

**A REVIEW OF THE INDUSTRIALISATION
OF PIG PRODUCTION WORLDWIDE
WITH PARTICULAR REFERENCE
TO THE ASIAN REGION**

Focus is on clarifying the animal and human health risks

and

**reviewing the Area Wide Integration concept
of specialised crop and livestock activities**

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Table of Contents

1.	Introduction	1
2.	The Evolution of Industrialisation of the Pig Industry	5
2.1	The industrialised farrow to finisher system	5
2.2	Modified intensive management	6
2.3	Minimal disease populations	8
2.4	Early weaning systems	9
2.5	Multi-site production	10
3.	Biosecurity	14
4.	Animal Health and Industrialised Pig Production	17
4.1	The breeding sows	19
4.2	The lactating sow	19
4.3	Pre-weaned piglets	19
4.4	Weaners	20
4.5	Growers and finishers	21
5.	Diseases Associated with Industrialised Pig Production in Asia	22
6.	Emerging Disease Problems as a Result of Industrialisation of Pig Production in the Last Decade	30
7.	Area Wide (Crop-Livestock) Integration (AWI) and its Implication for Animal and Human Health	35
7.1	The site	36
7.2	Housing	37
7.3	Disease control management	37
7.4	Veterinary services	39
8.	Priority areas for Policy on the Establishment of Area Wide Integration (AWI) of Pig Production and Cropping	40
9.	General conclusions	44
10.	Reference material	45

Table 1.	Estimated on-farm breeding sows and total pig numbers (x 1000) in the Asian region in 1998	2
Table 2.	Infectious agents eliminated by modified medicated weaning and maximum weaning age and need for medication and vaccination	10
Table 3.	The important diseases and pathogens likely to be a health risk to animals and humans in industrialised pig production systems in Asia	23
Table 4.	Important zoonoses that could become a human health risk associated with industrialised pig production systems in Asia	28
Table 5.	Animal and human health risk factors and management options in industrialised pig production systems	34
Table 6.	Comparison of factors affecting profitability in high health and conventional health status herds.	41
Figure 1.	Multi-site systems	13
Figure 2.	Factors influencing animal health and disease outbreaks in intensive production systems	18
11.	Appendix — Copies of all Tables (1 to 6) and Figures (1 & 2).	47

A REVIEW OF THE INDUSTRIALISATION OF PIG PRODUCTION WORLDWIDE WITH PARTICULAR REFERENCE TO ASIA

1. INTRODUCTION

World pig meat production has nearly doubled over the last 20 years. Approximately 42.9 million tons of pork was produced in 1977. In 1998 production had grown to approximately 83.6 million tons the result of slaughtering approximately 1.15 billion pigs. Some 55% of all slaughter pigs come from the Asia/Pacific region. Between 1990 and 1998 the world's production of pig meat rose by an average 2.22% per year, this increase being mainly in Asia. The increase in pork production was due not only to the increase in pig numbers but also an increase in slaughter weights. In 1977 average slaughter weight was 67 kg and by 1997 the average was 77 kg. Because of the considerable differences in carcass weights between countries, the actual number of pigs slaughtered rather than tonnage of meat gives a better indication of overall pig numbers per country.

China is by far the largest producer of slaughtered pigs at 556 million in 1997, which was an increase of 29.6 million compared with the previous year. It has been estimated that China had a further increase of around 30 million pigs slaughtered in 1998. This huge increase in China compensated for a decline totalling 18 million in many other major pig producing countries. China accounted for approximately 84% of all on-farm pigs in Asia in 1997 with 467.8 million, followed by Vietnam with 18 million and India with 15.5 million. Japan and the Philippines account for around 10 million pigs on-farm each, and Indonesia and Taiwan have approximately 8 million each. The total number of on-farm pigs in Asia in 1997 was approximately 550

million. The Asia/Pacific region also had a massive increase in pork consumption between 1986 and 1998. This was due mainly to the contribution by China where 17.8 million tons (16.8 kg/person) in 1996 rose to 36.4 million tons (29.4 kg/person) in 1998.

Table 1. Estimated on-farm breeding sows and total pig numbers (x 1000) in the Asian region in 1998.

	On-farm pigs*	Breeding sows**
China	395,000	32,000
Vietnam	18,060	2,200
India	16,000	600
Philippines	10,912	1,100
Japan	9,915	900
Korea	6,710	900
Taiwan	6,539	800
Thailand	4,209	500
Indonesia	3,400	100
Malaysia	2,350	300
Laos	1,880	NA
Cambodia	1,410	NA

* Pig International (1999) 29:6, p22

** Pig International (1999) 29:1, pp21-24

In west and central Europe approximately 110.8 million pigs were on-farm in 1997 and in east Europe approximately 75.2 million. In the USA in 1999 there were 60 million pigs on-farm and a total of 92 million for North and Central America. In 1997 South America had approximately 57.7 million pigs on-farm.

Accompanying the overall increase in pork production during the last 20 years has been a decrease in the actual number of pig farms with an increase in larger farms

having 1000 or more animals. This trend has been particularly evident in eastern/western Europe, North and South America and Australia. In countries like the UK, Ireland and Italy for example, 70% of pigs are produced on farms with 1000 or more pigs, and in the case of the UK and Ireland 90-95% of their pigs are from units with 400 or more pigs. In the USA in 1993 the number of pigs on-farm was 56 million and in 1999 it had risen to 60 million, but in March 2000 there had been a slight fall to around 58 million. However the number of pig farms in 1993 was a little over 600,000 but this has fallen to around 100,000 in 1999. Large industrial operations with over 5000 pigs now make up 46.5% of all pig farms in the USA (USDA-NASS). In Australia nearly 50% of the 300,000 sows that make up the national herd are also found on larger industrialised units with over 400 sows places and 34.5% are in herds of 1000 or more sows. The number of pig farms in Australia has fallen from 19,297 in 1980 to 3522 in 1996.

