



Air Contaminants Emissions at Sheep Feeding Operations as a Part of AFO's Emissions Inventory

Emad A. Almuhanna^{1*}

¹Department of Agricultural Systems Engineering, College of Agricultural Sciences and Food, King Faisal University, Hofuf 31982, Saudi Arabia.

Author's contribution

The study was designed, analyzed and discussed by the author. The author takes full responsibility for the whole study including data collation, manuscript drafting and editing.

Article Information

DOI: 10.9734/AJEA/2014/12119

Editor(s):

- (1) Francisco Javier Alarcón López, School of Engineering, Applied Biology Dept, University of Almería, Spain.
- (2) Zhen-Yu DU, School of Life Science, East China Normal University, China.
- (3) Anonymous Editor.

Reviewers:

- (1) Anonymous, Visveshwaraya Technological university, India.
 - (2) Johnson Grayson Mshana, Dept. of Animal Science and Production, Sokoine Univ. of Agriculture, Tanzania.
- Peer review History: <http://www.sciencedomain.org/review-history.php?iid=586&id=2&aid=5798>

Review Article

Received 18th June 2014
Accepted 7th August 2014
Published 20th August 2014

ABSTRACT

Information about the air pollutants at sheep and goat feeding operations (SFOs) is presented in this review. This survey covers the effects of environmental parameters, including ambient air temperature, relative humidity, gaseous and particulate contaminants on sheep health.

Furthermore, factors affecting air contaminants in sheep buildings, including facility design, manure handling and storage, ventilation, animal activity, type of floor, and stocking density, are discussed. This review found that floor bedding, feces, feed and outdoor dust are the main sources of particulate and gaseous contaminants in sheep husbandry. The majority of the secondary pollutants could be related to an increase in air temperature,

*Corresponding author: Email: ealmuhanna@yahoo.com; ealmuhanna@kfu.edu.sa;

which caused dryness of the bedding soil and helped with the aerosolization of dust. Shielding the wind side of the building will possibly help to reduce the effect of ambient dust and control the indoor dust concentration. The ranges of literature values for total suspended particles (TSP), particulate matter with a diameter less than or equal to 10 μm (PM_{10}) and particulate matter with a diameter less than or equal to 2.5 μm ($\text{PM}_{2.5}$) were 0.75-3.6, 0.03-2.0 and 0.04-0.05 mg/m^3 , respectively.

Keywords: Sheep; particulate contaminants; gaseous contaminants; air quality; dust; TSP; PM_{10} ; and $\text{PM}_{2.5}$.

1. INTRODUCTION

Animal Feeding Operations (AFOs) are agricultural operations where animals are kept and raised in confined situations. AFOs concentrate animals, feed, manure and urine, dead animals, and production operations on a small land area. Feed is brought to the animals rather than the animals grazing or otherwise seeking feed in pastures, fields, or on rangeland [1]. The importance of clean and healthy indoor air for a prosperous and healthy society has been revealed in many scientific investigations, which have shown that both the indoor climate and the indoor air quality (IAQ) can influence comfort, health, and productivity [2]. Furthermore, there is a need for a more complete characterization and accurate quantification of the gaseous and particulate matter (PM) emissions from different types of AFOs and other operations such as poultry, cattle, sheep and camel feedlots. Additionally, limited information is available on the physical and biological characteristics of these emissions. Understanding the nature of air contaminants will lead to obtain the best control methods [3] so AFOs can provide clean and healthy indoor air.

Livestock operations produce a variety of particulates and gases that influence ambient air quality. Measurements of emissions from livestock operations are necessary for determining the contributions to air pollution by these facilities and for determining the efficacy of pollution mitigation techniques. It is important to characterize these emissions to analyze the impact of livestock operations on human and animal health and quality of life. Essential characteristics include the rate of emission, the emission constituents, and the spatial distribution of the emissions. Air quality relating to livestock buildings has been a major concern for years, particularly with regard to animal health [4]. The importance of clean, temperate and healthy indoor air for a prosperous and healthy society has been revealed in many scientific investigations, which have shown that both the indoor climate and the indoor air quality can influence comfort, health, and productivity [5-8,2].

The animal industry continues to expand rapidly in Saudi Arabia, and sheep and goats are a major source of meat. However, the industry is facing major air quality and environmental challenges leading to public concern regarding the welfare of animals used for production.

1.1 Air Pollution in Sheep Feeding Operations

An intensive system of sheep husbandry inflicts considerable stress on sheep by increasing air pollution and, unless appropriate remedial practices are adopted, production may be severely affected. Moreover, research on the impacts of various important factors on air quality is vital for helping animal producers and environmental researchers to understand the parameters that influence livestock air quality so that they can make wise decisions

regarding the selection and implementation of gas/odor mitigation techniques. So far, few researchers have evaluated the possible effects of different animal management practices and geographic area factors on long-term source air quality because it is a complex and difficult task in the field [9]. Pickrell et al. [10] found that animal buildings contain more ammonia, hydrogen sulfide, carbon dioxide, respirable dust particles, and endotoxins than buildings occupied by humans. Livestock buildings, in general, are regarded as a major source of air pollutants [11-14]. Considerable quantities of PM, ammonia, odors and other toxic substances are released during the farming activities that take place indoors, which affect animal and human health and welfare. Additionally, small amounts of PM could be transported into the building via its ventilation system [15]. Airborne gaseous and particulate pollutants from livestock, feed and manure also influence air quality in and around livestock buildings. Air quality inside the building affects human and animal health and welfare, while emissions from the buildings can lead to local and even global environment pollution [16,17].

As more stringent air quality standards are developed, there is a critical and urgent need to characterize and control air pollutant emissions. Little research has been conducted to characterize air pollutant emissions from production facilities in Saudi Arabia. Moreover, data on the size distribution of PM emitted are quite limited. This information will increase our understanding on the effects of dust and will lead to the development of the best methods for dust control [3]. The suggested threshold values for indoor air contaminants in livestock housing are provided in Table 1.

Table 1. Suggested threshold values for indoor air contaminants in livestock buildings

Contaminant	Humans	Animals	Reference
Inhalable dust	2.40 ^[a]	3.70	[18]
(comparable to TSP) (mg/m ³)	--	3.40	[19]
Respirable dust (comparable to PM ₄)	0.16 ^[a]	--	[20]
(mg/m ³)	0.23	0.23	[21]
	--	1.70	[19]
Carbon dioxide (CO ₂) (ppm)	1540	1540	[22-24]
Ammonia	7	11	
(NH ₃) (ppm)	12 ^[a]	--	
Hydrogen sulfide (H ₂ S) (ppm)	5	--	

^[a]Specific threshold concentrations are defined as mixed exposures between NH₃ and PM in poultry CAFOs [24]

Sources of airborne pollutants within and from livestock production facilities are affected by barn characteristics, outdoor weather conditions, indoor climate, diurnal and seasonal effects, animal growth cycles, in-house storage levels, and barn management. Research on the impacts of these factors on air quality is very important in helping environmental researchers and animal producers understand the parameters influencing livestock air quality so that they can make wise decisions regarding the selection and implementation of odor and gas mitigation techniques [9].

1.2 Effects Environmental Parameters on Sheep

Atmospheric climatic conditions and pollutants from sheep operations influence air quality inside sheep buildings. The climate that prevails inside the barns affects human and animal health and welfare as well as productivity, while emissions from the buildings contribute to

environmental pollution. An intensive system of sheep husbandry inflicts considerable stress on sheep by increasing air pollution and, unless appropriate remedial practices are adopted, production may be severely affected.

