Dynamics of livestock production systems, drivers of change and prospects for animal genetic resources

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Summary

This overview analyses the key drivers of change in the global livestock sector and assesses how they are influencing current trends and future prospects in the world’s diverse livestock production systems and market chains; and what are their consequent impacts on the management of animal genetic resources for food and agriculture. The trends are occurring in both developing and industrialized countries, but the responses are different. In the developing world, the trends are affecting the ability of livestock to contribute to improving livelihoods and reducing poverty as well as the use of natural resources. In the industrialized world, the narrowing animal genetic resource base in industrial livestock production systems raises the need to maintain a broader range of animal genetic resources to be able to deal with future uncertainties, such as climate change and zoonotic diseases.

This chapter discusses:

• What are the global drivers of change for livestock systems? Economic development and globalization; changing market demands and the “livestock revolution”; environmental impacts including climate change; and science and technology trends.

• How are the livestock production systems responding to the global drivers of change? Trends in the three main livestock production systems (industrial, crop-livestock and pastoral systems); the range and rate of changes occurring in different systems and how these affect animal genetic resources. The implications are that breeds cannot adapt in time to meet new circumstances. Hence new strategies and interventions are necessary to improve the management of animal genetic resources in situations where these genetic resources are most at risk.

- What are the implications for animal genetic resources diversity and for future prospects of their use? Industrial livestock production systems are expected to have a limited demand for biodiversity, while crop-livestock and pastoral systems will rely on biodiversity to produce genotypes of improved productivity under changing environmental and socio-economic conditions. All systems will rely on biodiversity, albeit to varying degrees, to cope with expected climate change.

- What immediate steps are possible to improve animal genetic resources characterization, use and conservation? Appropriate institutional and policy frameworks are required to improve animal genetic resources management and these issues are being addressed at national and intergovernmental levels, in a process led by FAO to promote greater international collaboration on animal genetic resources. Based on an analysis of the current situation, the continuing loss of indigenous breeds and new developments in science and technology, there are several complementary actions that can begin to improve the management of animal genetic resources and maintain future options in an uncertain world.

These are summarized here as:

a. “Keep it on the hoof” – Encouraging the continuing sustainable use of traditional breeds and in situ conservation by providing market-driven incentives, public policy and

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other support to enable livestock keepers to maintain genetic diversity in their livestock populations.

b. “Move it or lose it” – Enabling access to and the safe movement of animal genetic resources within and between countries, regions and continents is a key factor in use, development and conservation of animal genetic resources globally.

c. “Match breeds to environments” – Understanding the match between livestock populations, breeds and genes with the physical, biological and economic landscape. This “landscape livestock genomics” approach offers the means to predict the genotypes most appropriate to a given environment and, in the longer term, to understand the genetic basis of adaptation of the genotype to the environment.

d. “Put some in the bank” – New technologies make ex situ, in vitro conservation of animal genetic resources feasible for critical situations and are a way to provide long-term insurance against future shocks.

The multiple values, functions and consequences of livestock production systems and their rapid rate of change lead to divergent interests within and between countries. Conversely, the uncertainty about the implications of rapid, multifaceted global change for each livestock production system and the resulting future changes in the required genetic make-up of animal genetic resources make collective action to tackle conservation of animal genetic resources a long-term, global public good. Conserving animal genetic resources will not by itself solve these problems, but it is an important first step towards maintaining future options.

Advances in science and the technology, in areas such as reproductive technology, genomics and spatial analysis, as well as progress in conceptualization of global public good production for the future management of animal genetic resources, should enable the international community to address both the short- and long-term challenges in innovative ways.

Résumé

Ce résumé analyse les facteurs clés qui ont subi des changements dans le secteur élevage et propose une évaluation de l’influence qu’ils ont eu sur la situation actuelle et les prospectives futures dans les différents systèmes d’élevage et de marché au niveau mondial. On analyse également les impacts sur la gestion des ressources génétiques animales pour l’alimentation et l’agriculture. Cette tendance se retrouve aussi bien dans les pays industrialisés que dans ceux en développement, mais les réponses sont différentes. Dans les pays en développement ces tendances ont une influence directe sur la capacité que présente l’élevage à contribuer à l’amélioration de la qualité de vie et à la réduction de la pauvreté, ainsi qu’à l’utilisation des ressources naturelles. Dans le monde industrialisé la proximité de la base des ressources génétiques animales avec les systèmes de production d’élevage au niveau industriel ont porté au besoin de conserver une plus grande gamme des ressources génétiques animales pour faire face aux incertitudes futures telles que le changement climatique et les zoonoses.

Dans l’article on discute de:

• Quels sont les principaux facteurs de changement dans les systèmes d’élevage?
• Comment répondent les systèmes de production d’élevage aux facteurs de changement au niveau mondial?
• Quelles sont les implications sur la diversité des ressources génétiques animales et pour les prospectives d’utilisation futures?
• Quels sont les démarches immédiates qui permettront une amélioration de la caractérisation des ressources génétiques animales, leur utilisation et conservation?

D’après une récente analyse de la situation actuelle, de la perte continue de races indigènes et du nouveau développement de la science et de la technologie, il existe différentes actions complémentaires qui pourraient aider à améliorer la gestion des ressources génétiques animales et conserver des options pour le futur dans un monde plein d’incertitude.

Ces actions peuvent se résumés comme il suit:

• Encourager l’utilisation durable des races traditionnelles.
• Permettre l’accès et la vente de ressources génétiques animales dans et entre pays.
• Compréhension du rapport entre élevage, races et gènes avec le milieu physique, biologique et économique.
• La formation de stock comme assurance future.

L’incertitude sur les implications des changements rapides sur chacun des systèmes de production animale et les changements futurs que cela entraîne en terme de demande de ressources génétiques animales, requière d’une action collective pour faire face à la conservation des ressources génétiques animales en tant que bien
public. La conservation des ressources génétiques animales en soi ne résoudra pas les problèmes mais il s’agit d’un pas important pour conserver les options futures.

Resumen

Este resumen analiza los factores clave que han cambiado en el sector ganadero y hace una evaluación de cómo han influenciado la corriente actual y las prospectivas futuras en los distintos sistemas de producción ganadera y mercados en el mundo. También se analizan los consiguientes impactos sobre la gestión de los recursos zoogenéticos para la alimentación y la agricultura. La tendencia se da tanto en países industrializados como en vía de desarrollo pero las respuestas son distintas. En los países en vías de desarrollo estas tendencias están afectando la capacidad ganadera para contribuir a la mejora de la calidad de la vida y reducción de la pobreza, así como la utilización de los recursos naturales. En el mundo industrializado la proximidad de la base de recursos zoogenéticos con los sistemas de producción ganadera industrial plantean la necesidad de mantener un mayor rango de recursos zoogenéticos para hacer frente a las incertidumbres futuras, tales como el cambio climático y las zoonosis.

En este capítulo se discute:
- Cúales son los principales factores de cambio en los sistemas ganaderos?
- Cómo responden los sistemas de producción ganadera a los factores de cambio a nivel mundial?
- Cúales son las implicaciones para la diversidad de recursos zoogenéticos y para las prospectivas futuras de su utilización?
- Cúales son los pasos inmediatos que puedan permitir la mejora de la caracterización de los recursos zoogenéticos, su utilización y conservación?

Sobre la base de un reciente análisis de la situación actual, la pérdida de razas indígenas y el nuevo desarrollo de la ciencia y la tecnología, existen distintas acciones complementarias que pueden empezar a ayudar a mejorar la gestión de los recursos zoogenéticos y mantener opciones futuras en un mundo lleno de incertidumbres.

