PITTSBURGH CORNING CORPORATION

INTER-OFFICE CORRESPONDENCE

To Dr. Lee B. Grant - Medical Director
PPG Industries - 14 N.

From W. J. Farkos

Subject:

Date August 8, 1972

Dear Dr. Grant:

As you may recall, TODAY'S HEALTH MAGAZINE, a publication of the American Medical Association, had contacted us and indicated an article was going to appear in one of their issues on OSHA and that Pittsburgh Corning would be a part of the article.

I have enclosed a copy of the article that appeared in a recent issue of that magazine for your information.

Bill Farkos

W. J. Farkos

WJF:bm

Enclosure

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There is new legislative machinery available to protect workers from dangerous chemicals and other hazardous job conditions. But there are forces jamming the gears and, meanwhile, the American wage earner is caught in the middle.

WHAT'S BEHIND THE FAILURE TO PROTECT THE HEALTH OF AMERICA'S WORKERS

By Robert Sherrill

Will everyone please try to keep up the cheerleading for the Occupational Safety and Health Act of 1970. After all . . .

It was, in April of 1971 when it became effective, hailed as the first law passed for the benefit of working people since the Wagner Act of the New Deal era. And . . .

It was, said a union man at the time, "the toughest piece of environmental action ever passed in this country." Only today . . .

It is but small comfort . . . preciously small comfort to the workers of America who need protection from an enormous variety of chemical emissions and job conditions that can endanger their health.

Many of those who held such high hopes for the new legislation are now making gloomy pronouncements about the law ever achieving its purposes. Not enough money available, not enough inspectors, not enough standards established, they say. All of which, it is said, is just enough softness to allow some laxity in industry, some inertia in Congress, and some bureaucratic confusion in government. The victims, of course, are the 60 million wage earners covered by the Act, who seem little better safeguarded than before the law passed.

Examine, for example, the money and manpower situation. Can you doubt that the Department of Labor's Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA) is underfinanced when the Department of Labor spent 41 cents per worker to enforce safety and health standards in fiscal 1972—while the Bureau of Mines averaged $309 per person? And can you question the shortage of manpower after you learn that only 9,300 of nearly four million American workplaces were inspected during the first six months of the new law? The figures, reported by Senator Harrison Williams (D., N.J.), co-sponsor of the bill, indicate that only 20% of the places inspected were violation-free. And as Sen. Williams adds, one OSHA official recently told him, "Some violations take years to get corrected."

Getting quick action from any source appears difficult. Assistant Labor Secretary George C. Guenther doesn't seem to be able to act fast enough. And neither do some members of Congress. The congressional attitude toward the controversial subject is, especially in this election year, rather sour. There are no bills before Congress to improve the Act, but there are an estimated 80 bills in the hopper to weaken it. As for organized labor's hierarchy, the AFL-CIO is full of criticism regarding the Act's administration, but Ralph Nader counseled *Today's Health*, "Never mind the rhetoric. The measure of organized labor's interest is that not one union has a physician, or engineer, or scientist, or lawyer working full time in Washington on the problem of safety and health."

The key to successful enforcement of OSHA's program is an adequate number of aggressive compliance officers (safety inspectors) and industrial hygienists. The latter are especially important because 60 percent of workers' complaints are about health hazards. It is not the rickety banister but the deadly vapor that worries the working man most.

Yet, at the end of fiscal 1972, OSHA had only "about" 400 compliance officers and "about" 50 hygienists in the field (OSHA officials admitted they didn't know for sure how many they had) to inspect the more than four million business and industrial establishments in America.

Efforts to increase the inspector force were blocked by Assistant Secretary Guenther. Congress authorized an additional $5 million for 200 new inspectors, but he refused to spend it on lower-grade technicians. Asked about this, he blamed the White House. He said President Nixon's "employment ceiling" had tied his hands. Not that it really mattered, said Guenther, for it was a "fiscal impossibility" to have enough inspectors.

Testifying before Congress at the time the Act was being written, federal officials acknowledged that they would need one industrial hygienist for every 35,000 workers if they were to inspect industry properly. The present number of hygienists means there is one for every 1.2 million workers.

Moreover, there has been great unevenness in the effectiveness of OSHA's inspections. Some unions report prompt, efficient action. On the other hand, compliance officers who inspected the Mobil Oil Corporation plant in Paulsboro, New Jersey, this year disregarded what workers said about propane leakage. Even though the company had roped off the dangerous area to prevent the leaking gas from being ignited by a spark, there had been two fires. Then, a few months later, there was an explosion

that resulted in one man's death.