Environmental factors (ambient temperature, relative humidity, solar radiation and wind speed), animal factors (breed, coat color, stage of lactation and health status), and thermoregulatory mechanisms (circulatory adjustments, sweating and panting) have significant impacts on the energy exchange between the animal and the environment [25]. Abbouda et al. [26] studied the variation of two climatic parameters (air temperature and relative humidity) and the levels of particulate matter (TSP, PM₁₀, and PM_{2.5}) in a sheep building in Al-Ahsa, Saudi Arabia. From their study, the variation in outdoor climatic conditions affected the indoor environmental parameters, such as temperature and relative humidity, and the concentration of the airborne particles inside the sheep barn. Furthermore, indoor temperature and relative humidity levels were strongly dependent on the outdoor climate conditions because the building was naturally ventilated and not insulated.

Christianson [27] found that the drop in livestock productivity because of less than optimal environmental conditions accounted for an estimated 20% reduction in gross agriculture output. Moreover, the climate that prevails inside the barns affects human and animal health and welfare as well as productivity, while emissions from the buildings contribute to environmental pollution. An intensive system of sheep husbandry inflicts considerable stress on sheep by increasing air pollution and, unless appropriate remedial practices are adopted, production may be severely affected [28].

Sheep are one of the most heat-resistant species among farmed animals. An inadequate thermal environment causes adverse health effects in animals and is related to discomfort conditions, which affects the animal's fattening rate and the milk yield. An inadequate thermal environment also influences the concentrations of air pollutants and PM [29]. Sevi et al. [30] found that prolonged exposure to maximum air temperatures greater than 30°C and to thermal heat index (THI) values greater than 80 prevented lactating ewes from maintaining their thermal balance. They also found that ventilation plays a major role in sustaining the welfare and performance of farmed livestock through affecting thermal exchanges between the animal's body surface and the environment and by removing aerial pollutants, which originate from animals and their excreta. Simonson et al. [2] stated that indoor relative humidity (RH) could significantly affect thermal comfort, occupant health, the durability of building materials, material emissions, and energy consumption. Air temperature and relative humidity are those parameters that are widely used to describe indoor climate conditions [28]. Environmental factors also play an important role. Part of the PM is composed of secondary particles that are formed by a gas to particle conversion process, a process that increases the air's relative humidity [31,12].

1.2.1 Air temperature

Sheep are one of the most heat-resistant species among farmed animals. Additionally, because of reproductive seasonality, sheep are generally in the later stages of lactation during the warmest period of the year. Such peculiarities may contribute to minimize the impact of high summer temperatures on sheep welfare and milk yield.

Increased respiration rate is the first reaction of animals exposed to air temperatures exceeding their thermal neutral zone [32]. If this and the other physiological mechanisms fail to balance the excessive heat load, the body temperature rises and the animal enters the

acute phase of heat stress [33]. Sevi et al. [30] found that prolonged exposure to maximum air temperatures over 30°C and to THI values over 80 prevented lactating ewes from maintaining their thermal balance. Simonson et al. [2] stated that indoor RH can significantly affect thermal comfort, the perception of IAQ, occupant health, the durability of building materials, material emissions, and energy consumption. Ambient temperature and relative humidity were unaffected by the stocking density of the ewes. Stocking density is a critical factor when housing lactating ewes, and it has been suggested that a space allocation of 2m^2 per animal may have an adverse effect on their health and performance. Hence, if lactating ewes cannot be allocated adequate room, it will be necessary to control the other factors that influence ambient levels of microorganisms. The greatest benefits may be obtained by adjusting their microenvironment, especially ventilation rate and the thermal and hygrometric conditions, by improving the hygiene of the bedding, and by using products that reduce enzyme and microbial activity [34].

1.2.2 Relative humidity

Dust predominates at low moisture content and odor at high moisture content, so minimizing both dust and odor by moisture management alone is impossible. However, Sweeten et al. [35] and other researchers found that when the moisture content of the open lot surface is between 25% and 40%, both dust and odor potential are at manageable levels. Indoor RH can significantly affect the thermal comfort [36-40], the perception of IAQ [41,42], occupant health [43-47], the durability of building materials [48,49], material emissions [50] and energy consumption [51,52].

1.3 Air Pollutants in Sheep Buildings and Their Effect on Sheep Health

Animals and/or their wastes in livestock buildings generate different forms of air pollution, including ammonia, carbon dioxide, methane and nitrous oxide gases, as well as dusts and microorganisms [53]. Table 2 represent an estimation of air pollutant emissions in sheep feeding operations as mentioned on different literatures.

Table 2. Estimation of air pollutant emissions in sheep feeding operations

Air pollutant	Estimation	Author	Remarks	
Ammonia	0.7%	US production	[54]	
	440	mg NH ₃ / Nm ² .h	[55]	outdoor concrete yards
	7.43	Lb / head .yr	[56]	-
Methane	6.5	Tg / yr	[57]	-
	0.12	mg CH ₄ / m ² .h	[55]	outdoor concrete yards
NO ₂	17.17	µg N ₂ O / Nm ² .h	[55]	outdoor concrete yards
Microorganisms	Markedly lower than other animal	[58,59,60]	-	

Research findings by Donham and [22,23] suggested an exposure limit for swine confinement workers: 2.4 mg/m³ total dust, 0.23mg/m³ respirable dust and 7ppm ammonia (NH₃) as shown in Table 3. Note that these limits are considerably lower than the threshold limit values (TLVs) specified by the American Conference of Governmental Industrial Hygienists [61] for industrial occupational settings, largely because of the high biological activity of the dust and the additive or synergistic reactions of the combined mixture of dust and gases [62] in livestock buildings. Clearly, air quality in livestock confinement facilities should be improved to prevent occupational health problems.

1.3.1 Gaseous contamination

Global population increases, coupled with intensive animal and livestock production practices, have resulted in the generation, accumulation, and disposal of large amounts of wastes around the world. Aerosolization of microbial pathogens, endotoxins, odors and dust particles is an inevitable consequence of the generation and handling of waste material [63]. Bio aerosols can be a source of microbial pathogens, endotoxins and other allergens. Given the close proximity of population centers to concentrated animal-rearing operations and municipal treatment facilities in many parts of the world, there is concern regarding the occupational and public health impacts associated with the exposure to bio aerosols from municipal and animal wastes. Major advances have been made in our understanding of bioaerosol characteristics, in identifying the hazards, and in identifying possible human and animal health links with aerosolized pathogens and allergens [63].

Table 3. Threshold limit values for gaseous (ppm) and particulate contamination (mg/m³)¹

Contaminant	TLV-TWA ²	TLV-STEL ³	Max-Human ⁴
CO ₂	5,000	30,000	1,500
NH ₃	25	35	7
H ₂ S	10	15	5
CO	25	-	50
Nuisance/airborne dust	1 0	-	2.4
Respirable dust	-	-	0.23
Endo toxin	-	-	800 IU/ m ³

¹Source: values in columns 2 and 3 = 1993-1994 Threshold limit values for Chemical substances and Physical Agents and Biological Exposure Indices, American Conference of Governmental Industrial Hygienists, Cincinnati, OH. ²TLV-TWA-Threshold limit value for time weighted average exposure concentration for a normal 8 to 10 hr workday. ³TLV-STEL-Short term exposure limit: 15 min time-weighted average exposure limit for any time during a workday even if the 8-hr threshold limit value is the TLV-TWA ⁴Recommended maximum levels of human health (winter) [22]

1.3.1.1 Ammonia (NH₃)

Ammonia (NH₃) losses from livestock wastes have been recognized since the early 19th century. Approximately 1900 direct and indirect measurements have proven that storage and handling of livestock wastes and the application of these wastes to land were all associated with NH₃ losses. Ammonia is produced as a by-product of the microbial decomposition of organic nitrogen compounds in manure. Nitrogen occurs as unabsorbed nutrients in animal feces and as urea in urine (mammals) or uric acid (poultry) [64]. Concern about the effects of gaseous ammonia on the growth cycle of broilers has been focused primarily on the concentration of ammonia inside broiler housing units because high ammonia concentrations affect bird performance. In addition to pulmonary disease, exposure to ammonia leads to eye, sinus, and skin irritation. Similar to the effects observed in humans, ammonia causes the following conditions in poultry: reduced body weight at ammonia concentrations of 25ppm, respiratory irritation, predisposition to infectious disease, and cornea/conjunctiva inflammation (keratoconjunctivitis) at ammonia concentrations of 50ppm. On a global scale, animal farming systems emit approximately 20Tg N per year as NH₃ [65] to the atmosphere, which comprises 50% of the total NH₃ emissions from terrestrial systems [66]. In sheep pens, the ammonia level was found to be highly significant (P<0.01) and positively correlated with dust, total bacterial count, coliform count and relative humidity, whereas a highly

significant ($P < 0.01$) negative correlation was observed between NH_3 and air temperature and air velocity [67].