Tales acciones se resumen así:
- Fomentar la continua utilización sostenible de razas tradicionales.
- Permitir el acceso y movimiento para venta de recursos zoogenéticos dentro y entre países.
- Conocer la relación entre poblaciones ganaderas, razas y genes con el entorno físico, biológico y económico.
- Conservar stocks para hacer frente a incertidumbres futuras.

La incertidumbre sobre las implicaciones de cambios rápidos, multifacéticos y globales para cada sistema de producción ganadera y los consiguientes cambios futuros en la demanda de recursos zoogenéticos requieren una acción colectiva para hacer frente a la conservación de recursos zoogenéticos a largo plazo como bien público mundial. La conservación de los recursos zoogenéticos por sí sola no resolverá los problemas pero es un paso importante para mantener las opciones futuras.

Keywords: Global livestock sector, Livestock production systems, Market chains, Environmental effects, Climate change, Management, Sustainable use.

Introduction

This overview paper analyses the key drivers of change in the global livestock sector and assesses how they are influencing current trends and future prospects in the world’s diverse livestock production systems and market chains; and what are their consequent impacts on the management of animal genetic resources for food and agriculture. The trends are occurring in both developing and industrialized countries, but the responses are different. In the developing world, the trends are affecting the ability of livestock to contribute to improving livelihoods and reducing poverty as well as the use of natural resources. In the industrialized world, the narrowing animal genetic resource base in industrial livestock production systems raises the need to maintain a broader range of animal genetic resources to be able to deal with future uncertainties, such as climate change and zoonotic diseases.

The range of livestock covered here are domesticated species, particularly the five major economic species (cattle, sheep, goats, chickens and pigs). There are no detailed figures yet to link specific breeds with specific production systems. We are tackling the problems from a production system angle. Throughout the paper, and based on the findings of The State of the World’s Animal Genetic Resources for Food and Agriculture, we use the approximation that commercial breeds, as a subgroup of international transboundary breeds, are used in intensive, high-external input livestock
production systems (termed “industrial systems”), and that local breeds are the basis in most extensive and low-external input systems. These are called here “pastoral systems” and “crop-livestock systems”, respectively.

This paper covers four main areas:
• What are the global drivers of change for livestock systems?
• How are the three main livestock production systems (industrial, crop-livestock and pastoral systems) responding to the global drivers of change, and what are the implications of the range and rate of changes for the management of animal genetic resources in these systems?
• What are the implications for animal genetic resources diversity and future prospects of their use?
• What immediate steps are possible to improve animal genetic resources characterization, use and conservation?

Drivers of change in global livestock systems

Economic development and globalization

Livestock production is a complex and heterogeneous part of global agriculture. It ranges from highly automated, intensive large-scale production of pigs and poultry and, to a lesser degree, cattle, to small-scale, largely scavenging production of backyard pigs and chicken.

Domestication of livestock started several millennia ago and humans have shaped the genetic make-up of domesticated animals to respond to human needs in different production environments.

This genetic make-up of livestock that resulted from this long-term process has been put under stress by fast-paced changes over the past few decades, across the entire range of biophysical, social and economic contexts in which humans keep animals. These changes can be subsumed under terms of economic development and globalization. These are themselves largely driven by technical progress, plus the global exchange of knowledge and products. These trends are also characterized by unequal access to natural resources, financing, markets, technology and personal mobility.

Since 1945, the world has seen an unprecedented economic growth, starting in the industrialized economies (countries of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD]) and expanding into the rest of the world over the past two decades. The latter is epitomized by the economic growth path of China. A number of developing countries, mainly in Asia and Latin America, have undergone major transformations associated with significant growth in their economies and increases in per capita incomes.

The socio-economic indicators for selected countries are given in table 1. The following inferences can be drawn from the data:
• The contribution of livestock to agricultural gross domestic product (GDP) demonstrates the significance of the livestock sector in many economies (providing value addition); this occurs even in countries that are experiencing rapid economic growth (India and China) and/or have a growing share of industrial livestock systems (China, Brazil and Argentina).
• The key demand drivers of GDP growth and urbanization point towards growing demand for livestock products across all regions in the developing world. This “livestock revolution” is discussed further below.
• The trends in foreign direct investment (FDI) show that increases in FDI are concentrated in a few countries (China and India). These countries are ones in which the industrialization of livestock production has been rising sharply. Some other countries in Africa (e.g. Kenya and Botswana) have also recorded significant increases in FDI over the past decade, although from a lower base.

Economic development has led to important changes in the spatial distribution of the world’s population, leading to a rapid process of urbanization in the developing world. At the same time, breakthroughs in medical research and their applications have led to dramatic increases of the human population in developing countries. In the industrialized world, population growth rates have declined in the last decades as social security, female employment in labour-scarce economies and cultural/social changes have led to declining birth rates and gradually aging populations. In terms of consumer demand, there is more demand for “fast food” and processed animal products. Food safety requirements are becoming increasingly stringent, due to disease problems such as bovine spongiform encephalopathy (BSE) associated with processed animal products. A similar trend is occurring in developing countries, although currently limited to the affluent urban class.
Table 1. Socio-economic indicators for selected countries.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Contribution of livestock to agricultural GDP (in %)</th>
<th>GDP growth (annual change)(^a) (in %)</th>
<th>Urban population*b</th>
<th>FDI*c</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Botswana</td>
<td>85.0</td>
<td>82.1</td>
<td>6.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>42.5</td>
<td>44.5</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>46.1</td>
<td>44.0</td>
<td>-0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Argentina</td>
<td>45.9</td>
<td>36.5</td>
<td>-1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>41.8</td>
<td>44.4</td>
<td>-4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peru</td>
<td>36.0</td>
<td>33.1</td>
<td>-5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>20.5</td>
<td>20.1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>26.9</td>
<td>24.6</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Viet Nam</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>18.0</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>26.51</td>
<td>30.75</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>49.1</td>
<td>53.5</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources:
\(^a\)IMF (2007).
\(^b\)World Bank (2006).
Another key driver of change that is leading towards larger-scale, cereal-based animal production systems around the world has been the rise in labour costs in the industrialized economies and in some parts of the developing world, as a result of economic growth and rising incomes. Changing economic policy associated with rapid economic growth in parts of the developing world (e.g. Asian “tiger” economies) has changed the investment climate in emerging economies and led to massive inflows of FDI. Similarly, labour migration from developing to industrialized economies has generated capital flows back to developing countries, which are often larger than official development assistance. Capital investments from outside the farming community, for example in the feed industry and livestock production chains in Southeast Asia, are also influencing changes in livestock production systems.

The effects of globalization and growing incomes have by no means been evenly distributed within or between countries. In the context of rapid population growth, many countries and social and ethnic groups within countries have not participated in the growth process. Large numbers of poor people, particularly in rural areas, have been left behind or adversely affected by the changes. For example, such communities may actually suffer from loss of access to natural resources, bear the brunt of environmental impacts and be characterized by the breakdown of traditional social and economic ties and values, without a better (or at least viable) alternative. Also, local breeds of animals are often not competitive in this changing world.

These inequalities pose a major challenge for the global community, which has responded by setting the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), a UN-driven process to address several core problems facing the world. The MDGs include a commitment to halve the numbers of people living in poverty by 2015, as well as setting several other key development targets, including protecting the environment and conserving biodiversity. The sustainable use and conservation of the world’s animal genetic resources for food and agriculture supports the Millennium Development Goals 1 and 7, and is also covered by the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD).