Mobil Oil Corporation says the fatality did not involve propane usage or storage but "the ignition of hydrocarbon liquids which had spilled as a result of an operating error." It also defended OSHA compliance officials, characterizing the inspection of the Paulsboro refinery, conducted over a two-month period, as "one of the most searching and thorough conducted to date by OSHA in the petroleum industry and perhaps all industry."

Recently there was an explosion at the Kenrich Petrochemical plant in New Jersey; one man was killed and one severely burned. The union wired Alfred Barden, OSHA's regional administrator, asking for a plant inspection. Barden responded that he saw no reason for an inspection; later, after considerable urging he did send a man to look things over.

OSHA hasn't been idle. To the contrary, during the first nine months of fiscal 1972, inspectors toured 20,608 plants and found 77 percent of them not in compliance with job safety and health standards.

However, Guenther issued a press release in which, his critics note, he used these results backwards. Ignoring the 77 percent who were violators, he cited instead the 23 percent who were in compliance. "We find this a most heartening indication of how well our efforts toward voluntary compliance are working," he said. Indeed, the fact that even one out of four employers obeyed the law was, he said, "a respectable indication" that management was well-intentioned.

When critics upbraided him for the trifling fines levied against some of the worst violators, Guenther said: "Initial penalties are low. We're not in the fund-raising business."

In fact, the new job safety legislation does provide for stiff penalties of up to $10,000 for each violation plus, in some cases, imprisonment.

Senator Williams points out, however, that in reality these stringent maximum penalties "are a far cry from the actual fines that have been imposed against companies found to be in violation." He reports that a plant in Hazelton, Pa., which was violating acceptable maximum levels for deadly beryllium dust, was fined a total of $328 for 28 "non-serious" violations. "Included," he says, "was a $6 fine for permitting employees to eat and store food in an area where toxic materials were present."

The senator also notes that noise level readings in four separate areas of up to 126 decibels, substantially in excess of the permissable level of 90 decibels, led to a fine of only $75. "After the first 5,000 inspections conducted under the law, the average penalty has been just $18 for more than 10,000 violations that were found," he explained.

Nobody knows exactly how many hazardous chemicals are being used in industry, but everyone agrees there are at least 15,000. And according to the American Industrial Hygiene Association, a new toxic agent is introduced into the workplace every 20 minutes. OSHA has standards covering between 400 and 500 of these chemicals (OSHA says 500, some labor officials say 400). The 400-500 exposure standards now in force, incidentally, were adopted from criteria established over the past half century by the American National Standards Institute and the American Conference of Government Industrial Hygienists (ACGIH).

It's lucky OSHA had these to fall back on, outdated though some of

Senator Harrison Williams: "We are centuries away from catching up with one of the major problems the law was intended to correct."

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them are (the "safe" level for carbon monoxide in a working establishment, for example, is exactly the level at which the Environmental Protection Agency can declare an emergency for an entire community.) Nobody in government seems to be able to come up quickly with the professional talent to set standards for the other 14,500 or more hazardous substances.

The agency doing the research from which OSHA set health standards is the National Institute of Safety and Health. Everyone acknowledged that NIOSH is doing a courageous, conscientious job, even though it is starved for money.

NIOSH is now part of the Department of Health, Education and Welfare, but the White House talks about transferring the agency into the Department of Commerce. Until the White House makes up its mind, it doesn't seem likely that HEW is going to spend much on its stepchild.

The results are predictable. One of NIOSH's important duties is to make health hazard evaluations upon request. If a worker in Chicago is afraid that the chemicals he is working with may be destroying his hair, he can request an evaluation from NIOSH and be sure of getting a solid, objective one. The only trouble is, as of last June NIOSH had only 10 people in the whole country who could respond to those requests. Another problem is that most workers don't know that such evaluations are available.

Edward Baier, deputy director of NIOSH, says his agency's average pay is low. "It's almost impossible to hire an engineer, a toxicologist, a physician, an epidemiologist or an analytical chemist who knows what he's doing. And then, on top of that, you get a guy all lined up and the White House puts a freeze on hiring."

Whatever the reason, NIOSH's record for turning out new standards is dismal. "With the personnel and lab resources we have," says Baier, "we're getting five standards out this fiscal year. We hope to have 15 next fiscal year, and maybe we can crank out between 20 and 30 each fiscal year thereafter."

At this rate, says Senator Williams, "we are centuries away from catching up with one of the major problems the law was intended to correct."

For some reason, when the Labor Department adopted the 400-500 standards as the core for OSHA's enforcement program, it left beta-naphthylamine off the list. Sheldon Samuels, director of Health, Safety and Environmental Affairs for the Industrial Union Department of the AFL-CIO, says he has been demanding that OSHA set a standard for beta-naphthylamine since June 18, 1971. "And there is still no standard for beta," he says.

