

MARY JANE ENO PINCHOT (1838-1914), was born in New York City, and married James Pinchot there in 1864. She was very much a product of her class and time, well bred and schooled in manners, active on the social scene, and solicitous of her children. Since James and Mary had no home properly their own until the late 1880s, their family life was somewhat out of the ordinary. She undertook extensive travels with her children, and with friends like General Sherman, and lived in France for several years in the 1870s (with James commuting between New York and Paris).

Mary doted on her children, especially Gifford, who remained a bachelor until near her death. She tended to be possessive toward him, and often expressed concern about his physical condition, which she regarded as weak. He reacted with occasionally excessive athleticism, but always showed remorse at even such small rebellions. Mary's attachment to her bachelor son probably accounts for her and James' sale of their house in New York in 1900 and purchase of one in Washington, where she could watch more closely over Gifford's career. He lived at home, and after his father's death in 1908 drew most of his mother's attention. She acquired quite a reputation as a bountiful hostess, to the end of her days serving Gifford's frequent and sometimes large (up to 300 people) gatherings at their home. She was also a collector of objects of fine craftsmanship; her collection of antique fans was borrowed for display by the Smithsonian Institution in 1908. Mary did not attend Gifford's wedding in 1914; she died a few days later at the Eno family home in Connecticut.

As might be expected of a man who lived unmarried at home until he was 49 years of age, Gifford was extremely attached to his mother and perhaps always felt the loss of her. He retained reminders of her throughout his years, even naming his yacht the *Mary Pinchot* before his voyage to the South Seas.



ANTOINETTE ENO PINCHOT (1868-19?), the only daughter of James and Mary, was born in New York City and named for her mother's sister. Antoinette ("Nettie") evidently traveled wherever her mother went, and was likely schooled in all the things a socially prominent lady needed to know in

her day. She could have enjoyed only a few summers at Grey Towers before her marriage in 1892 to Sir Alan Vandenberg Johnstone (1858-1932), the son of Harcourt Johnstone, First Baron Derwent, and an English diplomat since 1879. After serving at Vienna, Washington, Belgrade, the Hague, and Rome, he became in 1895 secretary of the legation in Copenhagen, and was from 1896 to 1899 Acting Charge d'Affaires to the Court of Darmstadt. Posts of increasing responsibility led him to become His Majesty's Minister to Copenhagen, 1905-10, and to the Hague, 1910-17, where Antoinette became, according to one source, "the most popular woman in diplomatic circles at the Dutch capital." Antoinette was visited by her parents on their frequent trips to Europe, and herself returned to the United States; her husband accompanied her on a 1908 visit, and possibly others. Her success as a British diplomat's wife, and as Lady Johnstone, reflects the erudition, social milieu, and training for polite society that characterized the upbringing of the Pinchot children, and says something about the kind of people who enjoyed Grey Towers during the summers.

Sir Alan died in London following surgery in 1932. Antoinette survived him for an undetermined number of years. Their only son, Harcourt (1895-1945), was well educated, served in World War I, and thereafter enjoyed a successful political career. He died unmarried and thus ended the English branch of the Eno-Pinchot line.



AMOS RICHARDS ENO PINCHOT (1873-1944), was born in Paris, France, and named for his maternal grandfather. Amos' childhood travels and experiences, his preparatory education, and his youth through his graduation from Yale in 1897 were much like those of his brother, Gifford, before him. But Amos was inclined toward the law, which he studied at Columbia University and New York Law School. His studies were interrupted by his service in Puerto Rico during the Spanish-American War as a private in the 1st New York Volunteer Cavalry. His father had wanted him to take a commission as an officer, which could easily have been arranged, but he wanted to serve as a private. He later explained his

enlistment by stating that he "felt that Spain was exploiting Cuba." It was but the first of many crusades for him.

Following the war, Amos returned to his education and was admitted to the bar in New York in 1900. He was soon appointed a deputy assistant district attorney for New York County, but he left the position in 1901 after a year of service. The ordinary practice of law proved not to his liking, and for the rest of his life his involvement with cases concerned only the causes in which he was involved. The management of his and his relatives' estates became a major responsibility. He was very much the successor to his father in his role as public-spirited citizen of New York City, in his interest in the arts (his patronizing offices included service as a Trustee of the New York Philharmonic Society), and in the strength of his views on morality in government. His political associations matched those of his brother and Theodore Roosevelt, and his club memberships those of his father. In his early years he devoted a considerable amount of time to charitable causes, serving as a trustee of the University Settlement, the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, and the Orthopedic Hospital, and as a manager of the Manhattan State Hospital for the Insane.