Market demand for livestock products – the “livestock revolution”

Growing demand for animal products – as well as higher standards to improve the quality and safety of the products – and more processed animal products have substantial consequences for the evolution of livestock production systems. Overall, the processes of economic development, population growth, urbanization and changing patterns of consumption have led to a dramatic increase in the consumption of animal products in the developing world, a process that has been termed the “livestock revolution”. FAO data suggest that this trend is expected to continue for several decades because of the strong direct correlation between rising income and increasing animal product consumption.

Figure 1 shows the expected percentage changes in per capita consumption of selected food commodities in developing and industrialized countries between 2001 and 2030, providing evidence of the “livestock revolution” occurring in the developing world. There are large differences between the projected per capita growth rates in consumption of livestock products (meat and milk) between developing and industrialized countries. There are also marked differences in the per capita growth rates of the different products in developing countries, with meat and milk being the highest, followed by oil seeds. Growth rates for cereal consumption as human food are stagnating everywhere, but increasing for other uses, especially for animal feed and biofuels.

The consumption of milk and meat per capita are shown in figures 2 and 3, respectively. These data illustrate substantial differences in current consumption of meat and milk between industrialized and developing countries; the rates of growth in consumption are higher in the developing world. This trend is part of the “livestock revolution” and is the result of increased demand and increased incomes, economic growth and urbanization in developing countries. Consumption per capita of milk and meat is currently between two and four times higher in industrialized countries than in the developing world but, in absolute terms, demand is higher in the developing world.

The growing demand for animal products in the developing world is associated with the changes in production location, facilitated by the increasing ease of transporting feed and animal products around the world. Animal products were previously produced close to where the consumers live. Increasingly, livestock production now takes
Figure 1. Expected percentage changes in per capita consumption of selected food commodities in developing and industrialized countries, 2001–2030.
Source: adapted from IAASTD (2007).

Figure 2. Milk consumption per capita to 2050 (kg/person).
Source: adapted from IAASTD (2007).
place close to the locations with good access to feed, either in feed production areas or ports. The animal products are then transported to markets. This trend is changing the competitiveness of diverse livestock production systems worldwide, with more animal products being produced in lower cost economies (mainly in industrial and crop-livestock systems) and traded in domestic, regional and international markets.

At the same time, large numbers of poor people depend on livestock production for their livelihoods and, for some of them, livestock offer a pathway out of poverty. These smallholders and pastoralists frequently compete for markets with the commercial sector, which is producing animal products in industrial systems worldwide. Smallholders and pastoralists together with their traditional breeds are increasingly being pushed out by the industrial systems coming into the developing world. Hence there is pressure for smallholders and pastoralists to replace their traditional breeds with more productive but less resilient breeds in order to be able to compete in the expanding livestock markets in the developing world.

Technological developments associated with international transport, partially related to the increased access to capital and the opening of many economies, have dramatically increased the role of international trade in animal products. The expansion of international trade in animal products has brought to the fore the need to establish more stringent animal health and food safety standards, in order to manage the risks to the domestic sector of individual countries and to protect consumers. These health and food safety requirements have been driven by the growing problems of animal diseases, including zoonoses. These disease risks are linked to a number of factors including increasing stock numbers, the intimate cohabitation of poor families with their animals and the increased global movement of animals and animal products.

Domestic markets, including the informal livestock product markets, handle the largest share of the livestock products consumed in developing countries. However, in urban areas, the modern food retail sector is also growing rapidly, and imposing specific requirements in terms of quality assurance and homogeneity of the products (of national and international origin). The term "supermarket revolution" has been coined for these processes. These two marketing systems require markedly different food safety and biosecurity standards, affecting livestock production systems supplying these markets.
Table 2 shows that the share of supermarkets in food retailing has been increasing over the past two decades in much of the developing world. If current trends in expanding urban populations continue, the share of supermarkets in the urban food retail sector in the developing world will increase to levels that they are now in the industrialized economies (i.e. about 80 percent of the total food retail sector). The changing set of actors implied by the supermarket revolution and the growing importance of agribusiness in food retailing will have important implications for poor farmers.

The coexistence of three markets for animal products in the developing world (the traditional, frequently informal markets, the growing formal (super)markets for the urban middle classes and the regional/international export markets) poses particularly daunting challenges for policy-makers in pursuing mutually compatible policies of:

1. protecting livelihoods among the smallholder livestock keepers and pastoralists;
2. supporting efficient markets for the urban population; and
3. encouraging active engagement of livestock producers and their traditional breeds in the regional and global livestock markets.

The livestock product markets in industrialized countries are evolving along quite different paths. Besides consuming relatively inexpensive livestock products from large-scale industrial systems, there is increasing demand for niche products, frequently linked with certification of origin, often produced in traditional ways or with specific breeds, by “organic agriculture”, and/or with particular concern for animal welfare.

Animal welfare is an increasing area of concern, especially in markets in industrialized countries. These concerns include caring for animals in all types of production systems. There is particular criticism of intensive housing systems for animals (e.g., chickens, pigs, dairy cows). This is leading to more animal friendly housing systems such as group housing of sows; and free range hens as alternatives for the caging for laying hens. Some consumers in industrialized countries are prepared to pay a premium for animal products coming from

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Waves of diffusion and average market share</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Supermarket share in food retail (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Industrialized country example</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
<td>2005</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First wave of developing countries</td>
<td>Argentina</td>
<td>2002</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>2002</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Taiwan Province of China</td>
<td>2003</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(10–20% market share around 1990)</td>
<td>Czech Republic</td>
<td>2003</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Costa Rica</td>
<td>2001</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chile</td>
<td>2001</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Republic of Korea</td>
<td>2003</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>2003</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>2003</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>2001</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second wave of developing countries</td>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>2003</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ecuador</td>
<td>2003</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>2003</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5–10% market share around 1990)</td>
<td>Guatemala</td>
<td>2002</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>2001</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third wave of developing countries</td>
<td>Bulgaria</td>
<td>2003</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kenya*</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Nicaragua</td>
<td>2006</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Virtually zero market share around 1990)</td>
<td>China*</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>India</td>
<td>2007</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*aShare of urban food retail.
Source: Reardon, Henson and Berdegué (2007).
such production systems that take account of animal welfare concerns. Animal welfare concerns are highly culture-specific and, while important in some societies, others consider them to be non-tariff trade barriers. Some of these trends will dictate breeds and breeding practices – for example, performance under range conditions and “broodiness” of hens will be important attributes for the niche markets.

In the industrialized countries, hobby farming has become a popular activity, using relatively small land areas for limited numbers of livestock such as sheep, goats, horses and cattle. For in situ conservation of species and breeds within species, these part-time farmers are important contributors.

Environmental effects of livestock production

The rapid population growth and the growing consumption of goods and services by people whose incomes are growing puts pressure on natural resources and the environment. Livestock production, under certain conditions, is driving degradation processes and is at the same time affected by them. Increasing land use for food crops and crops for biofuels is increasing the pressure on rangelands and other open access or community managed resources. This affects the viability of the low-input production systems, the sustainable use of traditional breeds and thus the livelihoods of pastoralists and smallholders.

At the same time, the rapid growth of large-scale, intensive animal production units puts a serious constraint on the capacity of the environment to deal with carbon dioxide and methane output, nutrient loading in certain areas, effluent into rivers and seas, loss of biodiversity because of land clearing to grow feeds (for example, soybeans in Latin America) and other environmental impacts.