1.3.1.2 Hydrogen sulfide (H_2S)

Hydrogen sulfide is a colorless gas but has a pungent odor characteristic of rotten eggs. It is heavier than air and thus tends to stay near the floor in non-ventilated, quiescent rooms. Hydrogen sulfide is water-soluble, can be produced from the putrefaction of organic wastes, and is a very toxic gas, even at low concentrations. It has caused numerous deaths in humans and livestock when acute levels were generated under cretin conditions [68]. It may also cause adverse health effects (irritation, headache, dizziness) even at concentrations as low as 10ppm [69]. Because of its toxic properties and its significant contribution to odor, emissions of hydrogen sulfide from known sources (i.e., manure pits, storage tanks) are closely monitored to prevent accumulation to fatal levels and to evaluate its impact on the environment.

1.3.1.3 Methane (CH_4)

Methane, a colorless gas, is also produced from the anaerobic decomposition of manure. Methane is a greenhouse gas and it is estimated to contribute approximately 18% to the total global warming potential [70]. In livestock systems, ruminant digestive activity, manure decomposition and silage fermentation are the main sources of methane, accounting for 29% of total annual methane emission in the United States [71]. An inventory of methane production and an accurate assessment of contributions of all sources and sinks is essential to the development and implementation of strategies to reduce methane emissions [70]. In ruminant animals, CH_4 is generated as a by-product of the microbial breakdown of carbohydrates, principally cellulose, to produce volatile fatty acids that are metabolized. In the animal, 90% of the CH_4 is generated in the rumen and is released via the mouth and nostrils by eructation, and the remaining 10% is generated in the large intestine. The vast majority of the CH_4 in the large intestine is absorbed into the blood stream and is released via the lungs in the animal's breath [72].

Emissions of CH_4 from the animal are linked to food intake and have been shown to rise sharply immediately after ingestion [73,70]. Penning et al. [74], who studied sheep behavior, found that 72% of sheep grazing occurred in daylight and especially during a 4h period immediately prior to sunset. Judd et al. [75] found that during the daytime a concentrated period of grazing occurred for 3 h after sunrise and 3 h before sunset and that in the middle of the day the sheep were relatively inactive and ruminating. This period corresponded with the highest periods of CH_4 emissions, while at night CH_4 emission rates were reduced with declining grazing activity. On clover swards, a different pattern of emission was seen where approximately 48% of the CH_4 was produced in the period from midnight to noon, whereas the sheep on grass swards produce approximately 41% of the total in the same period. Parsons et al. [76] and Murray et al. [77] found a strong diurnal pattern of preference for clover rather than grass in the mornings. It appears that sward composition can influence the diurnal pattern of CH_4 production.

1.3.1.4 Carbon dioxide (CO_2)

The concentration of carbon dioxide (CO_2) in the Earth's atmosphere is approximately 390 ppm (parts per million) by volume as of 2010 [78]. In animal housing units, additional carbon dioxide is released from the biological decomposition of manure and the respiration of

animals. Carbon dioxide constitutes more than 40% of the air bubbles rising from liquid manures stored under slotted floors, in lagoons, or in oxidation ditches. At higher concentrations, CO₂ can asphyxiate humans and animals by reducing the amount of oxygen in the local environment [79]. Carbon dioxide emitted to the atmosphere is the most abundant contributor to global warming, accounting for approximately 60% of the greenhouse effect [70]. Increased concentrations of CO₂ may also come from poor ventilation and improperly vented fuel-burning heaters, which may also give rise to carbon monoxide CO, another potentially hazardous gas [80].

1.3.1.5 Volatile organic compounds and odorous gases

Volatile organic compounds (VOCs) and odorous gases are generated by the biological decomposition of livestock manure. Each of these various compounds, 168 of which were listed by Mackie et al. [81], may occur only in trace amounts and generally are not found at levels considered hazardous to human and animal health. However, their combined effect is responsible for unpleasant odors associated with animal facilities [82]. The emission and transport of these compounds over extended distances during favorable atmospheric conditions have caused serious conflicts between animal farmers and concerned citizens, initiating concerted efforts to quantify and control odors from animal production facilities.

1.3.1.6 Odor emissions

Odor complaints have increased dramatically with the increased number of confined animal feeding operations (CAFO's). Development of appropriate systems to control the odor emanating from these facilities requires knowledge of the compounds that make up the odor as well as their relative concentrations. Previous studies focused mainly on characterizing the odor coming from the manure as well as the air in and around these facilities [83]. O'Neill and Phillips [81] listed more than 160 compounds associated with the odor in livestock operations. Odorous compounds adsorbed on airborne dust can be transported over long distances where they can be perceived as a nuisance. Thus, there is a need to characterize the odorous compounds adsorbed on the airborne dust.

Most agree on what is the source of odor; however, little agreement or understanding exists as to what constitutes an odor from AFOs. Many point to gaseous emissions as the main source of odor [84,85], but the correlation of odor with VOCs is often weak [86,87]. Others speculate compounds absorbed to particulates are the main cause of odor [88,89]. Yet still others believe there is an additive or synergistic effect between gaseous and PM emissions that is responsible for odor [90-92]. The presence of odors in rural landscapes has been shown to affect the quality of life surrounding these facilities [93, 94]. In fact, Schiffman and Williams [92] have speculated that odors may not only be a nuisance but also have potential environmental and health effects associated with them. Currently, little data exists linking odors in rural landscapes to any type of respiratory impairment [90] and most health-related effects associated with agricultural odors are based on self-reporting of symptoms (i.e., headaches, runny nose, etc.) in both laboratory [92] and rural community surveys [93,94].

1.3.2 Particulate contamination

1.3.2.1 Particulate matter (PM)

Airborne particulates include both solid and liquid particles. Viable particles are living microorganisms or any solid or liquid particles that have microorganisms associated with

them [95]. Airborne dust is one of the primary means to spread disease-causing organisms. Reductions in airborne dust levels have been associated with even greater reductions in airborne bacteria [96]. The organic dust in livestock buildings is composed both of non-viable particles, generated by such things as feces, litter, feed, feather formation (which produces a high quantity of allergen dandruff), and of viable particulate matter (also called bio aerosols). Bio aerosols are comprised of airborne bacteria, fungi, viruses and their by-products, endotoxins and mycotoxins [4].

