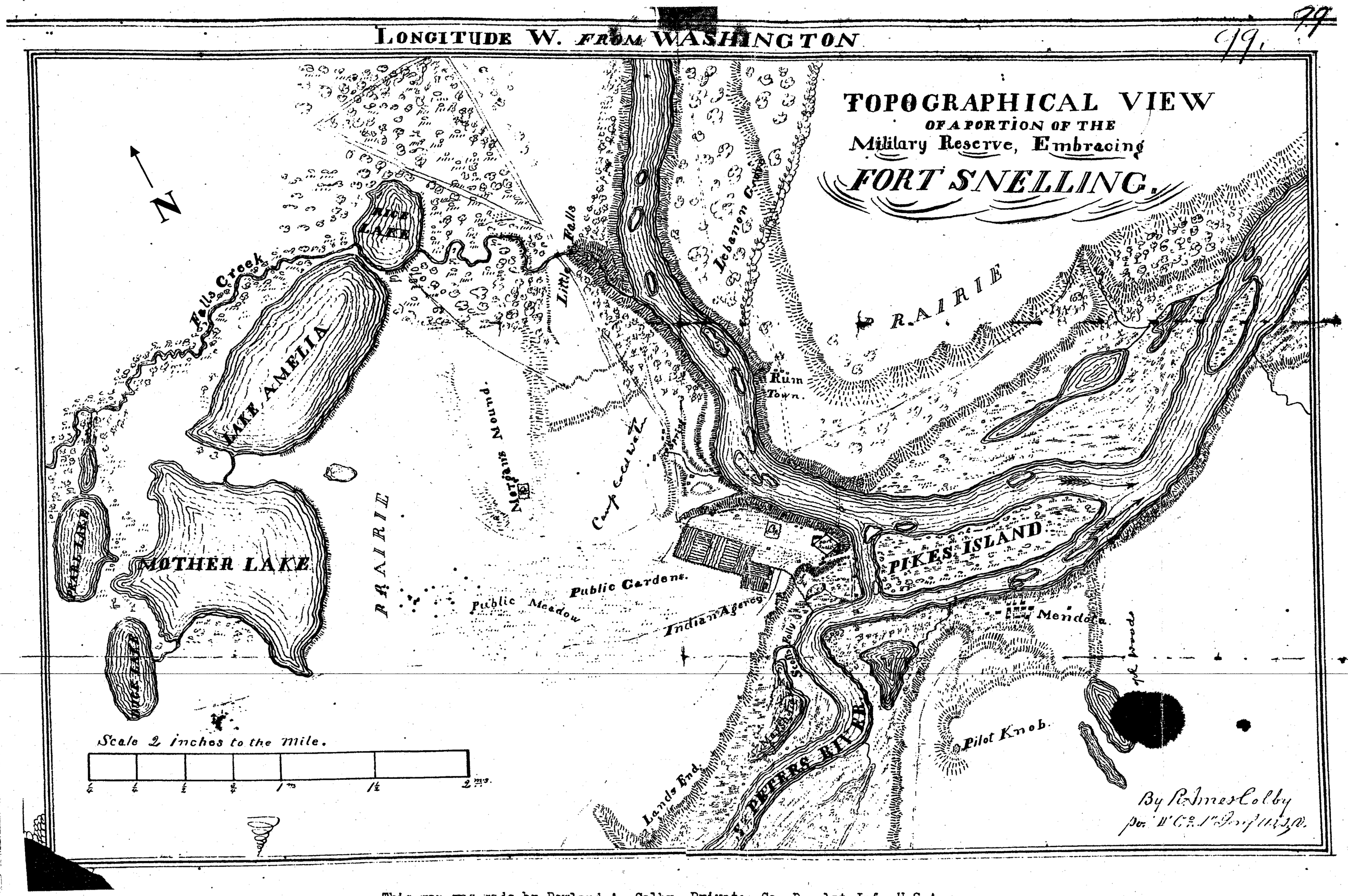
2. Metro Land Surveying and Engineering, *Boundary Survey of Fort Snelling*, April 5, 1999. Original scale 1" = 200'; reduced, not to scale.



1. United States Geological Survey, *St. Paul West, Minn.*, 1967, revised 1993. Original scale 1:24,000; enlarged, not to scale.