The recent FAO (2006) report Livestock’s long shadow: environmental issues and options focused on the effects of livestock on the environment. The “long shadow” refers to the negative effects of the livestock food chain almost all aspects of the environment; livestock production is associated with carbon dioxide, methane and nitrous oxide emissions, water depletion, soil erosion, soil fertility, damage to plants, loss of biodiversity and competition with wildlife.

As population and living standards grow, natural resources become a limiting factor. Particularly in marginal zones for rangeland-based animal production (pastoral systems), alternative land uses such as provision of opportunities for carbon sequestration through trees or wildlife conservation may become increasingly competitive with livestock production. On the other hand, livestock production in pastoral systems can be complementary to other services – for example, livestock production provides a means to maintain shrub/rangeland systems, with grazing reducing the risk of fire in extensive rangelands and providing other ecological services.

Climate change effects

The relationship between livestock production and climate change works in both directions. On the one hand, livestock contributes significantly to climate change via carbon dioxide, methane and nitrous oxide production (calculated in FAO (2006) at 18 percent of the total global greenhouse gas emissions from human sources). On the other hand, climate change will have important effects on farming systems and on the role of livestock, both directly and indirectly.

For example, large parts of Africa and Central Asia are likely to experience reductions in the length of growing period as a result of increased temperatures and lower rainfall. This is likely to lead to lower crop yields and reduced rangeland productivity, thus affecting the provision of feeds for animals. Climate change is also likely to change the distribution of animal diseases and their vectors. Large parts of South and Southeast Asia are likely to experience increases in rainfall and in the number of extreme climatic events (e.g. cyclones). This could lead to increased exposure of livestock to diseases, such as those caused by helminths. Crop losses due to extremes in climate could result in less animal feed being available, especially in crop-livestock and pastoral systems.

Science and technology drivers of change: general aspects and in relation to animal breeding and genetics

Science and technology have had a major influence on the transformation of animal production in industrialized economies and increasingly in developing countries. With increasing labour scarcity, larger, high-output and more productive animals were bred. From multipurpose breeds, highly specialized breeds were developed. Generally, disease resistance was sacrificed for
higher output, taking into account that through capital investments it became possible to adapt the environment to the existing animals in ways that had not been possible in the past. Research into housing and mechanization allowed significant labour productivity increases. These advances occurred in many species but particularly in short-cycled monogastric species such as poultry and pigs.

Animal nutrition research, linked with breeding, has made major contributions to improving feed efficiency and shortening production cycles and thereby reducing maintenance feed requirements and allowing a more efficient use of the capital investments and natural resources.

In the developing world, the impact of modern livestock science and technology has been uneven. Industrial livestock production systems (mainly for chickens) with limited links to the local resource base have been developed in some locations close to urban demand and/or to ports, given their frequent dependence on imported feed. Smallholder crop-livestock systems are much more reliant on locally available feed and traditional breeds. These crop-livestock systems are highly complex, delivering multiple products and services. Progress in improving the sustainable productivity of these systems has been much more limited and is a significant research challenge. System-based research is required to help these systems change in line with the changing social, economic and environmental context in which they operate. Currently, the speed of change of animal production systems and market chains is very high in some locations/regions, and is accompanied by loss of animal genetic resources. (This is discussed further below.)

Science and the management of animal genetic resources

The science related to the management of animal genetic resources has made significant progress, based mainly on advances in molecular biology and genetics as well as new developments in information and communications technology (ICT). The main advances are summarized in this paper and are discussed in more detail in the following papers. The advances include:
- Technologies are increasingly available for characterizing animal genetic resources. Molecular characterization is providing a better understanding of the genetic diversity in global livestock populations. Functional genomics is also making it possible for genomes to be characterized, specific genomic regions and genes identified and gene functions elucidated. These technologies are based on a combination of genetic analysis and bioinformatics.
- New technologies are becoming increasingly available for utilizing animal genetic resources better, to meet changing needs, threats and opportunities. New genetic technologies enable the better characterization of breeds and populations. Other technologies, such as geographic information systems (GIS), enable the better characterization of the environment. Linking this knowledge will enable making a better fit between a genotype and an environment and, in the longer term, understanding the genetic basis of genotype x environment interaction. In this way, we can begin to identify appropriate genotypes for fast-changing environments. For example, there are increasing threats from drier climates that increase the need for hardier animals, tolerant to drought and disease. Animal reproduction technologies such as sexed semen and in vitro fertilization of embryos will enable the rapid development of new populations and faster distribution of superior animal genetics. These technologies are not yet widely used in developing countries, but offer future options in areas where a genetic solution is possible.
- Technologies are increasingly available for conserving animal genetic resources. New technologies are available for improved cryopreservation of embryos and semen that are applicable in more species. These technologies lead to new options for ex situ, in vitro conservation of animal genetic resources. For example, use of testes and ovaries obtained from livestock as sources of frozen semen and in vitro fertilization (IVF) embryos for long-term cryopreservation of animal genetic resources in gene banks.
- ICTs enable more precise linkage of genotypes and locations/production environments. New developments in ICTs also have implications for animal genetic resources characterization and conservation. These developments are linked to improvement of infrastructure and communication systems, such as the widespread use of mobile phones. ICTs also allow georeferencing to link particular genotypes with specific geographic locations. This knowledge provides the scientific underpinning of in situ conservation practices.
In order to take full advantage of the opportunities presented by advances in ICT, it is necessary to develop common standards for characterizing animal genetic resources, in terms of their genetics, phenotype and production system, so that knowledge can be shared among different communities and countries. Given such systematic and standardized descriptions of livestock, the intersection between new ICTs and modern genetics, through genomics and bioinformatics, presents opportunities to examine genome function by integration of these rich data sets.

Current status and trends in livestock production systems

In the light of the above drivers of change, this section discusses:

- The relative importance of the three main livestock systems worldwide (industrial, crop-livestock and pastoral) and the breeds they harbour.
- The implications of global drivers of change for the different livestock production systems.
- The implications for livelihoods.
- The implications of the scope and rate of changes in the main livestock production systems for current and future animal genetic resources management.

Livestock species by region

The geographic distribution of the major livestock species worldwide is given in table 3. This table shows that for all species the majority of animals are in the developing world. It also shows the importance of different species by region. For example, ruminants are most important in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) and Latin America (LAC), both continents with vast areas of savannah and relatively low population densities. Poultry is most important in East Asia and the Pacific and LAC, regions of either high economic growth or with middle-income countries with high degrees of urbanization and adequate market infrastructure.

Livestock production systems by region

Three major types of livestock production systems can be identified worldwide – industrial livestock systems (IS); crop/livestock systems, mainly in high potential areas (CLS); and pastoral systems, mainly in marginal areas (PS).

The share of livestock in each of these systems in different geographic regions is shown in table 4. These data show that most livestock are located in crop-livestock systems. The proportion of livestock in industrial systems by region is mainly a function of economic status and rate of growth (e.g. higher proportions of industrial systems in the industrialized world and Asia).

Implications of global drivers of change for livestock production systems

Current status of livestock production systems

Each of the three main livestock production systems responds differently to the effects of the global drivers of change, and therefore has different development and investment needs. The overarching trends are increasing intensification in both industrial systems and in crop-livestock systems in order to meet increasing demand for animal products and consumer preferences for higher-quality products that meet stringent food safety standards.

- Intensification and scaling up trends in industrial and crop-livestock production systems.

