



Why We Need Food & Water Action on Climate Change

Climate change threatens our most essential resources: food and water. The United States must work urgently to deploy existing technologies and solutions for harnessing zero-emission, renewable energy and upgrade energy efficiency; the easiest reductions are in the dirty energy sources we need not use at all, fossil fuels. The call for genuine, emissions-free renewable energy dates back nearly 50 years. We need a New Deal-scale green public works investment with Apollo Project-level innovation to drive the rapid transition to clean energy.

At the same time, agriculture is a leading contributor to climate change. Our nation's agricultural policies incentivize unsustainable practices, rather than target inefficiencies. The way we produce food needs to be entirely revamped, and we must invest in the necessary resources and infrastructure to protect our water from the dire effects of climate change.

The United States can and should be a global leader on this ambitious path. We can achieve the goal of 100 percent clean, renewable energy by 2030

if we have the political will. Everyone in the United States must demand strong government policies and commit to aggressive action now.

Agriculture and Climate Change Are Connected

Climate change threatens our ability to feed people; in fact, it reduces the amount of available food. More frequent and intense natural disasters — such as

droughts and floods — cost farmers money and hurt agricultural yields. Extreme weather events can also impact local economies and incomes, making food less affordable.¹ Globally, the total annual cost for natural disasters is estimated at \$250-\$300 billion, which includes the cost of disease outbreaks among livestock and crops.²

In the United States, the number of “billion-dollar climate events” has risen since 1980.³ In 2018 alone, 14 climate events racked up more than \$90 billion in damages, including agricultural losses.⁴ California’s five-year drought from 2012 to 2016 cost billions in agricultural economic losses.⁵ Financial losses in agriculture from climate events can hurt local economies for years. Disasters also affect the health of livestock, aquaculture and forests.⁶

Our global food system is highly vulnerable to climate change; just nine plant species account for more than 66 percent of all crops.⁷ As weather patterns change, some regions may be unable to support crops that were previously cultivated there.⁸ Changes in rainfall and temperature threaten yield production and can devastate the global food supply. Warmer temperatures can encourage crop-eating insects to thrive in certain regions, and may lead to significant declines in yields of major grains.⁹

California’s economy, for example, is highly dependent on irrigation and is very vulnerable to changing weather patterns.¹⁰ It is also home to perennial tree crops like almonds and mandarins,¹¹ which are a huge investment, making it more challenging for farmers to adopt different crops in the face of a changing climate. Yield losses in California would have

devastating effects on the national economy and food supply, considering that the state grows about half of all U.S. produce.¹²

As the planet continues to warm, these impacts will worsen. However, at the same time, agriculture is a leading source of human-caused emissions that are warming our planet.

Our Food System Drives Climate Chaos

Agricultural production contributes an estimated 15-25 percent of human-caused greenhouse gas emissions.¹³ Livestock production contributes the bulk of agricultural emissions (around 80 percent).¹⁴ The largest component of livestock’s footprint is the production and processing of animal feed.¹⁵ Other activities release the greenhouse gas methane, including enteric fermentation (a digestive process in cattle) and the processing and storage of manure.¹⁶

Crop production also contributes to climate-warming emissions. Monocultures dominate global agriculture, including corn and soybeans grown in the American Midwest and other regions.¹⁷ The lack of intercropping and crop rotation make monocultures vulnerable to plant pests; many rely on chemical inputs like fertilizers and pesticides.¹⁸ These are often produced with fossil fuels, further contributing to climate emissions.¹⁹ In fact, in some cereal crop systems, the use of fertilizers represents the largest contribution of greenhouse gases.²⁰ Continuous monocultures can also impair agricultural soils, reducing their health and ability to sequester carbon.²¹



A California almond orchard using flood irrigation to mitigate a 2015 drought.

USDA PHOTO

Meanwhile, factory farms raise huge numbers of animals in confinement and produce enormous amounts of animal waste. This waste is often stored in lagoons before being transferred offsite or sprayed on fields, often at levels too high for the land to absorb, which can lead to nutrient runoff and pollution of water resources.²² A better approach would be to integrate livestock into cropping systems, giving livestock access to pasture and using their manure as fertilizer, thereby solving the waste issue while also eliminating the need for synthetic fertilizers.

Across the entire life cycle of food production — from fertilizer and feed manufacturing to packaging, transportation and wasted food — agricultural releases are estimated at 19-29 percent of all human-caused climate emissions.

