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RESEARCH ARTICLE

The Vulnerability of Meat Processing and Other Food Processing Facilities to Airborne Viral Threats

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ABSTRACT

The SARS-COVID-19 pandemic has resulted in over 6 million deaths worldwide (>967,000 deaths in the U.S. alone). Importantly, this pandemic has had a disproportionate impact on the food industry, including the meat processing industry. As a result, the health of food processing workers has been negatively impacted, leading to high numbers of SARS-COVID-19 cases at food processing facilities and surrounding communities. Resulting shutdowns have also led to product shortages for consumers and economic losses to the industry. In response, the food processing industry and public health agencies have prioritized continued food access over identifying evidence-based best practices for controlling airborne viral threats (AVTs). Consequently, the lack of high-quality evidence has made it more difficult to identify appropriate control measures that could prevent current and future airborne viral threats (AVT) in food processing facilities. Without evidence-based best practices, the food processing industry will remain vulnerable to future AVT events. Therefore, there is a pressing need for timely research on the spread of AVT in food processor settings. The aim of this article is to summarize the epidemiological knowledge regarding the impact COVID-19 has had on the food industry and the meat industry in particular and to emphasize the need for empirical research into the factors that contribute to the spread of airborne viruses in these settings in order to secure these facilities from future AVTs.

Introduction

The impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on the food industry has prompted the need to be proactive rather than reactive with regard to the prevention of future outbreaks. A proactive approach means generating high-quality evidence that can inform best practices for controlling Airborne Viral Threats (AVTs). Evidence-based best practices will be required to address current and future pandemics and mitigate the impact of AVTs on worker health, economic losses, and food security. The current COVID-19 pandemic has conclusively demonstrated the need for AVT research within a food processing setting.

COVID-19 and Food Processing Plants

From March 1-May 31, 2020, 8,978 food and agricultural workers tested positive for COVID-19 in 30 states¹. By November 2020, the per capita death among food and agricultural workers in California alone was more than *double* that of healthcare workers². Meat and poultry processing (MPP) plants were among those facilities subject to high rates of infection among the workforce. For example, as of July 21, 2020 MPP plants were associated with 236,000 to 310,000 COVID-19 cases (6% to 8% of total cases in the United States) and 4,300 to 5,200 deaths, equivalent to 3% to 4% of total U.S. deaths³. These numbers also included the communities where MPP plants were located³. Notably, the mere presence of an MPP plant was associated with transmission in the surrounding community, suggesting that MPP plants might have been a transmission vector³. The vulnerability of MPP workers to COVID-19 is well documented, ranking second only to healthcare workers in priority to receive COVID-19 vaccines^{2,4}. To exacerbate this problem, almost half (45%) of MPP workers are low income, 44% are Hispanic 23% are African American and 52% are immigrants⁵. These statistics are even higher for assembly line workers. In addition, 14% of workers are undocumented and thus less likely to have access to healthcare and worker protections⁵. In fact, 80% of all COVID-19 cases in the MPP plants occurred among racial and ethnic minorities⁶. As a result, there is a social justice aspect to ensuring MPP worker safety in anticipation of future AVTs.

The COVID-19 pandemic clearly exposed vulnerabilities in the food supply chain, demonstrating that controlling AVT is synonymous with food security. Outbreaks in MPPs led to plant closures⁷, which led to meat shortages in the early months of the COVID-19 epidemic⁸ resulting in US\$13.6 billion in economic losses by April 2020 alone. Shortages are a natural consequence of the

just-in-time production strategy that eschews stockpiling alongside the highly centralized nature of the meat processing industry⁷. Such centralization is particularly severe in the pork industry, where the four largest companies control between 55% and 85% of their respective markets. Moreover, only 12 plants in the U.S. are responsible for 50% of pork production and 12 for beef production⁹. Absenteeism due to illness can also be disruptive in the meat industry, as a 25% increase in absenteeism can result in a decrease of 45% in the food supply¹⁰. Therefore, ensuring the safety of meat industry workers is critically linked to maintaining an uninterrupted meat supply.

During the COVID-19 pandemic, presidential executive orders declared meat processing plants as essential facilities, which led to plants reopening after having been closed as a means to slow the spread of SARS-CoV-2. This decision could be viewed as a reactive measure that balanced risks to workers and surrounding communities with the need to keep the population fed. As a result, even today, the reaction to an outbreak is to temporarily close a facility in order to clean and disinfect operations¹¹. Therefore, it is incumbent upon food safety experts to establish evidence-based best practices to control AVT in a food processing setting. Such evidence-based control measures should be incorporated into an overall AVT mitigation strategy that includes screening, medical leave rules, and personal hygiene recommendations.