The demand for livestock products has been met by intensification of livestock production systems in both developing and industrialized countries. Among other factors, this intensification has been based on using cereal grains as livestock feed. For example, in OECD countries, livestock feeding in intensive systems accounts for two-thirds of the average per capita grain consumption. In contrast, crop-livestock systems in sub-Saharan Africa and India use less than 10 percent of grains as feeds as they rely mostly on crop-residues (40–70 percent of feed), grazing and planted fodder.

- Market characteristics and demand.

The trend towards intensification of industrial systems and crop-livestock systems is largely driven by consumer demands for livestock products, both fresh and processed. The market characteristics are increasing demand for animal
products in developing countries, plus quality preferences and food safety requirements in all markets. Public-private partnerships that provide services and market opportunities also play a key role in intensifying industrial and crop-livestock systems.

Future trends in livestock production systems

**Intensive systems.** Intensive systems are facing increasing restrictions, owing to their associated negative environmental effects, such as problems of waste disposal and water contamination. Demand

Table 4. Share of livestock (total livestock units [TLU]: cattle, goats, sheep, pigs and poultry) per livestock production system for selected regions and countries.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Livestock production system</th>
<th>PS</th>
<th>CLS</th>
<th>IS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sub-Saharan Africa</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Botswana</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>0.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mali</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latin America and Caribbean</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Argentina</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peru</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East Asia and Pacific</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Viet Nam</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Asia</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developed World</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European Union</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russian Federation</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

for cereals is also increasing for other purposes (e.g. biofuels) and this is driving up the price of cereals, and subsequently the price of livestock products coming from intensive systems.

**Crop-livestock systems.** Crop-livestock systems in developing countries are constrained by farm size and lack of access to inputs and services. These constraints affect soil fertility, crop yields, income generation and ultimately livestock production through the limited provision of high-quality feeds. There is also increasing competition for land and associated opportunity costs.

**Pastoral systems.** The remoteness and the limited agricultural potential of pastoral systems in marginal areas of the developing world create difficulties for these systems to integrate into the expanding markets for livestock products. This poses a set of different needs related to adaptation of systems to reduce the vulnerability of livestock keepers and their animals and expanding access to markets.

A major driver of change in pastoral systems over the past decades has been the widespread policy to settle pastoralists and allocate them individual land rights. This approach and the increasing encroachment of crop production have seriously affected the viability of these systems by reducing the mobility of livestock and access to feed resources. Although the negative aspects of these policies are increasingly acknowledged, they will continue to shape political processes in many developing countries.

**Future implications of structural changes in livestock production systems**

In the industrial and mixed crop-livestock systems, rising demand for livestock products will continue to drive structural changes in these livestock production systems and markets. Market transformation, particularly in urban markets, will lead to the increasing importance of supermarkets, large livestock processors and transformation of wholesale livestock markets. Much of this transformation has taken place in the industrialized countries. This pattern is expected to increase in the developing world with a growing share of industrial livestock systems.

Farmers in intensifying crop-livestock systems will diversify their production into dairy and other livestock products even more in response to market opportunities arising from rising demand for high-value foods. Similarly, income growth and urbanization will increase diversification of consumer diets and the share of livestock products in diets.

The major changes in livestock markets are going to take place in domestic markets. The relative importance of domestic markets versus trade in the future will reflect past trends in which domestic market dynamics were far more important than trade. For example, in 1980 and 2001, meat exports and imports were approximately four percent of output and consumption in the developing world. In contrast, the share of domestic urban markets in total livestock consumption has been increasing over the past 25 years.

The growing importance of domestic urban markets as opposed to international trade implies changes of actors in domestic livestock industries, particularly in agribusiness in wholesale markets, livestock processing and the retail industry, with more fresh and processed animal products being sold through supermarkets.

These structural changes in markets, transformation in urban markets, and in retail and distribution sectors in the livestock industry will have profound impacts for the future of smallholders and poor livestock keepers in competing with intensifying industrial and crop-livestock systems in high potential areas. Empirical evidence from Asia shows that smallholder farmers provide up to half of the share of production in dairy and meat markets. Undercapitalized small producers are likely to be squeezed out of dynamic domestic livestock markets. Policy action that supports small producers who can be helped to become competitive will have substantial equity pay-offs. In the absence of such pro-poor policies in the livestock sector, market changes and the entry of new actors in livestock processing, distribution chains and the retail sector can marginalize poor people who depend on livestock for their livelihoods. High transaction costs and limited access to markets will lead to a dramatic decline of share of livestock production from pastoral systems in marginal areas. Without significant public investments in infrastructure and services, poor producers in these areas will become increasingly marginalized and many will have to leave livestock production as a source of income. Livestock will continue to be important in traditional pastoral systems as sources of food and fulfil multiple other uses, providing traction, transport, skins and hides for shelter.
Implications for livelihoods

In terms of livelihood impacts, the above changes will lead to changes in the role of animal genetic resources for livelihoods in two divergent ways: in intensive systems livelihoods will have a weak link to genetic resources, which will play very specialized production roles. The major livelihood impacts will be through employment. Frequently this will be limited direct employment in large-scale operations but some increased employment will be expected along the value chain. Consumer livelihoods will be affected in terms of impact of prices and of changed attributes of the animal products coming from these intensive systems. Society-wide, there may be negative impacts on livelihoods of traditional smallholders displaced from markets by industrially produced animal products. The net effects will depend significantly on the policy environment and the extent of substitution between animal products produced by industrial systems and smallholder systems.

In crop–livestock systems, livelihoods will be affected by the pressures to intensify and specialize production. Systems may change from grazing to zero-grazed systems, increasing milk production while reducing animal traction. This will imply changes in the labour patterns and possibly gender distribution of work and benefits from animal production. More intensively kept animals will require higher levels of management and external inputs. Increasing livelihood opportunities can be expected to develop in these forward and backward linkages associated with these commodity chains.

Pastoral systems in developing countries tend to have very strong linkages to diverse species and breeds of animals, which allow them to adapt to the exploitation of natural resources with very unique attributes and generally very limited alternative uses. Livelihoods are intimately linked to the animal genetic resources under these conditions. Risk is a major issue and the management of multiple species and multiple outputs is a key way of coping. Increasing competition for the resources, as well as policy orientations towards settling pastoralists, significantly affect these peoples’ livelihoods.

In the industrialized world, highly specialized pastoral production systems rely heavily on their animal genetic resources – normally a narrow genetic base comprising one or two commercial breeds of one or two species or a defined crossbred animal population. In relation to pastoral and smallholder systems in developing countries, these systems do not involve much labour. Therefore, the livelihoods of fewer people are generally involved in these production systems.

Implications of the scope and rate of changes in livestock production systems for animal genetic resources management

The drivers of change and the evolution of the farming systems that they induce will have important effects on livestock biodiversity and its use. This in turn implies that needs and opportunities for human intervention will vary.

In industrial systems, where it is largely possible to adapt the environment to the needs of the animals, highly productive commercial breeds and hybrids are going to be the main genetic pillar. Genetic resources are handled by the specialized private sector firms and traded internationally. Their interest in hardiness or disease-resistance traits will be limited unless diseases emerge for which no alternative control strategies are available or policies require important changes in the management systems, e.g. free-ranging instead of caged laying hens.