Food transportation, processing and packaging also contribute to agriculture's footprint. Across the entire life cycle of food production — from fertilizer and feed manufacturing to packaging, transportation and wasted food — agricultural releases are estimated at 19-29 percent of all human-caused climate emissions.²³ However, corporate agriculture willfully ignores these inefficiencies, encouraging pesticide-dependent monocultures, propping up factory farms and sacrificing more acreage to unsustainable ethanol production.

Bad Policies Encourage Overproduction and Prop Up Factory Farms

Programs such as federal subsidized crop insurance incentivize the planting of commodities like corn and soybeans.²⁴ Currently, the top four commodity crops — corn, soybeans, cotton and wheat — make up more than 70 percent of enrolled acres, while also qualifying for payouts in other programs.²⁵

This system does a poor job of feeding people. For example, nearly 40 percent of U.S. corn goes into producing ethanol, and half of all North American

crop calories are fed to livestock.²⁶ This means that the production of ethanol, a plant-based biofuel that is falsely marketed as being a “renewable” resource, also takes up a substantial amount of farming acreage.²⁷

Ethanol is derived from biomass, a dirty energy source. It is propped up by a federal mandate that requires transportation fuels to contain biofuel.²⁸ The whole process from growing corn to processing it into a biofuel is climate polluting. Conventional ethanol production uses corn starch as a biofuel

feedstock and releases greenhouse gas emissions.²⁹ Corn stover (primarily the leaves, husks, stalks and tassels) is the other main ethanol biofuel feedstock; research has shown that its removal from land decreases the amount of organic carbon in soil and increases carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions.³⁰ Ethanol fuel also releases CO₂ during combustion.³¹

Many foods that directly feed humans (fruits, vegetables and nuts) are ineligible under subsidized crop insurance and other federal safety net programs.³² The result is a system that incentivizes corn and soybean overproduction, further depressing prices and enabling feed manufacturers to purchase artificially cheap grain. This, in turn, props up the polluting factory farm system. Unsurprisingly, U.S. factory farms proliferated over the same time period that federal agricultural policy encouraged the overproduction of corn and soybeans.³³

Our current farm safety net is a lose-lose situation even for many farmers of commodity crops, as it perpetuates depressed crop prices and low farm income. The real beneficiaries are the corporate food giants that purchase cheap grain to feed factory farms.³⁴ Additional public funding is directly captured by factory farms. For example, the Environmental

Quality Incentives Program (EQIP) is supposed to provide funding and technical assistance to farmers implementing conservation practices such as cover cropping (plants grown to help manage or protect soil) and stream protection.

However, the 2002 Farm Bill made changes to EQIP to allow factory farms to participate, including a mandate that 60 percent of all funding go toward livestock operations (reduced to 50 percent in the 2018 Farm Bill).³⁵ EQIP-funded projects come at the expense of small livestock and crop farmers who are turned away due to limited funding.³⁶ In Iowa, nearly one-third of all EQIP funding from 1997 to 2015 went to factory farm practices, including \$62 million to build facilities to store animal waste. These funds could have instead supported 7,500 additional projects at smaller farms.³⁷

Furthermore, each year millions of public dollars flow to factory farms to finance projects such as anaerobic digesters — an expensive, unproven technology for turning animal waste into electricity.³⁸ In California, digesters are being increasingly promoted as a means to reach greenhouse gas reduction goals,³⁹ and the state's 2019-2020 budget backs biogas and forces California to invest in more dirty dairy digesters.⁴⁰

Biogas is a mixture of gases produced after plant and animal materials such as manure from factory farms, sewage sludge and food waste are broken down by microorganisms in a process called anaerobic digestion.⁴¹ Biogas includes waste methane from different origins, including livestock manure.⁴² Methane is nearly 90 times more powerful as a greenhouse gas than carbon dioxide over a 20-year period.⁴³ Burning biogas also releases CO₂ and other pollutants including nitrogen oxides (NO_x), ammonia and hydrogen sulfide.⁴⁴

Food System Solutions Are Climate Solutions

Our public dollars are investing in an old, polluting system that is incompatible with climate target goals. The mentality of squeezing as much “productivity” out of the land as possible — through intensive monocropping or factory farms — got us into the



Monocropping is the agricultural practice of growing a single crop year after year on the same land.

mess we are in today. Instead, we need to recognize the interplay between farmland and the surrounding ecosystem. This includes integrating practices that maintain soil health and protect organisms vital to food production, from pollinators to soil microorganisms.⁴⁵

