

WellBeing International

WBI Studies Repository

2011

An HSI Report: The Impact of Industrial Farm Animal Production on Food Security in the Developing World

Humane Society International

Follow this and additional works at: https://www.wellbeingintlstudiesrepository.org/hsi_reps_fap



Part of the [Agribusiness Commons](#), [Animal Studies Commons](#), and the [Food Security Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

Humane Society International, "An HSI Report: The Impact of Industrial Farm Animal Production on Food Security in the Developing World" (2011). *HSI REPORTS*. 4.

https://www.wellbeingintlstudiesrepository.org/hsi_reps_fap/4

This material is brought to you for free and open access by WellBeing International. It has been accepted for inclusion by an authorized administrator of the WBI Studies Repository. For more information, please contact wbisr-info@wellbeingintl.org.





**HUMANE SOCIETY
INTERNATIONAL**

An HSI Report:

The impact of industrial farm animal production on food security in the developing world

Abstract

Food security is often incorrectly used as a justification for the inhumane confinement of animals on industrial farm animal production facilities, while in reality, the industrialization of animal agriculture jeopardizes food security by degrading the environment, threatening human health, and diminishing income-earning opportunities in rural areas. Support from governments and international agencies for more humane and sustainable agricultural systems can ensure adequate food consumption and nutrition throughout the developing world.

Intensification of Farm Animal Production

Evaluating the impacts of industrialized animal agriculture on food security requires an understanding of the global trends towards industrialization. By 2050, meat and milk production is expected to approximately double from 1999–2001 levels.¹ Most of that growth in production is taking place in developing countries,² which are projected to account for about 78% of the increased meat production between 2011 and 2020.³ Much of that growth will also be in the form of industrial farm animal production (IFAP). By the end of the 20th century, IFAP was increasing worldwide six times as fast as grazing systems and twice as fast as traditional mixed farming systems.⁴ Worldwide, industrial systems now account for approximately two-thirds of egg and poultry meat production and over half of pig meat production.⁵ Based on calculations by the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) of the United Nations, developing countries produced approximately half of the world's industrial pork and poultry.⁶

These industrial facilities concentrate tens of thousands (or often even hundreds of thousands^{7,8,9}) of farmed animals along with their waste, frequently in welfare-depriving cages, crates, and pens¹⁰ (see Appendix 1 for a more detailed definition of IFAP). A growing number of egg-laying hens, pregnant sows, and other farm animals are reared in small, barren, crowded cages and crates that severely impair the animals' welfare, as they are unable to exercise, fully extend their limbs, or engage in many important natural behaviors. Industrial farm animal production results in tremendous animal suffering. For more information on IFAP's impacts on farm animals, please see [HSI's Report on the Welfare of Intensively Confined Animals](#).

At the same time, there is increasing consolidation of farm animal production in developing countries.^{11,12} These changes are readily apparent in Latin America and Asia. For example, approximately 40% of Brazil's market for broiler chickens is supplied by just four integrators.¹³ In 2006, an industry estimate suggested that six large poultry companies account for nearly 40% of India's egg industry.¹⁴ In Brazil's dairy industry, the number of milk producers fell by approximately 23% between 2000 and 2002, while maintaining the same volume of milk production.¹⁵ Globally, between 1980 and 2000, pork production nearly doubled, with a decrease in the total number of farms and an increase in larger facilities raising 1000 or more pigs.¹⁶ Such consolidation has been

shown to decrease income opportunities in rural areas by pushing small farmers out of the market,¹⁷ reducing on-farm employment opportunities,^{18,19} and damaging the natural resources²⁰ upon which rural communities rely. For example, in the Philippines, growth in demand for pig products has not translated into growth in market share for small holders.²¹ Although the number of commercial pig farms and pigs per farm increased between 1991 and 2002 in the Philippines, the number of pig producers (full-time and part-time) decreased.²²

Not only is farm animal production becoming consolidated in developing countries, the facilities themselves are becoming more geographically clustered.²³ In Brazil, these high levels of geographical concentration can be seen in the pork and poultry industries. For example, in 1992, 78% of Brazil's hen population occupied just 5% of the country's area. By 2001, the proportion of hens housed on this same land area had grown to 85%.²⁴ The percentage of Brazil's pig population confined on just 5% of the nation's land area rose from 45% to 56% during the same time period.²⁵ The geographical concentration of farm animal production can cause environmental and public health threats,²⁶ which in turn may reduce worker productivity²⁷ and harm agricultural resources²⁸ which are crucial to food security.

The trend towards industrialization also diminishes farm animal genetic diversity by excessively favoring a few breeds of farm animals with traits of commercial interest²⁹ and putting traditional breeds at risk for extinction.³⁰ The proliferation of these monocultures threatens food security. Poor households rely on farm animals for a variety of purposes, from forms of insurance and savings, to sources of energy and fertilizer, but these commercial breeds cannot always fulfill this multi-purpose role required by semi-commercial and subsistence farmers.³¹ Further, (as discussed below), relying exclusively on these monocultures in IFAP threatens communities worldwide by creating the conditions ripe for the emergence of new zoonotic disease strains.

Stemming the spread of IFAP in the developing world is critical to maintaining more environmentally sustainable, healthy, animal-welfare-friendly, and equitable food production systems. Though food security is often used as a justification for the industrialization of animal agriculture, IFAP systems in fact jeopardize food security by degrading the environment, threatening human health, and pushing small farmers out of the market.

Defining Food Security: Going Beyond Measures of Production

In their recent efforts to develop a Global Strategic Framework on Food and Nutrition Security, the United Nations Committee on World Food Security uses the following definition: “[f]ood security exists when all people, at all times, have physical, social and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food that meets their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life.”³² The committee further holds that proper health care, child care, and sanitation are required to translate food security into nutrition security.³³

Similar comprehensive food security definitions and frameworks have been embraced by a number of development institutions. The Sustainable Livelihoods Approach (SLA) framework, employed by the United Kingdom's Department for International Development (DFID),³⁴ provides further guidance for evaluating food security by identifying five different types of capital (human, natural, financial, social, and physical) that influence a household's strategies for acquiring food and other livelihood outcomes, and places them within the context of household vulnerabilities and community and national-level policies and institutions.³⁵ The complexity of this framework highlights the fact that food security requires more than just adequate food production. Achieving food security requires equitable social and economic systems, healthy communities, and ecological sustainability.

The Global Environmental Change and Food Systems project, launched in 2001 to examine the links between food security and global environmental change, builds upon this by incorporating environmental factors such as water availability and quality, climate, biodiversity, and land cover and soils into the list of variables impacting food security.³⁶

These comprehensive food security definitions and frameworks illustrate the importance of multi-variable approaches to ensuring food security. Consequently, programs and policies which seek only to increase the quantity of food and reduce food prices in the immediate term by industrializing agriculture, often at the expense of these other drivers of food security, may not in themselves reduce hunger or malnutrition. Sufficient caloric availability at the national or global level, while a critical component of food security, neither ensures equitable distribution of those calories, nor does it ensure that those calories are nutritionally appropriate.³⁷ In fact it is common for nations with adequate grain reserves, whether produced domestically or imported, to have significant portions of their population suffering from food insecurity or undernutrition.³⁸

In Africa, since 1990, the quantity of staple foods produced within and imported into the continent is theoretically sufficient to provide each person with 2,500 Kcal/day, yet hunger remains widespread on the continent, suggesting that food distribution, rather than availability, is key.³⁹ For example, the Southwest region of Uganda has had the highest prevalence of stunting (a key indicator of malnutrition in children) in the past decade, despite being considered the “food basket” of the country.⁴⁰ In much of Latin America, the incidence of malnutrition is higher in indigenous children relative to the national average.^{41,42} The growth in Latin America’s farm animal sector in the 1990s⁴³ had not been accompanied by significantly improved nutritional or economic outcomes for these households by the early part of the 21st century.⁴⁴ A 2005 study on poverty amongst indigenous peoples in Latin America concluded that “[p]overty rates changed little for indigenous people over the 1990s, and where poverty declined, progress was slower for indigenous peoples.”⁴⁵ Further, the prevalence of malnutrition amongst indigenous children remains extremely high relative to the general population.⁴⁶

South Asia is home to the largest number of malnourished people in the world, despite India and other nations in the region maintaining surplus food stocks.⁴⁷ The increase in egg and poultry meat production in India, specifically, has failed to equitably increase the intake of animal source foods (ASF) by the poorest communities. Rapid industrialization of India’s poultry sector has put it among the top egg and chicken meat producers in the world.^{48,49} Over the past 50 years, egg and chicken meat production has been radically transformed from a largely backyard activity to a massive agro-industry.⁵⁰ By the 1990s, production and consumption of poultry meat in India was growing by as much as 15% annually.⁵¹ However, by the start of the 21st century, people in lowest income quintile in rural areas were still consuming fewer than 10 eggs per capita per year.⁵² This is notable because the prevalence of underweight children amongst the Indian population is higher in rural areas than in urban areas, and the prevalence of underweight children is approximately 60% in the lowest wealth quintile.⁵³ Moreover, during the 1990s, while commercial poultry production continued to expand in India⁵⁴, the urban-rural and inter-income-quintile inequalities in nutritional status widened throughout India.⁵⁵ Thus, the massive growth of the Indian poultry sector has failed to sufficiently improve nutritional outcomes for the rural poor, instead threatening the natural resources and production systems upon which rural communities are built.

There are many reasons for the disparity in egg and meat consumption in India and other developing countries, and for the failure of IFAP to significantly increase ASF intake amongst the poorest segments of the population, particularly in rural areas. While urban residents purchase almost all their food from the market, rural dwellers, who account for 70% of the world’s poor in agriculture-based countries,⁵⁶ acquire 60% of their food from their own production.⁵⁷ As discussed in the following sections, IFAP often impoverishes small farmers and rural communities, diminishing their ability to produce and otherwise acquire nutritious foods.

It follows that an overall increase in the production of calories from ASF is not necessarily an effective strategy for improving food security, or even the intake of ASF among malnourished populations, and may instead be contributing to the growing epidemic of diseases relating to overweight/obesity in many developing countries,^{58,59} particularly in urban areas.⁶⁰

Despite the complex nature of food security, some industry groups continue to frame food security solely in terms of production quantity.^{61,62} For example, an industry-authored article titled “U.S. Soybean Farmers

Feeding the World” calls for research and technology to help U.S. farmers increase soy production in order to fulfill their duty of feeding the growing global population;⁶³ this despite the fact that a large proportion of soy meal produced in the U.S. and worldwide is diverted to feed farm animals,^{64,65,66} and animal products are disproportionately consumed by wealthier populations worldwide.⁶⁷ Framing food security solely in terms of production, justifies further intensification and industrialization in the farm animal sector. This, in turn, leads to numerous environmental, animal welfare, and social problems, which impede equitable access to food and undermine efforts to improve food security. Simply put, the spread of industrialized animal production in the developing world has the exact opposite of its purported effect—it harms food security rather than improving it.

Small Farmers Lose, Employment Opportunities Deteriorate

Although industrialized animal agriculture may increase production for large farmers, it simultaneously crowds small farmers out of the market⁶⁸ and reduces employment opportunities,^{69,70} demonstrating that economic growth at a national level does not necessarily improve food security.⁷¹

Small farmers who try to directly compete with large animal agribusiness are at risk of being pushed out of the market because they lack the political and economic power of the larger companies, or the ability to exploit economies of scale.⁷² For example, rural women in many developing countries tend to engage in smallholder egg and poultry meat production,⁷³ but increased levels of intensification in egg and chicken meat production have been shown to decrease the number of women involved in poultry keeping.⁷⁴

The industrialization of animal agriculture in Mexico, partly driven by competition with U.S. imports and the North American Free Trade Agreement’s facilitation of joint ventures between U.S. and Mexican companies, has forced small farmers out of the market.⁷⁵ The industrialization of animal agriculture has also damaged Amazonian society. Soy production (to feed farm animals) and cattle ranching are substituting native forests, displacing smallholder farmers’ diversified farming systems, and harming the indigenous communities that rely on the forest.⁷⁶

The few small or mid-size farmers who continue to farm will likely do so by adopting industrial farm animal production practices, and by becoming contract farmers to large corporations—dependent on distant markets and a remote corporate governance body for their income.⁷⁷ This shift comes with its own set of risks. Sociologists who have studied the contract systems in the U.S. suggest that the unequal bargaining power with agribusiness firms results in the individual producer bearing a greater share of risks and costs than the firm.^{78,79} The corporations supply company-owned animals, feed, and transportation, but the growers, who likely own the land, must construct company buildings according to the corporations’ own specifications, in which they might invest hundreds of thousands of dollars.^{80,81} Growers are also typically responsible for managing the animals’ waste, so the controlling companies may have no financial obligation to control or rectify pollution from these facilities.^{82,83}