In crop–livestock systems, pressure to intensify will be a major force shaping the production system and the genetic resources underpinning it. Significant increases in productivity will be required to meet demand and these will be achieved by simultaneously improving the conditions (feed, health, etc) and adapting the genetic resources. Given the heterogeneous environments, many different breeds will be required. In higher potential areas with good market access this specialization will increasingly involve crossbreeding with exotic breeds. Given the relatively small numbers of animals of each breed required in these niches, these genetic materials will not be produced by private multinational companies but will require active engagement of farmers, public sector and non-governmental organizations (NGOs). These systems will continue to be an important source of genetic diversity and will also demand a range of solutions to fit their specific conditions. As science improves its capacity to understand the role of specific genes and their interaction with environmental factors triggering their expression, the value of local breeds in targeted breeding programmes for these systems will increase. These systems will naturally use a diverse genetic base and will be amenable to engage with in situ conservation. Supportive institutional arrangements will be key to driving such efforts.
In pastoral systems in developing countries, high levels of diversity can be encountered and traits of disease-resistance and tolerance of harsh environments are widely present. These systems are frequently declining in livestock numbers and in particular small endemic populations are at risk. In these settings, conservation will require public action because of the limited resources of the generally poor pastoralists. This will be an area where NGOs can be expected to play a key role in assisting in in situ conservation.

Given the fragility of institutional arrangements in many developing country contexts and their exposure to natural and human-induced crises, there is merit in designing ex situ, in vitro conservation strategies as a back up and long-term insurance against loss of diversity in the field. These conservation strategies will need to be coordinated at national and regional/international levels to be efficient and cost-effective.

Climate change considerations add an important dimension to the discussion of livestock biodiversity. Different systems will be affected in different and highly uncertain ways, but access to genetic resources could be a critical ingredient for most adaptation responses in the medium to long term. Table 5 summarizes major trends in livestock system evolution and their implications for the management of animal genetic resources.

Conclusions and next steps

What immediate steps are possible to improve animal genetic resources characterization, use and conservation?

Appropriate institutional and policy frameworks are required to improve animal genetic resources management and these issues are being addressed at national and intergovernmental levels, in a process led by FAO to promote greater international collaboration. Based on an analysis of the current situation, the continuing loss of indigenous breeds of farm animals, new developments in science and technology, and the strategies suggested for the future management of animal genetic resources (as summarized in table 5), there are several complementary actions that can begin to improve the management of animal genetic resources and maintain future options in an uncertain world. The scientific basis that underpins these proposed actions is discussed in more detail in subsequent papers. Four areas for action to improve the sustainable use and in situ conservation, characterization and long-term ex situ conservation of animal genetic resources are summarized here, and are addressed in further detail in the companion papers:

**Sustainable use and in situ conservation of animal genetic resources**

“Keep it on the hoof” – Encouraging the continuing sustainable use of traditional breeds and in situ conservation of animal genetic resources, by providing market-driven incentives, public policy and other support to enable livestock keepers to maintain genetic diversity in their livestock populations.

In this context, sustainable use refers to the continuing use of traditional breeds by livestock keepers, as a result of market-driven incentives. In situ conservation refers to animal genetic resources conservation measures supported by public policy and, on occasion, public investments to support in situ conservation of traditional breeds by livestock keepers.

In regard to encouraging the sustainable use of animal genetic resources, market-driven incentives applicable in developing countries include facilitating access to markets for livestock products coming from traditional breeds. This may include identifying niche markets for traditional products and providing infrastructure (such as transport) to help livestock keepers to get their products to market.

Increasing the productivity of traditional breeds through breeding is also an incentive for livestock keepers to retain these breeds. (The companion paper discusses the role of breeding in more detail.) These breed improvement strategies could also make more use of the widespread crossing that has occurred in traditional populations over time, as livestock keepers seek to improve their breeds.

In regard to encouraging in situ conservation of particular breeds, especially in the diversity-rich crop-livestock and pastoral systems in developing countries, the incentives include having public policies that support the conservation of traditional breeds and providing public services (e.g. human and livestock health services, schools, roads) to support communities in livestock producing areas. Such services may encourage people to stay with their animals in rural areas rather than migrate to urban areas where more services are available.

In situ conservation makes use of local and indigenous knowledge, which can also be validated scientifically. For example, some farmers have
realized that by crossbreeding part of their herd to an exotic breed, they can make more profit during the good times but avoid the risk of losing all their animals when conditions are bad. Exotic animals tend to be poorly adapted to harsh conditions and tend to die during droughts, for example. Thus genetic variability reduces vulnerability to sudden changes and shocks in the system.

The concept of in situ conservation also extends to conserving livestock as part of the landscape, within an overall biodiversity conservation strategy, as a long-term global public good.

“Move it or lose it” – Enabling access and safe movement of animal genetic resources within and between countries, regions and continents.

Maintaining mobility of animal breeds, populations and genes within and between countries, regions and continents is one of the key actions for facilitating the sustainable use and thereby the conservation of animal genetic resources. Safe movement of animal genetic resources enables their access, use and conservation for mutual benefit by livestock keepers worldwide. Mobility here refers to facilitating informed access to genetic diversity, based on systematic breed evaluations and analysing the potential usefulness of various breeds in different environments.

There are benefits and risks in increasing the mobility of animal genetic resources. The benefit is that, in a fast-changing, unpredictable world, mobility of animal genetic resources enables flexibility in response to changing climate, disasters, civil strife, etc. For example, when civil strife has occurred in some part of Africa, animals are moved across borders to avoid their unintended death in conflicts. One risk of increased mobility is that animals moving to different environments may not be adapted to their new environment, livestock system or social system. There are also animal health risks, in terms of the possible spread of disease, or by animals not being tolerant to the diseases prevalent in a new environment. For

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Livestock production system: description and trends</th>
<th>AnGR – current status in system</th>
<th>AnGR management: future strategy for each livestock production system</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Industrial systems (IS)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial systems changing quickly, expanding globally.</td>
<td>Breeding by private sector, with narrow genetic base in pigs, poultry, cattle.</td>
<td>Commercial systems will continue to adapt environment to suit genetics (IS prefer to use most productive breeds and manage other production issues by non-genetic means).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Controlled system, almost “landless” environment, able to adapt environment to genetics.</td>
<td>High-value genetic stock protected by know-how and traded internationally.</td>
<td>IS need to be able to respond to future shocks (e.g. identify tolerance to zoonotic diseases such as avian influenza and also identify more disease-resistant breeds able cope with diseases of intensification without antibiotics).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Systems changing to reduce negative environmental impacts, meet market demands and consumer preferences, and address new issues (e.g. animal health and welfare).</td>
<td>Limited interest or incentive for private firms in conserving species/breed biodiversity.</td>
<td>Conserving AnGR of main industrial species (pigs, poultry, cattle) to maintain biodiversity is a long term, public (and private) good to enable IS to deal with future options and new shocks.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Livestock production system: description and trends | AnGR – current status in system | AnGR management: future strategy for each livestock production system
---|---|---
**Crop-livestock systems (CLS)**
Diverse systems with broader genetic base, in industrialized and developing countries. | Developing and conserving AnGR by use in CLS *in situ*. | Need to adapt animal genetics to changing environment. |
CLS dependent on natural resource (NR) base. | Genetic base more diverse than IS, as animals need to be in balance with system and co-evolve with natural resource base. | CLS need to be able to respond to changing environment, climate change effects, other drivers of change; conserving diverse AnGR in CLS is a public good. |
CLS less in control of environment than IS. | Sustainable delivery of genetic material occurring in some CLS. | Sustainable use of AnGR will help CLS maintain diversity and ability to respond to future drivers of change. |
Future of CLS affected by market demands, NR availability, climate change, land-use options. | | Smallholders may require incentives to continue to conserve AnGR *in situ* with changing, more productive CLS (e.g. foster niche markets to encourage farmers to keep traditional breeds, for short- and long-term value). |
CLS changing and intensifying production, especially in developing countries; but rate of change less than for IS. | | Mobility of AnGR critical to maintain future options as CLS change in response to global drivers (mobility favours sustainable use of AnGR). |
Intensification options – better feed, land, water use, genetic improvement. | | Example of moving adapted AnGR to new areas when climate change affects system, such as moving hardier animals to areas more prone to drought. |

| | | Institutional development to support sustainable AnGR management in CLS (e.g. farmers associations, environmental, food safety and animal health regulations). |
Livestock production system: description and trends | AnGR – current status in system | AnGR management: future strategy for each livestock production system

**Pastoral systems (PS) in marginal areas**

PS comprise rangelands in industrial and developing countries.