In Asian countries there have been similar trends although not to the extent seen in Europe or North America and there is considerable difference between countries. In 1996 it was estimated that 20% of pork production in China was from large “high technique specialised” farms whereas it was only 5% of the output in 1980. In Thailand around 80% of pigs produced are from intensive farming systems and 56% of these are from farms with over 1000 pigs. The remainder are from small (50 – 200 pigs), to medium (201 – 1000 pigs) farms. Large intensive farms are either integrated company owned (8.5%) or private independent (47.5%) farms. Although modern intensive pig production in Thailand began in 1973 (Tisdell et al) large-scale or industrialised pig farming was slow to develop up until the 1980s after which it rapidly increased.

In the Philippines with around 9.7 million on-farm pigs, only 18% are reared on commercial enterprises the remaining 82% are backyard production. However the commercial sector produces most of the slaughtered pigs for the commercial market. In Vietnam large intensive pig holdings make up about 20% of the Vietnamese herds. The larger farms are usually State owned and have up to 3000 pigs whereas private farms typically have around 700 pigs (Gallacher et al). In 1998 it was estimated that 95% of sows in Vietnam were kept in the “extensive household sector where the pigs play a critical role as the family ‘bank’ as well as a source of valuable fertilizer for paddy and vegetable plots” (Pig International (1998) **28**: 25-27) and less than 5% of sows were housed in intensive conditions.

Hai and Nguyen (1997) described three main production systems in Vietnam. State-owned farms which account for only 4-5% of total production, private commercial farms producing 15% and small-scale production accounting for 80% of all pigs produced. The same authors described the development of a new system involving breeding herds, fattening, feed supply, slaughter and processing. These systems have a capacity of 20,000-200,000 pigs.

2. THE EVOLUTION OF INDUSTRIALISATION OF THE PIG INDUSTRY

During the last 20 years industrialisation of pig production has been one of the major developments of the pig industry, particularly in east and western Europe, North America and Australia. Similar developments have taken place in a number of Asian countries in more recent years e.g. in Singapore, Malaysia, Thailand, Taiwan and the Philippines. Industrialisation is usually synonymous with increasing herd size. In eastern Europe nearly 20 years ago pig farms were developed to accommodate up to 3000 to 5000 breeding sows and their followers. In western Europe and the UK industrialised pig units were however relatively smaller accommodating 250-1000 sows. Similarly in North America the average size of large industrialised units was about 1000 sows.

2.1 The industrialised farrow to finisher system

Large industrialised units were usually the farrow-to-finish systems with breeding sows and boars through to finisher pigs all located on one site and often housed under the same roof. In the case of weaners and growers they were often kept in double or triple deck cage systems. Pregnant sows and boars were usually tethered or confined to individual stalls during their entire production life. Farrowing was and still is usually in farrowing crates. Weaners aged between three and four weeks were reared to 10 weeks of age in small groups of around 15 to 20 in cages providing about 0.36m²/pig floor space. Growers (10-16 weeks) were kept in pens providing 0.5m²/pig floor space and finishers (16-24 weeks) with 0.75m²/pig floor space.

Flooring was usually slatted concrete for confined sows, solid concrete with or without metal mesh in farrowing crates, metal mesh in weaner cages and partial or

fully slatted concrete pens for growers and finisher pigs. Effluent collection and storage was usually by channels built under the slatted or mesh flooring systems that were regularly hosed out and released every few weeks, or had flushing systems to allow daily flushing of the channel with water held in tanks situated at the end of each channel. Slatted floors and flushing systems reduced labour costs, eliminated the need for bedding and provided a more pleasant environment for both pigs and operators although they often contributed to noxious gasses rising up into the housing. Effluent disposal was usually carried out using a series of ponds designed for both evaporation and leaching or from which raw or treated waste could be pumped for irrigation. Treatments involved removal of gross solids, separation of liquids and solids by screens, centrifugation, and combinations of both aerobic and anaerobic ponds.

2.2 Modified intensive management

The early industrialised pig units although relatively profitable often presented with serious animal health, welfare and waste disposal problems. In the early 1980s there was a move towards less intensive systems although retaining the one site farrow to finish production system. Dry and pregnant sows were often moved into group pens after spending only the first four to six weeks in stalls, allowing mixing of sows with the advantage of promoting immunity to endemic organisms, improving muscular and skeletal strength as well as being more acceptable from a welfare point of view. This system was not without some problems however, such as fighting, vulva biting and sows low on the “peck order” getting less food. In some units this was overcome by providing feeding stalls (known as the cubicle system in the UK) allowing sows to separate themselves during feeding time.

The main modification of farrowing accommodation was smaller rooms holding between 25 and 50 farrowing crates only, often managed on an all-in-all-out (AIAO) basis. Farrowing crate flooring was usually fully meshed with specific creep accommodation for the piglets. Less intensive weaner accommodation was characterised by single deck cages with partial or fully meshed floors. In some units weaners were also managed on an AIAO basis with piglets moving from farrowing rooms to weaner rooms in batches, with an age difference of not more than one week. Grower and finisher accommodation changed little in the 1980s with the exception of maybe a greater use of partially slatted concrete floors and replacing floor feeding with feed hoppers.

Although AIAO management in conjunction with batch farrowing was used in some herds in the early 1970s its use did not gain momentum until the 1980s. AIAO involves rearing pigs of the same age, usually one week's production, in one room or building in which no other pigs are kept, and the room/building has been cleaned and disinfected before being populated. Pigs remain in the **same room or building** until moving to the next stage of production, e.g. in the case of sows and piglets usually two to four weeks, weaners six to seven weeks and growers to finishers approximately 12 to 15 weeks. When the room or building becomes vacant it is cleaned and disinfected again before repopulation with another week's production. If the stage of production is seven weeks then eight rooms/buildings will be required to allow one week for depopulation, cleaning and disinfecting before another batch is installed.

There is no doubt that the practice of batch farrowing in individual farrowing rooms managed on an AIAO basis, followed by AIAO movement of the weaned pigs into

individual weaner rooms where they were reared separately, until moving into grower accommodation, was a major step forward in the control of many of the common diseases that affected production, in particular enteric and respiratory diseases. AIAO management greatly improved the efficacy of housing hygiene as well as avoiding the mixing of age groups, thus reducing vertical spread of disease. AIAO management of farrowing rooms also significantly reduced the incidence of mastitis/metritis/agalactia in sows while batch farrowing improved reproductive efficiency.