Dust is an environmental stressor and can become extensive in confined animal feeding operations especially during dry environmental conditions. Dust events are very common in agricultural production systems. Dust characteristics (concentration, number and mass) inside livestock housing vary based on the type of animal, building and environmental conditions [97,3]. Suspended PM is considered to be a major factor that contributes to the degradation of air quality in livestock buildings. Sources of primary particles are feed, bedding material, the animals themselves and their feces [98]. Moreover, particles that have settled on the floor can be re-suspended because of animal activity; Table 4 shows the potential of some factors that influence particulate concentrations in animal housing. Furthermore, PM concentrations are significantly affected by housing type, animal species, animal characteristics (i.e., age, weight, population), the building's ventilation rate, season, and sampling period within a day [98,99]. Particulates are generated from many types of sources, including animal activities, agricultural operations and through the interaction with gases to produce fine particles. It is important to know the characteristics of these emissions to analyze the impact of agricultural operations on the environment and on human health and quality of life. Essential characteristics include the rate of emission, the emission constituents, and the spatial distribution of the emissions. Stocking density, airspace, group size, feeding system, and litter management also play a role in modifying the amount of particulates suspended in the air. All these factors were kept similar in all the experimental rooms. PM is considered to be an important health hazard for animals and workers in livestock operations, either itself or the condensed and nucleated toxic compounds [100,101]. The size of the particles and their surface area determine the potential to elicit inflammatory injury, oxidative damage, and other biological effects. These effects are stronger for fine and ultra-fine particles because they can penetrate deeper into the airways of the respiratory tract and can reach the alveoli where 50% are deposited. Lung airways and alveoli retain mostly PM_{2.5} rather than PM₁₀ [102]. In his study, Schimmert et al. [103] found that people living within a radius of 2 km from a goat farm (>400 goats) had clinical signs and a significantly higher risk of infection (31× higher) than people living in a radius of 5 to 10 km of the farm. Almuhanha et al. [97] carried out an experiment under controlled laboratory conditions and concluded that spraying with charged water improves the efficiency of removing PM. They also found that the removal efficiency is significantly greater during longer charged water spray durations (4 and 6 min) than during shorter duration (2 min), while the spraying method and the charge polarity did not significantly influence particle removal efficiency.

Donham [104] stated that dust is a hazard in four basic ways in livestock buildings: (1 worker health, (2 animal health, (3 deterioration of equipment and facilities, and (4 neighbor health).

Table 4. Potential of some factors to influence particulate concentrations in animal housing

Factors (if present or increased)	Particulate concentration*
Feeding-dry	+
Feeding-liquid	-
Activity of animals	+
Bedding	+
Stocking density	+
Air temperature	+
Relative humidity	-
Ventilation rate	-
Airspace per animal	-

* + increased - decreased [59]

1.3.2.2 Bioaerosols

Bioaerosols are defined as a collection of aerosolized biological particles [105]. Bioaerosols vary greatly in size, ranging from 0.02 to 100 μm in diameter [106]. The composition, size, and concentration of the microbial populations comprising the bioaerosol vary with the source, dispersal mechanisms in the air, and, more importantly, the environmental conditions prevailing at a particular site [107]. Bioaerosols are comprised of airborne bacteria, fungi, viruses and their by-products, endotoxins and mycotoxins [4]. Major advances have been made in our understanding of bioaerosol characteristics, in identifying the hazards, and in identifying possible human and animal health links with aerosolized pathogens and allergens [107]. The microorganisms present in the air of animal houses originate mainly from the bedding and the animals themselves, with their concentration depending on various factors such as temperature, humidity, ventilation, and the volume and surface area allotted to each animal [108]. There are allergic agents, infectious microorganisms, enzymes, and toxic gases, and, for most of these compounds, it is not clear what are their impacts; combined effects of several compounds are usually suggested as likely problems [108]. Major advances have been made in our understanding of bioaerosol characteristics, in identifying the hazards, and in identifying possible human and animal health links with aerosolized pathogens and allergens [63].

1.3.3 Microbial contamination

The concentration of microorganisms in the air was markedly lower in sheep houses compared with the values previously reported for cattle, pig or poultry [59], possibly because of differences between species [60]. Dairy goats were indicated as the primary source of a zoonosis, caused by *Coxiella burnetii*, and exposure to humans appeared to be facilitated by the recent developments in dairy goat production with an increasing number of farms with open naturally ventilated buildings. The small distance between farms with aborting dairy goats and dairy sheep and a large number of people living in the vicinity, appeared to have been the main causes of the large Q-fever outbreak in the Netherlands [109]. Schimmert et al. [103] found that people living within a radius of 2 km from a goat farm (>400 goats) had clinical signs and a significantly higher risk of infection (31x higher) than people living in a radius of 5 to 10km from the farm.

1.4 Factors Affecting air Contamination in Sheep Houses

Airborne gaseous and particulate pollutants from livestock, feed and manure influence air quality in and around livestock buildings. Air quality inside the building affects human and animal health and welfare, while emissions from the buildings can lead to local, meso-scale and even global environmental pollution [16]. Most recent studies have investigated the effects of several parameters, such as sampling sites, time of day, season, ambient air temperature, building ventilation rate, flooring systems, and pen hygiene, on the odor and gas concentrations and emissions (OGCERs) for various animal facilities [110-116]. However, few have explored how animal management practices (e.g., the thermal insulation characteristic of an animal building, barn set point temperature scheme, and animal production schedule) and geographic factors impact long-term source air quality. It is reasonable to hypothesize that enforcing different animal management policies may be a simple, inexpensive, and effective abatement strategy to reduce airborne pollution, although no evidence to support or refute this hypothesis was found in the literature [117].

1.4.1 Facility design

Building design often has an effect on animal health and performance. Ventilation, animal isolation, ease of cleaning, access to feed and water, and susceptibility to injury are some areas that are impacted by design. Ability to move animals easily is another. Once construction is completed, changes are either expensive or impossible to make; therefore, it is important for the original design to be correct. Animal production of any type introduces manure into the environment. High animal concentrations produce large volumes of manure. Ventilation plays a major role in sustaining the welfare and performance of farmed livestock by affecting thermal exchanges between the animal's body surface and the environment and by removing aerial pollutants, which originate from animals and their excreta [59]. Poor ventilation can lead to increased airborne particulate and gaseous pollutant concentrations, which can present a significant burden to the respiratory tracts of humans and livestock.

1.4.2 Manure handling and storage

Animal production of any type introduces manure into the environment. High animal concentrations produce large volumes of manure. Animals and/or their wastes in livestock buildings generate different forms of air pollution, including ammonia, carbon dioxide, methane and nitrous oxide gases as well as dust and microorganisms (Phillips et al. [22]). Primary particulates are produced during production cycles, in addition to changes in the weather. The AFOs industry has also long suspected that air pollutants from production facilities can impair health and performance.

1.4.3 Ventilation

The gradual increase in intensive housing for sheep, as a consequence of the increased size of specialized dairy flocks, and the fact that this species is mainly raised in warm climates, requires more specifications for ventilation rates and regimens in sheep houses [29]. Aerial concentrations of dust and microorganisms were not significantly affected by ventilation regimen. This is not surprising, because aerial dust, which is also the main carrier of microorganisms, has a very complex behavior [118]. Indeed, small particles may remain in the air for a long time, with elimination only achieved by sedimentation, and then return to the air relatively quickly by dispersion [58]. Additionally, evidence suggests that ventilation systems are more significant, but not the only factor that influences the concentration of

airborne particulates in animal houses. Stocking density, airspace, group size, feeding system, and litter management also play a role in modifying the amount of particulates suspended in the air [107].

1.4.4 Animal activity

Reduction in active behaviors may help animals to reduce their heat production under high air temperatures. Indeed, decreased levels of activity have been found to have a definite thermoregulatory purpose in sheep [29]. Animals in a building affect the airflow around them, and airflow and animal activity are both important factors influencing the spatial and temporal variations in dust concentration.

1.4.5 Type of floor

Yasotha et al. [119] found that sheep reared on salted floors had significantly ($P < 0.01$) higher body weight and gain when compared with sheep reared on a mud floor. This study also showed that type of floor plays a major role in air pollution levels in sheep pens. They determined the mean levels of air pollution and climatic variables in sheep pens with different flooring patterns. Total dust concentration, ammonia level, total bacterial count and mold count were significantly ($P < 0.01$) higher in mud floors than in slatted floors, whereas the type of floor had no effect on coliform count or climatic variables. Sheep prefer to lie down on straw compared with wooden slats. However, sheep will also lie down on wooden slats. Misselbrook et al. [54] measured the emissions from outdoor concrete yards used by sheep (Table 5).

