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[Potential environmental benefits of prospective genetic changes in broiler traits.](#)

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4 **Potential environmental benefits of prospective genetic changes in**  
5 **broiler traits**

6  
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## ABSTRACT

25  
26 A system approach-based Life Cycle Assessment (LCA) framework, combined with a simple  
27 mechanistic model of bird energy balance was used to predict the potential effects of 15 years  
28 prospective broiler breeding on the environmental impacts of the standard UK broiler  
29 production system. The year 2014 Ross 308 genotype was used as a baseline, and a future  
30 scenario was specified from rates of genetic improvement predicted by the industry. The  
31 scenario included changes in the traits of growth rate (reducing the time to reach a target  
32 weight 2.05 kg from 34 days to 27 days), body lipid content, carcass yield, mortality and the  
33 number of chicks produced by a breeder hen. Diet composition was adjusted in order to  
34 accommodate the future nutrient requirements of the birds following the genetic change. The  
35 results showed that predicted changes in biological performance due to selective breeding  
36 could lead to reduced environmental impacts of the broiler production chain, most notably in  
37 the Eutrophication Potential (by 12%), Acidification Potential (by 10%) and Abiotic  
38 Resource Use (by 9%) and Global Warming Potential (by 9%). These reductions were mainly  
39 caused by the reduced maintenance energy requirement and thus lower feed intake, resulting  
40 from the shorter production cycle, together with the increased carcass yield. However, some  
41 environmental benefits were limited by the required changes in feed composition (e.g.  
42 increased inclusion of soy meal and vegetable oil) as a result of the changes in bird nutrient  
43 requirements. This study is the first one aiming to link the mechanistic animal modeling  
44 approach to predicted genetic changes in order to produce quantitative estimates of the future  
45 environmental impacts of broiler production. Although a more detailed understanding on the  
46 mechanisms of the potential changes in bird performance and their consequences on feeding  
47 and husbandry would be still be needed, the modeling framework produced in this study  
48 provides a starting point for predictions of the effects of prospective genetic progress.

49

50 **Key words:** Broiler, Environmental impact, Genetic changes, Life Cycle Assessment,  
51 Selective breeding

52

53

## INTRODUCTION

54

55 Livestock production systems have been considered to have various negative environmental  
56 impacts, including nutrient leaching and a significant contribution to global warming  
57 (Steinfeld et al., 2006). Amongst different livestock systems, poultry production has been  
58 found to be relatively “environmentally friendly” (e.g. Williams 2006; de Vries and de Boer,  
59 2010). However, despite for example relative low greenhouse gas emissions, poultry systems  
60 have some features that require special attention in terms of their environmental impacts.

61 These include particularly ammonia emissions to air from housing and manure management,  
62 having various harmful effects including contribution to acidification, and nitrate leaching  
63 from field spreading of manure, contributing to eutrophication (Sutton et al., 2011; Leinonen  
64 et al., 2012a,b). Furthermore, nutrient leaching and emissions to air also occur from  
65 production of the feed crops, having a significant contribution to the overall environmental  
66 impacts of poultry systems. In order to address all these impacts, a holistic approach to  
67 accounting for all burdens occurring during the whole production and consumption cycle  
68 would be required, as opposed to simply assessing their “carbon footprint”, which is the only  
69 focus of some environmental impacts assessment frameworks (e.g. BSI, 2011).

70

71 In earlier studies, various measures aiming to reduce the environmental impacts of poultry  
72 production have been assessed through the method of Life Cycle Assessment (LCA),  
73 including changes in diets through the use of alternative feed ingredients (Nguyen et al. 2012;  
74 Leinonen et al. 2013) or enzymes aiming to improve feed utilization (Oxenboll et al., 2011;

75 Leinonen and Williams, 2015) and changes in housing and manure management (Leinonen et  
76 al., 2014; Williams et al., unpublished data). As the majority of the environmental impacts of  
77 poultry production arise from the production and use of feedstuffs and emissions from  
78 manure (Leinonen et al., 2012a), any change in feed utilization would be expected to affect  
79 the environmental impact of poultry systems, through both the production of feed crop and  
80 manure management. One of the major aims of broiler breeding has been to increase the  
81 energy efficiency, thus reducing the amount of feed needed to produce a certain amount of  
82 broiler meat. Although attempts have been made to assess the consequences of past genetic  
83 changes in chickens, (Defra, 2008; Pelletier, 2010) quantitative studies on the environmental  
84 effects of predicted future genetic progress have been so far rare. In this study, we aim to  
85 apply a system approach-based LCA modeling to assess the changes of environmental  
86 impacts of broiler chicken production as a result of selective breeding applying the industry  
87 targets for genetic improvement over a 15 year horizon.