2.3 Minimal disease populations

In addition to changes in housing and management to reduce the impact and spread of disease in intensive systems there was a general acceptance of the value of establishing new or repopulated herds with minimal disease or specific pathogen free (SPF) pigs known as high health status herds. By producing nuclear stock (primary SPF pigs) by hysterectomy, hysterotomy or snatch farrowing, populations of pigs could be developed and maintained free of many of the common epizootic pathogens, in particular respiratory and enteric pathogens, as well as internal and external parasites. The establishment of commercial SPF herds (secondary SPF pigs) commenced as early as 1955 in the USA and extensive repopulation programs with SPF pigs were started in Europe between 1960 and 1970. At the same time with the advent of breeding companies producing specific genetic lines, the advantages of having high health status herds was promoted, with the result that there has been a huge increase in the numbers of high health status commercial herds particularly in Europe, USA, Australia and more recently in Asia.

2.4 Early weaning systems

In 1982 Alexander reported the establishment of high health status herds by a system known as medicated early weaning (MEW). This was based on the principle that older sows that have had several litters pass on strong protective immunity through colostrum and milk to their piglets, which greatly reduces the chances of piglets becoming infected with endemic pathogens carried by the sows or present in the environment, at least for the first four or five days of life. Medication of sows with antibacterial agents against the organisms that are to be eliminated, from 5 days before until 5 days after farrowing, and of the piglets from birth to 10-20 days of age provides added safeguard. Weaners at 5 to 10 weeks of age can then be moved on to isolated grow-out units, reared to puberty and become the basis of a new high health status herd. Early weaning of the piglets at around 5 days and rearing them in isolation was shown to eliminate pathogens such as Mycoplasma hyopneumoniae, M hyosynoviae, Pasteurella multocida, Bordetella bronchiseptica, Actinobacillus pleuropneumoniae, Haemophilus parasuis, Strep suis, Sepulina hyodysenteriae, TGE virus, porcine epidemic diarrhoea virus, pseudorabies virus and PRRS virus.

Although this technique was first used by breeding companies in the United Kingdom to establish new nucleus herds or to eliminate pathogens in herds that had broken down with specific diseases, it soon became apparent that the method could be used as an on-going management procedure to produce commercial pigs free of the endemic diseases that affect production, without depopulation of the breeding herd.

Harris in 1988 developed a modification of MEW now known as modified medicated early weaning (MMEW), segregated early weaning (SEW) or isowean, where the sows are batch farrowed on the source farm after vaccination and medication against

the organisms present in the herd. Piglets are weaned between 5 and 28 days depending on the specific diseases to be eliminated (Table 2), and reared in isolated nursery accommodation away from the source farm before moving to isolated grow-out units or to a new piggery.

Table 2. Infectious agents eliminated by modified medicated weaning and maximum weaning age and need for medication and vaccination.

Organism	Weaning Age (days)	Medication		Vaccination	
		Sows	Piglets	Sows	Piglets
H. parasuis	10	—	+	+	—
B. bronchiseptica	10	—	+	+	—
P. multocida	8-10	—	+	+	—
A. pleuropneumoniae	21-25	—	+	+	—
M. hyopneumoniae	14-16	—	—	+	—
Salmonella spp.	20	—	—	+	—
Leptospirosis	14-16	—	+	+	—
Pseudorabies virus	20	—	—	+	—
Swine Influenza virus	20	—	—	+	—
PRRS virus	14-16	—	—	+	—
TGE virus	20	—	—	+	—

(Harris and Alexander 1999)

2.5 Multi-site production

MEW and MMEW have shown that piglets remain free from most of the serious pathogens endemic in a herd until (early) weaning. Piglets subsequently get infected when mixed with older pigs. Therefore if piglets are removed from the source herd at weaning (age dependent on specific diseases) and reared in isolated cohorts away from any other pigs and other age groups they are likely to remain specific pathogen free (Harris and Alexander 1999). This is the basis on which multi-site systems have been developed combining early weaning and AIAO management of isolated cohorts

of similar age. All-in-all-out may be by site, by building or by room, and populated at the same time by pigs of the same age and depopulated completely at the appropriate time (after 6-7 weeks for weaners in a nursery, or 14-15 weeks for finisher pigs), cleaned, disinfected, dried and left empty for up to a week before populating again.

Various combinations of using the three stages of production (breeders, nursery and grow-out) with early weaning and AIAO management have evolved over the last 10 years, for example two, three or multi-site isowean production. In two-site situations breeders are on one site and weaners and finishers on another and AIAO may be by room or building. In three-site situations there are separate sites for breeders, weaners and finishers. Breeders are AIAO managed by room, whereas weaners and finishers are managed by room or building depending on the number of pigs in the batch.

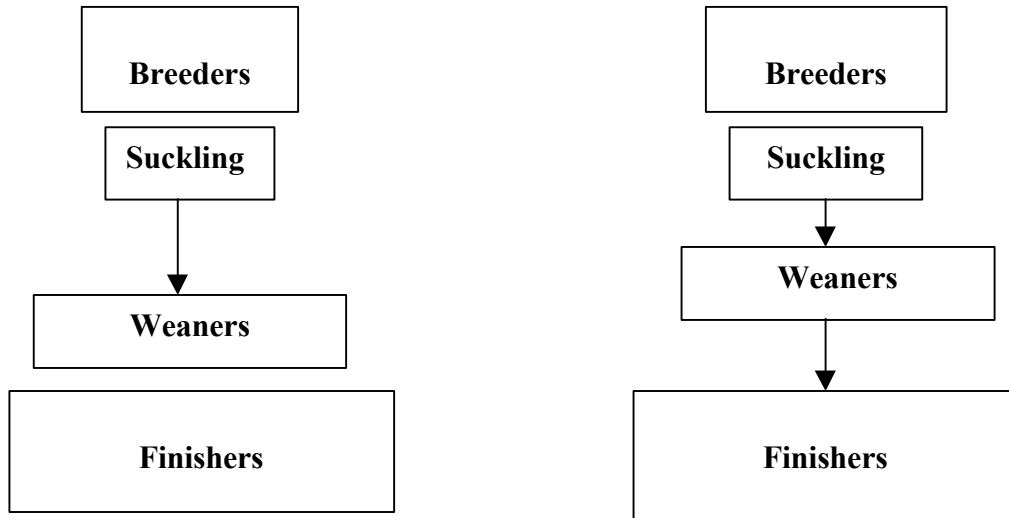
Multi-sites may have one or more breeder units at Site 1, providing weaners for up to eight weaner rooms or buildings (seven weeks production) at Site 2, and finishers for up to 16 grow-out buildings (14 weeks production) at Site 3. Each weaner and finisher room or building will hold one week's production and where separate buildings are used they are separated by 12 metres (25 yards). (Figure 1)