Heeding the examples set (by his own account) by his father, his older brother, and Theodore Roosevelt, Amos was dedicated to reform and to the relief of the unfortunate. But he was soon to decide that the issues at stake were deeper than could be resolved by charitable palliatives. By 1910 he believed that his efforts had thus far treated the symptoms of social illness; now he sought the causes, and became one of the most zealous reformers of the 20th century.

The issue that brought him fully into political activity was the Ballinger-Pinchot controversy, the public dispute between his brother Gifford and the Secretary of the Interior. Of his role in his support, Gifford said of Amos in his memoirs that he was:

the man to whom I naturally turned first.... He could not, of course, appear as my formal representative. Nevertheless, his advice and his help were invaluable.... He was indispensable, and was especially useful in getting the facts to the public....

The controversy, which early grew beyond the sphere represented by the two putative principals, became a turning point for Amos, who prepared briefs, marshalled evidence and witnesses, and kept the press' attention on the issues. In true Pinchot fashion, Amos came to the conclusion that great

economic interests were bent on dominating the public lands, resources, and political institutions of the country to serve their own selfish ends. The controversy was to him "part of the great political, or rather ethical, contest between the interests," and useful as a means of educating the public to the threat posed by unregulated and irresponsible wielders of financial power. The controversy served also to establish for Amos a number of important and enduring friendships with leading progressive politicians, including Louis D. Brandeis and Senators Jonathan P. Dolliver, Albert Beveridge, A.B. Cummins, and M.E. Clapp. But most important among his new friends was Senator Robert LaFollette, whose liberal political philosophies and uncompromising principles were very much in accord with his own. They remained close friends until LaFollette's death.

After 1910 Amos Pinchot became important in the evolution of the progressive wing of the Republican Party, and eventually the Progressive Party. He was the centerpoint of what he preferred to call the party's "radical nucleus," but Theodore Roosevelt termed the "lunatic fringe." He and his cohorts crusaded for a complete program of social and economic reform, "the liberation of this country from special privilege and boss government," as Amos stated it. Their politics cut across party lines, was uncompromisingly reformist, and ran early into conflict with the more conservative Progressives led by Roosevelt and George Perkins. Their public battle in 1914 made Amos one of the best known names in America and at the same time helped to wreck the Progressive Party, a substantial portion of which felt betrayed by Perkins and Roosevelt. Amos remained a Progressive, and after World War I was an organizer of the Committee of 48, the purpose of which was to revive the progressive movement as a major political party. The collapse of that effort ended his involvement with partisan causes, but did nothing to diminish his zeal for reform.

Amos described himself as a "liberal reformer." He believed that the lives of the average man and woman were being dominated and kept in misery by "reckless and thoughtless commercialism." With most of the reformers of his time, in America and abroad, he believed that denial of fundamental economic and social justice would eventually lead to violent revolution. His "radicalism," then, was in his view conservative, for he wished to preserve the political institutions of the country from revolutionary destruction:

What I am trying, in a humble way, to help do, is to prevent violence, disorder, and misery by getting people to see the justice of the average man's demand for a better economic position in this country, and the utter futility of denying or ignoring this demand.

He campaigned for collective bargaining and the right to strike, for public ownership of strategic natural resources and of what he termed "natural monopolies" like public utilities, waterpower, and transportation systems. He wished to outlaw industrial monopolies and predatory practices, and end abuses like child labor and disregard of workers' health and safety.

Amos's active work in the cause of labor and industrial reform led to his membership on the National Defense Council, which was organized to defend workers arrested on questionable grounds for strikes or organizing activity, and his patronage of *The Masses*, a monthly magazine on radical issues which was eventually shut down under sedition regulations during World War I. Experiences like those led to two of Amos' principal lifelong crusades. One was civil liberties, which lay at the very core of his political philosophy. He became as prominent in defending pacifists during World War I as he had been in defending workers. His concern over the threats to civil liberties he witnessed during the war accounts in part for his role as a founder and member of the executive committee of the American Civil Liberties Union.