88

## 89 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

90

### 91 ***Modeling Approach***

92

93 The approach taken in the current study was based on systems modeling of agricultural  
94 production, as described by Williams et al. (2006, 2007, 2010) and Leinonen et al. (2012a,b).  
95 This included structural models of the industry and process-based simulation models that  
96 were unified in the systems approach so that changes in one area caused consistent effects  
97 elsewhere. This approach was applied to both feed crop and livestock production. The  
98 systems modeled in this study included crop production, non-crop nutrient production, feed  
99 processing, breeding, broiler production (including farm energy and water use and gaseous

100 emissions from housing), and manure and general waste management. The detailed structure  
101 of the broiler production LCA model has been presented earlier by Leinonen et al. (2012a)  
102 and the quantification of the uncertainties in the model inputs and outputs is explained in  
103 Leinonen et al. (2012a, 2013).

104

105 The production system in this study was considered to represent typical UK indoor broiler  
106 production as described by Leinonen et al. (2012a). A separate sub-model for arable  
107 production was used to quantify the environmental impacts of the main feed ingredients, with  
108 main features as in Williams et al. (2010). All major crops used for production of poultry feed  
109 were modeled. Transport burdens for importing overseas crops and burdens from processing  
110 the feed were also included. For the purpose of this study, a specification was made that all  
111 feed crops applied in the broiler diets originated from “mature” agricultural land. Therefore  
112 no CO<sub>2</sub> emissions arising from land use changes were included in the calculations, following  
113 the suggestions of the carbon footprinting outline PAS 2050 (BSI, 2011). Farm energy  
114 consumption for heating, lighting and ventilation was based on average data from typical  
115 farms provided by the UK broiler industry (Leinonen et al., 2012a). Information about the  
116 type and amount of bedding was also obtained from the industry. Additional data, such as the  
117 life cycle inventories of agricultural buildings and machinery came from Williams et al.  
118 (2006).

119

120 The structural model for the broiler system calculated all of the inputs required to produce the  
121 functional unit (1000 kg of expected carcass weight at farm gate: Leinonen et al., 2012a). The  
122 model also calculated the outputs, both useful (broilers) and unwanted (e.g. wastes and  
123 mortalities). In the model, changes in the proportion of any activity must result in changes to  
124 the proportions of others to keep producing the desired amount of output. Establishing how

125 much of each activity was required was found by solving linear equations that described the  
126 relationships that linked the activities together (Williams et al., 2006; Leinonen et al., 2012a).

127

128 Energy and mass balance principles for animal growth, production and feed intake were used  
129 in the current study to calculate the total consumption of each feed ingredient during the  
130 whole production cycle, and to calculate the amounts of main plant nutrients, nitrogen (N),  
131 phosphorus (P) and potassium (K) in manure excreted by the birds during the production  
132 cycle. The bird energy balance was quantified following Emmans (1994) in order to predict  
133 the daily feed intake of a single bird as a function of feed energy content and bird energy  
134 requirement. This included requirements for both production (body growth) and maintenance.  
135 According to the mass balance principle, the model calculated the N, P and K contents of the  
136 manure by subtracting the nutrients retained in the animal body from the total amount of  
137 nutrients obtained from the feed. For the purpose of the study, it was assumed that all manure  
138 was used for soil improvement as a fertilizer.

139

140 In order to model the emissions from the manure, we followed the principles of Audsley et al.  
141 (1997) and Williams et al. (2006, 2010), taking a long-term approach to agriculture, for  
142 example ensuring that N emissions and uptake from manure are accounted for on an infinite  
143 time horizon. Poultry manure is a source of direct gaseous emissions of ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>),  
144 nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O) and to a lesser extent methane (CH<sub>4</sub>), which occur during housing,  
145 storage and land-spreading and were quantified with a separate manure sub-model. Emissions  
146 of these gases arising from excreta during housing were calculated following the methods of  
147 Williams et al. (2006), which are based on UK national inventories (Chadwick et al., 1999;  
148 IPCC, 2006; Misselbrook et al., 2008; Sneddon et al., 2008). Manure management also uses  
149 energy and these burdens were debited against the poultry (along with burdens from direct

150 gaseous emissions). In the model, all of the nutrients applied to the soil as manure were  
151 accounted for as either crop products or as losses to the environment (Sandars et al., 2003).  
152 The benefits of plant nutrients (N, P and K) remaining in soil after land application were  
153 credited to poultry by offsetting the need to apply fertilizer to winter wheat as described by  
154 Sandars et al. (2003) and Williams et al. (2006).