Since the late 1980s multi-site isowean systems of pig production have been implemented increasingly by pig breeding companies, large-scale producers and integrators. These systems have been developed not only for the control of pathogens infectious to pigs, but also being aimed at reducing human disease via pork consumption or through contaminated waste products (Nielsen et al 1996 & Emborg et al 1996).

Although multi-site production as the name suggests involves separate geographical sites for the three different stages of production (breeders, nursery and grow-out) and separate buildings in the case of nursery and grow-out, the entire operation can be planned to cover a designated isolated pig production area integrated with some form of crop farming. It is also an advantage to have specific processing plants (abattoirs, feedmills etc.) near to the production system and isolated from other animal production systems.

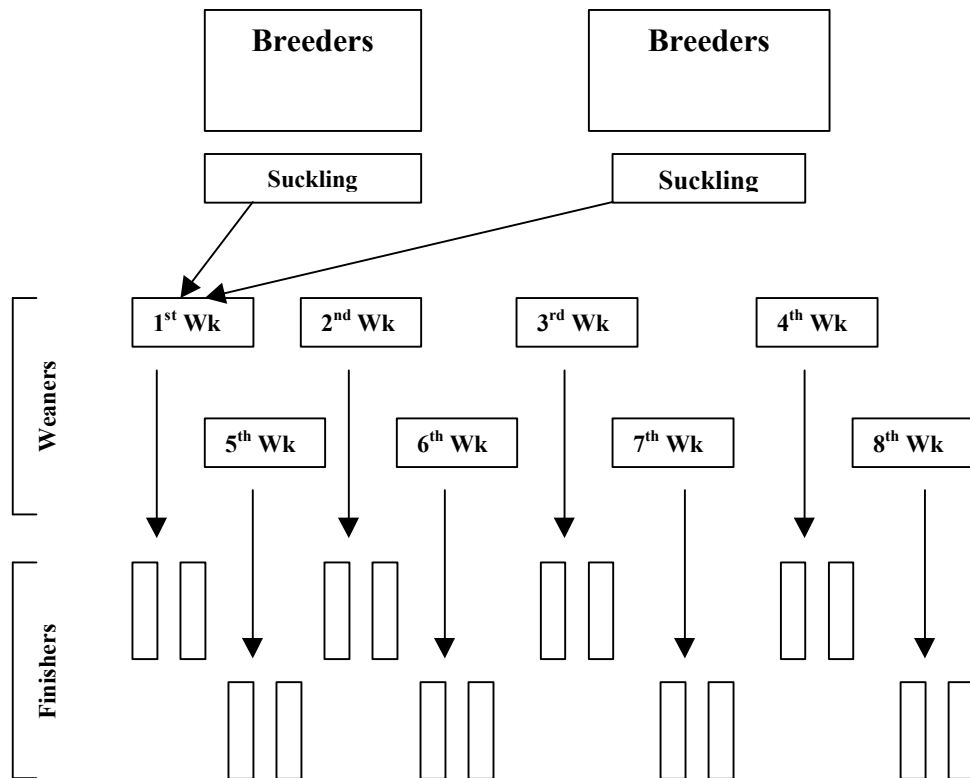
Pigs produced in multi-site early wean systems using AIAO management have been shown to have improved efficiency of growth rates as a result of having less infectious agents to combat. When the pig's immune system is highly stimulated, energy and amino acids necessary for production of antibodies to the microbial agents are utilised and diverted from muscle protein accretion (Harris & Alexander 1999). Cytokines are also released when the pig is exposed to infections. Cytokines decrease food intake, body growth rates, efficiency of feed utilisation and protein synthesis (Williams et al 1997). Pigs reared in multi-site systems are exposed to less pathogens and less endotoxins in the environment so the immune system is less stimulated.

Figure 1. Multi-site systems (adapted from Harris and Alexander 1999)



Two-site production system using early weaning and AIAO farrowing (Site 1) and AIAO weaning and grow-out (Site 2).

Three site system with AIAO farrowing, weaning and grow-out on each separate site.



Multi-site early weaning production. AIAO farrowing, weaning and grow-out where each week's production populates a separate building.

3. BIOSECURITY

The evolution of industrialisation of the pig industry has resulted in specialised housing and management systems, however the success of these systems in maintaining animal and human health depends very much on the level of biosecurity of the herd or area in which the pigs are located. The levels of biosecurity required may differ slightly depending on the stage of production, for example a breeding site may over time develop a lower health status than a weaner site or finisher site. However every precaution should be taken to ensure maximum biosecurity to eliminate the risk of introducing disease.