2. Metro Land Surveying and Engineering, *Boundary Survey of Fort Snelling*, April 5, 1999. Original scale 1" = 200'; reduced, not to scale.



This map was made by Rowland A. Colby, Private, Co. D - 1st Inf. U.S.A.
Enlisted October 6, 1846 - Discharged May 26, 1849.
Stationed at Ft. Snelling, Minn. October 24, 1846 to September 30, 1848.

MAP of Fort Snelling Reserration

1882

Surveyed & Drawn by E. B. Summers.
Topogl Asst
Office of the Chief Engineer
Department of Dakota

Scale. 1:2500

N

REFERENCE

MISSISSIPPI RIVER

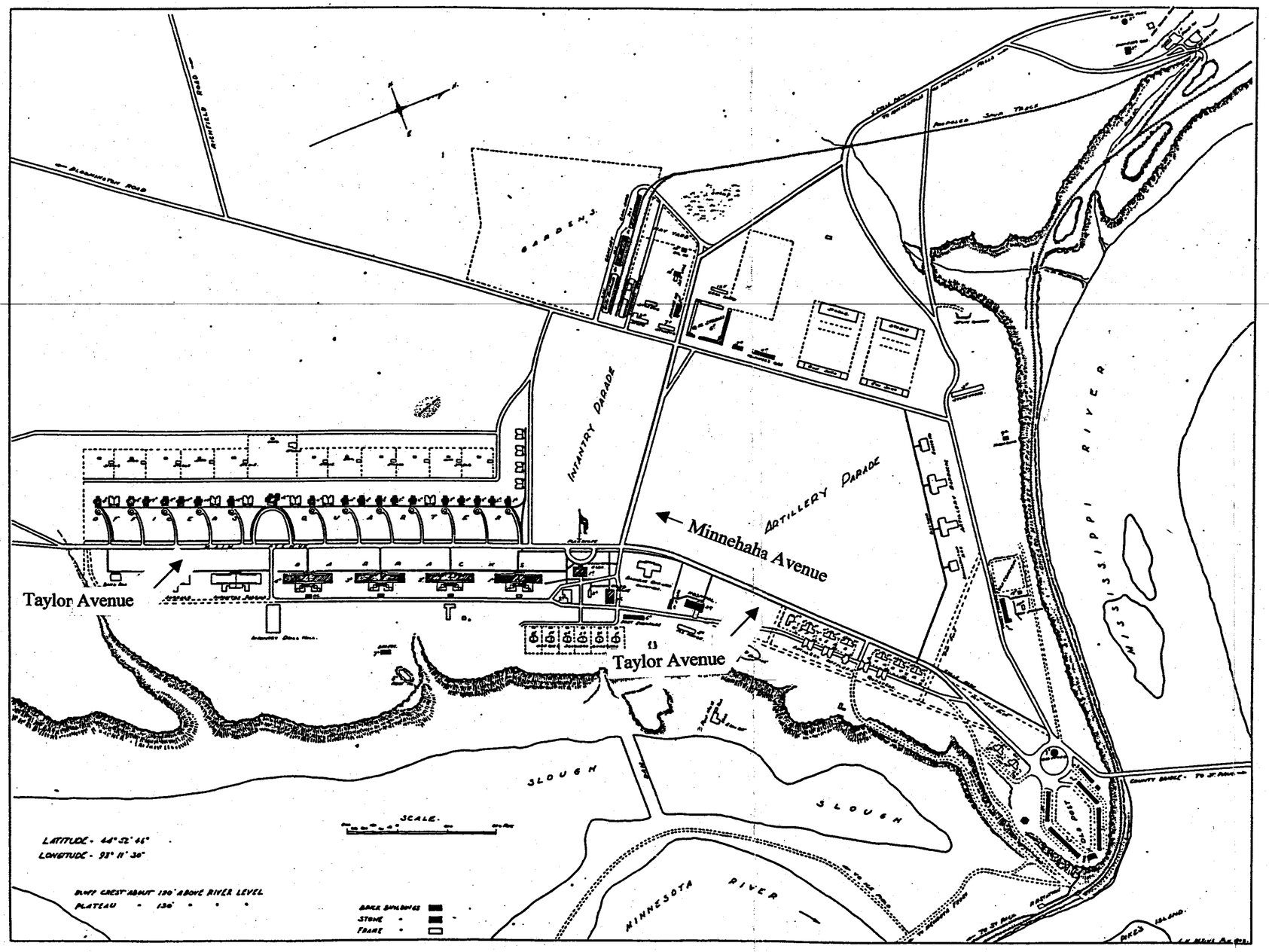
MINNESOTA RIVER

Taylor Avenue