155

### 156 *Environmental Impact Categories*

157

158 As an output of the LCA model, the resource uses and emissions to the environment were  
159 aggregated into environmentally functional groups as follows:

160

161 **Primary Energy Use.** The energy use in broiler production includes for example diesel (e.g.  
162 feed production and transport), electricity (e.g. ventilation and lighting) and gas (e.g.  
163 heating). All these are quantified in terms of the primary energy needed for extraction and  
164 supply of fuels (otherwise known as energy carriers). The primary fuels are coal, natural gas,  
165 oil and uranium (nuclear electricity). They are quantified as MJ primary energy which varies  
166 from about 1.1 MJ natural gas per MJ available process energy to 3.6 MJ primary energy per  
167 MJ of electricity. Data on the origin and proportion of energy carriers in electricity in the UK  
168 and overseas came mainly from the European Reference Life Cycle Database (JRC 2013), or  
169 were derived from the International Energy Agency. A proportion of electricity is produced  
170 by renewable sources such as wind and hydro-power, which account for 3.6% and 8% for UK  
171 and European electricity respectively.

172

173 **Global Warming Potential (GWP 100)** is a measure of the greenhouse gas emissions to the  
174 atmosphere, and was calculated here using a timescale of 100 years. The main sources of



175 GWP are carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) from fossil fuel and land use changes, nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O)  
176 and methane (CH<sub>4</sub>). GWP was quantified as CO<sub>2</sub> equivalent: with a 100 year timescale 1 kg  
177 CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O are equivalent to 25 and 298 kg CO<sub>2</sub> respectively. The sum of GWP per  
178 functional unit is also known as the “carbon footprint”.

179

180 **Eutrophication Potential (EP)** is used to assess the over-supply (or unnatural fertilization)  
181 of nutrients as a result of nutrients reaching water systems by leaching, run-off or  
182 atmospheric deposition. EP was calculated using the method of the Institute of Environmental  
183 Sciences (CML) at Leiden University (<http://www.leidenuniv.nl/interfac/cml/ssp>). The main  
184 sources are nitrate (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) and phosphate (PO<sub>4</sub><sup>3-</sup>) leaching to water and ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>)  
185 emissions to air. EP was quantified in terms of phosphate equivalents: 1kg NO<sub>3</sub>-N and NH<sub>3</sub>-  
186 N are equivalent to 0.44 and 0.43kg PO<sub>4</sub><sup>3-</sup>, respectively.

187

188 **Acidification Potential (AP)** is mainly an indicator of potential reduction of soil pH (and  
189 causing damage to some building materials, like limestone). AP was also calculated using the  
190 method of the Institute of Environmental Sciences (CML) at Leiden University The main  
191 source is ammonia emissions, together with sulfur dioxide (SO<sub>2</sub>) from fossil fuel combustion.  
192 AP was quantified in terms of SO<sub>2</sub> equivalents: 1 kg NH<sub>3</sub>-N is equivalent to 2.3 kg SO<sub>2</sub>.

193

194 **Land Occupation** describes the area of the land required to produce a unit of the product. In  
195 the case of poultry production, this mainly consists of the arable land for producing crops for  
196 feed. Land occupation for crops was calculated assuming average yields for UK grade 3a  
197 land (Bibby and Mackney, 1969)

198

199 **Abiotic Resource Use** describes the use of non-renewable raw materials, such as fossil fuels  
200 and minerals. The use of disparate abiotic resources was aggregated by scaling them in  
201 relation to the scarcity of each resource. We applied the method of the Institute of  
202 Environmental Sciences at Leiden University, the Netherlands  
203 (<http://www.leidenuniv.nl/interfac/cml/ssp>). The scale is quantified in terms of the mass of  
204 the element antimony (Sb).

205

### 206 *Modeled Scenarios*

207

208 The systems LCA model was first used to calculate the environmental impacts for the current  
209 (year 2014) Ross 308 genotype, for which the input data was obtained from Aviagen  
210 performance objectives (Aviagen, 2014), from UK industry data collected in an earlier study  
211 (Leinonen et al., 2012a), and from other recent studies (e.g. Mussini, 2012; Danisman and  
212 Gous, 2013). After that, a scenario based on industry targets (“target scenario”) for a 15 years  
213 cumulative genetic improvement was analyzed with the model. The main biological  
214 performance parameters required to run the LCA model and obtained from the industry for  
215 the scenario were growth rate (i.e. age to reach the target live weight of 2.05 kg, which,  
216 according to the scenario, was reduced from 34 days to 27 days) and carcass yield (i.e. the  
217 proportion of eviscerated carcass in relation to the live weight). Due to the changing degree  
218 of maturity of the bird at the time of slaughter, the body composition was expected to change  
219 (Emmans and Kyriazakis, 2001). The resulting change in lipid content was specified after  
220 discussion with the representatives of the breeding industry, and the protein content was  
221 calculated based on the body protein:water:ash ratios from Gous et al. (1999), assuming that  
222 these would not be changed by genetic selection (Emmans and Kyriazakis, 1995). As a result,  
223 in the target scenario the carcass yield was assumed to increase from 71.7% to 73.2% and the

224 body lipid content to decrease from 11% to 8%. As the target live weight did not change in  
225 the genetic scenario, a direct consequence of increasing carcass yield was that a smaller  
226 number of birds was needed to produce the functional unit of 1000 kg carcass weight. The  
227 parameters for growth rate, body composition and carcass yield for the baseline and the target  
228 scenario are presented in Table 1.