- The **location** of the herd or area designated for pig production is critical. Proximity to other pigs, roads, railways, urban areas and the terrain must be taken into consideration. It is generally accepted that a distance of at least three to eight kilometres from other pigs is necessary. This will however depend on the density of the neighbouring pig farms, the disease status of these farms and the terrain. Large herds with a poor health status pose a greater risk than small herds. Herds with diseases that can be spread by prevailing winds e.g. Foot and Mouth disease and Enzootic Pneumonia present a serious risk if close by and in the line of the prevailing winds. Viral diseases appear to be carried long distances by wind, e.g. Foot and Mouth disease virus can be carried at least 20 km by wind, and Pseudorabies virus 9 km. Porcine Reproductive and Respiratory syndrome (PRRS) and Porcine Respiratory Coronavirus (PRCV) are two viral diseases now also believed to be windborne spread. Flies and rodents can travel from infected areas where pigs are kept for up to 3 to 4 km and carry infections such as salmonella, Strep. suis and Encephalomyocarditis virus (EMCV) and possibly Swine Dysentery. Public

roads and railways may pose a risk if they carry livestock, although there is no clear evidence of pig herds being infected from passing vehicles.

- **Vehicles and the drivers transporting pigs** to the slaughter house or delivering feed, pose a major risk and require considerable supervision to ensure biosecurity. Vehicles need to be washed and disinfected after each slaughter plant delivery.
- **Loading ramps** need to be designed in such a way that the vehicles are as far as possible away from the pig buildings when loading pigs and the driver must not have to enter the piggery during the loading procedure.
- **Perimeter fencing** should surround the individual herd or site to ensure a clear demarcation and be constructed in such a way as to keep out other animals, vehicles and people.
- **All persons** entering the herd should not have been in contact with other pigs recently and must change boots and clothing and possibly shower before entering.
- **The down-time** of entering a high health status herd varies from 24 hours to 3 days depending on the health status of the herd and the health of the pigs previously in contact with.
- **Regular staff** working in the herd should have no contact with other pigs at any time and should be required to sign a declaration accordingly. If they do come in contact with other pigs they must observe the down time specified for casual visitors. In the case of multi-site systems staff working on one site must not move between and enter any of the other sites. In some situations the breeder site may have the lowest health status compared with the nursery site

and the grower/finisher sites, requiring special arrangements for moving piglets to the nursery site.

- **Visitors** should sign in and provide evidence of recent contact with pigs or other animals before entry to the farm.
- **A rodent and fly control program** should be implemented and buildings should be made bird-proof.
- **An isolation and acclimatisation (quarantine) area** should be used for incoming replacement stock and situated preferably 2 km away from the main herd. Incoming stock are usually held in quarantine for three to four weeks.

4. ANIMAL HEALTH AND INDUSTRIALISED PIG PRODUCTION.

Health problems in industrialised pig production systems can be classified as follows:

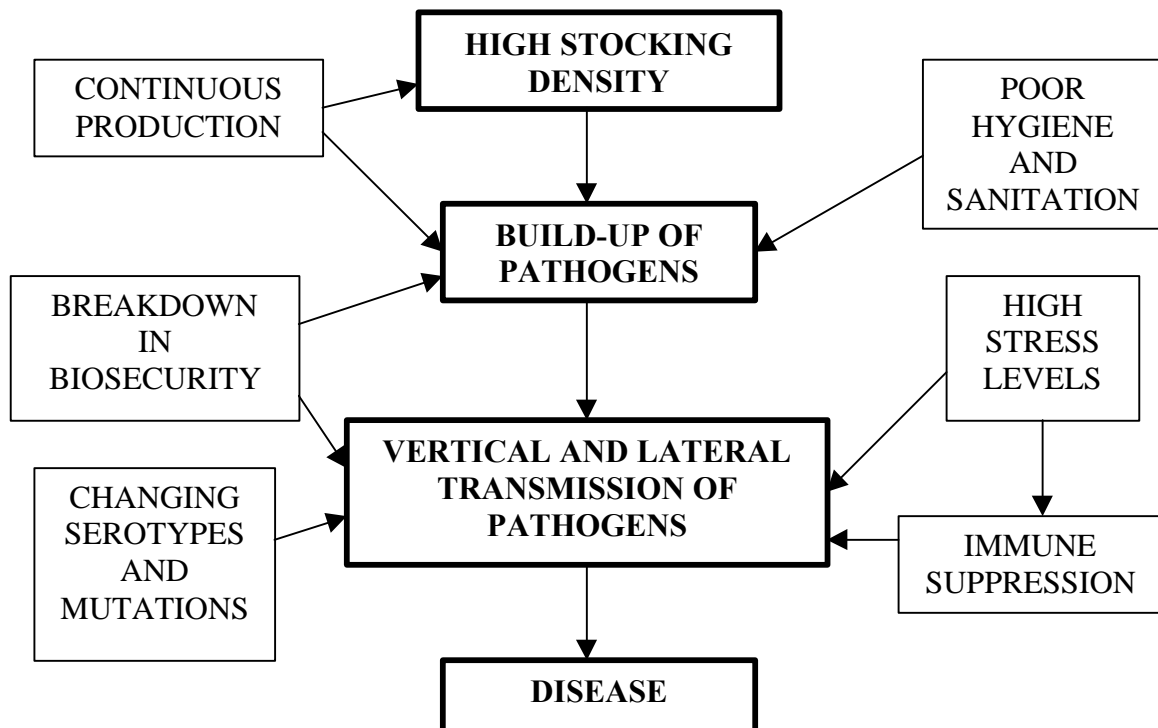
- **Endemic diseases** that become established in a population and are continually propagated from older animals, especially breeding sows and boars to younger animals. Once established they are transferred laterally between animals of similar age, especially where stocking densities are high.
- **Epizootic diseases** that cause sudden outbreaks due to the introduction of a pathogen from outside or when the herd immunity declines or is suppressed. Sudden disease outbreaks may also be associated with evolution of new strains or mutations of endemic pathogens developing in the population.
- **Stress induced diseases** often involve pathogens present in the population that cause disease when the animals are under stress e.g. due to transport, sudden changes in environmental conditions, overcrowding, changes in nutrition, excessive reproductive demands, and early weaning. Disease is a result of the sudden proliferation of pathogens and/or a decline in the animal's immunity due to the stress.