His interest in civil liberties was heightened, and to some extent grew out of, another of his passions—antimilitarism. Amos opposed American entry into the First World War, and received in return the opprobrium that was heaped on those of his persuasion during the jingoism that swept the country during the war. Although he was not a pacifist, and would have supported a defensive war, and was decidedly sympathetic to the Allies against Germany, Amos regarded imperialistic wars as the creatures of industrial tyrants who used them to further their control over peoples and governments. He believed that the working man's rights to a decent living and to a say in his government were among the first casualties of a war. Given his political principles, he could take no other course, and he was never known to shrink from a cause because it was unpopular.

Initially a supporter of Franklin D. Roosevelt, Amos grew increasingly concerned with the implications for individual freedom he perceived in the programs of the New Deal. He feared that government would come to replace special interests in dominating people's lives; what he desired was the

elimination of such domination altogether. By the mid-1930s he had become an outspoken critic of the New Deal, a position that separated him from most of his former Progressive allies, including (on these issues of political philosophy) his brother Gifford, who nonetheless joined him in supporting Roosevelt's opponents in 1936. Amos believed the government would drag the country into another world war. He was an early speaker on the antimilitarist issue in the late 1930s, and became one of the early, and most prominent, writers and speakers for the America First Committee. He served as president of the New York chapter of the Committee. This, like so many of his other crusades, came to grief when the United States entered the war.

The author of scores of publications on the subjects of his lifelong crusades, a collector of paintings and fine furniture, a patron of the arts, Amos died at his home in New York in 1944. Despite his staunch antimilitarism, Amos remained proud of his own wartime service. His headstone in the family plot in the Milford Cemetery is that to which he was entitled as a veteran, and cites his service in the War with Spain. Throughout his life, Grey Towers had remained a frequent retreat for Amos and his family.



CORNELIA BRYCE PINCHOT (1881-1960), who married Gifford in 1914, had perhaps a greater impact on the physical character of Grey Towers than any other Pinchot since James first had the main house built. While the house in Washington, D.C., must always have borne for Cornelia the memory of her late mother-in-law's presence, her extensive remodeling and new construction made Grey Towers truly her home.

Cornelia was an attractive woman with a forceful spirit promised in the red of her hair. Independently wealthy, the daughter of journalist and politician Lloyd Bryce, she grew to maturity in the heady atmosphere of Theodore Roosevelt's political circle. Her reformist sentiments, her familiarity with Roosevelt and other politicians, and her penchant for crusading drew her naturally into Progressive ranks in 1912, and on into an independent political career of her own. Her introduction to Gifford was unavoidable during the Bull

Moose campaign, and their political congeniality grew into something more. But although many of their political philosophies were similar, they were sufficiently mature at marriage (Gifford was 49, Cornelia 33) and experienced enough in the world to have established separate personal and political identities. Cornelia was and remained an independent figure of some import in American politics, quite apart from her marriage to Gifford.

Her political interests began, understandably enough, with the movement for woman's suffrage, in which she was very active. Many of her causes were those of women collectively, and she was outspoken in the teens and 1920s on birth control, child labor, the rights of women and equality of opportunity and pay in the workplace, equal status for women in virtually all areas of the law, educational reform, and so on. She pressed her fellow women to take an active part in the political and workaday world largely dominated by men, and was truly prophetic in asserting that decreasing demands of keeping house and raising children would eventually free American women to engage in work and public activities outside the home. She tried to set an example for other women in her speeches and radio addresses by relating her experiments in education (she opened a school at Grey Towers to practice "enlightened" education), her intellectual and political table talk with Gifford, her views on issues (like utility regulation) not usually thought to concern women, and her willingness to engage in "unconventional" behavior. She was a member of the Pike County School Board, a staunch proponent of prohibition, an avid rose gardener, and one of the first prominent women to ride in an airplane.

In 1928 she made her first bid for election to Congress, but lost to the popular incumbent. Over the next decade she tried twice more for a congressional nomination and once for the governorship, all without success, and campaigned for Gifford in his bids for the Senate and the Statehouse. But she became increasingly an active political figure on her own, promoting trade unionism and labor law reform, and her growing militance on some issues brought her to public positions different from those held by Gifford. Although the Progressive and prohibitionist traditions had made her choose the Republican Party early in her career, she became an advocate of Franklin D. Roosevelt and the New Deal while Gifford supported the Republicans or remained silent.

Cornelia's interest in public affairs did not cease with her husband's death. Continuing to live in both Milford and Wash-

ington, she was drawn into diplomatic activities (her father had been minister to the Netherlands). A delegate to the United Nations Scientific Conference on Conservation and Utilization of Resources in 1949, she also made goodwill visits to several countries of the Mediterranean. She died in Washington in 1960.

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