229

230 The protein and energy requirements of the bird for the baseline and the scenario were  
231 calculated as follows: first, the total metabolizable energy intake (assumed equal to the bird  
232 energy requirement) for the baseline 2.05 kg bird was calculated based on the feed intake and  
233 feed metabolizable energy (ME) content reported by the industry (Aviagen, 2014). Then, this  
234 total energy (MJ/bird) was distributed to growth and maintenance as follows:

235

$$236 \quad ME = 50 \frac{MJ}{kg} \times Prg + 56 \frac{MJ}{kg} \times Lg + \sum c \times Pr_i \quad (1)$$

237

238 where Prg is the total protein growth (kg), Lg the total lipid growth (kg) and  $\sum c \cdot Pr_i$  the total  
239 energy requirement for maintenance (MJ) during the growth cycle, where  $Pr_i$  is the body  
240 protein content (kg) on day  $i$  and  $c$  (MJ/kg) is a constant describing the bird metabolic rate of  
241 maintenance (Emmans, 1997). The constants 50 MJ/kg and 56 MJ/kg describe the total  
242 metabolizable energy needed to grow 1 kg of protein and lipid, respectively (including both  
243 the chemical energy retained in the body and the heat production associated with increase of  
244 the body mass), as estimated by Emmans (1994).

245

246 The value of the constant  $c$  was estimated specifically for the birds applied in this study on  
247 the basis of their total energy requirement (ME), obtained directly from baseline performance  
248 objectives (Aviagen, 2014), and the baseline body composition. The value of  $c$  may be

249 expected to be dependent on the physical activity of the bird, which necessarily affects the  
250 ME requirement; in this study it was kept unchanged for both the baseline and the target  
251 scenario. In theory, changes in genetic traits such as body composition could affect bird  
252 activity and consequently maintenance energy requirement. However, according to the  
253 industry (Aviagen, personal communication), such changes are not an expected outcome of  
254 the current direction of breeding.

255

256 For the target scenario, the change in the total energy requirement was then quantified using  
257 the industry predictions for the values of  $P_{rg}$ ,  $L_g$ ,  $Pr_i$  and the (unchanged) constant  $c$ . As seen  
258 in Table 1, there was a reduction of 4.6 MJ in energy requirement for the target scenario  
259 compared to the baseline, which was the outcome of reduced maintenance energy  
260 requirement as a result of shorter production cycle and the lower energy requirement for  
261 growth due to the lower body lipid content.

262

263 For the protein requirement, the gross protein use efficiency was calculated based on the  
264 baseline feed intake, feed protein content and body composition i.e. the efficiency equals the  
265 protein retained in the body (kg) divided by the protein intake (kg) of a single bird. This  
266 efficiency value was then used to calculate the protein requirement for the target scenarios  
267 with the predicted changes of the growth rate and the body protein content. Currently there is  
268 no evidence that the efficiency of protein utilization has changed as a result of selective  
269 breeding. Therefore, it was assumed that this trait would remain constant in this genetic  
270 scenario. As a direct consequence of the constant protein use efficiency, the increase in the  
271 body protein content then slightly increased the overall protein requirement (Table 1).

272

273 For the baseline, the total consumption of different feed ingredients (used as an input of the  
274 LCA model) was calculated based on typical starter, grower, finisher and withdrawal diets  
275 provided by the Industry. For the UK, these are mainly based on wheat and soy bean meal  
276 (Leinonen et al., 2012a). Changed consumption of the ingredients for the target scenario was  
277 estimated using the predicted changes in bird requirements. This was done as follows: first,  
278 the change in the feed intake was calculated using the new energy requirement while keeping  
279 the feed energy content unchanged. Second, the protein and the mineral contents for the new  
280 diet were estimated based on the changes in feed intake and in bird requirements, (the change  
281 of mineral requirement was assumed to be proportional to the change of protein requirement).  
282 Third, the new diet was constructed to meet these requirements by changing the proportions  
283 of wheat, soy meal, soy oil, pure amino acids and minerals in the diet (assuming that wheat  
284 remained the main energy source and soy meal the main protein source, and farmers change  
285 the diets following the changing nutrient and energy requirements of the genetically changed  
286 birds), while minimizing the economic costs using linear optimization (with the MS Excel  
287 Solver Add-In).

288

289 In addition to changes in the traits related to growth end energy and protein requirement of a  
290 single bird, two other traits, namely broiler mortality and the number of chicks produced per  
291 breeder hen were also predicted to change as a result of genetic improvement, and these  
292 changes were also included in the LCA model simulations. The baseline and the scenario  
293 values for these traits are also presented in Table 1.