High concentrations of animals sharing a limited airspace and producing large quantities of effluent, and with the demands of intensive production (e.g. reproduction, lactation, early weaning, rapid growth rates) are extremely prone to disease due to:

- **the build-up of potential pathogens** in the environment and in carrier animals e.g. older breeding stock,
- **vertical and lateral spread** as a result of close contact especially when age groups are mixed together,

- **stress** associated with high stocking densities, inadequate ventilation and poor temperature control, handling and transport, changes in feed etc.,
- **emergence of new serotypes or mutations** of endemic organisms,
- **difficulty in maintaining adequate levels of hygiene** with effective cleaning and sanitation, due to the continual presence of animals — inability to de-populate,
- **multifactorial disease complex** due to the interaction and/or synergism of several organisms that become endemic in a population.

Figure 2. Factors influencing animal disease outbreaks in intensive production systems



Overt disease seen in intensively produced pigs is often associated with a particular stage of production or age group, e.g. breeding or lactating sows, weaners or finishers.

4.1 The breeding sows

Reproductive diseases in breeding sows become endemic in herds where large numbers of sows are kept together in all stages of pregnancy. Leptospirosis, Brucellosis and PRRS virus which cause infertility, abortions and stillborn piglets are typical examples. The close contact of sows at various stages of pregnancy and the intensive mating programs that are used in these large-scale production systems ensure the continual propagation of these diseases. Boars play a major role in venereal spread. Non-infectious diseases of the intensively managed breeding sow also can become a serious health and welfare problem e.g. lameness and skeletal problems, rectal prolapses, gastric ulcers and rapid loss of body condition associated with the stress of frequent pregnancies and lactation.

4.2 The lactating sow

The post-partum and lactation period can present major problems of health and welfare in intensively managed breeding sows. Post partum problems include uterine prolapses, lactation failure, mastitis, metritis and extreme loss of body condition. Metabolic disorders such as hypocalcaemia and hypomagnesemia may also be important sub-clinical problems in intensively bred sows.

4.3 Pre-weaned piglets

Intensive farrowing units can experience significant health problems in new-born piglets, e.g. colibacillosis, coccidiosis, TGE, HEV (vomiting and wasting disease) and

salmonella and rotavirus in older suckling piglets. Colibacillosis, coccidiosis and salmonella are predisposed by poor sanitation, chilling and lack of colostrum intake. Continuous farrowing of large numbers of sows in the same building allows these diseases to become endemic. Polyarthritis caused by Strep. suis and Exudative Epidermitis caused by Staph. Hyicus are also common problems associated with poor hygiene in farrowing rooms. As piglets grow they become more susceptible to respiratory diseases especially from about three weeks of age. All-in-all-out batch farrowing greatly reduces the incidence of these diseases because better sanitation can be achieved and the age difference between piglets is less than one week.

4.4 Weaners

In the industrialised production system piglets are usually weaned at around three to four weeks of age and more recently as early as 14 days in some herds. Early weaning makes rearing of the piglets more difficult and they are more susceptible to disease if the housing, environment and nutrition are not optimal. Both enteric and respiratory diseases can be a major problem affecting weaners. The predisposing factors to many of these diseases include the stress of weaning, poor sanitation, poor ventilation and over-crowding. Weaner diseases are more prevalent when different age groups are mixed and where weaner housing cannot be spalled and cleaned regularly. Nutritional stress can be a problem in young early-weaned pigs. Piglets have difficulty in digesting solid feed before four weeks of age as their ability to produce a number of the digestive enzymes is limited. High quality weaner rations are essential for early-weaned pigs.

4.5 Growers and finishers

Large populations of grower and finisher pigs (12 weeks to 24 weeks of age) especially when age groups are mixed in the same buildings are very susceptible to respiratory and enteric diseases. Many large industrialised pig production units have had major problems with respiratory complex syndromes which not only cause high morbidity and high mortality but greatly affect efficiency of food conversion and thus growth rates and age at slaughter.

The major enteric diseases in these age groups include Swine dysentery, Salmonellosis and Proliferative Enteropathy. A number of internal parasites associated with the gastrointestinal tract become endemic in this age group. Both respiratory and enteric diseases in growing pigs have been the main reason for establishing AIAO multi-site production systems.

Other problems frequently encountered in intensively reared grower pigs are vices such as tail biting and flank biting associated with boredom, lack of stimulation and high stocking densities. These can be a serious welfare issue. Rectal prolapses and gastric ulcers also appear to be more common in large intensive grower systems.

5. DISEASES ASSOCIATED WITH INDUSTRIALISED PIG PRODUCTION IN ASIA

A wide range of diseases in pigs have been reported in Asian countries and it is also likely that outbreaks of disease in the past may not have been accurately diagnosed. New diseases also appear to be emerging. Diseases and pathogens that have been reported in pigs in Asia (Table 3) are most likely to become a greater health risk where large populations of pigs are kept under intensive conditions especially if adequate biosecurity precautions are not taken.

Many large industrialised pig production systems that have been established in Asia have been mainly the traditional farrow-to-finish systems often with very close mixing of age groups and no opportunity to manage even the farrowing sows and litters on an AIAO basis. These units are more often than not established with pigs from a variety of sources that can be carrying a large number of potential pathogens. Only a few units recently have been established with high health status stock. Replacement stock also often comes from a variety of sources and of unknown health status with no adequate quarantine before entry. Biosecurity has usually been very poor or non-existent with staff regularly in contact with outside pigs, unauthorised vehicles entering and in some cases no adequate perimeter fencing to stop other animals or people coming in contact with the pigs.

Effluent disposal is usually into large ponds in close proximity to the buildings and often subject to overflowing in the wet season into local rivers and waterways.

Effluent treatment systems to remove pathogens are virtually non-existent.

Consequently these herds are infected with a multitude of pathogens, bacterial, viral and parasitic, many of which find their way into the effluent becoming a human health

hazard. Disease control is based on vaccination where possible and continuous ad hoc use of high levels of combinations of antibiotics and anti-bacterial agents without adequate supervision or veterinary advice.

Table 3. The important diseases and pathogens that could become a health risk to animals and humans in industrialised pig production systems in Asia.