Beta-naphthylamine is used in the synthesis of dyes for synthetic fibers in the textile industry. It is so toxic the ACGIH ruled the only safe level of exposure was zero. The chemical, which causes cancer of the bladder, was outlawed long ago in New Jersey and in Pennsylvania.

Southern states were not so squeamish. The chemical has been manufactured by Synalloy Corporation in Georgia and in South Carolina since the early 1950s. When the Occupational Safety and Health Act was implemented in the summer of 1971, OSHA could have immediately forced Synalloy Corporation to stop manufacturing beta-naphthylamine, but it did nothing. It didn't even include the chemical on its toxic list.

NIOSH, which is admirably independent of OSHA, refused to go along with beta, and on January 19 it announced that it was beginning an investigation. With the threat of publicity hanging over its operation, Synalloy said it no longer would process the chemical. Throughout this period, OSHA was silent.

Perhaps the best way to measure the failures of OSHA is to go into the files and observe its responses to problems with such industrial hazards as asbestos, mercury vapors and lead.

According to a study recently published by the Industrial Union Department (IUD) of AFL-CIO, five million American workers must at some time in their duties come in contact with that newly recognized killer, asbestos. None are more aware of the risk to life and health than workers employed by Johns-Manville, New Jersey, the largest asbestos processing plant in the world.

For years the men and women in the plant have felt that something foul and harmful was in the air. They suspected the product they worked with, but according to IUD's Sheldon Samuels, the company refused to let them look at the records of the dust level in the plant.

Two years ago, to gain access to the records and for other environmental reasons, they went on strike. This in itself indicates the feeling of crisis. Union officials say that ordinarily it is impossible to drum up a strike for health reasons.

(A spokesman for Johns-Manville, M. Robert Chalom, manager of financial/stockholder relations, denies that the strike was called because of employee-health problems and maintains it occurred before asbestos became a health issue at the plant. "The company has a long-established policy of making employee medical records available to personal physicians," he says, noting that "our environmental control has been singled out as best in the industry.")

The workers' suspicions received strong support when Dr. Irving J. Selikoff, a professor at Mt. Sinai Hospital School of Medicine in New York and head of the school's Environmental Medicine Department, recently completed a study of the oldest workers at Johns-Manville and found that they died of lung cancer with a frequency eight times higher than the national average and of stomach cancer at a rate four times higher.

Some union officials estimate that at Johns-Manville today there are 50 cases of mesothelioma—the cancer peculiar to asbestos workers—and perhaps as many as 500 cases of lung cancer. AFL-CIO's national headquarters has called it "the largest recorded epidemic of occupational cancer."

(Taking issue with these figures, Chalom maintains that the study showed lung cancer among Johns-Manville employees to be four times higher than the national average [not eight times, as reported] and that the incidence of stomach cancer at the plant was actually shown to be nearly three times higher than the national average—and not four times, as reported. "It is just absurd to say there are 500 cases of lung cancer," he says. "That would be one case for every nine employees.")

Despite the existence of overwhelming evidence pointing to the cancer-producing qualities of as-

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for include painful, hot and swollen joints, a rash, profuse sweating, rapid heart beat and a loss of appetite. But often the symptoms are less obvious: fatigue, restlessness and irritability.

y times it follows other infections such as that of the middle ear, scarlet fever or a severe strep throat. Immediate medical attention at the first suspected sign is the best preventive. Blood tests and throat cultures help in diagnosis. Once the disease is identified, treatment must begin at once and continue on a long-range basis. Until a definitive cure is found, antibiotics, bed rest and attentive medical care can help reduce the possibility of rheumatic heart disease.

Unlike adults, children's chest pains are rarely of cardiac origin. They are more likely to result from neuritis, a respiratory ailment or from the strains and sprains that often accompany hard play. Sudden death from heart attacks in the young can usually be traced to severe unrecognized or untreated congenital problems involving the heart valves (pulmonic and aortic stenosis). But the telltale murmur that identifies these conditions is present in early childhood and is almost always picked up at that time. In the rare situations when it is missed or disregarded, the heart may be pushed beyond its capacity and suddenly give out.

The one possible link between childhood and adult heart disease may be premature atherosclerosis. Fatty streaks begin to accumulate along arterial walls in infancy, and it is suspected that there is a slow, progressive build-up in the arteries that produces no symptoms in children, but leads to premature heart attacks in young adults.

Most cardiologists believe that prevention must begin in childhood, especially among "high-risk" children. These are youngsters whose parents or other close relatives have experienced early coronary disease, suffer from high blood pressure or have high levels of cholesterol and trigiycerides (fatty substances) in their blood. They recommend that such children be put on low-fat and polyunsaturated-fat diets. This means low-fat milk, only occasional eggs, lean meat, more fish poultry, polyunsaturated margarine instead of butter, lots of fresh fruit and green vegetables, and few hot dogs, chocolate bars and TV snacks.