294

295 The genetic improvement was also expected to change the farm energy consumption as a  
296 result of the changes in the length of growth cycle and bird performance. For the baseline, the  
297 farm gas and electricity use per bird were provided by the UK industry (Leinonen et al.,

298 2012a). Of the total electricity use, the main part (assumed to be 70%) was used for  
299 ventilation, while smaller amounts of electricity were used for lighting (assumed 25%) and  
300 feeding (assumed 5%). For the genetic scenarios, the changes in these components were  
301 assumed to be proportional to the changes in (1) bird heat production, which was quantified  
302 using the bird energy balance model (and reduced in the scenario as a result of increasing  
303 energy efficiency), (2) length of the production cycle, and (3) feed intake, respectively. These  
304 changes were taken into account in the LCA model runs.

305

### 306 *Sensitivity Analysis*

307

308 In addition to the overall change in the environmental impacts as a result of the genetic  
309 change specified by the target scenario, the effects of separate traits were also assessed  
310 individually. Since most of the traits in consideration are functionally connected with each  
311 other, and because their effects on the overall impact are not additive, it was not possible to  
312 directly quantify the effect of each single trait. Instead, a sensitivity analysis was carried out  
313 where a change in one trait in turn was excluded from the target scenario (i.e. the baseline  
314 value was applied for this trait); then the LCA model was run with this altered scenario and  
315 finally the result was compared to the baseline and to the full target scenario. The traits  
316 included in the sensitivity analysis were carcass yield, mortality, number of chicks produced  
317 by a breeder hen and the body composition (lipid and protein content).

318

### 319 *Breakdown of the Environmental Impacts*

320

321 The results were broken down by the following material (and energy) flow categories (or sub-  
322 systems) to demonstrate their relative contribution to the overall impacts and their response to  
323 the predicted genetic changes:

324 1) Feed and water: production of feed crops and additives, feed processing and transport.

325 This category also includes the water consumed during housing.

326 2) Farm electricity: direct electricity consumption at the farms and hatcheries, not including  
327 feed production, processing or transport.

328 3) Farm gas and oil: direct fuel consumption at the farms and hatcheries, not including feed  
329 production, processing or transport.

330 4) Housing: direct emissions of  $\text{NH}_3$ ,  $\text{CH}_4$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  from housing and burdens from  
331 construction of farm buildings and vehicles, not including buildings and vehicles used in feed  
332 production, processing and transport of ingredients.

333 5) Manure and bedding: emissions from manure storage and field spreading and the  
334 production of the bedding. This category also includes credits from replacing synthetic  
335 fertilizers; does not include direct emissions of  $\text{NH}_3$ ,  $\text{CH}_4$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  from housing.

336

## 337 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

338

339 The changes in bird growth rate (together with the changes in body composition), as  
340 predicted by the genetic scenario, had substantial effects both on feed composition and  
341 intake. As a result of the reduced growth cycle which reduced the maintenance energy  
342 requirement, and to a lesser extent as a result of increasing body protein content of the birds  
343 in the target scenario, the feed protein/energy ratio had to be altered to match the new

344 requirements. As a result, the average feed crude protein content had to be increased from  
345 19.8% to 22.9% over the whole production cycle, while keeping the average ME content  
346 constant at 13.2 MJ/kg. The main change required in the formulation of the diet to meet these  
347 new requirements resulting from the genetic scenario was an increase in the proportion of soy  
348 bean meal from an average of 22% up to 31% at the expense of cereals, which resulted in the  
349 reduction of wheat from 63% to 53%. This reduction of wheat resulted in a requirement to  
350 add more concentrated sources of energy to the feed, and consequently the proportion of  
351 vegetable fat in the diet was increased from 2.9% to 4.0%.

352

353 The environmental impacts calculated by the LCA model are presented in Tables 2-7 for both  
354 the baseline and the target scenario, showing also the results of the sensitivity analysis which  
355 highlighted the importance of single genetic traits. The results show that the predicted genetic  
356 changes reduced all environmental impacts considered in this study. In most environmental  
357 impact categories, relatively large reductions as a result of genetic changes occurred in the  
358 “Feed and water” subsystem. This was caused by the reduced ME requirement (and resulting  
359 reduced feed intake) due to shorter growing cycle needed to reach the 2.05 kg target weight,  
360 and affected also by the changes in the body composition, as decreased body lipid content  
361 reduced the energy required for growth. However, the reduced ME requirement as a result of  
362 shorter growth cycle and the increased body protein content required a higher protein content  
363 in the diet (achieved mainly by higher inclusion of soy) and a more concentrated source of  
364 ME (i.e. increased vegetable oil content). These changes affected for example the Primary  
365 Energy Use, Global Warming Potential and Land Occupation arising from the feed  
366 production, and therefore limited the environmental benefits that could be achieved through  
367 the genetic changes. For example, in the category of Land Occupation (consisting mainly of  
368 the arable land needed for production of the feed crops), the differences between the baseline



369 and the scenario were only minimal. The reason for this was that although the overall amount  
370 of feed needed to produce the functional unit decreased, there was a shift in the diet from  
371 high yield feed crops (wheat) towards lower yield crops (soy) as a result of increasing protein  
372 requirement of the birds. This also means that relatively more land is needed overseas, as soy  
373 is not grown in the UK and the availability of alternative, sustainable protein sources is  
374 currently limited in the EU (Leinonen et al, 2013). It is interesting to note that when the  
375 change in body composition was excluded from the scenario in the sensitivity analysis, higher  
376 reduction in land occupation and primary energy use could actually be achieved compared to  
377 the full target scenario, as a result of lower requirement of soy.