Farmers in the Indian states of Punjab, Assam, and Kashmir have spoken out against the contract system of poultry production. In a May 2007 article, the president of the Amritsar Poultry Industry Association was quoted as saying, “These mega companies [are] neither generating new employment nor putting any investment in Punjab.”⁸⁴ Another article in Greater Kashmir that same week reported that the Kashmir Valley Poultry Farmers Association had characterized the contract system as “anti-farmer.”⁸⁵ Contract farming in India lacks government oversight or regulation, and some producers report that the contracts are heavily biased in favor of the purchasing company.⁸⁶ With no formal mechanism for solving disputes, company decisions are final. Producers have no recourse if the company does not fulfill its contractual obligations but face significant consequences if they violate the contract themselves. Producers lack control over the quality of the inputs from the company, but must bear the reduced income associated with low output.⁸⁷

Growers are also at the mercy of large agribusinesses' decisions to unilaterally end the contracts. In India, complaints are emerging about inequities in the contract system.⁸⁸ This is also the case in the U.S. After borrowing loans in excess of \$12,000 to make improvements to their chicken sheds and receiving numerous letters of commendation from Perdue (a chicken integrator) for two years, one family's contract was suddenly terminated, with company officials reportedly blaming a slow economy.⁸⁹ Writes environmental journalist Karen Charman, "[t]hey say the corporations that control the chicken industry hook new growers on the promise of making a good, steady income at home. Instead, growers find themselves trapped in debt-laden relationships that turn them into serfs at the mercy of the companies that make a fortune on their backs."⁹⁰

The potential decreases in small-farmer autonomy or market share resulting from IFAP are accompanied by reduced wage earning opportunities for laborers. When animal agriculture becomes industrialized, it can decrease on-farm employment opportunities within rural communities.^{91,92} A University of Missouri study suggested that the best way to promote employment in the pig meat production sector is to support small farmers using pasture-based production systems. The study showed that ten small-scale farmers collectively producing 12,000 feeder pigs per year can create eight full-time positions, while a single industrial farm animal facility producing the same number of pigs only employs 2.5 people.⁹³ In Mexico, the industrialization of the farm animal sector has meant fewer agricultural workers are needed and salaries are typically lower than average.⁹⁴ A 2004 report on the economic impacts of industrialized pig production estimated that if industrialized pig production facilities replaced independent farms producing the same amount of animals, approximately two pig farmers would be left without a job for each new job created.⁹⁵

IFAPs negative impacts on local farmers and job markets are further coupled with a depletion of local capital.⁹⁶ The authors of a 2007 book entitled *Environmental Management of Concentrated Animal Feeding Operations (CAFOs)* sum up the strain that IFAP imposes on U.S. communities:

Corporate livestock factory owners and management tout themselves as "saviors" to the rural communities they target. Everyone is promised salvation: job creation for local inhabitants, increased tax revenues for local coffers, expanded markets for family farmers, and increased purchasing power for hometown businesses, with high-tech production for consumers...However, the facts of the industry paint a different picture. Corporate livestock factories actually disable community development with self-serving contracts and tax breaks, market-monopolizing strategy, and few local purchases...While communities naturally want to attract jobs, wealth, and capital for investment, transferring...[farm animal] production from local families to corporations facilitates and accelerates the extraction of wealth and capital from rural areas.⁹⁷

Industrial animal operations not only threaten the livelihoods of small farmers, and decrease on-farm employment opportunities, but they actually harm the entire community by leaching out local economic resources. In addition, IFAP exploits the natural resource base of a community, harming the environment and threatening public health. A more sustainable system of animal agriculture involves fewer numbers of animals raised under ecologically balanced extensive systems, and is led by small farmers who generate both local employment and food availability within rural communities.

Scarce Resources Exploited, Environment and Human Health Degraded

Meat, egg, and milk production are not narrowly focused on the rearing and slaughtering of farm animals. The animal agriculture sector also encompasses feed grain production, which requires substantial inputs of water,⁹⁸ land,⁹⁹ and energy.¹⁰⁰ The growth in farm animal production is projected to increase strain on water resources, particularly due to the high water demands involved in growing animal feed.¹⁰¹ Globally, land is also becoming

a scarce resource,¹⁰² and animal agriculture already constitutes the largest anthropogenic use of land worldwide.¹⁰³ As in the case of water, a significant percentage of this land is diverted to produce feed for farm animals.¹⁰⁴ In developing countries, the use of feed concentrates grew over 150% from 1980-2005,¹⁰⁵ most likely due, in part, to a rise in IFAP. This suggests that the industrialization of feed crop production is linked to IFAP, which is reliant on a steady source of cheap feedstuffs.¹⁰⁶ Currently, food prices are artificially low—reliant on the unsustainable externalization of environmental and health costs.¹⁰⁷ However, growing water, land, and energy scarcities are projected to limit future growth in food production.^{108,109} This will likely increase food costs in the longer term.¹¹⁰ Increased food production and low meat, egg, and milk prices (the only arguments for the industrialization of animal agriculture) are themselves jeopardized by the expansion of IFAP in the long term due to its negative impacts on scarce agricultural resources.

Land use and degradation

Animal agriculture occupies 30% of the earth's total land area.¹¹¹ Approximately 33% of total arable land is used to produce feed crops,¹¹² in addition to vast areas of forested land that is clear-cut to graze or grow feed for farmed animals.¹¹³ Globally, more than 60% of corn and barley, and over 97% of soymeal, are fed to farm animals.¹¹⁴

Land degradation exacerbates the problems of scarcity, and farm animal production is a leading driver of land degradation.¹¹⁵ Much of the human-induced soil degradation in Africa has resulted from overgrazing.¹¹⁶ Overgrazing has contributed to the degradation of approximately 20% of the world's pastures and rangelands, including almost three-fourths of rangelands in dry areas, through compaction and erosion.¹¹⁷ As it expands to new areas, feedcrop production also plays a significant role in land degradation.¹¹⁸

Animal agriculture is a leading player in deforestation, a well-known form of land degradation. A marker of just how significant the sector is for deforestation, 70% of previously forested land in the Amazon is used as grazing pastures, and the remainder is used largely for feedcrop production.¹¹⁹ Mato Grosso, the state that has led Brazil in both deforestation and soybean production since 2001,¹²⁰ lost approximately 36,000 km² of forest to intensive mechanized agriculture between 2001 and 2004.^{121,122} The animal feed from this deforested land is destined for nations across the world. For example, China has increased its import of soy from Brazil, in response to increasing demand for meat products within China.¹²³ Brazil exported approximately 9.2 million tons to China between January and May 2011, accounting for approximately 68 percent of Brazil's sales in soy during that time period.¹²⁴

Deforestation and other forms of land degradation have a profound impact on our ability to sustain vital agricultural resources and produce food. The pollution of aquifers, deforestation-related climate change, and the depletion of water resources resulting from the soil's reduced ability to hold water (due to alteration of soil texture or loss of vegetative cover), are all potential impacts of land degradation.¹²⁵ In terms of hunger and food security, it is notable that in West Africa, mortality for children under five years of age is greatest in areas of high soil degradation.¹²⁶

Water scarcity and pollution

In addition to its role in land use and degradation, animal agriculture uses significant amounts of the water supply available to humans globally.¹²⁷ Raising animals for food requires substantially greater quantities of water than raising plants for human consumption. According to the International Water Management Institute and the Stockholm International Water Institute, an average of 6000 liters of water is required to produce 1 kg (2.2 lb) of chicken, whereas less than half of that is needed to produce 1 kg (2.2 lb) of cereals.¹²⁸

Raising animals for food contributes to water scarcity in numerous ways. Farm animals require water for hydration. But an increasing amount is needed—particularly at industrial operations—to clean enclosures (e.g. cages, stalls, pens) and sheds, to dispose of waste, and for cooling animals.¹²⁹ Processing animal products also requires large volumes of water and can result in significant amounts of wastewater.¹³⁰ Water levels in the Perote-Zalayeta aquifer in Mexico have reportedly declined precipitously since industrial pig production first took hold in the region in the mid-1990s.¹³¹ Rapidly increasing demands for meat and other animal products in Africa’s urban centers has also been implicated in water and land scarcity,¹³² further jeopardizing food security in the region.

Not only are water supplies shrinking, the farm animal sector is increasingly polluting the available water. According to the FAO, “The livestock sector...is probably the largest sectoral source of water pollution, contributing to eutrophication, ‘dead’ zones in coastal areas, degradation of coral reefs, human health problems, emergence of antibiotic resistance and many others.”¹³³

IFAP, in particular, is a key culprit in the degradation of water supplies. Traditional farming systems combine animal agriculture with crop agriculture, thereby balancing the number of animals with the crops’ ability to absorb the animals’ manure. At IFAP facilities, where tens of thousands of animals are confined indoors, the amount of manure typically exceeds the ability of the surrounding land to absorb it. When this happens, it can contaminate water supplies and emit harmful gases into the atmosphere.¹³⁴

Farm animals confined on IFAP facilities in the United States produce three times more waste (manure) than humans, and regulations relating to the treatment of farm animal manure are lax relative to the regulations mandating the treatment of human waste.¹³⁵ According to the United States Department of Agriculture’s (USDA’s) Economic Research Service, IFAP operations spread 1.23 million tons of nitrogen on fields (in the form of manure) in the United States in 2007; however, cropland and pasture owned by these operations only had the capacity to assimilate 38% of this nitrogen.¹³⁶ Nitrogen deposition, largely from agriculture, is expected to increase significantly in the coming years, with the resulting nitrogen oxide and ammonia leading to eutrophication and soil acidification.¹³⁷

Phosphorous is another nutrient in manure that wreaks environmental havoc when over-applied to the land. It plays a major role in the eutrophication of lakes,¹³⁸ which in turn compromises other water uses such as drinking water and fisheries.¹³⁹

Intensive pig production in Southeast Asia has been implicated in the flow of surplus nutrients and minerals into the South China Sea.¹⁴⁰ A study conducted in a pig producing region of the Philippines reported that the majority of commercial and small-scale pig producers dump waste directly into streams and other waterways.¹⁴¹ The same study reported a variety of negative environmental and public health impacts resulting from the proliferation of large pig farms in the area.¹⁴² A 2001 estimate by the World Bank suggested that approximately 100,000 square kilometers in the developing world were already “threatened by severe nutrient loading at that time, causing eutrophication of waterways and subsequent damage to aquatic ecosystems.”¹⁴³

In 2006, the prestigious Pew Commission report on Industrial Farm Animal Production warned that, in the developing world, the known costs of industrial farm animal production systems “may be exacerbated by institutional weaknesses and governance problems.”¹⁴⁴ Additional studies are required in developing countries to elucidate the negative impacts of IFAP on air, land, and water resources in rural communities. An agricultural system that does not protect land and other natural resources cannot support long-term food security.

Community Health Compromised

A variety of air-, water-, and soil-borne outputs from IFAP operations raise serious public health concerns and undercut food security by potentially jeopardizing workers’ health. Exposure to bacterial toxins is often

implicated in respiratory ailments among workers in egg and chicken production facilities, particularly caged hen facilities.¹⁴⁵ Ammonia, hydrogen sulfide, odor, respirable dust, and dust containing allergens, fungi, and bacterial toxins from IFAP facilities can also be transmitted by air off-site to local residents at levels sufficient to harm human health or well-being.¹⁴⁶ Based on their review of four large epidemiological studies, the Pew Commission concluded that children and adults living in close proximity to IFAP operations were more likely to experience asthma symptoms.¹⁴⁷ Other studies in the United States have also documented an association between the exposure to IFAP air-borne pollutants and respiratory and psychological effects.¹⁴⁸ See [HSI's Fact Sheet: Human Health impacts of odors from industrial farm animal production facilities](#) for more information.

Respiratory ailments constitute just one of a range of health problems created by these industrial facilities. Pathogens from manure used to fertilize crops may be transmitted to food crops, and runoff can also pollute water supplies. "Animal manure has been found to be the source of more than 100 zoonotic pathogens that may directly contaminate the food supply".¹⁴⁹

Furthermore, non-therapeutic antibiotics used in industrial cattle, pig, and chicken operations have led to the emergence of *Salmonella* and *E. coli* strains resistant to antibiotics.¹⁵⁰ To accelerate weight gain and prevent disease in the stressful and unhygienic conditions characteristic of these industrial settings, many IFAP operations feed farm animals the same types of antimicrobials used to treat human disease. Antibiotic resistant bacteria at IFAP operations can transfer by air from intensively farmed animals to laborers and others who live near the operation.¹⁵¹ In a study of airborne concentrations of resistant bacterial forms at IFAP operations, Gibbs et al. found that bacteria were recovered inside and outside the facilities at concentrations that could cause a potential human health hazard.¹⁵² By fostering antimicrobial resistance in pathogens, IFAP creates new challenges for physicians trying to treat human disease.¹⁵³

The crowded, stressful, and unsanitary conditions in IFAP facilities are also ripe for the emergence of new infectious diseases, including highly pathogenic strains of avian influenza, which can potentially impact humans.^{154,155} A reduction in the genetic diversity within species raised in industrial animal agriculture systems has also been implicated in the emergence and spread of diseases.¹⁵⁶ Intense selection for productivity traits may create immunological problems.¹⁵⁷ Non-industrial systems may house greater genetic diversity amongst their flocks and herds,¹⁵⁸ and allow the animals a less crowded and less stressful environment, thereby reducing antibiotic use and reducing the risk of emergence of novel disease strains. For more information on the public health impacts of industrial farm animal production, please see, [The Human/Animal Interface: Emergence and Resurgence of Zoonotic Infectious Diseases](#).

