## Emilio Q. Daddario, President-Elect

**Roger Revelle** 

What kind of a president of the AAAS will Mim Daddario be? The answer is written large in the reports of the subcommittee on science, research, and development of the Committee on Science and Astronautics of the U.S. House of Representatives. Daddario was chairman of this subcommittee for 8 years; during this period he gave many scientists and engineers, almost for the first time, a chance to talk in a public political forum about their research and teaching, what they thought it meant for the larger society, their hopes and aspirations, and their concerns. From their testimony, he distilled far-reaching insights into the relationships between science, government, and politics. As one who participated in some of these hearings. I can testify that he was much more than a sympathetic listener. He always asked penetrating, sometimes embarrassing, questions, but in the gentlest possible manner; he understood very well what was being said, even on the most esoteric subjects; and he taught us many lessons about science and public policy.

Emilio Quincy Daddario (the Quincy comes from the Massachusetts town of the same name, where many generations of the Adams family grew up and prospered—the family legend is that it was selected by his Italian immigrant father to demonstrate what a good Yankee he had become) was born in Newton Centre, Massachusetts, on 24 September 1918. He attended the Tilton Academy in New Hampshire and entered Wesleyan University in Middletown, Connecticut, in 1935.

A famous athlete at Wesleyan, from which he graduated in 1939, Daddario later paid his way through the University of Connecticut Law School by playing professional football with two long-defunct teams, the Providence Steamrollers and the Hartford Blues. On the side, he coached the Wethersfield State Prison football team and somehow found the time to court and marry Berenice Carbo of Middletown, Connecticut, in October 1940. He received the LL.B. degree in June 1942, and immediately afterwards set up a law practice in Middletown. His fledgling law practice was interrupted a few months later, when he enlisted in the United States Army, in February 1943, and was assigned to the Office of Strategic Services (OSS) in the Mediterranean Theatre. After several months of intensive training, he was commissioned and sent behind the lines to ioin the Italian partisans. During the last 5 days of the Italian campaign, he waged a brief but highly successful war of his own. In Cloak and Dagger: The Secret Story of OSS (Random House, New York, 1946) Corey Ford and Alistair MacBain describe his exploit. "[T]his one man task-force, Captain Emilio Q. Daddario of Boston, Mass., maneuvered single-handed the surrender of the Nazi S.S. Headquarters . . . arranged with the



German General in command at Como to confine his troops to the barracks . . . [and] made a prisoner of Marshal Graziani, Chief of the Italian Facist Army. ... Captain Daddario had orders from Allied Headquarters to bring Graziani back alive. Somehow he managed to spirit his prized prisoner out of Milan. Several times the OSS party was under fire from excited Italian partisans; the car which was assigned to the Marshal was dynamited and an OSS lieutenant badly wounded, but Graziani was delivered intact." Captain Daddario was awarded the U.S. Legion of Merit and the Italian Medaglio d'Argento.

On his return from the war, Daddario resumed his law practice and, in 1946, was elected mayor of Middletown. At age 28, he was the youngest mayor in Connecticut history. His law practice was again interrupted when he was recalled to active duty as an Army major during the Korean War. In 1958 he was elected to the U.S. House of Representatives from the First District of Connecticut, where he served six terms, until December 1970. He announced his resignation from Congress when he was nominated as the Democratic candidate for governor of Connecticut. In the 1964 congressional campaign, he had received 70 percent of the votes cast in his district, and in 1968-not a good year for Democrats-nearly 63 percent, but he lost the election for governor.

As a freshmen congressman, Daddario sought and won membership on the House Committee on Science and Astronautics. These were the early days of the space age, and the committee spent most of its time on large, expensive subjects, like the creation and funding of NASA. The "Science" in its title tended to be neglected in favor of the more glamorous realm of outer space. To remedy this deficiency, Daddario persuaded George Miller, then chairman of the main committee, to create a new subcommittee on science, research, and development, and he became its first chairman.