Systems determined by NR base, usually in marginal environments.

Multiple value and uses of animals in traditional PS in developing countries.

PS changing more slowly than IS or CLS as least likely to be influenced by global drivers of change.

Some PS changing more quickly (e.g. in parts of India where there is competition for pastoral land for alternative uses).

PS closely related to traditional (cultural) practices and institutions for the management of natural resources and traditional knowledge.

PS in industrial countries have narrow genetic base.

PS in developing countries have diverse AnGR, conserved through sustainable use.

Traditional AnGR conservation in situ by livestock keepers, linked with indigenous knowledge of animals and land.

Need to adapt animal genetics to marginal environment.

Maintaining diverse AnGR is desirable to reduce vulnerability of livestock keepers.

Future need to improve productivity of PS, maintain livelihoods, with less people likely to be living in marginal lands (e.g. animal health interventions).

Genetic solutions through hardier animals, able to adapt to harsher environments, with few interventions.

Incentives to maintain in situ conservation practices and promote sustainable use (e.g. improve market access through better infrastructure; foster niche markets for traditional animal products).

Risk mitigation (e.g. better forecasting and strategies for handling risks in PS, such as droughts).

Payments for environmental services may mean alternative land-use options that complement or compete with livestock production; requires adaptation of PS and related AnGR, depending on the nature of the environmental service.

Institutional development to support policies and practices for grazing, water and land-use rights.
Dynamics of production, changes and prospects for AnGR

Transboundary movements, these risks as well as the benefit should be identified and shared with stakeholders prior to importation, and risk mitigation steps taken before importing semen, embryos or live animals into a country.

Characterizing animal genetic resources

“Match breeds to environments” – Understanding the match between livestock breeds, populations and genes and the physical, biological and economic landscape. This “landscape livestock genomics” approach offers the means to predict the genotypes most appropriate to a given environment and, in the longer term, to understand the genetic basis of adaptation of the genotype to the environment.

In regard to the long-term prospects for this research, the advances in our ability to describe the genome of an animal in unprecedented detail, coupled with our ability (through spatial analysis) to describe the landscape in which it resides – a landscape description that includes biotic, abiotic, human and market influences – are beginning to provide an opportunity to probe genome function in a unique way. This is an approach already used to study the distribution of particular alleles in livestock and to probe the human genome for disease-causing genes. Its potential for understanding the fit between livestock genotype and landscape is significant, and it depends on sophisticated data-management tools. It also offers the opportunity not only to understand the function of the genome, but also to predict the genotype most appropriate to a given environment.

This is a long-term research objective that can be linked with existing data-gathering exercises to add to their value. For example, building in systematic sampling of DNA of livestock breeds in combination with a careful description of the systems under which each population presently functions, and georeferencing the data, will add greatly to our ability to understand and utilize animal genetic resources. For example, we can begin to ask “what combination of genotypes is appropriate for a milking cow under a given management regime, under a given range of disease pressures and under a given set of physical stresses?” Knowing this will enhance the value of genotypes “in the bank” or “on the hoof” and will provide the tools we need to identify intelligently appropriate genotypes for specific agro-ecological niches. (Approaches to characterizing AnGR are discussed further in the companion paper.)

Ex situ conservation of animal genetic resources in gene banks

“Put some in the bank” – New technologies make ex situ, in vitro conservation of animal genetic resources feasible for critical situations and a way to provide long-term insurance against future shocks in all livestock production systems.

Improving technology (e.g. cryopreservation) is making long-term, ex situ, in vitro conservation of semen and embryos more feasible, affordable and applicable to a wider range of species. The challenge is to decide which animal genetic resources to conserve; how to collect them; where to store them; when and how to characterize them; and who can access, use and benefit from them in the future. It is particularly important to collect the rich diversity of traditional livestock breeds in crop-livestock and pastoral systems in developing countries before it is lost forever.

A risk is that ex situ, in vitro gene banks can become “stamp collections”, put away in the deep freeze and never characterized. Another potential risk is that this approach may be a disincentive to in situ conservation through sustainable use, where the genetic resources are more accessible in the short to medium term and where not only the genetic resources but also the traditional knowledge associated with them are conserved. In fact, in situ and ex situ conservation approaches are complementary rather than competing approaches, serving short- and long-term needs. Ex situ, in vitro animal genetic resources conservation is a long-term insurance policy and an important first step in conserving animal genetic resources for future generations. (Further details on conservation approaches are given in the companion paper.)

Closing remarks

Several important drivers of change are leading to rapid changes in the livestock production sector that have implications for the future management of animal genetic resources. The multiple values, functions and consequences of livestock production systems and their rapid rate of change lead to divergent interests within and between countries. Conversely, the uncertainty about the implications
of rapid, multifaceted global change for each livestock production system and the resulting future changes in the required genetic make-up of the animals makes collective action to tackle conservation of animal genetic resources a long-term, global public good. Developing and conserving animal genetic resources will not by themselves solve all these problems, but are important first steps towards maintaining future options.

Advances in science and technology, in areas such as reproductive technology, genomics and spatial analysis, as well as progress in conceptualization of global public good production for the future management of animal genetic resources, should enable the international community to address both the short- and long-term challenges in innovative ways.

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**Bibliography for further reading**


Panellists’ comments and discussion

Mr Ken Laughlin, European Forum of Farm Animal Breeders (EFFAB), the Netherlands

Firstly I would like to thank FAO for the opportunity to participate in this meeting and panel discussion.

This paper recognizes the need for action and action plans to ensure the retention of biodiversity and not just to conserve the status quo for another day.

Further it recognizes the need for market driven incentives as part of the process for using and developing traditional breeds at local, national and international levels where this might be possible. The paper suggests having public policies that support the conservation of traditional breeds and it may also be valuable to have discussion on the perceived positive and negative opportunities of some system of “animal breeder’s rights” in this regard.

Critically in the paper there is an appreciation of the need to focus on understanding the real values of these breeds, which can be validated scientifically following the generation of a sufficient number of animals with accurate trait measurements. This will be a necessary basis for understanding the match between breeds, populations and genes with the physical biological and economic landscape. Fortunately this does not require high tech science but does require diligence and attention to detail. There is a vast amount of available experience amongst existing breeders in this area of trait definition and collection.

There is a clear opportunity to engage with the breeders in the “industrial system” who have seen many of the opportunities and pitfalls of the last century of “informed animal breeding” Specifically there is an opportunity to learn from the experience and data of poultry breeding which has probably evolved further than any other species in terms of balanced breeding.