Freedom from disease, valuable in its own right, is also an important component of food security. Food usage/utilization, or the ability to translate food consumption into positive nutritional outcomes, requires clean water, sanitation, and good health,¹⁵⁹ all factors jeopardized by IFAP.

Climate Change Exacerbated

IFAP is also contributing to climate change, which threatens to further exacerbate food insecurity and malnutrition. According to the FAO, the animal agriculture sector is responsible for approximately 18% of human-induced greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions. In nearly every step of meat, egg, and milk production, climate-changing gases are released into the atmosphere, potentially disrupting weather, temperature, and the environment.¹⁶⁰ For more information on animal agriculture's significant contribution to climate change, please see [HSI's Report, The Impact of Animal Agriculture on Global Warming and Climate Change](#).

Farm animals are significant contributors to the production of the three most important GHGs influenced by human activity,^{161,162} and, as farm animals' numbers grow, their emissions are also likely to grow, even assuming "efficient" growth. Based on expected demand, farm animal production alone is projected to emit over two-thirds of the amount of GHGs considered safe by 2050.¹⁶³ A study by the United States Department of

Agriculture also explains that larger farm animal populations will mean greater emissions.¹⁶⁴ Therefore governments and international development agencies must reconsider their support for the growth of farm animal populations, particularly through the expansion of IFAP, from a climate change perspective.

The climate changing effect of IFAP will have profound implications for food security, and agriculture in the developing world is particularly vulnerable.¹⁶⁵ Drought induced by climate change will bring obvious human suffering. In less than 10 years, up to 250 million people may experience water shortages, and in some African nations food production could fall by half.¹⁶⁶ The IPCC also warns that warming temperatures could result in food shortages for 130 million people across Asia by 2050. For example, a 3.6°C (6.5°F) increase in mean air temperature could decrease rain-fed rice yields by 5-12% in China. In Bangladesh rice production could fall approximately 10% and wheat by one-third by 2050.¹⁶⁷ By 2080-2100, climate change (without adaptation) could cost India 10-40% of its crop production.¹⁶⁸

At the same time, farm animals will be affected by climate change-induced rangeland drought and other weather events, which could lead to animal deaths.¹⁶⁹ “As grazing areas dry up in sub-Saharan Africa, pastoralists will be forced to travel farther to find food and many animals will likely starve. In particular, cattle, goats, camels, sheep, and other animals who depend on access to grazing areas for food will suffer from hunger and dehydration.”¹⁷⁰ Thus, industrial animal agriculture, as a major contributor to climate change, will likely undermine food security, especially for those already at risk.

Animal Source Foods: A Questionable Use of Scarce Resources

Given the significant threats IFAP in particular, and growing farm animal populations in general, pose to the environment and long-term food security, it is worth evaluating the value of promoting increased consumption of animal source foods in the developing world, outside of small pockets with severe malnutrition and limited arable land.

Growing water and land scarcities, an underlying factor of the food price spikes during the years 2005–2007,¹⁷¹ are exacerbated by animal agriculture. The looming scarcity of fossil fuels, of which animal agriculture is a significant consumer, has also been implicated in the global food price volatility because of the pressure it places on both the supply and demand of global grains and oilseeds.¹⁷² Therefore, animal agriculture, as a major consumer of land, water, and energy resources (predominantly for animal feed production), needs to be evaluated for its efficiency in converting grains to protein and calories.

The conversion of energy and protein in animal feed into edible meat calories and protein is highly inefficient.¹⁷³ Most of the energy farm animals consume from grains and other sources of food is used for metabolic processes or for forming bones, cartilage, and other non-edible parts (offal), as well as feces.¹⁷⁴ This suggests that, in many cases, scarce agricultural land and water are better allocated to the production of high-nutrient plant-based foods.

While estimates of feed conversion vary across production systems and regions, studies conducted in the U.S. offer some insight into the inefficiency of milk, egg, and meat production. Smil calculated feed conversion efficiencies of various types of farm animal production based on USDA data from 1999.¹⁷⁵ According to his calculations, it takes 4.2 kg of feed to produce 1 kg of chicken meat, 10.7 kg of feed per kg of pig meat, and 31.7 kg of feed per kilogram of beef.¹⁷⁶ Eggs are similarly inefficient by this measure, requiring 4.2 kg of feed to produce an edible kg of eggs.¹⁷⁷ In a world where fish are increasingly farmed under intensive aquaculture systems,¹⁷⁸ it is important to note that it takes 2.3 kg of feed to produce 1 kg of edible carp meat.¹⁷⁹ As a result, only 30% of the protein in the feed becomes available to humans eating the fish or eggs produced with that feed.¹⁸⁰ Consumers of chicken, pig meat, and beef capture 25%, 13%, and 5%, respectively, of the protein contained in the feed required to raise these animals.¹⁸¹ Milk is only slightly less inefficient, with a 40% protein

conversion efficiency.¹⁸² Other studies from the U.S. report similar inefficiencies in the conversion of animal feed into meat, eggs, and milk.^{183,184}

Furthermore, many of the countries where IFAP is expanding do not require an overall increase in the consumption of animal source foods (ASF) amongst all segments of their populations, as a significant proportion of their populations are already meeting or exceeding their energy requirements. Ironically, many developing countries with high levels of hunger and malnutrition now simultaneously bear the burden of an obesity-related public health crisis,^{185,186} with the number of overweight women exceeding the number of underweight women in most developing countries.¹⁸⁷ Twenty-four percent of urban Indian adults are now overweight,¹⁸⁸ and approximately the same percentage of urban children in New Delhi are overweight or obese.¹⁸⁹ Throughout Latin America, the prevalence of overweight/obesity (Body Mass Index greater than or equal to 25) amongst adult women aged 15 and older is greater than 50%;¹⁹⁰ and the prevalence of overweight amongst adult men in this region is greater than 40% in all countries except Haiti.¹⁹¹

The negative health consequences of agricultural policies that reduce the short-term cost of meat can also be seen in Central America. In the 1990's, trade liberalization in Central America reduced the cost of meat production by lowering barriers for the import of cheap animal feed from the United States. In addition to possibly pushing local corn farmers out of the market, this resulted in significant increases in meat production and consumption, and contributed to a dietary shift from a largely plant based diet to one high in animal products. This shift has been implicated in the region's rising epidemic of obesity and related diseases.¹⁹²

In his article on changing diets in China, Dr. Barry Popkin, one of the world's foremost authorities on rising obesity rates in developing countries,¹⁹³ warns, "Current agriculture development policy in many developing countries focuses on livestock promotion and does not consider the potential adverse health consequences of this strategy....[T]he potential adverse health effects linked with an increased ASF intake should no longer be ignored."¹⁹⁴

This is not to discount the potential value of ASF in the diets of the poor. Certainly eggs, meat, and milk can offer a valuable source of nutrition for malnourished households, particularly for children. Further, farm animals can also provide a variety of other supports to approximately 70% of the world's rural poor, including pastoralists, mixed farmers, and landless peoples.¹⁹⁵ In countries that bear the double burden of under-nutrition and obesity, under-nutrition is greater in rural areas.^{196,197,198} To these rural households, the value of farm animals likely extends beyond measures of quantity of meat, egg, and milk production. Around the world, the rural poor use farm animals as a means of acquiring cash income, saving and accumulating assets, as a food source, and as insurance against health or other financial crises.^{199,200,201} Integrated into a larger agricultural system, animals provide inputs and services for crop production.^{202,203,204} This multi-purpose view of farm animals is well adapted to low-input, free-range systems managed by the rural poor. IFAP, which is a capital intensive system dominated by resource-rich producers, cannot meet these other social needs met by small-scale farm animal production because such large-scale systems inherently exclude poor, small-scale producers and pollute the natural resource base critical to the well-being of human communities.

Global Policy & Development Finance that Undermines Food Security

Despite the failure of industrial animal agriculture to promote and sustain food security, development agencies and finance institutions, along with governments in both developed and developing countries, have played an integral role in supporting private industry's efforts to spread IFAP in the developing world.

Examples of IFAP facilities recently or currently supported by development institutions include the International Finance Corporation's (IFC) support for an industrial pig production facility in China,²⁰⁵ the U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID) facilitating of the entry of the world's largest pork producer into

Romania,²⁰⁶ the European Bank for Reconstruction and Development's (EBRD) financing of industrial pig production in Poland,²⁰⁷ and the Inter-American Investment Corporation's (IIC) support for the expansion of IFAP in Nicaragua.²⁰⁸ The beneficiary of the IFC-financed project in China is Muyuan Foodstuff Co. Ltd, one of the largest hog producers in China with an annual production capacity of around 500,000 hogs and breeders.²⁰⁹ The IFC will be supporting further expansion of this IFAP facility in China,²¹⁰ a country with a growing obesity epidemic²¹¹ and a heavy reliance on soy-based feed from deforestation-plagued Brazil to support its pig population.²¹² The promotion of industrial pig production by USAID²¹³ and EBRD²¹⁴ in Eastern Europe supported the U.S.-based corporation Smithfield Foods, the largest pork producer in the world,²¹⁵ and has come under fire from local communities suffering from pollutants emanating from the industrial pig production facilities.²¹⁶ The IIC loan went to the company Avícola La Estrella, the second largest producer of chicken and eggs in Nicaragua.²¹⁷

As discussed above, the environmental, human health, and livelihood threats posed by IFAP facilities undermine the very human development goals espoused by these development institutions.

A Better Model: Supporting Higher Welfare Agriculture at the Household and Commercial levels

By contrast, supporting high-welfare systems can strengthen rural communities, and will not only improve rural food security but may also stem the spread of food insecurity to urban zones, as it will slow migration away from rural areas.

Given the growing burden of overweight and obese populations in developing countries, policies aimed at increased farm animal production should be targeted towards small holders, pastoralists, and other food insecure households in rural areas, instead of supporting massive industrial farm animal production facilities. From an ecological and long-term food security perspective, assistance to this sector should be targeted towards agroecological zones where extensive, pasture-based farm animal production is the most sustainable form of agriculture.

Donor-financed Models that Promote Welfare and Food Security

There are numerous examples of international finance and development institutions, including some of those mentioned above, that promote food security in a more humane and sustainable manner.

For example, The World Bank has initiated projects to support pastoral communities in Ethiopia.²¹⁸ This project engages targeted households in community decision making, provides them with increased access to social services and credit, and improves the government's ability to prepare and protect pastoral communities in times of natural disaster.²¹⁹ Pastoral systems are typically extensive systems that provide animals with much freedom of movement.

USAID's Kazungula milk project in Zambia has expanded income opportunities for small-scale milk producers by providing the physical infrastructure and forward linkages that smallholders need to access larger markets. Developed by USAID's Zambia Agribusiness Technical Assistance Center, this initiative developed the linkages between the milk producers and the dairy processor, Finta Dairy Ltd., in addition to leveraging funding from Japan's international development agency to finance a 2,400 liter cooling tank that keeps milk fresh while awaiting pick up by Finta.²²⁰ Such projects have tremendous potential to improve livelihoods for farmers, while maintaining extensive, environmentally sustainable production practices.

Helen Keller International (HKI) also targets smallholders in its agricultural interventions. This organization operates successful home gardening programs, which incorporate poultry keeping, aimed at female household members in rural Bangladesh.²²¹ In addition to providing inputs and training for improved fruit and vegetable production, and higher yielding breeds of poultry, HKI provides the project beneficiaries with nutrition education. By focusing on improving yields from small-scale homestead gardening, which is typically in the women's sphere of work, HKI empowered women, which in turn led to a greater proportion of the nutritious foods produced being consumed by children in the household (rather than sold). Women empowered by this program also invested more in their children's education. HKI reports that this program has resulted in the "establishment of 900,000 women-tended Homestead Food Production gardens, which have benefitted over 4.5 million people, at a cost of just \$9.00 per garden."²²²

Such small-scale interventions lend themselves to more animal welfare-friendly methods of production that do not confine farm animals in welfare-compromising cages or crates, as they have smaller flock sizes and often raise the animals on the same land on which crops are cultivated. However, it cannot be assumed that all programs targeting small holders automatically protect animal welfare. For example, the widely replicated Bangladesh Poultry Model, aimed at women from poor households, has now begun to encourage women to rear chickens in cages, though traditionally the focus was on extensive production systems that allow the birds more freedom of movement.²²³ The program's promotion of higher yielding breeds of poultry²²⁴ can also raise welfare concerns, as improvements in yields often comes at the expense of animal welfare. For example, in the U.S., unintended genetic side effects of selection for rapid growth and increased body weight in broilers have resulted in leg disorders, including bone deformities, lameness, tibial dyschondroplasia (TD), and ruptured tendons, as well as metabolic diseases, such as ascites and sudden death syndrome.^{225,226,227} Therefore, animal welfare must be specifically considered when designing projects involving farm animals.