DISEASE AND PATHOGEN	CLINICAL FEATURES	EPIDEMIOLOGY	AGE GROUP AFFECTED
Enzootic Pneumonia (Mycoplasma hyopneumoniae)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pneumonia • Coughing • Reduced growth 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Introduced by carrier pigs, people, semen? • Windborne • Rapidly becomes endemic • ZOONOTIC 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Weaners • Growers • Finishers
Pasteurellosis (P.multocida Type A, D, B₂)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pneumonia, • Septicaemia 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Carrier pigs • Epizootic outbreaks becomes endemic 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All ages
Porcine Pleuropneumonia (Actinobacillus pleuropneumoniae)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Acute and chronic pneumonia • Weight loss • High mortalities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Carrier pigs • Epizootic rapidly becoming endemic 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Weaners • Growers • Finishers
Bordatella Infections (Bordatella bronchiseptica)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rhinitis • Pneumonia 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Carrier pigs • Becomes endemic 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Weaners
Atrophic Rhinitis (Toxogenic P. multocida Type D)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sneezing • Turbinate atrophy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Carrier pigs • Rapidly becomes endemic 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Weaners • Growers • Finishers
Porcine Respiratory Coronavirus (PRC virus)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bronchopneumonia 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Epizootic 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All ages
Swine influenza (Influenza A virus)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Respiratory signs • Coughing • Sneezing • Fever • Low mortality 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Carrier pigs • Aerosol or droplet spread • May be carried by birds and dogs • ZOONOTIC 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All ages
Glassers Disease (Haemophilus parasuis)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Polyseriositis • Pneumonia • Polyarthritis 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Carrier pigs • Stress induced • Epizootic outbreaks, becomes endemic 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Weaners • Growers • Finishers
Streptococcus meningitis (Strep. suis Type II)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Nervous signs • Respiratory signs • Polyarthritis • High mortality 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Carrier non-clinical pigs • Stress induced • Poor ventilation • Over-crowding • ZOONOTIC 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Weaners

Continued over

DISEASE AND PATHOGEN	CLINICAL FEATURES	EPIDEMIOLOGY	AGE GROUP AFFECTED
Lungworm (Metastrongylus elongatus)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pneumonia • Coughing • Emphysema 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Epizootic becomes endemic 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Weaners • Growers
Colibacillosis (Escherichia coli)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Diarrhoea • Septicaemia 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Endemic in most herds • ZOONOTIC 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Piglets • Weaners
Oedema Disease (Specific E. coli serotypes)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sudden death • Nervous signs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stress induced • Epizootic 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Weaners
Salmonellosis (Salmonella spp.)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Diarrhoea • Pneumonia • Septicaemia • Emaciation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Oral/faecal infection • Contaminated effluent • Endemic • ZOONOTIC 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Weaners • Growers
Rotavirus (Rotavirus)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Diarrhoea • Vomiting 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Oral/faecal contamination • Endemic 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Piglets • Weaners
Coccidiosis (Isospora suis)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Diarrhoea 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Carrier pigs • Sows to piglets • Piglet faeces • Endemic 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Piglets
Swine Dysentery (Serpulina hyodysenteriae)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dysentery • High mortalities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Carrier pigs • Faeces • Rodents • Dogs • Epizootic, becoming endemic 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Weaners • Growers • Finishers
Spirochaetal diarrhoea (Serpulina pilosicoli)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mild diarrhoea 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Carrier pigs • Faeces • ZOONOTIC 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Growers • Finishers
Proliferative Enteropathy (Lawsonia intracellularis)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dysentery • Weight loss 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Carrier pigs • Faeces • Becomes endemic 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Growers • Finishers • Young adults
Epidemic Diarrhoea (Coronavirus)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Vomiting • Diarrhoea 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Carrier pigs • Stress induced • Epizootic outbreaks • Can become endemic 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Weaners • Growers • Finishers
Transmissible gastroenteritis (TGE virus, corona virus)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Diarrhoea • Vomiting • High mortality in young 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Carrier pigs • Faeces • Air-born • Sows milk • Footwear • Vehicles • Effluent • Dogs and birds can be passive carriers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All ages • Most severe in young
Round Worm Infection (Ascaris suis)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Coughing • Diarrhoea • Emaciation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Carrier pigs • Footwear • Vehicles • Faeces • Becomes endemic 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Weaners • Growers • Finishers
Oesophagostomiasis (Oesophagostomum dentatum)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Diarrhoea 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Faecal contamination • Becomes endemic 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All ages

Continued over

DISEASE AND PATHOGEN	CLINICAL FEATURES	EPIDEMIOLOGY	AGE GROUP AFFECTED
Leptospirosis (Leptospira spp.)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reproductive failure • Abortions • Infertility 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Carrier pigs • Rodents • Cattle • Contaminated water supply • Becomes endemic • ZOONOTIC 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All ages
Brucellosis (Brucella suis)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Abortion • Stillborn piglets • Infertility in boars 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Epizootic becoming endemic • Transmitted in semen, aborted foetuses and placenta • Humans in contact with pigs • ZOONOTIC 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All ages especially breeding sows and boars
Parvovirus (Porcine parvovirus)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reproductive failure • Infertility • Mummified foetuses • Small litters 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Carrier pigs • Virus shed in faeces • Oral/nasal infection • Becomes endemic 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sows • Piglets
Porcine Reproductive and Respiratory Syndrome (PRRS virus)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reproductive failure • Pneumonia • Immuno-suppressant 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Carrier pigs • Semen • Windborne • Becomes endemic 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All ages
Erysipelas (Erysipelothrix rhusiopathiae)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Septicaemia • Skin lesions • Polyarthrits 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Carrier pigs • Faeces • Flies • Epizootic 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All ages
Tuberculosis (Mycobacterium tuberculosis, avian and bovine)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Chronic pneumonia • Weight loss • Lesions detected at slaughter 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Avian — infected poultry, bird faeces • Bovine — contact with infected cattle, milk, • Pig to pig • ZOONOTIC 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All ages
Exudative Epidermitis (Staphylococcus hyicus)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Skin lesions • Toxaemia 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Carrier pigs • Poor hygiene • High humidity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Piglets • Weaners
Mange (Sarcoptes scabiei)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Skin lesions • Pruritis 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Carrier pigs • Sows to piglets • Egg contaminated housing • Becomes endemic 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All ages
Encephalomyocarditis (Picornavirus)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sudden death in young grower pigs • Foetal death in pregnant sows • Stillborn piglets 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Epizootic • Carried by rats and mice • Contaminated feed and water by rats • Pig to pig contact • Other hosts include monkeys, squirrels, lions • ZOONOTIC 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Piglets • Growers • Sows