Table 5. Mean emission rates for outdoor concrete yards used by sheep [54]

Gaseous pollutant	Concentration	Measured units
Ammonia NH ₃	440	mg NH ₃ -Nm ⁻² h ⁻¹
N ₂ O	17.17	µg N ₂ O-Nm ⁻² h ⁻¹
Methane CH ₄	0.12	mg CH ₄ m ⁻² h ⁻¹

1.4.7 Stocking density

Stocking density, airspace, group size, feeding system, and litter management also play a role in modifying the amount of particulates suspended in the air. All these factors were kept similar in all the experimental rooms. Reduction in active behaviors may help animals to reduce their heat production under high air temperatures. Indeed, decreased levels of activity have been found to have a definite thermoregulatory purpose in sheep [29]. Space allocation is also known to affect both the performance and welfare of livestock. Additionally, stocking density has been shown to directly affect the levels of gaseous pollutants and airborne particles in animal houses (Curtis, 1983). Pollutants can be injurious to the health of both livestock and stockmen and women (Owen, 1994) and affect the general performance of animals [120]. Gas to particle conversion can be accomplished by condensation, which adds mass onto pre-existing aerosols, or by direct nucleation from gaseous precursors forming an aerosol. This process strongly depends on the concentration of precursor gases, such as ammonia, and water vapor in the atmosphere [14]. Ambient temperature and relative humidity were unaffected by the stocking density of the ewes. Stocking density is a critical factor when housing lactating ewes and a space allocation of $< 2 \text{ m}^2$ per animal may have an adverse effect on their health and performance. Hence, if lactating ewes cannot be allocated adequate room, it will be necessary to control the other factors that influence

ambient levels of microorganisms. The greatest benefits may be obtained by adjusting their microenvironment, especially the ventilation rate and the thermal and hygrometric conditions, by improving the hygiene of the bedding and by using products that reduce enzyme and microbial activity [33].

2. CONCLUSIONS

Information about air pollutants from and within sheep feeding operations (SFOs) is quite limited. A literature review covering information about the air pollutants at sheep and goat housing facilities is presented in this review. This survey covers: 1) the effects of environmental parameters on sheep, including ambient air temperature and relative humidity; 2) air pollutants in sheep buildings and their effects on sheep health, including gaseous contaminants such as ammonia, hydrogen sulfide, methane, carbon dioxide, volatile organic compounds and odorous gases, and particulate contaminants, including dust and bio aerosols. Furthermore, factors affecting air contaminants in sheep houses need to be identified, including facility design, manure handling and storage, ventilation, animal activity, type of floor, and stocking density. This review found that floor bedding, feces, feed and outdoor dust are the main sources of particulate and gaseous contaminants in sheep houses. The majority of the secondary pollutants could be related to an increase in air temperature, which caused dryness of the bedding soil and helped to aerosolize the dust. Shielding the wind source side of the building could help in controlling indoor dust concentration. PM concentration exhibited three peaks during the day that coincided with milking, feeding, and cleaning hours. The ranges of literature values for TSP, PM₁₀ and PM_{2.5} concentrations were 0.75 - 3.6, 0.03 - 2.0 and 0.04 - 0.05 mg/m³, respectively.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

Author would like to thank either publishers, owners and authors of the articles used in this review, without their efforts this review cannot be done.

COMPETING INTERESTS

Author has declared that no competing interests exist.

REFERENCES

1. EPA, United State Environmental Protection Agency. Accessed: 1/6/2014. Available: <http://www.epa.gov/rqytgrnj/water/cafo/index.htm>,
2. Simonson CJ, Salonvaara M, Ojanen T. The effect of structures on indoor humidity—possibility to improve comfort and perceived air quality. *Indoor Air*. 2002;12(4):243–251.
3. Almuhanha EA, Maghirang RG, Murphy JP, Erickson LE. Laboratory-scale electrostatically assisted wet scrubber for controlling dust in livestock buildings. *Applied Eng. in Agric. ASABE*. 2009;25(5):745-750. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.13031/2013.28853>.
4. Oppliger A, Charrière N, Pierre-olivierdroz, Thomas rinsoz. Exposure to bio aerosols in poultry houses at different stages of fattening; Use of real-time PCR for airborne bacterial quantification. *Ann. Occup. Hyg*. 2008;1-8.
5. Dorgan CB, Dorgan CE, Kanarek MS, Willman AJ. Health and productivity benefits of improved indoor air quality, *ASHRAE Transactions*. 1998;104:658–666.

6. Seppaanen O, Estimated cost of indoor climate in Finnish buildings. In: Proceedings of Indoor Air '99, Edinburgh.1999;4:13-18.
7. Seppaanen O, Fisk W, Mendell M. Association of ventilation rates and CO₂-concentrations with health and other responses in commercial and institutional buildings, *Indoor Air*. 1999;9:226-252. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1600-0668.1999.00003.x>
8. Wargocki P, Wyon DP, Baik YK, Clausen G, Fanger PO. Perceived air quality, sick building syndrome (SBS) symptoms and productivity in an office with two different pollution loads, *Indoor Air*. 1999;9:165-179. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1600-0668.1999.t01-1-00003.x>
9. Pickrell JA. Hazards in confinement housing-gases and dust in confined animal houses for swine, poultry and humans. *Vet. Hum Toxicol*. 1991;33:32-39.
10. Erisman JW, Bleeker A, Hensen A, Vermeulen A. Agricultural air quality in Europe and the future perspectives. *Atmospheric Environment*. 2008;42:3209–3217. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2007.04.004>.
11. Goetz S, Aneja VP, Zhang Y. Measurement, analysis, and modeling of fine particulate matter in eastern North Carolina. *J. Air & Waste Management Assoc*. 2008;58:1208–1214. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.3155/1047-3289.58.9.1208>.
12. Lamme G, Schneider F, Brüggemann E, Gnauk T, Röhl A, Wieser P. Aerosols emitted from a livestock farm in Southern Germany. *Water, Air, and Soil Pollution*. 2004;154:313–330. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1023/B:WATE.0000022962.65942.4b>.
13. Sidiropoulos C, Tsilingiridis G. Trends of livestock-related NH₃, CH₄, N₂O and PM emissions in Greece. *Water Air and Soil Pollution*. 2009;199:277–289.
14. Papanastasiou DK, Fidaros D, Bartzanas T, Kittas C. Monitoring particulate matter levels and climate conditions in a Greek sheep and goat livestock building. *Environ Monit Assess*. 2011;183(1-4):285-96. DOI: 10.1007/s10661-011-1921-1 Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10661-011-1921-1>.
15. Hinz T, Linke SA. Comprehensive experimental study of aerial pollutants in and emissions from livestock buildings. Part 1: Methods. *J. Agric. Eng. Res*. 1998;70:111–118. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1006/jaer.1997.0279>.
16. Hinz T, Linke SA. Comprehensive experimental study of aerial pollutants in and emissions from livestock buildings. Part 2: Results. *J. Agric. Eng. Res*. 1998;70:119–129. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1006/jaer.1998.0282>.
17. Donham KJ, Cumro D. Setting maximum dust exposure levels for people and animals in livestock facilities. In *Proc. Intl. Symposium on Dust Control in Animal Production Facilities*, 93-109. Horsens, Denmark: Danish Institute of Agricultural Sciences; 1999.
18. Wathes CM. Air and surface hygiene. In *Livestock Housing*, 123-148. Wathes CM, Charles DR, eds. Wallingford, U.K.: CAB International Press; 1994.
19. Donham KJ, Cumro D, Reynolds S. Synergistic effects of dust and ammonia on the occupational health effects of poultry workers. *J. Agromed*. 2002;8(2):57-76. Available: http://dx.doi.org/10.1300/J096v08n02_09.
20. Donham KJ, Cumro D. Synergistic health effects of ammonia and dust exposure. In *Proc. Intl. Symposium on Dust Control in Animal Production Facilities*, 166. Horsens, Denmark: Danish Institute of Agricultural Sciences (DIAS), Research Centre Bygholm; 1999.
21. Donham KJ, Haglind P, Peterson Y, Rylander R, Belin L. Environmental and health studies of workers in Swedish swine confinement buildings. *British J. Ind. Med*. 1989;46(1):31-37.