Further, as discussed above, given the large environmental footprint of animal agriculture, policies and programs to increase global farm animal populations may threaten food security in the long term by exacerbating climate change and over-exploiting land and water resources. However, properly targeted interventions in the animal agriculture sector can improve food security within malnourished populations while maintaining high standards of animal welfare and ecological balance.

Policy Frameworks Necessary to Promote Welfare and Food Security

Supporting smallholder, sustainable agriculture requires the cooperation of a variety of sectors, including agricultural banks and development finance institutions, which must start providing loans for producers wishing to engage in cage-free egg production and higher welfare forms of meat and milk production. Government financed agricultural research and extension services must support organic, cage-free egg, extensive, and other innovative, higher welfare production systems.

While financing from governments and the development sector should focus on smallholders, large-scale commercial animal agriculture will undoubtedly continue to be part of the food system. Therefore, environmental, public health, and animal welfare regulations are necessary to minimize the negative impacts of IFAP on animals and the environment.

There are numerous examples of successful farm animal welfare legislation throughout the world. Gestation crates for pregnant sows and barren battery cages for egg-laying hens are being phased out in the European Union.^{228,229} The country of New Zealand and the Australian state of Tasmania are also phasing out gestation crates.²³⁰ And the EU has already phased out individual housing and continual tethering of veal calves.^{231,232,233}

Recent policy changes in the U.S. have indicated a clear move away from the intensive confinement of farm animals. The states of Florida,²³⁴ Arizona,²³⁵ Oregon,²³⁶ Maine,²³⁷ Colorado,²³⁸ and Rhode Island²³⁹ have passed laws against gestation crate confinement of pregnant sows. Arizona,²⁴⁰ Maine,²⁴¹ and Colorado²⁴² also passed laws against confining calves in veal crates. California, Michigan, Ohio, and Rhode Island have moved to restrict the use of cages and crates to confine farm animals, including restricting battery cage confinement of egg laying hens.^{243, 244, 245, 246}

Where policies have been initiated to protect animal welfare, producers have adapted and animal source foods continue to be produced on a commercial scale. The existence of these alternate agricultural systems around the world suggests that the development of sustainable and more animal-welfare-friendly practices is not hindered by technological barriers, but by economic and agricultural policies.²⁴⁷ The FAO's 2009 report, *The State of Food and Agriculture: Livestock in the Balance*, encourages rectifying these problems through proper incentives and dis-incentives in the agricultural sector:

A key policy focus should be on correcting market distortions and policy failures that encourage environmental degradation. For example, subsidies that directly or indirectly promote overgrazing, land degradation, deforestation, overuse of water or GHG emissions should be reduced or eliminated. Market-based policies, such as taxes and fees for natural resource use, should cause producers to internalize the costs of environmental damages caused by livestock production.²⁴⁸

Animal welfare should also be a focus of market-based incentives and other public policies. Large-scale producers have shown the capacity to adapt to new regulations, and forcing them to account for negative externalities will level the playing field for small farmers, lead to higher levels of animal welfare and sustainability, and improve food security.

Conclusion

In order to ensure long-term food security, particularly for vulnerable groups in the developing world, development finance and policies must favor small farmers who give proper care to their animals, act in accordance with the basic ethic of compassion towards animals under their control, and practice and promote more humane and environmentally sustainable agriculture.

By contrast, past and current support for IFAP has threatened the food security of poor households by pushing small farmers out of the market, removing jobs from rural areas, polluting the environment, exploiting scarce agricultural resources, and jeopardizing human health. Hope for the future lies in positive examples of donor support for small-farmer led and animal welfare-friendly agriculture, as well as in strong animal welfare regulations in many countries which have demonstrated that properly guided policies and supports can simultaneously benefit both humans and animals worldwide.

APPENDIX 1:

The United States Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) offers a more specific classification of these facilities, defining them as small, medium, or large Confined Animal Feeding Operations (CAFOs). According to the EPA, “Animal Feeding Operations (AFOs) are agricultural operations where animals are kept and raised in confined situations. AFOs congregate animals, feed, manure and urine, dead animals, and production operations on a small land area. Feed is brought to the animals rather than the animals grazing or otherwise seeking feed in pastures, fields, or on rangeland.”²⁴⁹

Facilities that confine animals for at least 45 days in a 12-month period, in a confinement area lacking grass or other vegetation during the normal growing season, are designated as AFOs.²⁵⁰ In addition to meeting the definition of an AFO, CAFOs meet the criteria for a large, medium, or small CAFO. A facility is designated as a large CAFO based on the number of animals confined. A large pig CAFO, for example, confines 2,500 or more pigs weighing over 25 kg (55 pounds), or 10,000 or more pigs weighing less than 25 kg (55 pounds). A large chicken CAFO utilizing a liquid manure handling system confines 30,000 animals or more (the minimum number of chickens required for this designation increases if an alternative manure management system is employed).²⁵¹

Medium and small CAFOs confine fewer animals, but may have been cited by the EPA as a significant contributor of pollutants; medium sized CAFOs may allow the animals or their waste to come in contact with surface water.²⁵² More detailed definitions of CAFOS, and size classifications for additional species, can be found on the EPA website.²⁵³

¹ Steinfeld H, Gerber P, Wassenaar T, Castel V, Rosales M, and de Haan C. 2006. Livestock’s long shadow: environmental issues and options. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, p. xx. <http://ftp.fao.org/docrep/fao/010/a0701e/a0701e00.pdf>. Accessed October 31, 2011.

² Steinfeld H, Gerber P, Wassenaar T, Castel V, Rosales M, and de Haan C. 2006. Livestock’s long shadow: environmental issues and options. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, p. 275. <http://ftp.fao.org/docrep/fao/010/a0701e/a0701e00.pdf>. Accessed October 31, 2011.

³ Organisation for Economic Co-Operation and Development and Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. 2011. OECD-FAO agricultural outlook 2011-2020, p. 136.

⁴ Verge XPC, De Kimpe C, and Desjardins RL. 2007. Agricultural production, greenhouse gas emissions and mitigation potential. *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology* 142:225-69.

⁵ Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Commission on Genetic Resources for Food and Agriculture. 2007. The state of the world’s animal genetic resources for food and agriculture, p. 53. www.fao.org/docrep/010/a1250e/a1250e00.htm. Accessed October 1, 2011.

⁶ Steinfeld H, Gerber P, Wassenaar T, Castel V, Rosales M, and de Haan C. 2006. Livestock’s long shadow: environmental issues and options. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, pp. 53 Table 2.9, 54 Table 2.10.

⁷ International Finance Corporation. Muiyuan Pig, A Summary Report. <http://www.ifc.org/ifcext/spiwebsite1.nsf/0/8899E791D7917B65852577190056DBC6>. Accessed September 11, 2011.

⁸ Nasa N. 2011. Starving hens now an offence. *Down to Earth*, July 21. <http://downtoearth.org.in/content/starving-hens-now-offence>. Accessed September 11, 2011.

⁹ The Humane Society of the United States. 2010. New investigations by The HSUS reveal appalling animal abuse at four egg factory farms. Press release issued April 7. http://www.humanesociety.org/news/press_releases/2010/04/egg_industry_investigation_040710.html. Accessed July 29, 2011.

¹⁰ Pew Commission on Industrial Farm Animal Production. 2008. Putting meat on the table: industrial farm animal production in America, pp. 33, 38, 85. <http://www.ncifap.org/bin/e/j/PCIFAPFin.pdf>. Accessed September 11, 2011.

-
- ¹¹ Steinfeld H, Wassenaar T, and Jutzi S. 2006. Livestock production systems in developing countries: status, drivers, trends. *Rev. sci. tech. Off. int. Epiz.* 25(2):505 -516, pp. 511-512. <http://www.oie.int/doc/ged/D3537.PDF>. Accessed September 11, 2011.
- ¹² Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. 2009. The state of food and agriculture: livestock in the balance, p. 4. <http://www.fao.org/docrep/012/i0680e/i0680e.pdf>. Accessed September 11, 2011, .
- ¹³ De Haan C, Van Veen TS, Brandenburg B, et al. 2001. Livestock development: implications for rural poverty, the environment, and global food security (Washington, D.C.: The World Bank), p. 5. http://www.wds.worldbank.org/external/default/WDSContentServer/WDSP/IB/2001/12/11/000094946_01112104010387/Rendered/PDF/multi0page.pdf. Accessed May 19, 2010.
- ¹⁴ Rattanani J. 2006. India to see tremendous changes. *World Poultry Review* 22(6):10-12.
- ¹⁵ Delgado CL, Narrod CA, Tiongco MM, et al. 2008. Determinants and implications of the growing scale of livestock farms in four fast-growing developing countries, p. 24. International Food Policy Research Institute, Research Report 157. <http://www.ifpri.org/sites/default/files/publications/rr157.pdf>. Accessed October 1, 2011.
- ¹⁶ Cameron, RDA. 2000. A Review of the Industrialisation of Pig Production Worldwide with Particular Reference to the Asian Region. http://www.fao.org/ag/againfo/resources/en/publications/agapubs/awi_concept_pig_product.pdf. Accessed October 1, 2011.
- ¹⁷ McLeod A, Thieme O, and Mack S.D. 2009. Structural changes in the poultry sector: will there be smallholder poultry development in 2030? *World's Poultry Science Journal* 65:191-199.
- ¹⁸ Ikerd JE. 2004. The economic impacts of increased contract swine production in Missouri: another viewpoint. <http://web.missouri.edu/ikerdj/papers/con-hog.htm>. Accessed October 1, 2011.
- ¹⁹ Durrenberger EP and Thu KM. 1996. The expansion of large scale hog farming in Iowa: the applicability of Goldschmidt's findings fifty years later. *Human Organization* 55(4):409-15.
- ²⁰ Ponette-González AG and Fry M. 2010. Pig pandemic: industrial hog farming in eastern Mexico. *Land Use Policy* 27:1107-10.
- ²¹ Costales A, Delgado C, Catelo MA, et al.. 2007. Scale and Access Issues Affecting Smallholder Hog Producers in an Expanding Peri-Urban Market: Southern Luzon, Philippines. International Food Policy Research Institute, Washington, D.C; International Livestock Research Institute, Nairobi; University of the Philippines Los Baños-College of Economics and Management, Laguna. p. 2. http://www.ifpri.org/sites/default/files/publications/rr151_0.pdf. Accessed October 1, 2011.
- ²² Costales A., Delgado C, Catelo MA, et al.. 2007. Scale and Access Issues Affecting Smallholder Hog Producers in an Expanding Peri-Urban Market: Southern Luzon, Philippines. International Food Policy Research Institute, Washington, D.C; International Livestock Research Institute, Nairobi; University of the Philippines Los Baños-College of Economics and Management, Laguna. p. 3. http://www.ifpri.org/sites/default/files/publications/rr151_0.pdf. Accessed October 1, 2011.
- ²³ Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. 2009. The state of food and agriculture: livestock in the balance, p. 4. <http://www.fao.org/docrep/012/i0680e/i0680e.pdf>. Accessed October 2, 2011.
- ²⁴ Steinfeld H, Gerber P, Wassenaar T, Castel V, Rosales M, and de Haan C. 2006. Livestock's long shadow: environmental issues and options. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, pp. 57-58.
- ²⁵ Steinfeld H, Gerber P, Wassenaar T, Castel V, Rosales M, and de Haan C. 2006. Livestock's long shadow: environmental issues and options. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, p. 58. <ftp://ftp.fao.org/docrep/fao/010/a0701e/a0701e00.pdf>. Accessed October 2, 2011.
- ²⁶ Steinfeld H, Gerber P, Wassenaar T, Castel V, Rosales M, and de Haan C. 2006. Livestock's long shadow: environmental issues and options. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, p. 262. <ftp://ftp.fao.org/docrep/fao/010/a0701e/a0701e00.pdf>. Accessed October 2, 2011.
- ²⁷ Ajani OIY and Ugwu PC. 2008. Impact of adverse health on agricultural productivity of farmers in Kainji Basin North-Central Nigeria using a stochastic production frontier approach. *Trends in Agriculture Economics* 1(1):1-7.
- ²⁸ Rosegrant MW, Ringler C, and Zhu T. 2009. Water for agriculture: maintaining food security under growing scarcity. *Annual Review of Environment and Resources* 34:205-22.
- ²⁹ Drucker AG, Gomez V, and Anderson A. 2001. The economic valuation of farm animal genetic resources: a survey of available methods. *Ecological Economics* 36:1-18.
- ³⁰ Drucker AG, Gomez V, and Anderson A. 2001. The economic valuation of farm animal genetic resources: a survey of available methods. *Ecological Economics* 36:1-18.
- ³¹ Drucker AG, Gomez V, and Anderson A. 2001. The economic valuation of farm animal genetic resources: a survey of available methods. *Ecological Economics* 36:1-18.
- ³² Committee on World Food Security. 2011. Global strategic framework for food security and nutrition: an annotated outline. http://km.fao.org/fileadmin/templates/CFS_consultation/doc/GSF_outline_en.pdf. Accessed November 1, 2011.