Interestingly, the importance of focusing on reducing and halting the loss of indigenous breeds of farm animals is strongly supported by a recent genomic study of poultry which has concluded that modern agricultural practices were not the major source of allele loss. The majority of alleles were lost prior to the formation of the current intensive industry.

The breeders in industrial systems have further experience of the opportunities and threats of breeding stock movements where the OIE systems of disease recognition and subsequent movement control are followed.

Finally it is important that during this forum we try to identify what the real drivers are in reducing biodiversity and protecting biodiversity. These may not simply be opposites.

Mr Fernando Madalena, Brazil

I would like to compliment Dr. Seré and co-authors on their comprehensive paper. I have the following comments, not so much to the paper itself, but rather to the general atmosphere related to the management of animal genetic resources. It would seem that we keep changing our flags over time before the goals are reached. In the sixties we talked about development, then -before development was accomplished in most countries- we started talking about sustainable development, and again before development, let alone sustainable, was accomplished, we now talk about alleviating poverty ... of the future generations. Incidentally, poverty should be eliminated, not just alleviated, and the proper utilization of animal genetic resources may contribute some to that end, by the widespread use of the more economic stocks, breeds or crosses. Less productive resources need then special preservation programmes. Using new genomic technologies seems particularly attractive to researchers in developed and developing countries. However, this comes at a price, because of patenting and problems of accessing knowledge.

While in the past emphasis was in the utilization of genetic resources, I have the impression that we are now focusing too much on characterization and conservation, and a lot of technical work and funding are dedicated to these two. However, I must confess I fail to grasp the logic of caring only of preserving resources for the possible use by future generations when we do not use them properly now to help meeting the so many urgent human needs. Some “stakeholders” would agree with me, as the duck in this quoted cartoon, who is telling its chick “Humans are odd. They save animals but let their own kids die of hunger”. I therefore
would like to emphasize the need for a renewed and stronger focus on the utilization of animal genetic resources to meet current human needs and not only on conservation for potential future needs. In order to achieve this, we must go beyond characterization to evaluation. Only by comparatively evaluating the specific features of our breeds in given environmental and economic circumstances, we will be in a position to better utilize them.

Ms Ilse Köhler-Rollefson, League for Pastoral Peoples and Endogenous Livestock Development, Germany/India

I agree with many of the observations and conclusions made in the paper, however I feel the analysis remains on a superficial level, and that there is not enough critical reflection on why we have gotten where we are and whether the rapid erosion of animal genetic resources that we have witnessed in the last several decades has been as inevitable as it is depicted here.

The paper zeros in on four drivers of change, i.e. economics and globalization, poverty, environmental concerns, and science and technology. This is the way in which the situation may present itself to scientists and is a correct analysis on some level. However for an organization that is working with poor and marginal livestock keepers, especially pastoralists, on the ground, the scenario looks quite different.

The paper does not mention that the poor livestock keepers that have stewarded diversity have been progressively losing their rights, and that industrialized systems and the introduction of exotic breeds have been heavily subsidized. The example of how exotic pig breeds in Viet Nam have been promoted through a variety of subsidies is now well known, but it is only one case that happens to have been scrutinized. In fact, in the last several decades, livestock development in developing countries everywhere has been practically synonymous with the replacement or "upgrading" of local breeds with exotic ones. By contrast, very little endeavour has been made with respect to endogenous development and taking local resources, knowledge, and institutions as a starting point for livestock-related interventions.

There have been no efforts to strengthen the livestock keepers themselves, by assisting them to develop their own breeds, by supporting them organizationally, by involving them in policy development, and by integrating them into research projects. In order to protect industrial production, we are now making it almost impossible for diversity-conserving livestock keepers to continue keeping animals.

In the wake of avian influenza, some countries have prohibited the keeping of smallholder poultry in the vicinity of industrial holdings. In Germany, there has been a close to 50 percent decrease in the number of smallholder poultry because their keepers could not comply or cope with regulations to confine their animals.

For us, the drivers of change are thus the progressive loss of rights of smallholder livestock keepers and of pastoralists – such as the right to keep animals, in order to protect the interests of industrial producers, and the loss of customary grazing rights and access to land.

We are also concerned that farmers are increasingly losing their breeding function, becoming mere raisers of animals that are dependent on a handful of companies for all their inputs which have often been produced at the other end of the world and leave a huge carbon footprint.

Cryoconservation as a backup is ok, but in the final analysis it can not be expected to be of much relevance, if the pressure on small-scale diversity-conserving livestock keepers continues and they are forced to, or choose to, give up keeping animals. Banking on cryoconservation basically means taking the easy way out, and is once again a way of strengthening scientists and government bureaucracies, rather than livestock keepers.

We must be clear that even the best science will not be able to move things in a better direction and to save diversity – it can only play a supporting role. The only real care takers of animal genetic resources are farmers and pastoralists. If we want to save animal genetic resources, then we need to save these livestock keepers first, by creating appropriate policies that strengthen them and that reward them for their crucial role in sustaining diversity. Such policies need to be combined with the monitoring and regulation of industrial production systems. Instead of subsidizing them and providing them with unfair advantages, these systems should be taxed.

My organization, the League for Pastoral Peoples will continue to contribute to the implementation of the Global Plan of Action on two levels:
• Globally and nationally, we will support pastoralist and small-scale farming communities to advocate for their rights and to achieve recognition of their role in conserving breeds and as custodians of diversity.
• Equally important, we will continue to work on the ground through our partners in the LIFE-Network to help pastoralists and small farmers to get organized and develop the skills and knowledge that they will need to remain competitive in a globalized economy.

Summary of plenary discussion

The meeting was then opened for general discussion and interventions from the floor. Issues raised during this discussion included:

• The importance of non-market livestock functions and the question of their inclusion in economic statistics.
• The need to assess consumer demographics and trends with respect to their effects on animal genetic resources.
• The importance of networking and capacity-building.
• The impact of natural disasters, wars and unrest, and global warming on animal genetic resources.
• The important role of small-scale production.
• The potential conflict between maintaining genetic diversity and meeting increased demand for animal products in developing countries.
• The nature of the key issues that need to be addressed with respect to the rights of livestock keepers and communities, and differences compared to the plant sector.
• The important contribution of “minor” species (e.g. guinea pigs, snakes, insects).
• The influence of religious and cultural factors on the development of animal genetic resources.
• The need to consider possible trade-distorting effects of providing subsidies to livestock keepers.

The authors’ responses and concluding remarks included the following points:

• Maintaining animal genetic resources as an integral part of production systems offers opportunities to address conservation, and food and livelihood security in a complementary way.
• Animal genetic resources should be matched to the production environment. Exotic breeds and cross-breeding programmes offer opportunities to meet increased demand and support livelihoods where conditions are appropriate. However, in some production systems, the productivity of local breeds may be as good as, or better than, potential replacements if all outputs and inputs are taken into consideration – non-market roles of livestock, including insurance and financing functions are important here, but are often receive insufficient attention from researchers and policy-makers.

• There is a need to identify institutional arrangements that can offer smallholders the opportunity to successfully market their products. The roles of “minor” species also require greater research attention as these are often important to livelihood and food security.

• With respect to the rights of farmers and communities, it is important to recognize that issues are not identical to those in the plant sector. In the case of livestock, the replacement of local breeds with exotic animal genetic resources rather than the expropriation of local genetic resources by outside interests is a key issue, although the latter also needs to be addressed. An equitable framework for access and benefit sharing is needed.

• In the case of acute threats such as wars, pre-emptive actions, for example to ensure that appropriate animal genetic resources are available for restocking programmes, are needed.