378

379 Additional reductions of the environmental impacts as a result of genetic changes occurred  
380 also in the “Housing” and “Manure and bedding” subsystems. Again, these changes were  
381 associated with the reduced length of the production cycle and reduced feed intake of the  
382 birds. This considerably reduced the amount of N excreted by the birds, and therefore had a  
383 beneficial effect on nitrous oxide (contributing to GWP) and ammonia (contributing to  
384 Eutrophication and Acidification Potentials) emissions. Reducing ammonia emissions per se  
385 also helps meet internationally agreed targets for reducing emissions of acidifying gases  
386 (Leinonen and Williams, 2015). The reduced farm energy consumption as a result of shorter  
387 production cycle also had effects on some impact categories, mainly the Primary Energy Use  
388 and GWP.

389

390 Amongst different traits included in the genetic scenario and assessed in the sensitivity  
391 analysis, increased carcass yield affected all environmental impacts uniformly, simply  
392 because a smaller number of birds was required to produce the functional unit (1000 kg  
393 broiler carcass), reducing directly all the resources needed and emissions arising from the

394 production (Tables 2-7). Reduction in the broiler mortality and number of chicks produced by  
395 a breeder hen had only a moderate effect on the changes of environmental impact of the  
396 broiler production system, as shown in Tables 2-7. The reason for this is that the broiler  
397 mortality was already very low in the baseline, so any further reductions in genetic scenario  
398 had a little effect on the environmental impacts. Furthermore, although the number of the  
399 breeder hens needed to produce the functional unit decreased in the genetic scenario, the  
400 breeder system in general has a relative low contribution to the overall environmental impacts  
401 of the broiler production chain (Leinonen et al, 2012a), so again relatively low improvement  
402 in the overall environmental performance can be achieved through this trait.

403

404 In this study, a holistic, systems-based approach combined with mechanistic animal energy  
405 flow modeling was applied to quantify the potential effects of future genetic changes on the  
406 environmental impacts of a broiler production system. Earlier studies on this topic have been  
407 either conceptual without any quantitative analysis (Pelletier, 2010), or have mainly  
408 considered changes that have occurred in the past with only limited predictions for possible  
409 future trends (Defra, 2008). In general, a functional process-based approach has only recently  
410 been applied in LCA studies on poultry production (e.g. Leinonen 2012a,b), and the current  
411 study can be seen as the first one where such an approach is used for genetic changes in  
412 broilers. In earlier studies, for example in the Defra (2008) report, the effect of genetic  
413 changes on the animal nutrient requirement (and consequently changes in feed composition)  
414 or on their nutrient excretion were not taken into account. Omission of these essential factors  
415 may result in either overestimation or underestimation of the predicted changes in the  
416 environmental impacts of livestock systems. For example, the consequences of the trend in  
417 reducing broiler FCR, achieved by selective breeding, (e.g. Laughlin, 2007) cannot be  
418 understood without detailed information on the required changes in the bird diet. Such a trend

419 will have effects on the consumption of different feed crops and on the impacts arising from  
420 their cultivation, as shown in this study. On the other hand, the changes in the feed intake and  
421 composition have inevitably effects on the amount of nutrients excreted by the birds, which  
422 consequently affects the emissions arising from housing and manure management.

423 Mechanistic understanding of this process is likely to produce much more accurate estimates  
424 of these emissions than a simplistic use of unchanged emission factors. For example, our  
425 results show that there are potentially major effects of genetic changes on the acidification  
426 and eutrophication potentials; these are directly affected by reduced N excretion by the birds  
427 as a result of reduced ME requirement and consequently reduced protein intake.

428

429 Despite its quantitative nature, there are some limitations in the current study that should be  
430 kept in mind when interpreting the results. First, only one scenario for the future genetic  
431 changes was considered in this study, based on some of the targets/ expectations of the UK  
432 broiler breeding industry and concentrating on a single genotype (Ross 308). Alternative  
433 broiler genotypes developed for different purposes and production systems exist, and the  
434 production systems, including the final weight of the broilers, vary between different  
435 countries. This may give rise to different environmental impact outcomes as shown by  
436 Leinonen et al (2012a). Therefore, further studies are required where more specific  
437 production data collected from different systems and locations will be utilized in connection  
438 with the LCA model.