-
- ³³ Committee on World Food Security. 2011. Global strategic framework for food security and nutrition: an annotated outline. http://km.fao.org/fileadmin/templates/CFS_consultation/doc/GSF_outline_en.pdf. Accessed November 1, 2011.
- ³⁴ Solesbury W. 2003. Sustainable livelihoods: a case study of the evolution of DFID policy. Overseas Development Institute. <http://www.odi.org.uk/resources/download/144.pdf>. Accessed October 2, 2011.
- ³⁵ Baumann, P. 2002. Improving access to natural resources for the rural poor: a critical analysis of central concepts and emerging trends from a sustainable livelihoods perspective. <http://www.fao.org/docrep/006/ad683e/ad683e00.HTM>. Accessed October 2, 2011.
- ³⁶ Global Environmental Change and Food Systems. Glossary & acronyms. www.gecafs.org/glossary/index.html#FoodSecurity. Accessed October 2, 2011.
- ³⁷ Pinstrup-Andersen P. 2009. Food security: definition and measurement. *Food Security* 1(1):5-7. <http://argus.ica.ac.cr/Esp/organizacion/LTGC/Documentacion/BibliotecaVenezuela/Boletines/2009/n4/foodsecurity-Springer-art%C3%ADculo2.pdf>. Accessed October 2, 2011.
- ³⁸ International Food Policy Research Institute. 1993. Linkages between agriculture and nutrition: implications for policy and research. http://www.ifpri.org/sites/default/files/publications/pubs_pubs_books_oc28_oc28.pdf. Accessed October 2, 2011.
- ³⁹ Wiggins Sand Leturque H. 2010. Helping Africa to feed itself: promoting agriculture to reduce poverty and hunger, p. 7. The Future Agriculture Consortium, Occasional Paper 002. http://www.ukcds.org.uk/_assets/file/publications/FAC_Occasional_Paper_001c.pdf. Accessed October 2, 2011.
- ⁴⁰ FANTA Project. 2010. Agriculture and Nutrition. Brief 2, December 2010. http://www.fantaproject.org/downloads/pdfs/FANTA2_Uganda_Agriculture_Nutrition_2010.pdf. Accessed October 2, 2011. p. 3.
- ⁴¹ Rivera JA, Monterrubio EA, González-Cossío T, García-Feregrino R, García-Guerra A, and Sepulveda-Amor J. 2003. Nutritional status of indigenous children younger than five years of age in Mexico: Results of a national probabilistic survey. *Salud Publica de Mexico*, 45(supplement 4):S466-76. http://bvs.insp.mx/rsp/_files/File/2003/supl_4/nutritional%20status.pdf. Accessed October 2, 2011.
- ⁴² Hall G and Patrinos HA. 2005. Indigenous peoples, poverty and human development in Latin America: 1994-2004, p. 8. http://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTLAC/Resources/FinalExecutiveSummary_Eng_May05.pdf. Accessed October 2, 2011.
- ⁴³ Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. 2011. faostat.fao.org.
- ⁴⁴ Hall G and Patrinos HA. 2005. Indigenous peoples, poverty and human development in Latin America: 1994-2004, p. 3. http://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTLAC/Resources/FinalExecutiveSummary_Eng_May05.pdf. Accessed October 2, 2011.
- ⁴⁵ Hall G and Patrinos HA. 2005. Indigenous peoples, poverty and human development in Latin America: 1994-2004, p. 3. http://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTLAC/Resources/FinalExecutiveSummary_Eng_May05.pdf. Accessed October 2, 2011.
- ⁴⁶ Hall G and Patrinos HA. 2005. Indigenous peoples, poverty and human development in Latin America: 1994-2004, p. 8. http://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTLAC/Resources/FinalExecutiveSummary_Eng_May05.pdf. Accessed October 2, 2011.
- ⁴⁷ Zehr UB. 2001. Whose responsibility is it to end hunger? Sustainable Food Security For All By 2020. International Food Policy Research Institute Conference. Bonn, Germany, September 4-6. http://conferences.ifpri.org/2020conference/PDF/summary_zehr.pdf. Accessed July 15, 2011.
- ⁴⁸ Clements M. June 23, 2010. "An Overview of the Indian Poultry Industry." WATT AgNet. http://www.wattagnet.com/An_overview_of_the_Indian_poultry_industry.html
- ⁴⁹ Government of India. 2011. "Poultry Development." National Portal Content Management Team. www.india.gov.in/sectors/agriculture/poultry_development.php. Accessed August 28, 2010.
- ⁵⁰ Mehta R, & Nambiar RG. 2008. The Poultry Industry in India, In: "Poultry in the 21st Century: Avian Influenza and Beyond: Proceedings of the International Poultry Conference." Bangkok, Thailand. November 5-7. <ftp://ftp.fao.org/docrep/fao/011/i0323e/i0323e.pdf>. Accessed July 15, 2011. p. 2.
- ⁵¹ Landes M, Persaud S, & Dyck J. 2004. India's Poultry Sector: Development and Prospects. Market and Trade Economics Division, Economic Research Service, U.S. Department of Agriculture, Agriculture and Trade Report. <http://www.ers.usda.gov/publications/WRS0403/WRS0403.pdf>. Accessed July 15, 2011. p. v.
- ⁵² Mohanty S, & Rajendran K. 2003. 2020 Vision for Indian Poultry Industry. *International Journal of Poultry Science*, 2(2): 139-143.

- ⁵³ The World Bank. 2006. India: Malnutrition Report, Undernourished Children: A Call for Reform and Action. <http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/COUNTRIES/SOUTHASIAEXT/0,,contentMDK:20916955~pagePK:146736~piPK:146830~theSitePK:223547,00.html>. Accessed August 17, 2011.
- ⁵⁴ Landes M, Persaud S, & Dyck J. 2004. India's Poultry Sector: Development and Prospects. Market and Trade Economics Division, Economic Research Service, U.S. Department of Agriculture, Agriculture and Trade Report. <http://www.ers.usda.gov/publications/WRS0403/WRS0403.pdf>. Accessed July 15, 2011. p. v.
- ⁵⁵ The World Bank. 2006. India: Malnutrition Report, Undernourished Children: A Call for Reform and Action. <http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/COUNTRIES/SOUTHASIAEXT/0,,contentMDK:20916955~pagePK:146736~piPK:146830~theSitePK:223547,00.html>. Accessed August 17, 2011.
- ⁵⁶ The World Bank. 2007. World Development Report 2008: Agriculture for Development, Overview. <http://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTWDR2008/Resources/2795087-1192111580172/WDRover2008-ENG.pdf>. Accessed August 28, 2010.
- ⁵⁷ McMichael P. 2001. The impact of globalisation, free trade and technology on food and nutrition in the new millennium. *Proceedings of the Nutrition Society*, 60:215-20.
- ⁵⁸ Prentice A. 2006. The emerging epidemic of obesity in developing countries. *International Journal of Epidemiology*, 35:93-99. (abstract)
- ⁵⁹ Shafique S, Akhter N, Stallkamp G, de Pee S, Panagides D, & Bloem M. 2007. Trends of under- and overweight among rural and urban poor women indicate the double burden of malnutrition in Bangladesh. *International Journal of Epidemiology*, 36:449-457. (abstract)
- ⁶⁰ Mehta SR, Kashyap AS, & Das S. 2009. Diabetes Mellitus in India: the modern scourge. *Medical Journal Armed Forces India*, 65(1): 50-54.
- ⁶¹ Klaus M. 2011. June 5, 2011. "Ag can continue feeding the world in 2050." Feedstuffs Foodlink. <http://www.feedstuffsfoodlink.com/ME2/dirmod.asp?sid=124ECF05FDF84451B3E79A337664CA3C&nm=&type=Blog&mod=BlogTopics&mid=67D6564029914AD3B204AD35D8F5F780&tier=7&id=B4D442064E484AD7B6CD07C4BFD398B4>. Accessed August 24, 2011.
- ⁶² Southeast Farm Press. December 23, 2009. "U.S. soybean farmers feeding the world." <http://southeastfarmpress.com/soybeans/world-hunger-1224/index.html>. Accessed August 28, 2010.
- ⁶³ Southeast Farm Press. December 23, 2009. "U.S. soybean farmers feeding the world." <http://southeastfarmpress.com/soybeans/world-hunger-1224/index.html>. Accessed August 28, 2010.
- ⁶⁴ Indiana Soybean Alliance. 2010. Livestock - #1 customer for soybean meal. www.indianasoybean.com/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=13&Itemid=1. Accessed August 28, 2010.
- ⁶⁵ U.S. Environmental Protection Agency. 2009. Major Crops Grown in the United States. <http://www.epa.gov/agriculture/ag101/cropmajor.html>
- ⁶⁶ Steinfeld H, Gerber P, Wassenaar T, Castel V, Rosales M, & de Haan C. 2006. Livestock's long shadow: environmental issues and options. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, pp. 39, 43. <ftp://ftp.fao.org/docrep/fao/010/a0701e/a0701e.pdf>
- ⁶⁷ Speedy A. 2003. Animal source foods to improve micronutrient nutrition in developing countries: global production and consumption of animal source foods. *Journal of Nutrition*, 133:404S-53S.
- ⁶⁸ McLeod A, Thieme O, & Mack SD. 2009. Structural changes in the poultry sector: will there be smallholder poultry development in 2030? *World's Poultry Science Journal*, 65:191-199, 196.
- ⁶⁹ Ikerd JE. 2004. The economic impacts of increased contract swine production in Missouri: another viewpoint. Sustainable Agriculture Systems Program: University of Missouri. <http://web.missouri.edu/ikerdj/papers/con-hog.htm>. Accessed June 18, 2008. p. 5.
- ⁷⁰ Durrenberger EP, & Thu KM. 1996. The expansion of large scale hog farming in Iowa: the applicability of Goldschmidt's findings fifty years later. *Human Organization*, 55(4):409-15. p. 6.
- ⁷¹ Subramanyam MA, Kawachi I, Berkman LF, & Subramanian SV. 2011. Is Economic Growth Associated with Reduction in Child Undernutrition in India? *Public Library of Science Medicine*, 8(3). <http://www.plosmedicine.org/article/info:doi/10.1371/journal.pmed.1000424>
- ⁷² McLeod A, Thieme O, & Mack SD. 2009. Structural changes in the poultry sector: will there be smallholder poultry development in 2030? *World's Poultry Science Journal*, 65:191-199, 196.
- ⁷³ Gueye EF. 2005. Gender aspects in family poultry management systems in developing countries. *World's Poultry Science Journal*, 61:39-46, 41.
- ⁷⁴ Gueye EF. 2005. Gender aspects in family poultry management systems in developing countries. *World's Poultry Science Journal*, 61:39-46, 41.