Doctors disagree on whether *all* youngsters should be switched to such a diet, but all agree that no child should be allowed to become overweight. The National Heart and Lung Institute has commented that "habits of activity and eating acquired in childhood set the pattern for later life." If a child is encouraged to count calories when young, it will probably become part of his life-style as an adult. If, in addition, a parent encourages regular exercise and discourages smoking, particularly by his own example, that parent has done all that can be done in the light of present knowledge to reduce the risk of an early heart attack.

Many causes of heart disease in childhood still remain a mystery. Aside from seeing to it that every girl has rubella *before* pregnancy, and every mother-to-be avoids unnecessary drugs and excessive x-ray radiation *during* pregnancy, there is little one can do in the way of prevention. But there are danger signals that parents can alert themselves to. These include: family history of heart disease, difficult pregnancy, breathing problems in the newborn baby, rheumatic fever, recurrent respiratory infections, rapid heartbeat while resting, shortness of breath in normal play, light-headedness, abnormal growth and development and extreme overweight.

Continued research offers the best hope for future prevention and treatment, and new information is being produced almost daily. In New York City, for example, researchers at Mt. Sinai Medical Center are investigating a simple technique using ultra-sonic waves to detect minute changes in the arterial walls, and New York Hospital-Cornell Medical Center is studying families with histories of congenital heart disease to identify children who are genetically disposed to it.

The cardiac child may or may not have to limit his activities. It depends on his particular condition, its severity and how active he tends to be. Some youngsters play too hard, especially in competition. Others have an easier style that doesn't make as great a demand on their damaged hearts. So a great deal depends on how—and how long—they play the game.

High altitudes and extreme temperatures also impose extra demands on the heart, so these factors too must be considered. But no parent should make a decision about a child's activities without medical consultation.

Barbara and Frank Rene did just that after Brian had recuperated at home from his open-heart surgery. Within a few short weeks he was permitted to do almost everything. Now he can do everything—run, jump, even ride his bicycle. And his cheeks are always filled with color.

Dr. Ellison, who will be leaving Boston Children's Hospital to take charge of Pediatric Cardiology at Georgetown University Hospital at about the time Brian starts school, says of Brian, "His heart sounds are completely normal. He has only a very soft murmur which should not bother him in any way. If he follows the course of other youngsters with similar cardiac problems, we don't expect that he'll have any limitations on his activities."

That's just fine with Brian, who is happy about everything except the fact that he'll be starting first grade. As for his brother, Frankie Jr., when Brian became well again, big brother began to do much better in school. But that's not how Brian sees it.

"I guess he's just getting smarter," he says.

Workers' health

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bestos, OSHA took more than a year before setting an emergency exposure level—a level that management said was acceptable but that labor said was 2½ times too high, and therefore unsafe.

Both NIOSH and an advisory committee of scientists appointed by the Labor Department recently recommended that workers should not be allowed to breathe more than a maximum of five fibers per cubic centimeter and that this should be cut to two fibers per cubic centimeter by 1974. Instead, even while acknowledging that "lives of employees are at stake," OSHA ruled in June of this year that industry would not have to meet the lowered standard until 1976.

In a prepared statement, Johns-Manville responded: "The asbestos dust levels which gave rise to the serious and fatal disease described in the Mount Sinai study were those of years

past, when conditions were much worse than they are now.