22. Reynolds SJ, Donham KJ, Whitten P, Merchant JA, Burmeister LF, Pependorf WJ. Longitudinal evaluation of dose-response relationships for environmental exposures and pulmonary function in swine production workers. *American J. Ind. Med.* 1996;29(1):33-40. Available: [http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/\(SICI\)1097-0274\(199601\)29:1<33::AID-AJIM5>3.0.CO;2-#](http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1097-0274(199601)29:1<33::AID-AJIM5>3.0.CO;2-#).
23. Donham KJ, Cumro D, Reynolds SJ, Merchant JA. Dose-response relationships between occupational aerosol exposures and cross-shift declines of lung function in poultry workers: Recommendations for exposure limits. *J. Occup. Environ. Med.* 2000;42(3):260-269. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1097/00043764-200003000-00006>.
24. Nienaber JA, Hahn GL, Eigenberg, RA. Quantifying livestock responses for heat stress management: a review. *Int. J. Biometeorol.* 1999;42(4):183-188. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s004840050103>.
25. Abbouda SK, Almuhanna EA, Al-Amri AM. Monitoring particulate matter levels and climate conditions in a sheep yard at the local environment of Saudi Arabia. *Int. J. Environ and Bioenergy.* 2013;6(2):81-95.
26. Christianson LL. (ed.). Building system: Room air and air contaminant distribution. ASHRAE. Atlanta, Ga; 1989.
27. Papanastasiou DK, Fidaros D, Bartzanas T, Kittas C. Monitoring particulate matter levels and climate conditions in a Greek sheep and goat livestock building. *Environ Monit Assess.* 2011;183(1-4):285-96. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10661-011-1921-1>.
28. Teye FK, Hautala M, Pastell M, Praks J, Veermäe I, Poikalainen V. Microclimate and ventilation in Estonian and Finnish dairy buildings. *Energy and Buildings.* 2008;40:1194-1201. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.enbuild.2007.10.017>.
29. Sevi A, Annicchiarico G, Albenzio M, Taibi L, Muscio, Dell'Aquila S. Effects of solar radiation and feeding time on behavior, immune response and production of lactating ewes under high ambient temperature. *J. Dairy Sci.* 2001;84:629-640. Available: [http://dx.doi.org/10.3168/jds.S0022-0302\(01\)74518-3](http://dx.doi.org/10.3168/jds.S0022-0302(01)74518-3).
30. Baek BH, Aneja VP. Measurement and analysis of the relationship between ammonia, acid gases and fine particles in eastern North Carolina. *J. Air Waste Manag. Assoc.* 2004;4:623-633. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/10473289.2004.10470933>.
31. Kamal TH. Heat stress concept and new tracer methods for heat tolerance in domestic animals. *Proc. 1st Science Conf. on Peaceful Uses of Atomic Energy for Scientific and Economic Development*, Baghdad, Iraq; 1975.
32. Habeeb AA, Marai M, IFM, Kamal TH. Heat stress. In: *Farm animals and the environment*. C. Phillips and D. Piggins, ed. CAB International, Wallingford. 1992;27-47.
33. Sevi A, Massa S, Muscio A, Della'aquila S, Dantone D, Catalano S. Effect of litter treatments with bentonite or paraformaldehyde on air quality and Comisana ewes milk yield. *Zootecnicae Nutrizione Animale.* 1998;24:213-224.
34. Sweeten JM, Parnell JrCB, Shaw BW, Auvermann BW. Particle size distribution of cattle feedlot dust emission. *Transactions of the ASABE.* 1998;41(5):1477-1481. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.13031/2013.17297>.
35. ASHRAE. Thermal environmental conditions for human occupancy, Atlanta GA, American Society of Heating, Refrigerating and Air Conditioning Engineers (ANSI/ASHRAE Standard 55-1992); 1992.
36. Berglund L. Comfort and humidity, *ASHRAE Journal.* 1998;40:35-41.
37. Fanger PO. Thermal Comfort, Danish Technical Press, Copenhagen; 1970.

38. Toftum J, Jorgensen AS, Fanger PO. Upper limits for indoor air humidity to avoid uncomfortably humid skin, *Energy and Buildings*. 1998;28:1-13. Available: [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0378-7788\(97\)00017-0](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0378-7788(97)00017-0).
39. Toftum J, Jorgensen AS, Fanger PO. Upper limits of air humidity for preventing warm respiratory discomfort, *Energy and Buildings*. 1998;28:15-23. Available: [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0378-7788\(97\)00018-2](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0378-7788(97)00018-2).
40. Fang L, Clausen G, Fanger PO. Impact of temperature and humidity on the perception of indoor air quality, *Indoor Air*. 1998;8:80-90. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1600-0668.1998.t01-2-00003.x>.
41. Fang L, Clausen G, Fanger PO. Impact of temperature and humidity on the perception of indoor air quality during immediate and longer whole-body exposures, *Indoor Air*. 1998;8:276-284. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1600-0668.1998.00008.x>.
42. Arundel AV, Sterling EM, Biggin JH, Sterling TD. Indirect health effects of relative humidity in indoor environment. In: Harriman, L. (ed.) *Desiccant Cooling and Dehumidification*, Atlanta, ASHRAE. 1992;3-12.
43. Bornehag C-G, Blomquist G, Gyntelberg F, Jarvholm B, Malmberg P, Nordvall L, Nielsen A, Pershagen G, Sundell J. : Nordic interdisciplinary review of the scientific evidence on associations between exposure to 'Dampness' in buildings and health effects (NORDDAMP), *Indoor Air*. 2001;11:72-86.
44. Clausen G, Rode C, Bornehag C, Sundell J. Dampness in buildings and health. Interdisciplinary research at the International Centre for Indoor Environment and Energy. In: *Proceedings of the 5th Symposium on Buildings Physics in the Nordic Countries*, Goteborg; 1999.
45. Green GH. Indoor relative humidities in winter and the related absenteeism, *ASHRAE Transactions*. 1985;91:643-653.
46. Sundell J. What we know, and what don't know about sick building syndrome, *ASHRAE Journal*. 1996;38:51-57.
47. ASTM. *Moisture Control in Buildings*, Trechsel HR. (ed.) Philadelphia, ASTM; 1994. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1520/MNL18-EB>.
48. Viitanen H. *Factors Affecting the Development of Mould and Brown Rot*; 1996.
49. Haghghat F, Bellis LD. Material emission rates: Literature review and the impact of indoor air temperature and relative humidity, *Building and Environment*. 1998;33:261-277. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0360-1323\(97\)00060-7](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0360-1323(97)00060-7).
50. Besant RW, Simonson CJ. Air-to-air energy recovery, *ASHRAE Journal*. 2000;42:31-42.
51. Harriman LG, Witte MJ, Czachorski M, Kosar DR. Evaluating active desiccant systems for ventilating commercial buildings, *ASHRAE Journal*. 1999;41:28-37.
52. Phillips VR, Hoden MR, Sneath RW, Short JL, White RP. The development of Robust Methods for Measuring Concentrations and Emission Rates of Gaseous and Particulate Air Pollutants in Livestock Buildings. *J. agric. Eng. Res*. 1998;70:11-24. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1006/jaer.1997.0283>.
53. Battye R, Battye W, Overcash C, Fudge S. Development and selection of ammonia emission factors. Report # 68-D3-0034, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency. Washington, DC; 1994.
54. Misselbrook TH, Webb J, Chadwick DR, Ellis S, Pain BF. Gaseous emissions from outdoor concrete yards used by livestock. *Atmos. Environ*. 2001;35:5331-5338. Available: [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1352-2310\(01\)00289-8](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1352-2310(01)00289-8).
55. National Emissions Inventory Data & Documentation. 2002. Available: (<http://www.epa.gov/ttnchie1/net/2002inventory.html>) accessed 2/12/2013.