-
- ⁷⁵ Ponette-González AG, & Fry M. 2010. Pig pandemic: industrial hog farming in eastern Mexico. *Land Use Policy*, 27:1107-10, 1107.
- ⁷⁶ Nepstad DC, Stickler CM, & Almeida OT. 2006. Globalization of the Amazon soy and beef industries: opportunities for conservation. *Conservation Biology*, 20(6):1595-1603, 1599.
- ⁷⁷ McMichael P. 2001. The impact of globalisation, free trade and technology on food and nutrition in the new millennium. *Proceedings of the Nutrition Society*, 60:215-20, 216.
- ⁷⁸ Marks R. 2001. Cesspools of shame: how factory farm lagoons and sprayfields threaten environmental and public health. Natural Resources Defense Council and the Clean Water Network. www.nrdc.org/water/pollution/cesspools/cesspools.pdf. Accessed August 22, 2010. p. 7.
- ⁷⁹ Kennedy RF Jr., & Schaeffer E. September 20, 2003. "An ill wind from factory farms." The New York Times, www.environmentalintegrity.org/pubs/CAFO_AIR_EDITORIAL_092003.pdf. Accessed August 22, 2010. p. 1.
- ⁸⁰ Wing S, Cole D, & Grant G. 2000. Environmental injustice in North Carolina's hog industry. *Environmental Health Perspectives*, 108(3):225-31. www.ehponline.org/members/2000/108p225-231wing/108p225.pdf. Accessed July 2, 2008.
- ⁸¹ Kennedy RF Jr., & Schaeffer E. September 20, 2003. "An ill wind from factory farms." The New York Times, www.environmentalintegrity.org/pubs/CAFO_AIR_EDITORIAL_092003.pdf. Accessed August 22, 2010. p. 1.
- ⁸² Marks R. 2001. Cesspools of shame: how factory farm lagoons and sprayfields threaten environmental and public health. Natural Resources Defense Council and the Clean Water Network. www.nrdc.org/water/pollution/cesspools/cesspools.pdf. Accessed July 2, 2008. p. 7.
- ⁸³ Kennedy RF Jr., & Schaeffer E. September 20, 2003. "An ill wind from factory farms." The New York Times, www.environmentalintegrity.org/pubs/CAFO_AIR_EDITORIAL_092003.pdf. Accessed August 22, 2010. p. 1.
- ⁸⁴ Robin RS. May 16, 2007. "Punjab poultry farmers see big market players as threat." AndhraNews. http://www.jkanimalhusbandry.net/ah_media.php?a=11. Accessed August 5, 2011.
- ⁸⁵ Mudasir A. May 15, 2007. "Farmers up the ante against contract farming in Kashmir." Daily Greater Kashmir. http://www.jkanimalhusbandry.net/ah_media.php?a=10. Accessed August 4, 2011.
- ⁸⁶ Karunakaran N. 2005. Indian poultry bracing for massive framework restructure. Oxfam Global Week of Action. p. 5-6, Box 2.
- ⁸⁷ Karunakaran N. 2005. Indian poultry bracing for massive framework restructure. Oxfam Global Week of Action. p. 5-6, Box 2.
- ⁸⁸ Karunakaran N. 2005. Indian poultry bracing for massive framework restructure. Oxfam Global Week of Action. p. 5-6.
- ⁸⁹ Mitchell M. June 21, 2004. "A rough game: poultry companies' contract system is keeping poultry farmers on a very tight leash." Winston-Salem Journal.
- ⁹⁰ Charman K. January 23, 2002. "Down on the farm: modern day sharecroppers—the dismal future of farming." TomPaine.com. www.tompaine.com/Archive/scontent/5036.html. Accessed July 2, 2008.
- ⁹¹ Ikerd JE. 2004. The economic impacts of increased contract swine production in Missouri: another viewpoint. Sustainable Agriculture Systems Program: University of Missouri. <http://web.missouri.edu/ikerdj/papers/con-hog.htm>. Accessed June 18, 2008. p. 5.
- ⁹² Durrenberger EP, & Thu KM. 1996. The expansion of large scale hog farming in Iowa: the applicability of Goldschmidt's findings fifty years later. *Human Organization*, 55(4):409-15. p. 6.
- ⁹³ Ikerd JE. 2004. The economic impacts of increased contract swine production in Missouri: another viewpoint. <http://web.missouri.edu/ikerdj/papers/co>
- ⁹⁴ Ponette-González AG and Fry M. 2010. Pig pandemic: industrial hog farming in eastern Mexico. *Land Use Policy* 27:1107-10. p. 1109
- ⁹⁵ Ikerd JE. 2004. The economic impacts of increased contract swine production in Missouri: Another Viewpoint. p.7. <http://web.missouri.edu/ikerdj/papers/con-hog.htm>. Accessed May 28, 2011.
- ⁹⁶ Spellman FR, & Whiting NE. 2007. Get Big or Get Out, In: *Environmental Management of Concentrated Animal Feeding Operations (CAFOs)*, pp. 6-7, CRC Press, ISBN 0849370981.
- ⁹⁷ Spellman FR and Whiting NE. 2007. Environmental Management of Concentrated Animal Feeding Operations (CAFOs) (Boca Raton, FL: Taylor & Francis Group, pp. 6-7).
- ⁹⁸ Steinfeld H, Gerber P, Wassenaar T, Castel V, Rosales M, and de Haan C. 2006. Livestock's long shadow: environmental issues and options. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, p. xxii.
- ⁹⁹ Steinfeld H, Gerber P, Wassenaar T, Castel V, Rosales M, and de Haan C. 2006. Livestock's long shadow: environmental issues and options. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, p. xxi.

-
- ¹⁰⁰ Steinfeld H, Gerber P, Wassenaar T, Castel V, Rosales M, and de Haan C. 2006. Livestock's long shadow: environmental issues and options. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, p. 84.
- ¹⁰¹ Rosegrant MW, Ringler C, Zhu T. 2009. Water for Agriculture: maintaining food security under growing scarcity. *Annual Review of Environment and Resources* 34:205-222. p. 207
- ¹⁰² Lambin EF, Meyfroidt P. 2011. Global land use change, economic globalization, and the looming land scarcity. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 108(9): 3465-3472. p. 3466.
- ¹⁰³ Steinfeld H, Gerber P, Wassenaar T, Castel V, Rosales M, and de Haan C. 2006. Livestock's long shadow: environmental issues and options. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, p. xxi.
- ¹⁰⁴ Steinfeld H, Gerber P, Wassenaar T, Castel V, Rosales M, and de Haan C. 2006. Livestock's long shadow: environmental issues and options. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, p. xxi.
- ¹⁰⁵ Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. 2009. The state of food and agriculture: livestock in the balance, p. 29. <http://www.fao.org/docrep/012/i0680e/i0680e.pdf>. Accessed August 26, 2010.
- ¹⁰⁶ Bartley, D.M.; Brugère, C.; Soto, D.; Gerber, P.; Harvey, B. (eds). 2007. Comparative assessment of the environmental costs of aquaculture and other food production sectors: methods for meaningful comparisons. FAO/WFT Expert Workshop. 24-28 April 2006, Vancouver, Canada. FAO Fisheries Proceedings. No. 10. Rome, Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. <http://library.enaca.org/environment/comparative-assessment08.pdf#page=47> pgs 40-43. Accessed October 15, 2011.
- ¹⁰⁷ Weis T. 2010. The accelerating biophysical contradictions of industrial capitalist agriculture. *Journal of Agrarian Change* 10(3): 315-341. p. 316.
- ¹⁰⁸ Rosegrant MW, Ringler C, Zhu T. 2009. Water for Agriculture: maintaining food security under growing scarcity. *Annual Review of Environment and Resources* 34:205-222. p. 216
- ¹⁰⁹ Weis T. 2010. The accelerating biophysical contradictions of industrial capitalist agriculture. *Journal of Agrarian Change* 10(3): 315-341. p. 318
- ¹¹⁰ Weis T. 2010. The accelerating biophysical contradictions of industrial capitalist agriculture. *Journal of Agrarian Change* 10(3): 315-341. p. 318
- ¹¹¹ Steinfeld H, Gerber P, Wassenaar T, Castel V, Rosales M, and de Haan C. 2006. Livestock's long shadow: environmental issues and options. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, p. xxi.
- ¹¹² Steinfeld H, Gerber P, Wassenaar T, Castel V, Rosales M, and de Haan C. 2006. Livestock's long shadow: environmental issues and options. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, p. xxi.
- ¹¹³ Steinfeld H, Gerber P, Wassenaar T, Castel V, Rosales M, and de Haan C. 2006. Livestock's long shadow: environmental issues and options. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, p. xxi.
- ¹¹⁴ Steinfeld H, Gerber P, Wassenaar T, Castel V, Rosales M, and de Haan C. 2006. Livestock's long shadow: environmental issues and options. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, pp. 39, 43.
- ¹¹⁵ Steinfeld H, Gerber P, Wassenaar T, Castel V, Rosales M, and de Haan C. 2006. Livestock's long shadow: environmental issues and options. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, p. xxiii.
- ¹¹⁶ Pinstrup-Andersen P, Pandya-Lorch R. 1994. Alleviating poverty, intensifying agriculture, and effectively managing natural resources. 2020 Vision Discussion Paper No. 1. Washington, DC: International Food Policy Research Institute. p. 5.
- ¹¹⁷ Steinfeld H, Gerber P, Wassenaar T, Castel V, Rosales M, and de Haan C. 2006. Livestock's long shadow: environmental issues and options. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, p. xxi.
- ¹¹⁸ Steinfeld H, Gerber P, Wassenaar T, Castel V, Rosales M, and de Haan C. 2006. Livestock's long shadow: environmental issues and options. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, p. 48.
- ¹¹⁹ Steinfeld H, Gerber P, Wassenaar T, Castel V, Rosales M, and de Haan C. 2006. Livestock's long shadow: environmental issues and options. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, p. xxi.
- ¹²⁰ Morton DC, DeFries RS, Shimabukuro YE, et al. 2006. Cropland expansion changes deforestation dynamics in the southern Brazilian Amazon. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 103(39):14637-41.
- ¹²¹ Morton DC, DeFries RS, Shimabukuro YE, et al. 2006. Cropland expansion changes deforestation dynamics in the southern Brazilian Amazon. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 103(39):14637-41.
- ¹²² Ramalho M. 2006. Crops responsible for deforestation in Brazil. Science and Development Network, September 5. www.scidev.net/News/index.cfm?fuseaction=readNews&itemid=3081&language=1. Accessed April 23, 2008.
- ¹²³ Nepstad DC, Stickler CM, Almeida OT. 2006. Globalization of the Amazon soy and beef industries: Opportunities for conservation. *Conservation Biology* 20:1595-1603.
- ¹²⁴ MacaHub. Brazil's soy exports to China fall between January and May. <http://www.macaHub.com/en/2011/06/15/brazil%E2%80%99s-soy-exports-to-china-fall-between-january-and-may/>. Accessed July 15, 2011.

-
- ¹²⁵ Steinfeld H, Gerber P, Wassenaar T, Castel V, Rosales M, and de Haan C. 2006. Livestock's long shadow: environmental issues and options. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, p. 29.
- ¹²⁶ UNEP/GRID-Arendal, 'Child Mortality and Land Degradation', *UNEP/GRID-Arendal Maps and Graphics Library*, http://maps.grida.no/go/graphic/child_mortality_and_land_degradation.> Accessed 19 May 2011
- ¹²⁷ Steinfeld H, Gerber P, Wassenaar T, Castel V, Rosales M, and de Haan C. 2006. Livestock's long shadow: environmental issues and options. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, p. xxii.
- ¹²⁸ Stockholm International Water Institute and the International Water Management Institute. 2004. Water—more nutrition per drop: towards sustainable food production and consumption patterns in a rapidly changing world. Stockholm International Water Institute. Stockholm, p. 21.
www.siwi.org/documents/Resources/Policy_Briefs/CSD_More_nutrition_per_drop_2004.pdf. Accessed July 7, 2009.
- ¹²⁹ Steinfeld H, Gerber P, Wassenaar T, Castel V, Rosales M, and de Haan C. 2006. Livestock's long shadow: environmental issues and options. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, pp. 128-129.
- ¹³⁰ Steinfeld H, Gerber P, Wassenaar T, Castel V, Rosales M, and de Haan C. 2006. Livestock's long shadow: environmental issues and options. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, p. 130.
- ¹³¹ Mendez E, Timoteo A. 2009. Documentó conagua contaminación provocada por Carroll; luego “cedió a presiones” y lo negó. Periódico La Jornada Miércoles 6 de mayo de 2009, p. 16.
- ¹³² Herforth A. Nutrition and the Environment: Fundamental to Food Security in Africa. In: Per Pinstrup-Andersen (Editor). *The African Food System and its Interaction with Human Health and Nutrition*. Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press, 2010. (in press). Pg. 6
- ¹³³ Steinfeld H, Gerber P, Wassenaar T, Castel V, Rosales M, and de Haan C. 2006. Livestock's long shadow: environmental issues and options. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, p. xxii.
- ¹³⁴ U.S. Department of Agriculture Economic Research Service. 2007. Environmental interactions with agricultural production: animal agriculture and the environment. Pg. 2
- ¹³⁵ Pew Commission on Industrial Farm Animal Production. 2008. Putting meat on the table: industrial farm animal production in America, p. 23. <http://www.ncifap.org/bin/e/j/PCIFAPFin.pdf>. Accessed May 18, 2010.
- ¹³⁶ Gollehon N and Caswell M. 2000. Confined animal production poses manure management problems. U.S. Department of Agriculture Economic Research Service. *Agricultural Outlook*, September, pp. 12-18.
- ¹³⁷ Steinfeld H, Gerber P, Wassenaar T, Castel V, Rosales M, and de Haan C. 2006. Livestock's long shadow: environmental issues and options. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, p. 72
- ¹³⁸ Sharpley, AN, Daniel T, Sims T, Lemunyon J, Stevens R, Parry R. 2003. *Agricultural Phosphorus and Eutrophication*, 2nd ed. U.S. Department of Agriculture, Agricultural Research Service, ARS-149. p.ii
- ¹³⁹ Sharpley, AN, Daniel T, Sims T, Lemunyon J, Stevens R, Parry R. 2003. *Agricultural Phosphorus and Eutrophication*, 2nd ed. U.S. Department of Agriculture, Agricultural Research Service, ARS-149. p.1.
- ¹⁴⁰ Huynh TTT, Aarnink AJA, Drucker A, Verstegen MWA. 2006. Pig Production in Cambodia, Laos, Philippines, and Vietnam: A Review. *Asian Journal of Agriculture and Development* 4(1): 69-90. p. 69.
- ¹⁴¹ Catelo, MAO, Dorado MA, and Agbisit E Jr. 2001. “Backyard and Commercial Piggeries in the Philippines: Environmental Consequences and Pollution Control Options”. EEPSEA Research Report No. 2001-RR6. Ottawa, Canada: International Development Research Centre. <http://www.p2pays.org/ref/13/12938.pdf>. Accessed July 6, 2011.
- ¹⁴² Catelo, MAO, Dorado MA, and Agbisit E Jr. 2001. “Backyard and Commercial Piggeries in the Philippines: Environmental Consequences and Pollution Control Options”. EEPSEA Research Report No. 2001-RR6. Ottawa, Canada: International Development Research Centre. <http://www.p2pays.org/ref/13/12938.pdf>. Accessed July 6, 2011.
- ¹⁴³ Livestock Development: Implications for Rural Poverty, the Environment, and Global Food Security. The World Bank. http://www-wds.worldbank.org/external/default/WDSContentServer/WDSP/IB/2001/12/11/000094946_01112104010387/Rendered/PDF/multiOpape.pdf. Accessed July 15, 2011. p. 19.
- ¹⁴⁴ Pew Commission on Industrial Farm Animal Production. 2008. Putting meat on the table: industrial farm animal production in America, p. 7. <http://www.ncifap.org/bin/e/j/PCIFAPFin.pdf>. Accessed July 22, 2009.
- ¹⁴⁵ Just N, Duchaine C, Singh B. 2009. An aerobiological perspective of dust in cage-housed and floor-housed poultry operations. *Journal of Occupational Medicine and Toxicology* 4(13). Pg 2
- ¹⁴⁶ Earth Tech Inc. 2001. Final Technical Work Paper for Human Health Issues: Animal Agriculture GEIS, prepared for Minnesota Planning. Pg 1.