Continued over

DISEASE AND PATHOGEN	CLINICAL FEATURES	EPIDEMIOLOGY	AGE GROUP AFFECTED
Japanese encephalitis (Japanese encephalitis virus —	Clinical signs in piglets <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Weak • Stillborn • Mummified fetuses • Reduced libido in boars 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Transmitted by mosquitoes, birds, horses, • Airborne transmission • Seasonal epidemics • Pigs are the amplifying host • ZOONOTIC 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Piglets • Sows • Boars
Classical Swine Fever — Hog cholera (Pestivirus)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Huddling • Erythema • Nervous signs • Abortion • Chronic fever • High mortalities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Carrier pigs • Virus contaminated feed • Semen • Vehicles • Clothing • Footwear • Infected pork 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All ages
Pseudorabies (Herpes virus)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Nervous signs • Fever • High mortality in young • Respiratory signs in growers • Abortion • Mummified fetuses 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pigs are main reservoir • Other mammals can be infected • Seasonal incidence • Spread pig to pig by nasal/oral route • Airborne • Semen • Possibly other mammals 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All ages • Most severe in young
Foot and mouth disease (Aphthovirus)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Vesicles on lips, snout, tongue, coronet in the interdigital space 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pigs major carriers • Aerosol transmission • Infected meat, milk, carcasses • Cattle • Sheep • Goats • Buffaloes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All ages
Swine Vesicular Disease (Picornavirus)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Vesicles/erosions on the snout, lips, tongue and feet • Severe lameness 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Carrier pigs • Faeces • Vehicles • Clothing • Footwear • Pork • ZOONOTIC 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All ages
Nipah Encephalitis (Megamyxovirus)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fever • Severe coughing • Laboured breath • Nasal discharge • Nervous signs • Abortion • Stillbirths • High morbidity • Moderate mortality 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Epizootic • Carried by fruit bats, dogs, goats, cats, horses • Transmitted from pig to pig • Airborne • ZOONOTIC 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All ages

Table 4 lists the important zoonoses that could become a human health risk associated with industrialised pig production systems in Asia if allowed to become endemic in these herds. As indicated in the table the most common methods of transmission are:

- by contact, handling or consumption of contaminated pork carcasses, or pork products, or
- through direct contact with infected pigs where the pathogens are being shed or excreted in the piggery environment e.g. by faeces, urine or airborne.

The most effective means of reducing the risk to human health therefore is by producing pigs free of these pathogens, or in the case of the more ubiquitous organisms, reducing their incidence.

By considering the epidemiology of these diseases pig herds can be established free of many zoonoses or managed in such a way as to reduce their incidence in the population, therefore reducing the risk of contamination of pork products produced for human consumption. Reducing the risk associated with zoonoses involves:

- establishing herds free of the specific pathogens where possible,
- implementing vaccination programs and using maximum hygiene in the herds,
- strict biosecurity,
- treating effluent to eliminate potential pathogens,
- ensuring effluent does not contaminate soils, waterways or domestic water supplies,
- avoiding cross contamination with pigs in lairage and between carcasses at the abattoir and at meat processing plants.

Table 4. Important Zoonoses that could become a human health risk associated with industrialised pig production systems in Asia.

Zoonoses involving intensively reared pigs	Method of transmission to humans	Nature of the disease in humans
Balantidium coli	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Contact with infected faeces 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dysentery
Brucellosis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Direct contact with pigs and pig carcasses, • Occupational risk for farmers, abattoir workers and veterinarians 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fever • Arthritis • Lesions in spleen, liver, bone marrow.
Clostridium perfringens Type A	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Consumption of infected pork 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Food poisoning
Encephalomyocarditis virus	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Exposure to infected pigs, contaminated housing, feed and water, —a result of contamination by rats and mice 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Antibodies detected in humans • Myocarditis?
Erysipelas	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Contact with infected pigs, pig carcasses. • Occupational risk for abattoir workers, veterinarians, farmers. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Local skin reactions • Rarely endocarditis • Acute septicaemia
Japanese B. Encephalitis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Transmitted by mosquitoes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fatal encephalitis in children • Abortion in women • Subclinical in adults
Leptospirosis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Direct contact with pigs especially urine • Handling of infected carcasses. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fever • Meningitis • Haemorrhagic jaundice • Glomerulonephritis • Weil's disease
<u>Pasteurella multocida</u> (Toxagenic strains)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Airborne • Occupational risk to farmers and veterinarians 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tonsillitis • Rhinitis • Sinusitis • Pleuritis • Septicaemia
Salmonellosis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Consumption of infected pork products • Contact with live infected pigs • Contact with contaminated effluent 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Food poisoning • Fever • Dysentery
Serpulina pilosicoli	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Contact with infected faeces 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Diarrhoea

Continued over

Streptococcus suis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Close contact with infected pigs • Airborne • Handling infected pork products • Transmission through skin abrasions and cuts 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Meningitis • Septicaemia • Endocarditis
Staphylococcus spp.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Infected carcasses • Piggery environment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Food poisoning
Swine Influenza	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Direct contact with infected pigs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mild to severe influenza • Severe fatal pneumonia
Toxoplasmosis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ingestion of cysts in infected pork • Contaminated food and water via the cat • Pig is the intermediate host 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mild lymphadenitis • Infections of the brain, liver and lungs • Transplacental causes foetal damage and stillbirth
Yersinia spp.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pig faeces • Pig carcasses • Pork products 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Food poisoning • Enteritis • Appendicitis
E. coli	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Direct contact with infected pig faeces 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Food poisoning • Gastroenteritis with dysentery
Nipah virus	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Direct contact with infected pigs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fatal encephalitis