56. Gibbs M, DE. Johnson. Methane emissions from the digestive processes of livestock. In: *Int. Anthropogenic Methane Emissions Estimates for 1990*. U.S. EPA 230-R-93-010. Jan; 1994.
57. Muller W, Wieser P. Dust and microbial emissions from animal production. In: *Animal production and environmental health*. D. Strauch (ed), New York, NY: Elsevier Science Publishers. 1987;47-89.
58. Hartung J. The effect of airborne particulars in livestock health and production. In *Pollution in Livestock Production Systems*, (Eds I. ap Dewi RFE, Axford IFM, Marai Omed HM). Wallingford: CAB International. 1994;55-69.
59. Sevi A, Massa S, Annicchiarico G, Dell'Aquila S, Muscio A. Effect of stocking density on ewes milk yield and incidence of subclinical mastitis. *J. Dairy Res.* 1999;66:489-499. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0022029999003726>.
60. ACGIH. 1993-1994 Threshold limit values for chemical substances and physical agents and biological exposure indices. American Conference of Governmental Industrial Hygienists. Cincinnati, OH; 1993.
61. Donham KJ. Respiratory disease hazards to workers in livestock and poultry confinement structures. *Seminars in Resp. Med.* 1993;14(1):49-59.
62. Pillai SD, Ricke SC. Bioaerosols from municipal and animal wastes: Background and contemporary issues. *Canadian J. of Microbiology.* 2002;48:681-696. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1139/w02-070>.
63. EPA. National emission inventory-ammonia emissions from animal husbandry. Draft report; 2004.
64. Galloway JN, Cowling EB. Reactive nitrogen and the world: 200 years of change. *Ambio.* 2002;31(2):64-71.
65. Van Aardenne JA, Dentener FJ, Olivier JG, Klijn J, Goldewijk CGM, Lelieveld J. A 1° x 1° resolution data set of historical anthropogenic trace gas emissions for the period 1890-1990. *Global Biogeochem. Cycles.* 2001;15(4):909-928.
66. Yasothea A, Arunachalam S, Sivakumar T, Ramesh V. Air pollution levels in sheep pens. *Cheiron.* 2002;31(1,2):10-13.
67. Patni NK, Clarke SP. Transient hazardous conditions in animal buildings due to manure gas released during slurry mixing. *App. Eng. Agr.* 1991;7(4):478-484. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.13031/2013.26249>.
68. DeBoer S, Morrison WD. The effects of the quality of the environment of livestock buildings on the productivity of swine and safety of humans – A literature review. Guelph, Ontario, Canada: University of Guelph; 1988.
69. Murray PJ, Moss A, Lockyer DR, Jarvis SC. A comparison of systems for measuring methane emissions from sheep. *J. Agric. Sci.* 1999;133(4):439-444. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0021859699007182>.
70. EPA. 1999. U.S. methane emissions 1990-2020: Inventories, projections, and opportunities for reductions. EPA 430-R-99-013. Office of Air and Radiation. Washington, DC: U.S. Environmental Protection Agency.
71. Lassey KR, Ulyatt MJ, Martin, RJ, Walker CF, Shelton ID. Methane emissions measured directly from grazing livestock in New Zealand. *Atmos. Environ.* 1997;31:2905-2914. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1352-2310\(97\)00123-4](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1352-2310(97)00123-4).
72. Mathers JC, Walters DF. Variation in methane production by sheep fed every two hours. *J. Agric. Sci. Cambridge.* 1982;98:633-638. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0021859600054435>.

73. Penning PD, Rook AJ, Orz RJ. Patterns of ingestive behaviour of sheep continuously stocked on monocultures of ryegrass or white clover. *Appl. Anim. Behav. Sci.* 1991;31:237-250. Available: [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0168-1591\(91\)90008-L](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0168-1591(91)90008-L).
74. Judd MJ, Kellier FM, Ulyatt MJ, Lassey KR, Tate KR, Shelton JD, Harvey MJ, Walker, CF. Net methane emissions from grazing sheep. *Global Change Biology*. 1999;(5)6:647-657. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-2486.1999.00264.x>.
75. Parsons AJ, Newman JA, Penning PD, Harvey A, Orr RJ. Diet preference of sheep: effects of recent diet, physiological state and species abundance. *J Anim. Ecol.* 1994;63:465-478. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/5563>.
76. Murray et al. A comparison of methane emissions from sheep grazing pastures with differing management intensities. *Nutrient Cycling in Agroecosystems*. 2001;60: 93-97. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1023/A:1012654928177>.
77. NOAA-ESRL. Trends in atmospheric carbon dioxide. Boulder, Colo.: NOAA Earth System Research Laboratory. Available at: www.esrl.noaa.gov/gmd/ccgg/trends/. Accessed 17 January 2011.
78. Schnoor JL, Thorne PS, Powers W. Fate and transport of air pollutants from CAFOs. In Iowa Concentrated animal feeding operation, Air Quality Study. Iowa City, Iowa: University of Iowa, Environmental Health Sciences Research Center. 2002;86-100.
79. McQuitty JB, Feddes JJR, Leonard JJ. Air quality in commercial laying barns. *Can. Agric. Eng.* 1985;27(1):13-19.
80. O'Neill DH, Phillips VR. A review of the control of odour nuisance from livestock buildings: Part 3, properties of the odorous substances which have been identified in livestock wastes or in the air around them. *J. Agric. Eng. Res.* 1992;53:23-50. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0021-8634\(92\)80072-Z](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0021-8634(92)80072-Z).
81. Mackie RI, Stroot PG, Varel VH. Biochemical identification and biological origin of key odor components in livestock waste. *J. Anim. Sci.* 1998;76:1331-1342.
82. Razote EB, Characterization of Volatile Organic Compounds in Airborne Dust. 2002 ASAE Annual International Meeting; 2002.
83. Zahn JA, DiSpirito AA, Do YS, Brooks BE, Cooper EE, Hatfield JL. Correlation of human olfactory responses to airborne concentrations of malodorous volatile organic compounds emitted from swine effluent. *J. Environ. Qual.* 2001;30:624-634. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.2134/jeq2001.302624x>.
84. Zhu J, Riskowski G, Torremorell M. Volatile fatty acids as odor indicators in swine manure - A critical review. *Trans. ASAE.* 1999;42:175-182. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.13031/2013.13194>.
85. Obrock-Hegel CE. The effects of reducing dietary crude protein concentration on odor in swine facilities. M.S. Thesis. University of Nebraska, Lincoln; 1997.
86. Gralapp A, Powers W, Bundy D. Comparison of olfactometry, gas chromatography, and electronic nose technology for measurement of indoor air from swine facilities. *Trans. ASAE.* 2001;44:1283-1290. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.13031/2013.6433>.
87. Hoff S, Dong L, Li X, Bundy D, Harmon J, Xin H. Odor removal using biomass filters. In: *Livestock Environment V. Fifth International Symposium*, Minneapolis, MN. 1997;101-108.
88. Hammond E, Fedler C, Smith R. Analysis of particle-borne swine house odors. *Agric. Environ.* 1981;6:395-401. Available: [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0304-1131\(81\)90041-2](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0304-1131(81)90041-2).
89. Schiffman SS, Bennett JL, Raymer JH. Quantification of odors and odorants from swine operation in North Carolina. *Agric. For. Meteorol.* 2001;108: 213-240. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0168-1923\(01\)00239-8](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0168-1923(01)00239-8).