- ¹⁴⁷ Pew Commission on Industrial Farm Animal Production. 2008. Putting meat on the table: industrial farm animal production in America, p.17.<http://www.ncifap.org/bin/e/j/PCIFAPFin.pdf> . Accessed August 22, 2010.
- ¹⁴⁸ Donham KJ, Wing S, Osterberg D, Flora JL, Hodne C, et al. 2007 Community Health and Socioeconomic Issues Surrounding Concentrated Animal Feeding Operations. *Environmental Health Perspectives* 115(2). p.318.
- ¹⁴⁹ Greger, M. 2007. The Human/Animal Interface: Emergence and Resurgence of Zoonotic Infectious Diseases. *Critical Reviews in Microbiology* 33: 243-299. Pg 254 cited in Walton, J.R., and White, E.G., eds. 1981. *Communicable Diseases Resulting from Storage Handling, Transport and Landspreading of Manure*. Luxem-bourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities.
- ¹⁵⁰ Greger, M. 2007. The Human/Animal Interface: Emergence and Resurgence of Zoonotic Infectious Diseases. *Critical Reviews in Microbiology* 33: 243-299. Pg 259 (salmonella) and Pg.256 (e-coli).
- ¹⁵¹ Barrett JR. 2005. Airborne bacteria in CAFOs: transfer of resistance from animals to humans. *Environmental Health Perspectives*. 113(2):A116-7. (pg A117)
- ¹⁵² Gibbs SG, Green CF, Tarwater PM, Scarpino PV. 2004. Airborne antibiotic resistant and nonresistant bacteria and fungi recovered from two swine herd confined animal feeding operations. *Journal of Occupational and Environmental Hygiene*. 1(11):699-706. (abstract)
- ¹⁵³ Greger, M. 2007. The Human/Animal Interface: Emergence and Resurgence of Zoonotic Infectious Diseases. *Critical Reviews in Microbiology* 33: 243-299. Pg.256
- ¹⁵⁴ Nierenberg D. 2005. Happier meals: rethinking the global meat industry. *Worldwatch Paper* 171.
- ¹⁵⁵ Greger M. 2006. *Bird Flu: A Virus of Our Own Hatching* (New York, NY: Lantern Books).
<http://birdflubook.com/a.php?id=74>. Accessed August 4, 2011.
- ¹⁵⁶ Greger, M. 2007. The Human/Animal Interface: Emergence and Resurgence of Zoonotic Infectious Diseases. *Critical Reviews in Microbiology* 33: 243-299. Pg 253.
- ¹⁵⁷ Rauw WM, Kanis E, Noordhuizen-Stassen EN, Grommers FJ. Undesirable side effects of selection for high production efficiency in farm animals: a review. *Livest Prod Sci*. 1998;56(1):15-33.
- ¹⁵⁸ ILRI website <http://www.ilri.org/ilrinews/index.php/ilris-big-issues/protecting-breeds-for-people>
- ¹⁵⁹ World Health Organization. 2011. Food Security. <http://www.who.int/trade/glossary/story028/en/>. Accessed April 22, 2011.
- ¹⁶⁰ Steinfeld H, Gerber P, Wassenaar T, Castel V, Rosales M, and De Haan C. 2006. *Livestock's long shadow: environmental issues and options*. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, p. 79.
- ¹⁶¹ Steinfeld H, Gerber P, Wassenaar T, Castel V, Rosales M, and De Haan C. 2006. *Livestock's long shadow: environmental issues and options*. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, p. 82.
- ¹⁶² Forster P, Ramaswamy V, Artaxo P, et al. 2007. Changes in atmospheric constituents and in radiative forcing. In: Solomon S, Qin D, Manning M, et al (eds.), *Climate change 2007: the physical science basis*. Contribution of Working Group I to the Fourth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (Cambridge, United Kingdom and New York, NY, USA: Cambridge University Press, p. 135-136, FAQ 2.1).
- ¹⁶³ Pelletier N and Tyedmers P. 2010. Forecasting potential global environmental costs of livestock production 2000-2050. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* 107(43):18371-18374.
- ¹⁶⁴ U.S. Department of Agriculture. 2004. U.S. agriculture and forestry greenhouse gas inventory: 1990-2001, p. 11. www.usda.gov/oce/global_change/inventory_1990_2001/USDA%20GHG%20Inventory%20Chapter%202.pdf. Accessed April 23, 2008.
- ¹⁶⁵ Halweil B. 2005. The irony of climate. *World Watch Magazine*, March/April.
- ¹⁶⁶ Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. 2007. *Climate change 2007: climate change impacts, adaptation and vulnerability; summary for policymakers*. Working Group II Contribution to the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change Fourth Assessment Report.
- ¹⁶⁷ Casey M. 2007. Millions face hunger from climate change. *The Associated Press*, April 10.
- ¹⁶⁸ Government of India, Ministry of Environment and Forests, Indian Network for Climate Change Assessment. 2010. *Climate change and India: a 4x4 assessment: a sectoral and regional analysis for 2030s*, p. 67. <http://moef.nic.in/downloads/public-information/fin-rpt-incca.pdf> (Access date not indicated)
- ¹⁶⁹ Bates BC, Kundzewicz ZW, Wu S, and Palutikof JP (eds.). 2008. *Climate change and water*. Technical paper of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (Geneva: IPCC Secretariat, p. 62 § 4.2.3.2).
- ¹⁷⁰ Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. 2007. *Climate change 2007: climate change impacts, adaptation and vulnerability; summary for policymakers*. Working Group II Contribution to the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change Fourth Assessment Report, Chapter 5: food, fibre, and forest products, pp. 275 and 277-278.

- ¹⁷¹ Rosegrant MW, Ringler C, Zhu T. 2009. Water for Agriculture: maintaining food security under growing scarcity. *Annual Review of Environment and Resources* 34:205-222. p. 207
- ¹⁷² Weis T. 2010. The Accelerating Biophysical Contradictions of Industrial Capitalist Agriculture. *Journal of Agrarian Change* 10(3): 315-341. p. 318
- ¹⁷³ Smil V. 2002. Worldwide transformation of diets, burdens of meat production and opportunities for novel food protein. *Enzyme and Microbial Technology* 30:305-311. p. 309.
- ¹⁷⁴ Baroni L, Cenci L, Tettamanti M, and Berati M. 2007. Evaluating the environmental impact of various dietary patterns combined with different food production systems. *European Journal of Clinical Nutrition* 61:279-86, citing Moriconi E. 1997. *Nutrisi tutti, inquinando meno (Food for everyone, with less pollution)*. Regione Piemonte, Assessorato Tutela Ambientale.
- ¹⁷⁵ Smil V. 2002. Nitrogen and Food Production:Proteins for Human Diets. *Ambio* 31(2): 126-131. p. 130.
- ¹⁷⁶ Smil V. 2002. Nitrogen and Food Production:Proteins for Human Diets. *Ambio* 31(2): 126-131. p. 130.
- ¹⁷⁷ Smil V. 2002. Nitrogen and Food Production:Proteins for Human Diets. *Ambio* 31(2): 126-131. p. 130.
- ¹⁷⁸ Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. 2006. Nearly half of all fish eaten today farmed, not caught. FAONewsroom. www.fao.org/newsroom/en/news/2006/1000383/index.html. Accessed December 16, 2010.
- ¹⁷⁹ Smil V. 2002. Nitrogen and Food Production:Proteins for Human Diets. *Ambio* 31(2): 126-131. p. 130.
- ¹⁸⁰ Smil V. 2002. Nitrogen and Food Production:Proteins for Human Diets. *Ambio* 31(2): 126-131. p. 130.
- ¹⁸¹ Smil V. 2002. Nitrogen and Food Production:Proteins for Human Diets. *Ambio* 31(2): 126-131. p. 130.
- ¹⁸² Smil V. 2002. Nitrogen and Food Production:Proteins for Human Diets. *Ambio* 31(2): 126-131. p. 130.
- ¹⁸³ Holden PJ and Ensminger ME. 2006. *Swine Science, 7th Edition* (Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall, p. 23).
- ¹⁸⁴ Bell DD and Weaver WD. 2002. *Commercial Chicken Meat and Egg Production, 5th Edition* (Norwell, MA: Kluwer Academic Publishers, p. 852).
- ¹⁸⁵ Prentice A. 2006 The emerging epidemic of obesity in developing countries. *International Journal of Epidemiology* 35:93–99. (abstract)
- ¹⁸⁶ Shafique S, Akhter N, Stallkamp G, de Pee S, Panagides D, Bloem M. 2007. Trends of under- and overweight among rural and urban poor women indicate the double burden of malnutrition in Bangladesh. *International Journal of Epidemiology* 36:449–457. (abstract)
- ¹⁸⁷ Mendez M, Monteiro C, Popkin B. 2005. Overweight exceeds underweight among women in most developing countries. *American Journal of Clinical Nutrition* 81 (714 –21). p 714.
- ¹⁸⁸ Mehta SR et al. 2007. Diabetes Mellitus in India: The modern scourge. *Medical Journal Armed Forces of India*.
- ¹⁸⁹ Bhardwaj S et al. 2008. Childhood obesity in Asian Indians: a burgeoning cause of insulin resistance, diabetes, and sub-clinical inflammation. *Asia Pacific Journal of Clinical Nutrition*, pp. 172-175.
- ¹⁹⁰ World Health Organization Global Infobase. https://apps.who.int/infobase/Comparisons.aspx?l=&NodeVal=WGIE_BMI_5_cd.0704&D. Accessed May 8, 2011.
- ¹⁹¹ World Health Organization Global Infobase. https://apps.who.int/infobase/Comparisons.aspx?l=&NodeVal=WGIE_BMI_5_cd.0704&D. Accessed May 8, 2011.
- ¹⁹² Thow AM, Hawkes C. 2009. The implications of trade liberalization for diet and health: a case study from Central America. *Globalization and Health* 5(5). <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC2729306/pdf/1744-8603-5-5.pdf>. Accessed August 12, 2011.
- ¹⁹³ University of North Carolina Gillings School of Global Public Health. http://www.sph.unc.edu/?option=com_profiles&profileAction=ProfDetail&pid=704278929. Accessed August 5, 2011.
- ¹⁹⁴ Popkin BM, Du S. 2003. Dynamics of the Nutrition Transition toward the Animal Foods Sector in China and its Implications: A Worried Perspective. *The Journal of Nutrition*. 133(11 Suppl 2):3898S-3906S (abstract)
- ¹⁹⁵ Anderson S. 2003. Animal genetic resources and sustainable livelihoods. *Ecological Economics* 45:331-9.
- ¹⁹⁶ Wang Y, Monteiro C, Popkin B. 2002. Trends of obesity and underweight in older children and adolescents in the United States, Brazil, China, and Russia. *American Journal of Clinical Nutrition* 75(971-977). p 974.
- ¹⁹⁷ Mendez M, Monteiro C, Popkin B. 2005. Overweight exceeds underweight among women in most developing countries. *American Journal of Clinical Nutrition* 81 (714 –21). p 716.
- ¹⁹⁸ United Nations Children’s Fund. http://www.unicef.org/progressforchildren/2006n4/files/PFC4_CHART_ENG_004.pdf. Accessed May 6, 2011.
- ¹⁹⁹ Anderson S. 2003. Animal genetic resources and sustainable livelihoods. *Ecological Economics* 45:331-9.
- ²⁰⁰ Holmann F, Rivas L, Urbina N, et al. 2005. The role of livestock in poverty alleviation: an analysis of Columbia. *Livestock Research for Rural Development* 17(1):1-6.