The new subcommittee was very active. It held numerous hearings and introduced important legislation; but its principal contributions were the ideas it developed on national policies for science and the role of science and technology in setting the boundaries for many other aspects of public policy. One of its first bills to become law effected a reorganization of the National Science Foundation (NSF) and enlarged the scope of NSF's activities. For the first time, the director of the Foundation was authorized, at his discretion, to support applied research in cases of demon-

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strated national need, and he was enjoined to give support to the social and political sciences, as well as the "natural" ones. The authority and responsibility of the National Science Board were both broadened and limited. The Board was no longer required to approve minor projects, but only new programs and individual projects costing more than \$500,000 a year. However, it did have the responsibility of submitting an annual report on the status of service. The new legislation directed the Foundation to analyze and interpret data on scientific and technical resources, including both physical resources, such as laboratories and scientific equipment, and the human resources of scientific and technical manpower, and to make recommendations concerning their deployment and adequacy. Previously it had been limited to collecting the data. Perhaps the most important, the Committee on Science and Astronautics was given responsibility for authorizing NSF's budget. Before 1966, the Foundation defended its budget only before the appropriations committees of the House and Senate, which held their meetings in secret. Now the NSF's director and his staff were able to present their budget and argue for it publicly. Under the beneficent handling of Daddario's subcommittee, the NSF annual budget grew to nearly \$500 million by 1970.

I was personally especially appreciative of what seemed to be a relatively minor action. In the mid-1960's, the American effort in the International Biological Program (IBP) was floundering badly. The IBP was enthusiastically supported by most ecologists and other field biologists, and vigorously opposed by many molecular biologists and other laboratory researchers, who, for good reasons, constituted the biological establishment. As a result, the NSF and other federal granting agencies were very chary about providing funds. I was chairman of the committee of the National Academy of Sciences (NAS) which was responsible for the IBP, and I appealed to my friend Mim to obtain congressional support for the Program. He immediately held a series of hearings, in which it became clear that he saw a much larger issue than our NAS committee had thought of, namely the problems of environmental deterioration caused by human actions. At that time, these problems had hardly been recognized elsewhere in Washington. Daddario believed the IBP might make at least a start in attacking the problems scientifically. He introduced a resolution in the House urging the Executive Branch to support the IBP and authorizing a generous appropriation to the National Science Foundation for this purpose. The White House opposed the resolution, but after several vicissitudes, the President signed a very similar joint Senate-House resolution, and it became law in October 1970.

Daddario followed through on his environmental concerns by becoming one of the inventors of the concept of technology assessment. As always, he held a series of hearings which brought the subject to public prominence, clarified many of the issues, and provided a good public record as a basis for action. He enlisted the cooperation of the NAS Committee on Science and Public Policy, under the chairmanship of Harvey Brooks, and this committee issued an influential report, Technology: Processes of Assessment and Choice. In 1970, he and his colleague Charles Mosher (R-Ohio) introduced a bill establishing a congressional Office of Technology Assessment, but the two houses of Congress took no action until long after Daddario had left the House of Representatives. The Technology Assessment Act of 1972, identical to the Daddario-Mosher bill, finally became law under John Davis's chairmanship of the subcommittee on science, research, and development. Daddario was appointed the first director of the new Office of Technology Assessment in 1973.

One of Daddario's major interests in the House of Representatives was the establishment by Congress of a national policy for science and technology. His subcommittee initiated discussions on the subject in 1970 and issued a report, "Toward a Science Policy for the United States," which, among other things, recommended "continuity, stability, and long-term support in pursuit of scientific goals." Many important things were said in the subcommittee's hearings about the need for a national science policy. One of the best observations was made by Myron Tribus, who was then Assistant Secretary of Commerce for Science and Technology: "Science policy is not the same as more money in support of science. Rather today we need a national science policy as a tool to enable us to make better use of limited funds. ... The process of funding must be fought over and over with each budget cycle. What is important is to have a science policy which makes that struggle more rational." Daddario clearly agreed with this statement. His report is the major foundation stone for the Teague-Mosher bill, H.R. 10230 (S. 32 in the Senate), the National Science and Technology Policy and Organization Act of 1976, which has now passed both houses of Congress.

When Daddario announced his retirement from Congress in the summer of 1970, Science (25 Sept. 1970) published a memorial to his long service: "Daddario goes into the record books as a dispassionate, disinterested friend, who arrived in the subcommittee chairmanship at a time when the blank-check era for science was ending and Congress was beginning to ask embarrassing questions." "It can be reasonably argued that, in befriending the scientific community, Daddario was engaging in a rare act of political altruism and public service, for it is hard to see what he himself got out of it politically, in Congress or among his constituents." Unlike some other champions of science on the Hill, Daddario did not have a "quasi-mystical, uncritical faith in research" but characteristically attempted instead to make a "cool assessment of its place in national life.'

For the last 3 years, Daddario has been a member of the Board of Directors of the AAAS and of the Board's executive committee. In my experience, he has been an invaluable member, faithful in attendence despite his many other responsibilities, approaching every problem patiently, with good humor and earthy common sense, full of good ideas about what the AAAS should and can do for its members and for the nation. He always places the interests of the Association above his own, and above them both, the interests of the United States and the welfare of human beings everywhere.