90. Bottcher R, Keener K, Munilla R, Williams C, Schiffman S. Dust and odor emissions from tunnel ventilated swine buildings in North Carolina and comparison of different odor evaluation methods. *Appl. Eng. Agric.* 2004;20:343-347. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.13031/2013.16064>.
91. Schiffman SS, Williams C. Science of odor as a potential health issue. *J. Environ. Qual.* 2005;34:129-138.
92. Thu K, Donham K, Ziegenhorn R, Reynolds S, Thorne P, Subramanian P, Whiten, Stookesberry JP. A control study of the physical and mental health of residents living near a large-scale swine operation. *J. Agric. Safety Health.* 1997;3:13-26. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.13031/2013.17747>.
93. Wing S, Wolf S. Intensive livestock operations, health, and quality of life among eastern North Carolina residents. *Environ. Health Perspect.* 2000;108:233-238. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1289/ehp.00108233>.
94. Carpenter GA, Cooper AW, Wheeler GE. The effect of air filtration on air hygiene and pig performance in early-weaner accommodation. *Animals production.* 1986;43:505-515. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0003356100002725>.
95. Mitchell BW, Richardson LJ, Wilson JL, Hofacre CL. Application of an electrostatic space charge system for dust, ammonia, and pathogen reduction in broiler breeder house. *Applied Eng. in Agric.* 2004;20(1):87-93. ASABE. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.13031/2013.15686>.
96. Almuhanna EA, Maghirang RG, Murphy JP, Erickson L E. Effectiveness of electrostatically charged water spray in reducing dust concentration in enclosed spaces. *Trans. ASABE.* 2008;51(1):279-286. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.13031/2013.24221>.
97. Cambra-López M, Aarnink AJA, Zhao Y, Calvet S. and Torres AG. Airborne particulate matter from livestock production systems: A review of an air pollution problem. *Environ. Poll.* 2010;158:1-17. Closed spaces. *Trans. ASABE.* 2008;51(1):279-286. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2009.07.011>.
98. Takai, H, Pedersen S, Johnsen JO, Metz JHM, Groot Koerkamp PWG, Uenk GH, Phillips VR, Holden MR, Sneath RW, Short JL, White RP, Hartung J, Sedorf J, Schroder M, Linkert KH, and Wathes CM. Concentrations and emissions of airborne dust in livestock buildings in Northern Europe. *J. Agric. Eng. Res.* 1998;70(1):59-77. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1006/jaer.1997.0280>.
99. Bakutis B, Monstvilienė E, Januskeviciene G. Analyses of airborne contamination with bacteria, endotoxins and dust in livestock barns and poultry houses. *Acta Veterinaria Brno.* 2004;73:283–289. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.2754/avb200473020283>.
100. Razote EB, Maghirang RG, Seitz LM, Jeon IJ. Characterization of volatile organic compounds on airborne dust in a swine finishing barn. *Trans. ASAE.* 2004;47:1231–1238. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.13031/2013.16573>.
101. Valavanidis A, Fiotakis K, Vlachogianni T. Airborne particulate matter and human health: toxicological assessment and importance of size and composition of particles for oxidative damage and carcinogenic mechanisms. *J. Environ. Sci. and Health, Part C.* 2008;26:339–362. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/10590500802494538>.
102. Schimmer B, TerSchegget R, Wegdam M, Zuchner L, De Bruin A, Schneeberger PM, Veenstra T, Vellema P, Van der Hoek W. The use of a geographic information system to identify a dairy goat farm as the most likely source of an urban Q-fever outbreak. *Bmc Infectious Diseases* 10; 2010.
103. Donham KJ. Contamination with disease and productivity in swine. *American J. Vet. Res.* 1991;52(10):1723-1730.

104. Cox CS, Wathes CM. Bioaerosols in the environment. In Bioaerosols handbook. Chap. 2. Edited by C.S. Cox and C.M. Wathes. CRC Press, Boca Raton, Fla; 1995.
105. Dowd SE, Maier RM. Aeromicrobiology. In environmental microbiology. Edited by Maier RM, Pepper IL, Gebra CP. Academic Press, San Diego, Calif. 2000;91-122.
106. Pillai SD. Bioaerosols and public health. In Microbiology of composting Edited by H. Insam, N. Riddech, and S. Klammer. Springer-Verlag GmbH & Co. KG, Berlin. 2002;595-606. Available: http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/978-3-662-08724-4_50.
107. Hartung J. Practical aspects of aerosol sampling in animal housing. In Aerosol Sampling in Animal Houses, (Eds Wathes CM, Randall RM). Luxemburg: EC Commission Publications. 1989;14-23.
108. Roest HIJ, Tilburg J, Van der Hoek W, Vellema P, Van Zijderveld FG, Klaassen CHW, Raoult D. The Q fever epidemic in The Netherlands: history, onset, response and reflection. *Epidemiology and Infection*. 2011;139(1):1-12. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0950268810002268>.
109. Gay SW, Schmidt DR, Clanton CJ, Janni KA, Jacobson LD, Weisberg S. Odor, total reduced sulfur, and ammonia emissions from animal housing facilities and manure storage units in Minnesota. *Applied Eng. in Agric*. 2003;19(3):347-360.
110. Jacobson LD, Guo H, Schmidt DR, Nicolai RE, Zhu J, Janni KA. Development of the OFFSET model for determination of odor-annoyance-free setback distances from animal production sites: Part I. Review and experiment. *Trans. ASABE*. 2005;48(6):2259-2268. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.13031/2013.20089>.
111. Guo H, Dehod W, Agnew J, Laguë C, Feddes JR, Pang S. Annual odor emission rate from different types of swine production buildings. *Trans. ASABE*. 2006;49(2):517-525. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.13031/2013.20406>.
112. Hoff SJ, Bundy DS, Nelson MA, Zelle BC, Jacobson LD, Heber AJ, Ni J, Zhang Y, KozielJAm, Beasley DB. Emissions of ammonia, hydrogen sulfide and odor before, during, and after slurry removal from a deep-pit swine finisher. *J. Air Waste Mgmt. Assoc*. 2006;56(5):581-590. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/10473289.2006.10464472>.
113. Banhazi, TM, Seedorf J, Rutley DL and Pitchford WS. Identification of risk factors for sub-optimal housing conditions in Australian piggeries: Part I. Study justification and design. *J. Agric. Safety and Health*. 2008;14(1):5-20. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.13031/2013.24120>.
114. Banhazi TM, Seedorf J, Rutley DL, Pitchford WS. Identification of risk factors for sub-optimal housing conditions in Australian piggeries: Part II. Airborne pollutants. *J. Agric. Safety and Health*. 2008;14(1):21-39. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.13031/2013.24122>.
115. Sun G, Guo H, Peterson J, Predicala B, Laguë C. Diurnal odor, ammonia, hydrogen sulfide, and carbon dioxide emission profiles of confined swine grower/finisher rooms. *J. Air and Waste Mgmt. Assoc*. 2008;58(11):1434-1448. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.3155/1047-3289.58.11.1434>.
116. Sun G, Hoff SJ, Zelle BC, Nelson MA. Forecasting daily source air quality using multivariate statistical analysis and radial basis function networks. *J. Air and Waste Mgmt. Assoc*. 2008;58(12):1571-1578. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.3155/1047-3289.58.12.1571>.
117. Sun G, Hoff SJ. Simulation of impacts of different animal management practices and geographic area on long-term air quality. *Trans. ASABE*. 2011;54(4):1465-1477. Available: <http://dx.doi.org/10.13031/2013.39027>.

118. Wathes CM. Ventilation. In *Farm Animals and the Environment*. C. Phillips and D. Piggins, ed. CAB International, Wallingford. 1992;83–91.
119. Yasotha A, Arunachalam S, Sivakumar T, Ramesh V. Influences of air pollution levels in sheep pens on the performance of Madras Red Lambs. *Indian J. Animal Sci.* 2002;72(10):933-935.
120. Verstegen M, Tamminga S, Greers R. The effect of gaseous pollutants on animals. In *Pollution in Livestock Production Systems*, (Eds I. apDewi RFE, Axford IFM. Marai and H. M. Omed). Wallingford: CAB International. 1994;71-79.

© 2014 Almuhanha; This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0>), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Peer-review history:

The peer review history for this paper can be accessed here:
<http://www.sciencedomain.org/review-history.php?iid=586&id=2&aid=5798>