439

440 Second, the scenario applied in this study was based on the starting point that the feed  
441 provided to the birds does not change any more than what is necessary to meet the changing  
442 nutrient requirements. For example, it was assumed that the ME content of the feed (MJ/kg  
443 feed) will be kept constant in the scenario. Furthermore, the diet is changed only in terms of

444 the relative proportion of different feed ingredients, i.e. no ingredient is assumed to be  
445 completely removed from the feed and no new ingredients are added. Consequently it was  
446 assumed that soy remains the main protein source and wheat the main energy source in the  
447 broiler feed. In reality, the composition of feed is very much driven by changes in the prices  
448 of ingredients, a phenomenon that is very difficult to include in future scenarios (Mackenzie  
449 et al, 2013). In addition, novel ingredients may reach the market that would allow  
450 manipulations of feed compositions beyond the above confines. Currently there is substantial  
451 interest, in the EU at least, on these issues in the context of food security. The advantage of  
452 the system-based LCA modeling approach is that it can be readily adapted to any changes in  
453 the feeding strategies, providing that Life Cycle Inventory of possible new ingredients is  
454 available. Therefore, the modeling framework presented in this study can be also used for  
455 evaluation of the effects of different scenarios of future changes in poultry diets (Leinonen et  
456 al. 2013).

457

458 Third, the analysis is based on the assumption that the metabolic rate of the bird (defined as  
459 the maintenance heat production per mass unit of protein per unit of time) does not change as  
460 a result of the breeding process. This assumption may not be true if bird activity is also  
461 reduced, which would result in further reduction of its ME requirement. Furthermore, in  
462 theory, the changes in body composition may not only alter the protein/lipid ratio, but also  
463 change the proportion of different types of protein in the body (e.g. Emmans and Kyriazakis,  
464 1995, 1999). Again, this (in theory) might have effects on the rate of metabolic activity and  
465 the maintenance energy use. However, such changes are difficult to predict, and currently  
466 there is no evidence that they could significantly affect bird energy requirement. In general,  
467 there is no literature showing that selective breeding has changed the basic metabolic rate of  
468 broilers. For example Geraert et al. (1990) and Buyse et al. (1998) found no significant

469 differences in the rate of maintenance between broiler strains that have been selected for their  
470 body composition, growth rate or feed efficiency. Clearly there is a gap in the knowledge  
471 concerning the mechanisms of the reduced bird energy requirement as a result of genetic  
472 selection. In order to improve the reliability of the predictions of the consequences of the  
473 future broiler breeding, better analysis of existing data and new experimental studies are  
474 needed to quantify the effects of changes in separate traits (e.g. physical activity, body  
475 composition) on the changes of overall energy use of the bird and their environmental  
476 consequences.

477

478 Fourth, the model used in the predictions assumes that although changes are expected to  
479 occur in the housing system in the future, these would only be driven by the genetic change  
480 of the birds, including faster growth, reduced heat production and reduced feed intake.  
481 However, the energy efficiency of the broiler housing is currently improving (Leinonen et al.,  
482 2014), so reduction in the environmental impacts arising from housing can be expected in the  
483 future, regardless of the genetic progress of the birds themselves. As in the case of the other  
484 systems changes, such as different slaughter weights and feeding strategies discussed above,  
485 the systems-based LCA modeling approach can also be used for quantifying the  
486 environmental consequences of improved housing conditions, as demonstrated by Leinonen  
487 et al. (2014)

488

489 In conclusion, the current study demonstrates the applicability of the systems-based modeling  
490 approach in predicting effects of future genetic developments in broilers on their  
491 environmental impacts. The results suggest that for the genetic scenario investigated here,  
492 such effects occur through reduced ME requirement and reduced nutrient excretion, which  
493 have a beneficial effect on the environmental performance of broiler production systems.

494 However, more detailed understanding on the mechanisms behind the altered bird  
495 performance in the past and in the future (including possible changes in maintenance, body  
496 composition, nutrient utilization and so on) and their consequences on feeding and husbandry  
497 would be required in order to evaluate and further develop the modeling framework presented  
498 in this study.

499

500

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504

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## TABLES

**Table 1.** Final body weight (BW), final age, body protein content, body lipid content, metabolizable energy requirement (MER), protein requirement, carcass yield, mortality and the number of chicks per breeder hen for the baseline and for the target scenario of genetic improvement.

	BW, kg	Final age, days	Body protein, %	Body lipid, %	MER, MJ	Protein requirement, kg	Carcass yield, %	Mortality, %	Chicks per breeder hen
Baseline	2.05	34	17.9	11.0	40.4	0.60	71.7	3.50	144.0
Target scenario	2.05	27	18.4	8.0	35.8	0.62	73.2	2.45	152.5

**Table 2.** Primary Energy Use (MJ) for the current baseline and for the ‘full’ target scenario and for scenarios where changes in individual traits are excluded. The absolute and the relative (for the total impact only) changes are shown.