- ²⁰¹ Millar J and Photakoun V. 2007. Livestock development and poverty alleviation: revolution or evolution for upland livelihoods in Lao PDR. *International Journal of Agricultural Sustainability* 6(1):89-102.
- ²⁰² Anderson S. 2003. Animal genetic resources and sustainable livelihoods. *Ecological Economics* 45:331-9.
- ²⁰³ Holmann F, Rivas L, Urbina N, et al. 2005. The role of livestock in poverty alleviation: an analysis of Columbia. *Livestock Research for Rural Development* 17(1):1-6.
- ²⁰⁴ Millar J and Photakoun V. 2007. Livestock development and poverty alleviation: revolution or evolution for upland livelihoods in Lao PDR. *International Journal of Agricultural Sustainability* 6(1):89-102.
- ²⁰⁵ International Finance Corporation. *Muyuan Pig, A Summary Report*.
<http://www.ifc.org/ifcext/spiwebsite1.nsf/0/8899E791D7917B65852577190056DBC6>. Accessed May 5, 2011.
- ²⁰⁶ Chemonics International. 2007. Romania Agribusiness Development Program Final Report. United States Agency for International Development. http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/PDACK242.pdf. Accessed May 5, 2011.
- ²⁰⁷ Bankwatch Network. *Animex/Smithfield Operation, Poland*.
<http://www.bankwatch.org/project.shtml?w=147579&s=153979>. Accessed May 5, 2011.
- ²⁰⁸ Inter-American Investment Corporation. 2005. The IIC supports the poultry and cattle industry in Nicaragua with a loan of up to US\$4.2 million. <http://www.iic.int/newsrelease/view.asp?id=357>. Accessed May 5, 2011.
- ²⁰⁹ International Finance Corporation. *Muyuan Pig, A Summary Report*.
<http://www.ifc.org/ifcext/spiwebsite1.nsf/0/8899E791D7917B65852577190056DBC6>. Accessed May 5, 2011.
- ²¹⁰ International Finance Corporation. *Muyuan Pig, A Summary Report*.
<http://www.ifc.org/ifcext/spiwebsite1.nsf/0/8899E791D7917B65852577190056DBC6>. Accessed May 5, 2011.
- ²¹¹ Popkin BM, Du S. 2003. Dynamics of the Nutrition Transition toward the Animal Foods Sector in China and its Implications: A Worried Perspective. *The Journal of Nutrition*. 133(11 Suppl 2):3898S-3906S (abstract)
- ²¹² ²¹² Lambin EF, Meyfroidt P. 2011. Global land use change, economic globalization, and the looming land scarcity. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 108(9): 3465-3472. p. 3469.
- ²¹³ United States Agency for International Development & Chemonics International. 2007. Romania Agribusiness Development Program Final Report. http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/PDACK242.pdf. Accessed May 5, 2011.
- ²¹⁴ CEE Bankwatch Network. n.d. *Animex/Smithfield Operation, Poland*.
<http://www.bankwatch.org/project.shtml?w=147579&s=153979>. Accessed May 5, 2011.
- ²¹⁵ Smithfield. n.d. *About Us*. <http://www.smithfield.com/about/>. Accessed July 29, 2011.
- ²¹⁶ CEE Bankwatch Network. n.d. *Animex/Smithfield Operation, Poland*.
<http://www.bankwatch.org/project.shtml?w=147579&s=153979>. Accessed May 5, 2011.
- ²¹⁷ Inter-American Investment Corporation. 2005. The IIC supports the poultry and cattle industry in Nicaragua with a loan of up to US\$4.2 million. <http://www.iic.int/newsrelease/view.asp?id=357>. Accessed May 5, 2011.
- ²¹⁸ World Bank. 2008. World Bank Provides funds in support of Pastoralist Community Development. Press release issued May 29.
<http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/COUNTRIES/AFRICAEXT/ETHIOPIAEXTN/0,,contentMDK:21784404~menuPK:295949~pagePK:2865066~piPK:2865079~theSitePK:295930,00.html>. Accessed July 15, 2011.
- ²¹⁹ World Bank. 2008. World Bank Provides funds in support of Pastoralist Community Development. Press release issued May 29.
<http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/COUNTRIES/AFRICAEXT/ETHIOPIAEXTN/0,,contentMDK:21784404~menuPK:295949~pagePK:2865066~piPK:2865079~theSitePK:295930,00.html>. Accessed July 15, 2011.
- ²²⁰ United States Agency for International Development. 2002. Now We Can Sell Our Milk: ZATAC Has Brought Us the Market. <http://www.usaid.gov/regions/afr/ss02/zambia5.html>. Accessed July 15, 2011.
- ²²¹ Iannotti L, Cunningham K, & Ruel M. 2009. Diversifying into healthy diets: homestead food production in Bangladesh. In: *Millions Fed: Proven Successes in Agricultural Development*. International Food Policy Research Institute. <http://www.ifpri.org/sites/default/files/publications/oc64ch21.pdf>. Accessed July 15, 2011. pp. 146, 150.
- ²²² Helen Keller International. 2011. <http://www.hki.org/working-worldwide/asia-pacific/bangladesh/>. Accessed September 28, 2011.
- ²²³ Dolberg F, Mallorie E, & Brett N. 2002. Evolution of the poultry model – a pathway out of poverty.
<http://www.ifad.org/english/operations/pi/bgd/documents/poultry.pdf>. Accessed June 13, 2011. p. 4.
- ²²⁴ Helen Keller International. 2002. Eggs are rarely eaten in rural Bangladesh: why and how to improve their availability. *Nutritional Surveillance Project Bulletin* No. 11. Dhaka, Bangladesh: Helen Keller International.
<http://www.hki.org/research/NSP%20Bulletin%2011.pdf>. Accessed September 28, 2011.
- ²²⁵ Boersma S. 2001. “Managing rapid growth rate in broilers.” *World Poultry*, 17(8):20-1.
<http://www.worldpoultry.net/article-database/download/managing-rapid-growth-rate-in-broilers-6226.pdf>

-
- ²²⁶ Julian RJ. 2004. Evaluating the impact of metabolic disorders on the welfare of broilers, In: *Measuring and Auditing Broiler Welfare*, Weeks CA & Butterworth A (eds.), pp. 51-9, CABI Publishing, ISBN 0851998054, Wallingford, U.K.
- ²²⁷ Havenstein GB, Ferket PR, Scheideler SE, & Larson BT. 1994. Growth, livability, and feed conversion of 1957 vs 1991 broilers when fed “typical” 1957 and 1991 broiler diets. *Poultry Science*, 73(12):1785-94.
<http://ps.fass.org/cgi/reprint/82/10/1500.pdf>
- ²²⁸ The Council of the European Union. 2001. Council Directive 2001/88/EC of 23 October 2001 amending Directive 91/630/EEC laying down minimum standards for the protection of pigs. Official Journal of the European Communities L316:1-4. <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=OJ:L:2001:316:0001:0004:EN:PDF>
- ²²⁹ Dewulf J. May 20, 2010. “Salmonella thrives in cage housing.” WorldPoultry.net.
<http://www.worldpoultry.net/news/salmonella-thrives-in-cage-housing-7481.html>. Accessed December 23, 2010.
- ²³⁰ Sherman B, & Jonson A. March 11, 2011. “Supermarkets’ animal welfare moves in good taste.” The Sydney Morning Herald. <http://www.smh.com.au/environment/animals/supermarkets-animal-welfare-moves-in-good-taste-20110311-1bqy2.html>. Accessed April 4, 2011.
- ²³¹ The Commission of the European Communities. 1997. Commission Decision of 24 February 1997 amending the Annex to Directive 91/629/EEC laying down minimum standards for the protection of calves (Text with EEA relevance) (97/182/EC). http://ec.europa.eu/food/fs/aw/aw_legislation/calves/97-182-ec_en.pdf. Accessed December 9, 2008.
- ²³² The Council of the European Union. 1997. Council Directive 97/2/EC of 20 January 1997 amending Directive 91/629/EEC laying down minimum standards for the protection of calves.
http://ec.europa.eu/food/fs/aw/aw_legislation/calves/97-2-ec_en.pdf. Accessed December 9, 2008.
- ²³³ The Commission of the European Communities. 1997. Commission Decision of 24 February 1997 amending the Annex to Directive 91/629/EEC laying down minimum standards for the protection of calves (Text with EEA relevance) (97/182/EC). http://ec.europa.eu/food/fs/aw/aw_legislation/calves/97-182-ec_en.pdf. Accessed December 9, 2008.
- ²³⁴ The Florida Constitution. 2002. Limiting cruel and inhumane confinement of pigs during pregnancy. Article X. Section 21. www.leg.state.fl.us/Statutes/index.cfm?Mode=Constitution&Submenu=3&Tab=statutes#A10S21. Accessed May 16, 2008.
- ²³⁵ Arizona Revised Statutes. 2006. Cruel and inhumane confinement of a pig during pregnancy or of a calf raised for veal. Title 13. Chapter 29. www.azleg.gov/FormatDocument.asp?inDoc=/ars/13/02910-07.htm&Title=13&DocType=ARS. Accessed May 16, 2008.
- ²³⁶ 74th Oregon Legislative Assembly. 2007. Relating to confinement of animals. Senate Bill 694.
<http://landru.leg.state.or.us/07reg/measures/sb0600.dir/sb0694.en.html>. Accessed May 16, 2008.
- ²³⁷ Maine Public Law. 2009. Chapter 127, An act to prohibit cruel confinement of calves raised for veal and sows during gestation. www.mainelegislature.org/legis/bills/bills_124th/chapters/PUBLIC127.asp. Accessed June 10, 2009.
- ²³⁸ Office of Gov. Bill Ritter, Jr. 2008. Gov. Ritter signs agriculture bills into law. Press release issued May 14.
<http://www.colorado.gov/cs/Satellite?c=Page&cid=1210756531933&pagename=GovRitter%2FGOVRLLayout>. Accessed May 5, 2011.
- ²³⁹ State of Rhode Island General Assembly. 2012. Legislative Status Report. Senate Bill No. 2191 SUB A as amended.
<http://status.rilin.state.ri.us/>. Accessed September 24, 2012.
- ²⁴⁰ Arizona Revised Statutes. 2006. Cruel and inhumane confinement of a pig during pregnancy or of a calf raised for veal. Title 13. Chapter 29. www.azleg.gov/FormatDocument.asp?inDoc=/ars/13/02910-07.htm&Title=13&DocType=ARS. Accessed May 16, 2008.
- ²⁴¹ Maine Public Law. 2009. Chapter 127, An act to prohibit cruel confinement of calves raised for veal and sows during gestation. www.mainelegislature.org/legis/bills/bills_124th/chapters/PUBLIC127.asp. Accessed June 10, 2009.
- ²⁴² Office of Gov. Bill Ritter, Jr. 2008. Gov. Ritter signs agriculture bills into law. Press release issued May 14.
<http://www.colorado.gov/cs/Satellite?c=Page&cid=1210756531933&pagename=GovRitter%2FGOVRLLayout>. Accessed May 5, 2011.
- ²⁴³ California Health and Safety Code, Division 20, Chapter 13.8, Farm Animal Cruelty, Section 25990-25994.
www.aroundthecapitol.com/code/getcode.html?file=../hsc/25001-26000/25990-25994. Accessed March 12, 2009.
- ²⁴⁴ Scott-Thomas, Caroline. 2010. One million Kraft Foods eggs go cage-free. Food Navigator-USA.com.
<http://www.foodnavigator-usa.com/content/view/print/344491>. Accessed December 23, 2010.
- ²⁴⁵ Eggen, Dan. 2010. Egg industry fighting efforts to increase cage sizes. Washington Post. September 7, 2010.
- ²⁴⁶ State of Rhode Island General Assembly. 2012. Legislative Status Report. Senate Bill No. 2191 SUB A as amended.
<http://status.rilin.state.ri.us/>. Accessed September 24, 2012.

-
- ²⁴⁷ Reganold, JP, Jackson-Smith, D, Batie, SS, Harwood RR, Kornegay JL, Bucks D, Flora CB, Hanson JC, Jury WA, Meyer D, Schumacher A, Sehmsdorf H, Shennan C, Thrupp, LA, Willis P. 2011. Transforming U.S. Agriculture. *Science* 332(6030): 670-671
- ²⁴⁸ Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. 2009. The state of food and agriculture: livestock in the balance, p. 27. <http://www.fao.org/docrep/012/i0680e/i0680e.pdf>. Accessed August 26, 2010. p. 74.
- ²⁴⁹ United States Environmental Protection Agency. 2011. <http://www.epa.gov/region7/water/cafo/index.htm>. Accessed September 15, 2011.
- ²⁵⁰ United States Environmental Protection Agency. 2011. <http://www.epa.gov/region7/water/cafo/index.htm>. Accessed September 15, 2011.
- ²⁵¹ United States Environmental Protection Agency. 2011. http://www.epa.gov/npdes/pubs/sector_table.pdf. Accessed September 15, 2011.
- ²⁵² United States Environmental Protection Agency. 2011. <http://www.epa.gov/region7/water/cafo/index.htm>. Accessed September 15, 2011.
- ²⁵³ United States Environmental Protection Agency. 2011. http://www.epa.gov/npdes/pubs/sector_table.pdf. Accessed September 15, 2011.