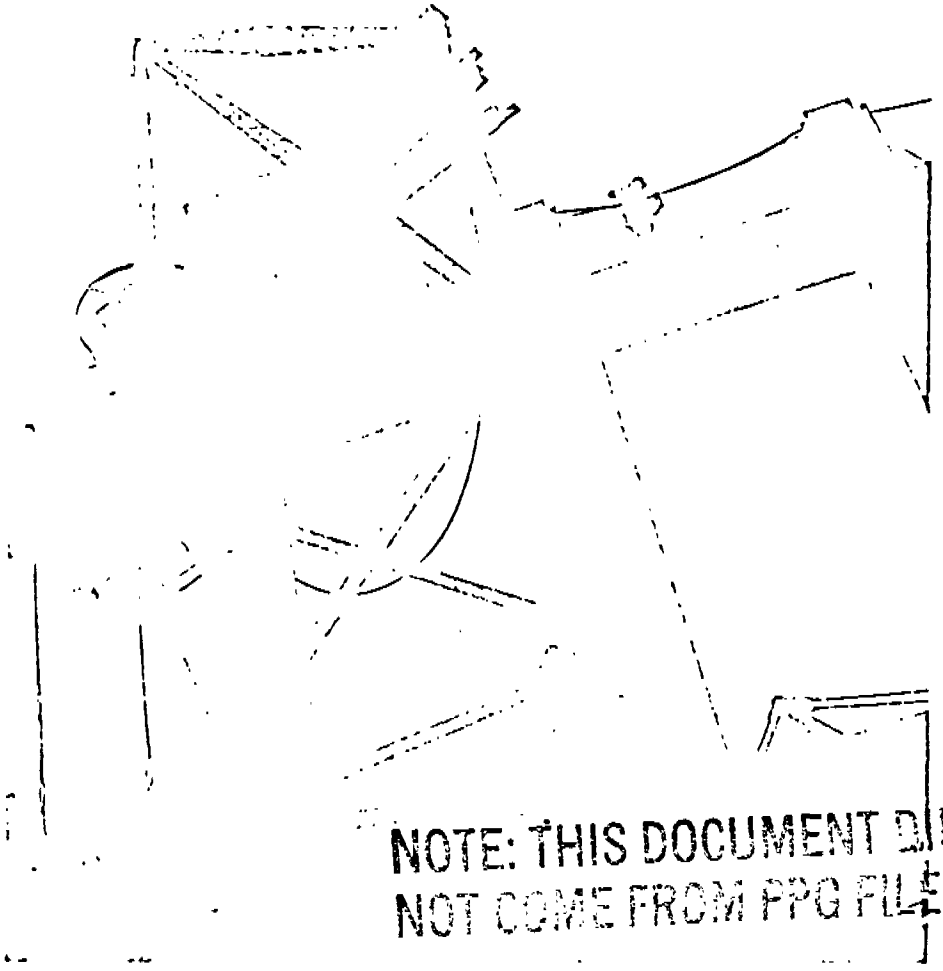
"They in no way reflect the modern scientific dust control techniques we have in operation at the Manville plant today . . .

"Whenever we learned of health hazards from authoritative people, we engineered and installed dust control equipment as rapidly as it was technically and economically feasible . . .

"And we are getting results. A dust survey of the Manville plant was completed last month by industrial hygienists of the Occupational Safety and Health Administration of the Department of Labor. Of the 250 samples taken in the survey, only five samples were said to be above the five-fiber standard. These have since been corrected."

Nonetheless, critics continue to lament that testing and enforcement may mean little when measured against the fact that workers must tolerate a dangerous standard four more years. Dr. Irving Selikoff says that permitting the five-fiber standard until 1976 means "letting workers inhale 20 or 30 million fibers a day. I don't call it the five fiber standard. I call it the 20 million-fiber standard." He adds that, because of the shortage of inspectors, even this regulation may not be enforced. The doctor said a survey of 9,400 asbestos workers showed that only one dust count was made for each 20,000 man days worked during 1970-71.

Joseph Mandrone, president of Local 800, United Papermakers and Paperworkers, AFL-CIO, at Manville says: "The job can be done. Johns-Manville here has already done a tremendous job. Eighty-five percent of its plant or better is already under the two-fiber count. But its competitors, I know, haven't done this. With the Labor Department ruling, they needn't hurry."



Workers in many hazardous occupations daily face added risks that could be avoided by OSHA

For 18 years the Pittsburgh Corning plant in Tyler, Texas, had been processing asbestos. Working conditions were so foul that the personnel turnover was unusually high; although at peak employment the company hired only 62 men, over the years 1,500 men had worked there and, as public health inspectors had reported years ago, they had been getting asbestos dust in their lungs. The danger was also spread to the community, for Pittsburgh Corning dumped asbestos waste in nearby fields (three feet deep in places) and some children played in the dust.

As far back as 1963, Pittsburgh Corning had been notified that it was endangering lives. The warnings resulted in few improvements. Tyler is a cheap-labor section of east Texas; if the workers didn't like to eat asbestos dust with their lunch, if they didn't want to breathe asbestos dust all day, and if they thought the company was too stingy with its medical facilities—which, according to a federal inspector's report, consisted of two first-aid cabinets, one with a broken glass door—then of course they were free to look elsewhere for work.