	Feed + water	Electricity	Farm gas + oil	Housing	Manure + bedding	Total	Change relative to baseline
Baseline	11338	2485	5424	188	-752	18683	
Change in ‘full’ target scenario	-385	-267	-187	-28	36	-831	-4%
-no change in carcass yield	-156	-221	-78	-24	21	-457	-2%
- no change in mortality	-266	-257	-131	-27	27	-654	-4%
- no change in chick production	-325	-252	-168	-26	29	-742	-4%
- no change in body composition	-471	-238	-187	-28	36	-888	-5%

**Table 3.** Global Warming Potential (GWP 100, kg CO<sub>2</sub> equivalent) for the current baseline and for the full target scenario and for scenarios where changes in individual traits are excluded. The absolute and the relative (for the total impact only) changes are shown.

	Feed + water	Electricity	Farm gas + oil	Housing	Manure + bedding	Total	Change relative to baseline
Baseline	1684	145	370	440	119	2758	
Change in 'full' target scenario	-104	-15	-13	-91	-15	-238	-9%
-no change in carcass yield	-71	-13	-5	-83	-13	-185	-7%
- no change in mortality	-87	-15	-9	-90	-12	-213	-8%
- no change in chick production	-93	-15	-11	-88	-13	-220	-8%
- no change in body composition	-87	-14	-13	-91	-12	-216	-8%

**Table 4.** Eutrophication Potential (kg PO<sub>4</sub> equivalent) for the current baseline and for the full target scenario and for scenarios where changes in individual traits are excluded. The absolute and the relative (for the total impact only) changes are shown.

	Feed + water	Electricity	Farm gas + oil	Housing	Manure + bedding	Total	Change relative to baseline
Baseline	8.85	0.00	0.03	1.25	8.67	18.81	
Change in 'full' target scenario	-1.16	0.00	0.00	-0.12	-0.96	-2.24	-12%
-no change in carcass yield	-1.00	0.00	0.00	-0.10	-0.80	-1.90	-10%
- no change in mortality	-1.08	0.00	0.00	-0.10	-0.75	-1.93	-10%
- no change in chick production	-1.11	0.00	0.00	-0.10	-0.81	-2.03	-11%
- no change in body composition	-0.66	0.00	0.00	-0.10	-0.76	-1.53	-8%



**Table 5.** Acidification Potential (kg SO<sub>2</sub> equivalent) for the current baseline and for the full target scenario and for scenarios where changes in individual traits are excluded. The absolute and the relative (for the total impact only) changes are shown.

	Feed + water	Electricity	Farm gas + oil	Housing	Manure + bedding	Total	Change relative to baseline
Baseline	9.53	0.49	0.49	6.74	28.68	45.93	
Change in 'full' target scenario	-0.37	-0.06	-0.02	-0.66	-3.42	-4.52	-10%
-no change in carcass yield	-0.18	-0.05	-0.01	-0.53	-2.89	-3.66	-8%
- no change in mortality	-0.27	-0.06	-0.01	-0.53	-2.67	-3.54	-8%
- no change in chick production	-0.32	-0.06	-0.02	-0.52	-2.90	-3.82	-8%
- no change in body composition	-0.41	-0.05	-0.02	-0.55	-2.70	-3.73	-8%

**Table 6.** Abiotic Resource Use (kg Sb equivalent) for the current baseline and for the full target scenario and for scenarios where changes in individual traits are excluded. The absolute and the relative (for the total impact only) changes are shown.

	Feed + water	Electricity	Farm gas + oil	Housing	Manure + bedding	Total	Change relative to baseline
Baseline	5.73	0.94	2.78	5.36	-0.44	14.37	
Change in 'full' target scenario	-0.29	-0.09	-0.10	-0.90	+0.02	-1.35	-9%
-no change in carcass yield	-0.17	-0.08	-0.04	-0.80	+0.01	-1.08	-8%
- no change in mortality	-0.23	-0.09	-0.07	-0.89	+0.02	-1.26	-9%
- no change in chick production	-0.26	-0.09	-0.09	-0.84	+0.02	-1.25	-9%
- no change in body composition	-0.27	-0.08	-0.10	-0.90	+0.02	-1.33	-9%

**Table 7.** Land Occupation (ha) for the current baseline and for the full target scenario and for scenarios where changes in individual traits are excluded. The absolute and the relative (for the total impact only) changes are shown.

	Feed + water	Electricity	Farm gas + oil	Housing	Manure + bedding	Total	Change relative to baseline
Baseline	0.48	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.48	
Change in 'full' target scenario	-0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	-0.01	-3%
-no change in carcass yield	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	-1%
- no change in mortality	-0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	-0.01	-2%
- no change in chick production	-0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	-0.01	-2%
- no change in body composition	-0.02	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	-0.02	-4%