Future Viral Threats to the Meat Industry

As several COVID-19 vaccines are now available, it is our expectation that the current pandemic will eventually end. However, this assertion is in itself questionable, given the emergence of new variants and the increasing incidence of breakthrough infections. The recent experience with COVID-19 has thus demonstrated the need to proactively prepare for future AVTs. Moreover, the World Health Organization (WHO) has predicted future infectious disease pandemics¹², which have been increasing in frequency over recent years, largely due to deforestation, species extinction¹³, population growth, pollution and climate change¹⁴. Between 2011 and 2018, the WHO documented 1,483 epidemics in 172 countries, and six international health emergencies have been announced since 2009¹⁵. Well-known viral outbreaks include SARS-COV (2003), MERS-COV (2012 and 2020), H1N1 (2009) and Ebola (2014). In addition, another novel coronavirus, CCoV-HuPn-2018, recently made a leap from canines to humans¹⁶.

Regulations and Control Measures

Regarding COVID-19 control measures, early in the pandemic, the U.S. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) recommended increased hand hygiene, improving medical leave practices¹⁷, social distancing, sanitizing surfaces, wearing cloth masks, using plexiglass partitions, minimizing fans, and adding handwashing or hand sanitizer stations¹⁸. When these recommendations were made, it was not known if they were sufficient to stem the tide of infections because of the lack of empirically-derived evidence to inform practices. In hindsight, these measures were clearly inadequate as the number of COVID-19 cases continued to increase¹¹. Importantly, regulators were also unprepared to address AVT as the focus of USDA regulations had been on the control enteric pathogens NOT respiratory viruses.

An additional problem that emerged was that CDC recommendations were viewed as optional and were not necessarily universally applied across MPPs and other food processing plants⁵. The recommendations appear to have been derived from general knowledge of what was understood about other airborne viruses such as influenza rather than SARS-CoV-2¹⁹. For example, proper handwashing hygiene is an effective way to mitigate the spread of infectious diseases but has limited application to viruses spread by respiratory droplets²⁰. Physical barriers have also been used in health care to help to prevent the movement of virus-laden respiratory droplets²¹. However, more research is needed in order to confirm the impact of such barriers in a food processing setting and to determine the most effective barrier materials. Meanwhile, air scrubbing technologies can also be effective against COVID-19²² and other technologies such as bipolar ionization should be explored²³. A key point is that SARS-CoV-2 is spread primarily from person-to-person rather than via contaminated surfaces²⁴. Therefore, research focus on the dynamics of AV transmission should be prioritized over surface contamination studies.

Factors associated with COVID transmission in Food Processing Facilities

Meanwhile, facility size²⁵ and higher assembly line speeds³ have been associated with increased virus transmission at MPP facilities. Other factors associated with increased transmission include: 1) longer work shifts (8-12 hours), 2) close and prolonged proximity to other workers (<6 feet; >15 minutes)⁶, 3) difficulties in maintaining proper

face coverings due to physical demands, 4) shared work spaces⁶, 5) shared transportation¹⁷, 6) temperatures of 0°C -12°C degrees associated with a higher risk of contracting COVID-19²⁶, 7) fast work pace that may prevent the appropriate donning and doffing of masks²⁷, and 8) high relative humidity (90-95%) that has been associated with longer distance movement of virus respiratory particles²⁸. Moreover, the MPP cooling systems appear to spread COVID-19 by carrying bioaerosols over long distances, as can air flow generally²⁹. Another factor generally known to play a role in AV transmission is air exchange rates³⁰.

While there is some epidemiological evidence that gives hints about the factors that may lead to increased transmission, there is a critical lack of *empirical* evidence about how these risk factors contribute to AVT in a food processing plant. Therefore, the task at hand is to carry out the empirical research necessary to understand what environmental factors contribute the most to the spread of airborne viruses in food processing facilities. This research is necessary for making evidence-based recommendations about practices which can help mitigate future AVTs in the food industry.

Conclusion

To address this gap in our understanding, our primary objective should be to develop an AVT laboratory model that simulates the physical conditions of MPPs. This laboratory can be used to conduct AVT research and corresponding control measures. To execute such studies, it would make sense to apply an approach used in healthcare settings³¹ in which pathogens, including viruses, are quantitatively measured in the air and on surfaces in order to determine levels of exposure over defined distances (i.e., AV dynamics)^{32, 33}. These findings can then be used to inform evidence-based best practices for use in MPPs as well as other food processing plants. A proactive approach like this is necessary to prevent future viral threats in food industry, particularly the meat industry.

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Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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