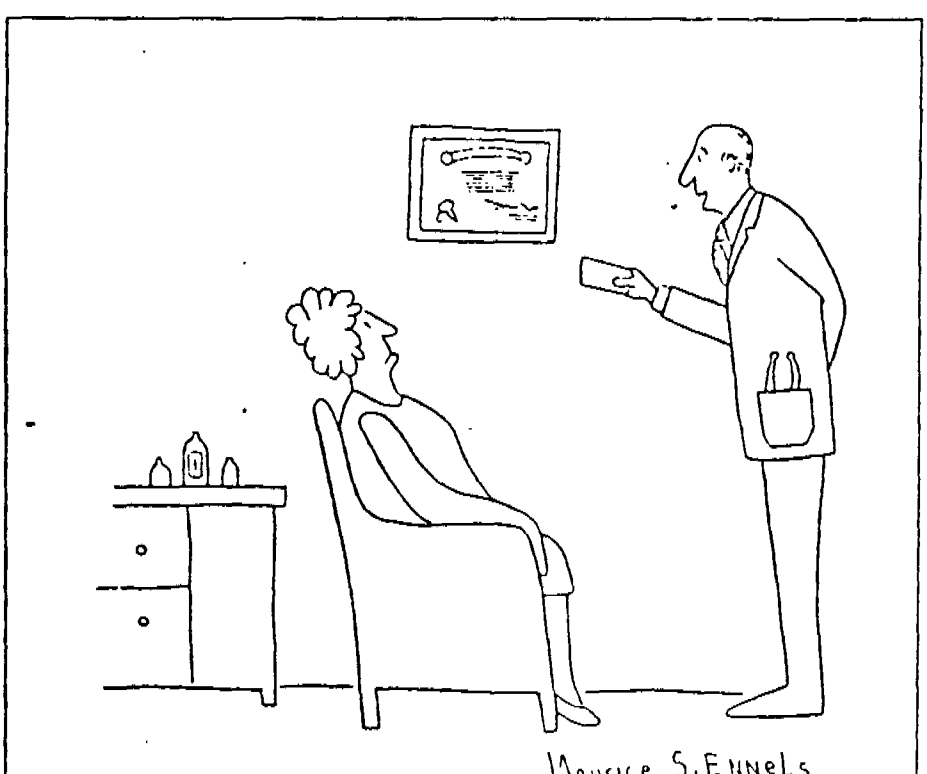
Actually, the warnings given by inspectors prior to 1971 were given secretly. The Labor Department's old Bureau of Occupational Safety and Health (BOSH) had done health studies at Tyler and other asbestos plants. But the government refused to tell the employees involved what they had found—that the workers were being subjected to a deadly level of asbestos dust.

Then came the Act of 1970: BOSH was replaced by NIOSH, and with the new initials came a new crop of bureaucrats. They looked through the files of their predecessors and were outraged.

Before long they began passing information to outsiders, especially to the Oil, Chemical, and Atomic Workers Union, which had jurisdiction at the Pittsburgh Corning plant.

Steve Wodka, health and safety director for the union, says, "We're pretty sure that half or more of the workers at Tyler will die because of the levels of asbestos they were exposed to."

NIOSH found that of 138 air samples taken in the plant, 117 exceeded the maximum "safe" limits. Seven of 18 workers with more than a decade of



You may eat anything you like, here's a list of what you're going to like

employment at the plant showed clear signs of asbestosis (a non-malignant lung disease brought on after inhalation of excessive concentrations of asbestos dust over many years).

To punish Pittsburgh Corning for polluting its workers and the community for 10 years, OSHA at first levied a fine of only $210, but the union complained so vigorously that OSHA was forced to take another look. A new inspection in January, 1972, resulted in more citations and a fine of $6,990.

Two weeks later, claiming hardship on the basis of the fine, Pittsburgh Corning closed down its Tyler operation. Questioned about this, an executive noted that the company has ceased asbestos production because, he said, despite "efforts and investments to reduce the dust levels . . . it became increasingly impossible to meet the increasingly rigid dust level standards established by the federal government."

The first citation issued under the Occupational Health and Safety Act of 1970 was against one of Allied Chemical's plants in Moundsville, West Virginia, for excessive mercury vapors. For six years conditions at this plant had been the cause of bitter complaints from the Oil, Chemical and Atomic Workers Union. Now it was protesting again. If this union is more militant than most, it may be because, as Wodka points out: "Our members don't get black lung like the miners or brown lung like the textile workers. Our members get rainbow lung, they are exposed to so many toxic chemicals."

The union filed an "imminent danger" complaint with the Labor Department on April 28, 1971, and, adds Wodka angrily, "It took them two weeks to get into the goddamn plant."

The federal inspectors took urine samples from 12 workers and found that seven were above the "threshold limits value"—the safety limit—of 250 micrograms of mercury per liter. Three of the samples were above 800 micrograms.

According to the citation, they found "visible pools and droplets of mercury" throughout the working area, creating such hazards as are "likely to cause death or serious physical harm to employees." The citation noted that Allied Chemical had been

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previously told of the hazards by federal inspectors. For all this the company was gently slapped with a $1,000 [illegible] and ordered to clean up by November. Workers report that conditions are better. But, according to the union, as of June 1 federal inspectors had not returned to the plant to see if their cleanup order was obeyed.

When asked to respond, Allied Chemical chose not to comment on the federal inspectors' charge of mercury spillage in working areas. However, Warren Ferguson, director of occupational health and safety, insists there were inspections subsequent to the citation and that when employees were "reevaluated for their health status during the months of February and March 1972 by the Public Health Service . . . there was no evidence that anybody's health was being impaired."