Minnehaha Avenue

Bloomington Road

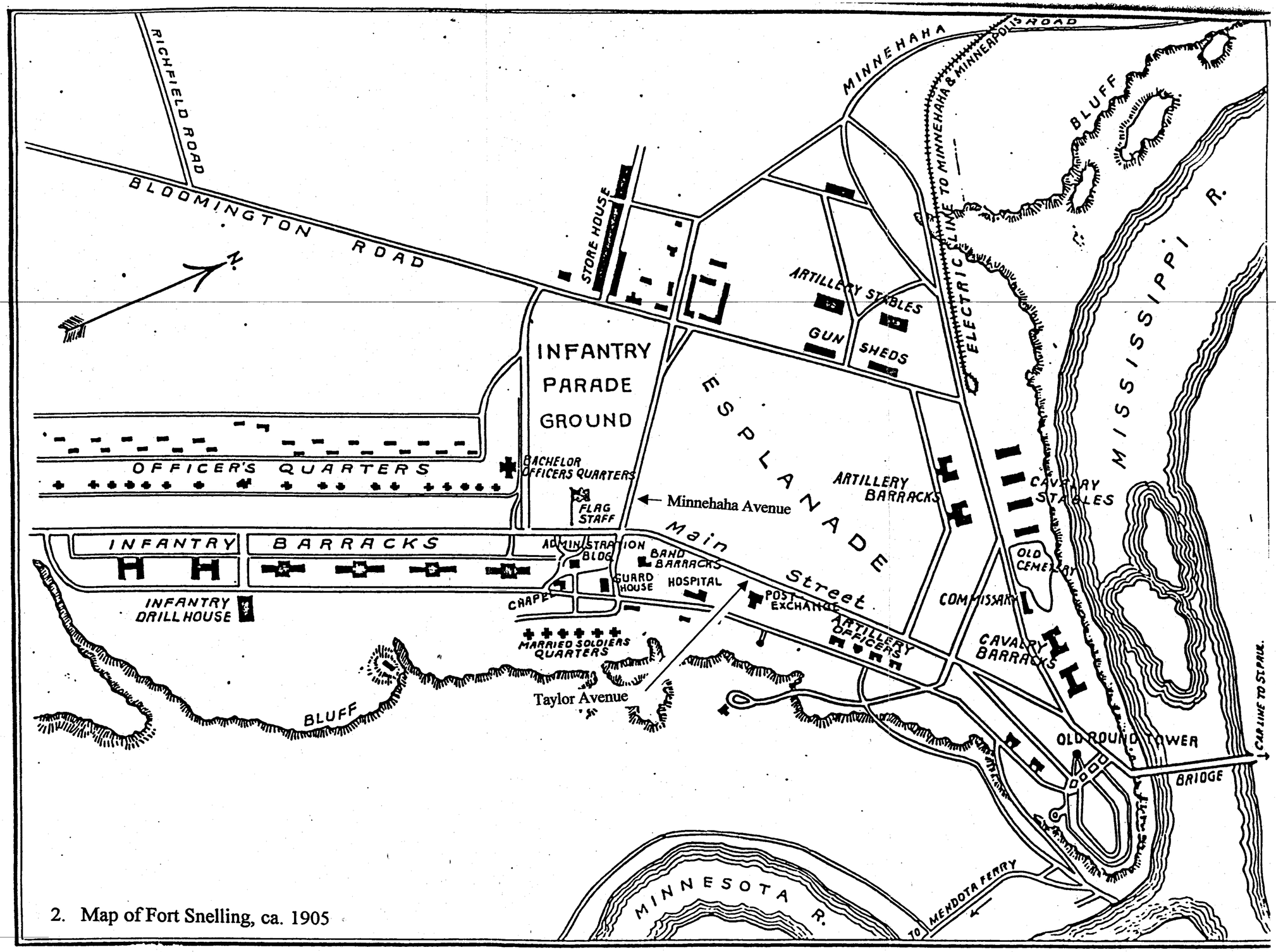
Bluffs Range



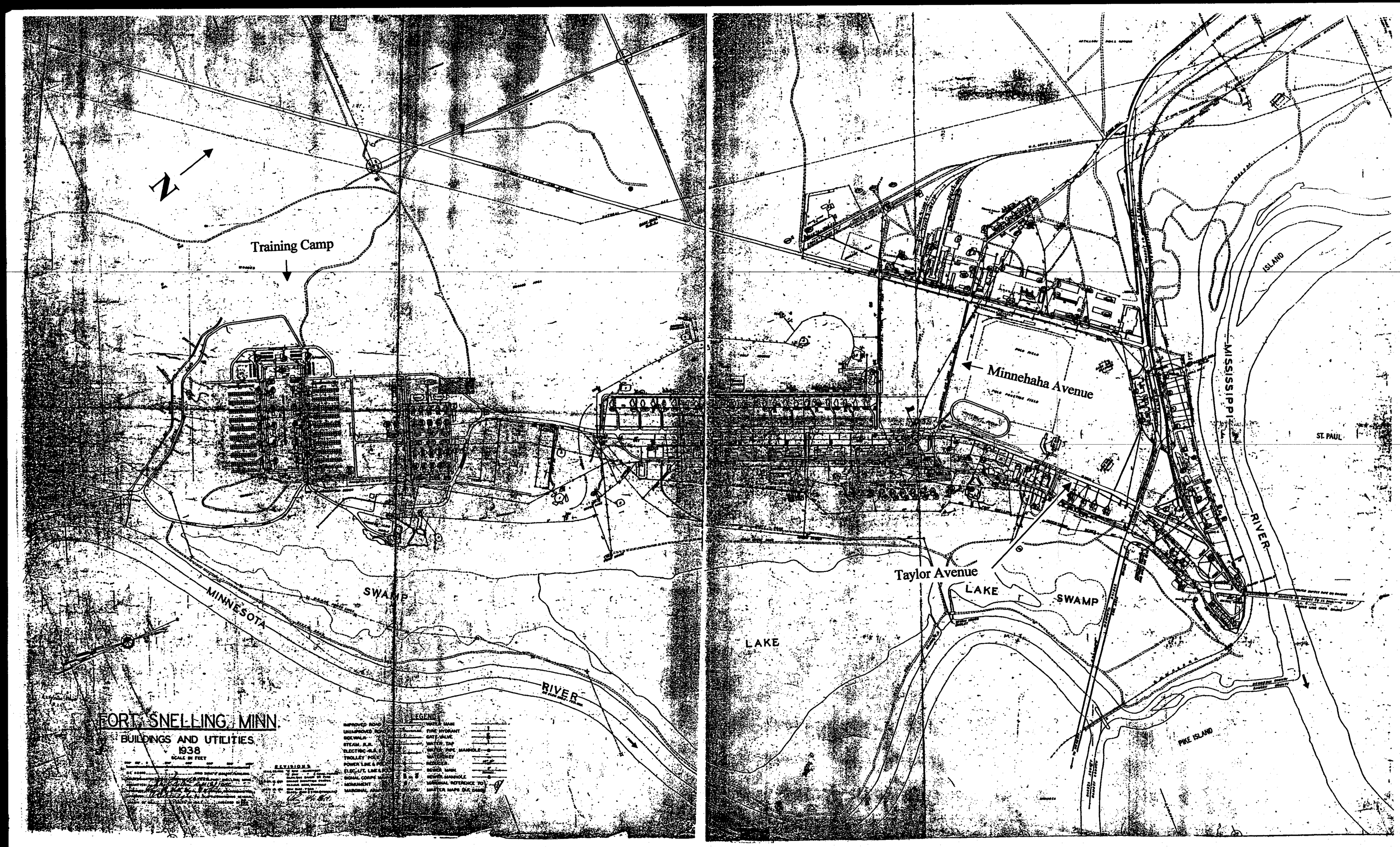
Fort Snelling, Minn.

SHOWING PROPOSED SCHEME OF RE-CONSTRUCTION AND ENLARGEMENT TO ACCOMMODATE ONE REGIMENT OF INFANTRY AND TWO BATTERIES OF FIELD ARTILLERY.