Ferguson also notes that the standard of 250 micrograms of mercury per liter is "Allied Chemical's voluntarily imposed control point for removing workers from exposure," which "is four times more stringent than the Massachusetts standard that is unofficially followed by the federal people."

On another front, the Public Health Service financed a community survey of how much lead the people of Omaha, Nebraska, were carrying in their bodies. Not surprisingly, the survey pinpointed those men who worked at the American Smelting and Refining Company (ASARCO)—where lead plays a key commercial role.

With that sampling in hand, the United Steelworkers of America, which has union jurisdiction at ASARCO, asked the Occupational Safety and Health Administration to send safety inspectors and hygienists to do a study.

They strapped portable air sampling devices on seven employees working in the most suspect plant area. Five of the seven samples showed that the lead vapors were above the "threshold limit value" of .2 milligrams of lead per cubic meter of air, based on a weighted eight-hour day. Three samples were dramatically in excess of the safe limits. One was 2.70 milligrams, another 2.85 and another .75.

Although ASARCO had long been aware of the dangers from lead poisoning, the company had met the hazard in primitive fashion. It periodically tested its workers and when their systems were found to be overloaded with lead, they were simply shifted to a "safer" section of the plant—until their lead levels dropped.

OSHA's compliance officers fined American Smelting $600. But to avoid potential fines of $1,000 a day, the company was told to build a much better ventilation system. It claims this would cost $20 million. ASARCO has appealed OSHA's $600 fine to the Review Commission. Until the Commission hands down its decision, the workers at ASARCO will have legally progressed exactly one step beyond the point they were more than a year ago.

If the company loses at the Review Commission level and wishes to take its case to court, it can do so. This would probably mean that everything will be up in the air—including the lead vapors—for a couple more years.

For its part, American Smelting says it is spending $410,000 on improvements to the ventilation system which, when completed by the end of this year, will bring the company "into compliance with the OSHA standards to 80 to 90 percent." The remaining 10 to 20 percent compliance will be achieved by "administrative means"—respirators, good housekeeping, etc. Compliance by strictly engineering means, it says, would mean a new plant and could cost as much as $20 million.

William K. Murray, director of advertising and public relations for American Smelting, maintains that in the past five years the company has only had to rotate one person to a "safer" section and that biological monitoring is done routinely.

"In all our industrial hygiene history at the Omaha plant, there has never been anyone who has shown symptoms of lead poisoning," said Murray.

Nonetheless, labor suspects that appealing to the Review Commission is part of management's scheme to destroy the Act. Speaking for the AFL-CIO, Sheldon Samuels says, "The Review Commission is becoming a bottle-neck because the large trade associations are training their medium-sized and large employers to appeal. Even when they have no reason to appeal, they do it to put off the time when they have to initiate corrective action and pay fines.

"This is a conscious effort on the part of big industry to screw up the Act, and what happened in Omaha is a good example. You can't change the attitudes of employers like American Smelting, so the only solution is to add enough judges to the Review Commission."

The Review Commission may not agree with Samuels' character judgment, but it apparently goes along with his estimation of the bottleneck. The Commission started off with one judge; at the end of fiscal '72 it had 45 judges—and a backlog of more than 800 cases.

Even if OSHA finally gets an effective program operating for unions in the big industries, the Occupational Safety and Health Act of 1970 will likely remain a sham for 80 percent of the work force covered by the Act—that is, the non-union workers and the millions of small businessmen of America.

"The Labor Department has made only a token effort to inform non-union workers of their rights under the act," notes Joseph A. Page, associate professor at Georgetown Law Center, "and it has done almost nothing to educate small businessmen in the new law. Moreover, officials of OSHA admit these shortcomings."

Without concentrated help from OSHA, the small businessman is out of luck. OSHA's health and safety standards fill 248 pages of the Federal Register—a publication that the proprietor of a small business never heard of. Even if he did have a copy of these standards, it is unlikely that he would understand them. Many officials in OSHA admit they don't understand them either.

But OSHA has neither supplied the small businessmen with these standards nor sent out explanatory material.

As a result, millions of small businessmen are frightened. They have heard dire reports—totally false—about safety inspectors driving businesses into bankruptcy. Opponents of the Act are making good use of the confusion as it spreads among farmers and ranchers.

The irony is that few small businesses have even been inspected, much less burdened with fines. And no farms or ranches have been in-

spected. Another irony brought abo by this failure to pass on information is that, as Joseph Page points out, "Many small businessmen are simply unaware of the fact that loans are available under the Act to help them comply."