SUBMITTED BY LIEUT-COLONEL GEO. E. POND, DEPUTY QUARTERMASTER GENERAL, U.S.A.
CHIEF QUARTERMASTER, DEPT. OF DAKOTA, ST. PAUL, MINN MARCH 15, 1902.



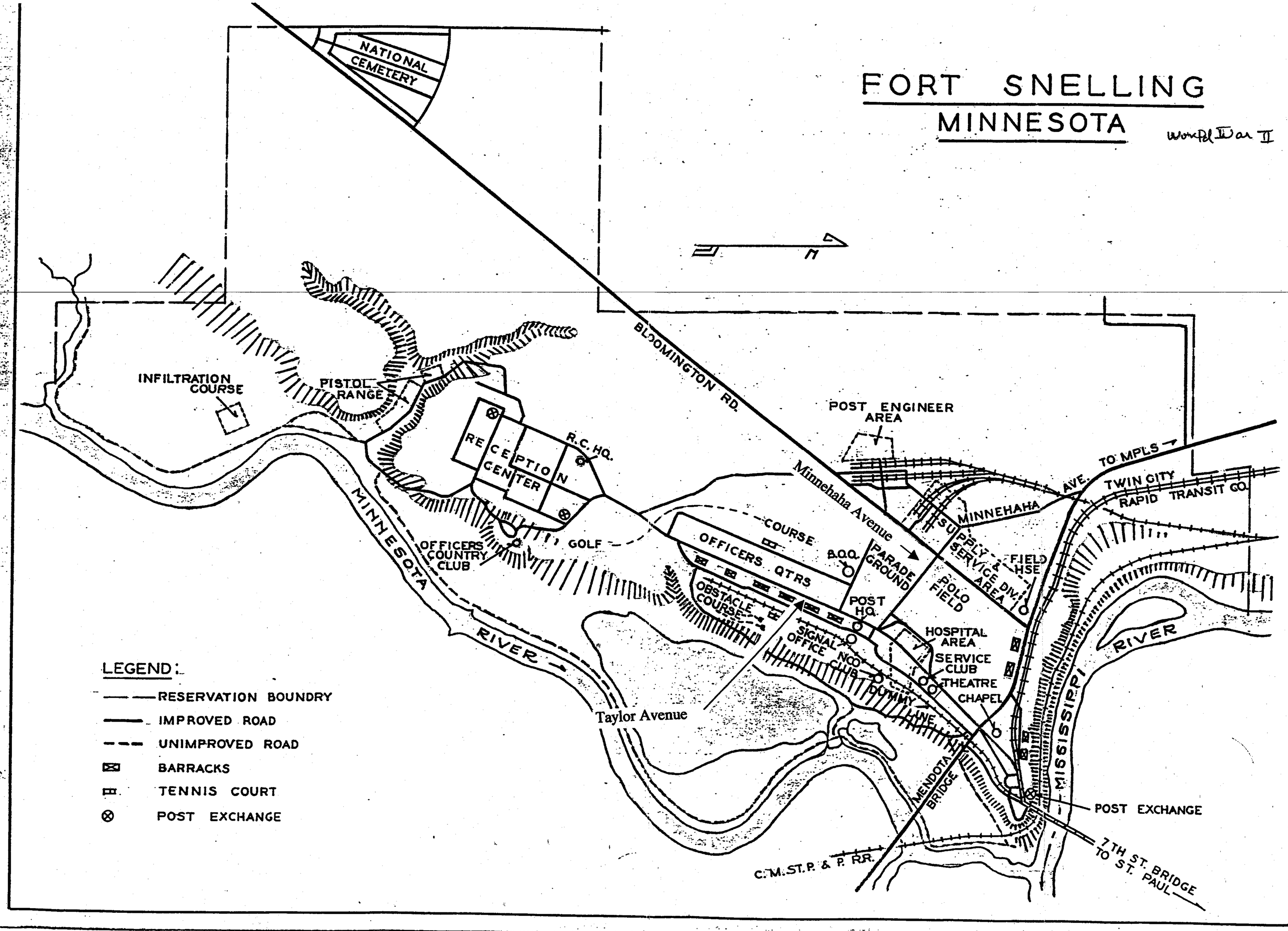
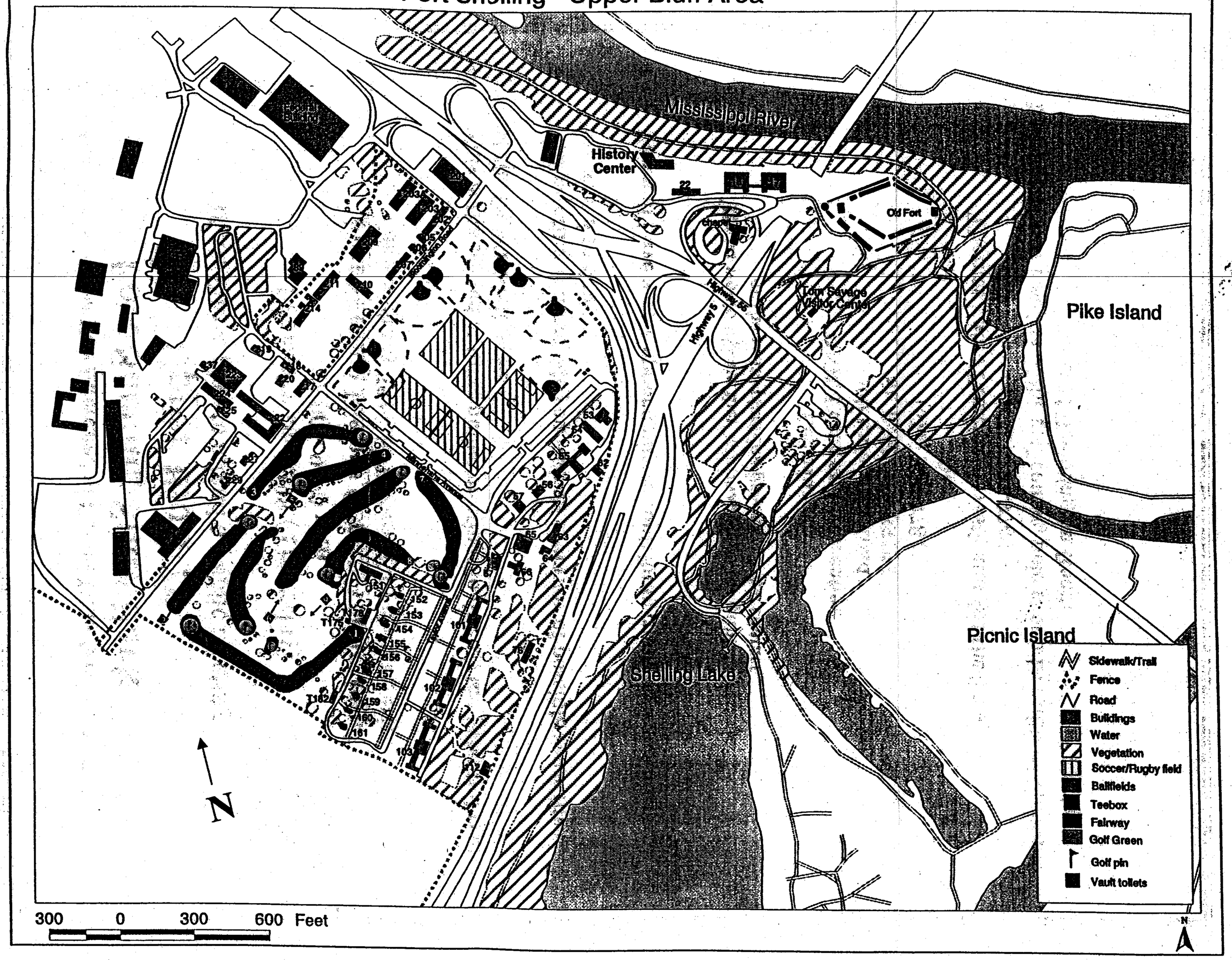
2. Map of Fort Snelling, ca. 1905



N
Training Camp
Minnehaha Avenue
Taylor Avenue
MINNESOTA
RIVER
SWAMP
LAKE
MISSISSIPPI
RIVER
ISLAND
ST. PAUL
PIKE ISLAND
FORT SNELLING, MINN.
BUILDINGS AND UTILITIES
1938
SCALE IN FEET
REVISIONS
LEGEND

FORT SNELLING
MINNESOTA

World War II



Fort Snelling - Upper Bluff Area