Joseph Page is concerned, too, about the "hysteria" generated by "blatant attempts to cripple the bill." He is critical of union complacency, and says, "Unions must be more aggressive in meeting criticisms against the Act that are not backed by facts."

If OSHA, by failing to educate the public, permits opponents of the Act to exempt small firms and farms from the Act—there are dozens of bills in Congress right now to do just that—it will be a tragic step backward. For the protection of the Act is needed in those places more than anywhere else. In plants that employ fewer than 500 persons the injury and illness rate is two and a half times that of larger industries. Farm workers have the third-highest injury rate and the highest death rate in industry.

When the failure of OSHA's education program was put to Don Perry—the public information officer assigned by Assistant Secretary Guenther to answer *Today's Health*'s questions—he replied in a way to indicate he thought that anyone who knows anything about the bureaucracy should understand. "These are things we're still working on," he said, "Jesus, we're only a year old." □

Boredom on the job

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Here the fault probably lies with company policy. Also, not only this corporate executive, but many types of employees suffer from the loss of the sense of accomplishment. An auto assembly-line worker queried about the scandalous list of new-car defects that have caused every major company to recall hundreds of thousands of autos, replies: "Sure, we read how the working man today has no pride in his work, and it's true, but what you don't read is how the company has broken down the work into smaller and smaller units so that no man can feel pride in what he's doing. If they'd just let me build a car occasionally. Just one."

"The degree of the individual's alienation from his work depends on his philosophy of life," Dr. Warren points out. "The time-server simply turns off his mind while he's on the job. The over-qualified skilled worker, or executive cannot do the same."

What can such a worker do? "He can do what he can to enrich himself within the setting of the job."

The answer in many cases of job ennui may be to drop out. "Sometimes the loss of income, of fringe benefits, the insecurity about finding another job, even a possible readjustment of one's way of life to a lower economic scale, are worth it if they lead to job satisfaction," says the psychologist. Again it depends on the individual's philosophy. If he is unhappy at his work and he is making his family unhappy, then finding a career which will make him feel that what he is doing is worthwhile will restore human values not only to himself but also to his family.

If a person sees his job each day as just another day's drudgery, he finds it increasingly difficult to face his family each morning. "Workers in general want to avoid jobs that are monotonous, repetitive, over-controlled and isolated from interaction with others," comments Michael Maccoby of Harvard's Institute of Policy Studies.

As Manhattan psychologist Dr. Harold Greenwald suggests about many union grievances—typically a long recital of niggling complaints—they represent, he says "a cry for recognition that the complainer is a man and not a machine."

Too often, worker gripes are misdirected because the individuals themselves do not understand the root of their discontent.

Lee A. Parent, director of personnel and office services of the American Medical Association, agrees with Dr. Greenwald. "Often personnel knows before the employee's supervisor that the individual is bored on the job. We will receive complaints that there is too much noise in the office. Or a secretary will come in and say she doesn't like her typewriter and needs a new one of this or that kind. Or sometimes an employee will say 'My supervisor doesn't like me.'

"These complaints are indications that the employee is completely unchallenged in the position. The solution is a promotion or a resignation.

Of course, individuals differ. Many employees are passive and only want to do what they are told to do. Others are ambitious and will tend to do their jobs in their own way. It is important to take the difference between the passive and aggressive type of employee into account when evaluating and working to alleviate job boredom."

The individual and his supervisor are encouraged to sit down and discuss his job. The employee is asked to consider and decide what is the most critical area of his work in terms of getting top results. The supervisor, in his turn, tells the employee what he hopes to accomplish.

"This is called management by objectives," says Mr. Parent. "Under such a program of job enrichment a task is never assigned to an employee until he and the supervisor sit down and discuss this job. The supervisor listens to the employee's ideas of how the objective can best be accomplished. When I'm the supervisor, the employee may end up doing it my way, but I will have considered his way. It takes longer but it results in a better quality of work."

Another means of alleviating job boredom, Mr. Parent points out, is to modify jobs by allotting special responsibility outside of the regularly assigned responsibilities. This gives the employee a change of pace.

Employees' attitudes toward work—even the same kind of work—are as variable as the surplus of dull jobs now available. A clerk with a Bronx drug distribution company reacted to a newspaper article about job boredom with immediate recollection of a former employer. One of his clerk's duties was to sweep the center aisle of the company warehouse. The first time his boss glanced at the clean floor, he exclaimed, "Hey! Nice job you did there."

"That's all, nothing else, but every day or every time I swept the floor he would say something nice about it," the clerk remembered. Once, the boss elaborated, "If it weren't for you sweeping the floor, it would be a lot tougher working here."

The sweeper's reaction: "Simple words like these can make a person feel that he or she has achieved something. Somebody cares about what you are doing and that what you are doing is important. So, every time you