Growing more food will not ensure that hungry people are fed. Roughly 815 million people globally are hungry; 75 percent of them are family farmers who together produce the majority of the world's food.⁴⁶ A report from the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations highlights how sustainable agriculture can not only meet environmental goals but also close this hunger gap. To do so, we must put family farmers at the center, drawing on their local expertise while shortening the production chains between grower and consumer and investing in local markets.⁴⁷

Emerging research suggests that sustainable practices that focus on soil health (avoiding pesticides, practicing diversification and crop rotation, and planting cover crops) can increase yields over the long run, potentially closing yield gaps between conventional and alternative systems.⁴⁸ A recent series of case studies from the U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA) shows how such practices can increase yields and profits while reducing farmer costs.⁴⁹ Intensive farming and chemical inputs, on the other hand, reduce soil fertility and threaten future productivity. They also harm pollinators, pollute ecosystems and make farmland more vulnerable to a changing climate.⁵⁰

We could raise more food with fewer emissions if we instead devoted more fields to growing crops for direct human consumption.⁵¹ We must also change the way we raise livestock for food and the roles that meat and dairy play in our diets.⁵² The livestock sector uses an enormous amount of land, replacing vast amounts of natural carbon sinks. If it continues business as usual, the sector would account for nearly half of the allowed emissions by 2030.⁵³ Integrated crop and livestock systems can reduce greenhouse gas emissions by using manure as crop fertilizer while also producing their own feed.⁵⁴ Alongside this, we can shift our diets to more appropriate levels of sustainably produced meat and dairy.

At the same time, shifting away from water-intensive industrial agriculture is an essential aspect to dealing with both our warming planet and the water crisis. Agriculture is both a victim of and a significant contributor to water scarcity. Climate change will exacerbate this problem.⁵⁵

Water in Peril: A Freshwater and Infrastructure Emergency

Climate-altering greenhouse gas emissions from our energy and food systems pose serious risks to our water. More frequent and intense droughts will cause water shortages, leading to overreliance on and possible depletion of groundwater supplies, which can impact utilities.⁵⁶ In the United States, our outdated water infrastructure, which was built based on the more stable weather patterns of the past, is unprepared and overwhelmed in the face of these challenges.⁵⁷ Consequently, we face water scarcity, deterioration of source water quality, service disruptions from extreme weather, flooding and sewage overflows, and a deepening water affordability crisis.

Water and wastewater services may become less reliable as our climate changes, especially when met with extreme weather events. Weather disturbances ranging from hurricanes to droughts can cause water system disruptions, including a pause in operations, loss of supply or restrictions on water use, and degraded water quality.⁵⁸ With more intense rainfall and the rise of more extreme weather-related events, water and wastewater systems will experience more

flooding, power outages and infrastructure damage, leading to far less reliable services.⁵⁹ Flooding due to storms and sea level rise will regularly overwhelm sewer systems, causing sewage overflows and requiring utilities to adapt or relocate.⁶⁰ Without federal support, these changes will likely increase water service rates for customers, because of the extremely high costs for utilities to become climate resilient.⁶¹

Climate change also has real impacts on the quality and quantity of fresh water and will exacerbate water shortages worldwide.⁶² Water quality issues plague the water that is still available, from pollution from runoff to toxic algal blooms. All levels of government need to prepare our water systems to ensure safe and reliable service in the face of our changing climate. Our water and wastewater systems will have to adapt.

Hurricanes and Infrastructure: Katrina, Sandy, Harvey and Maria

The earth is warming.⁶³ And this warmer air holds more energy that feeds hurricanes, which have even worse storm surges due to rising sea levels.⁶⁴ These increased weather events have been catastrophic to water infrastructure, and they will only get worse.

Katrina

Hurricane Katrina hit New Orleans in 2005 and within days affected more than 1,220 drinking water systems and 200 wastewater treatment plants in Alabama,



Widespread flooding throughout New Orleans in the aftermath of Hurricane Katrina in 2005.

NOAA PHOTO

Louisiana and Mississippi.⁶⁵ Two weeks after landfall, the majority of these systems were still unable to provide necessary services: only 30 percent of the drinking water systems and 40 percent of the wastewater treatment plants were back in operation.⁶⁶ In New Orleans, half of the lift stations used in wastewater treatment were still out of service eight months after the hurricane hit.⁶⁷

The city's largest drinking water plant was underwater for nearly two weeks and was unable to supply safe drinking water to residents for weeks.⁶⁸ Water and wastewater systems throughout the area experienced intense flooding, leading to power outages and raw sewage overflows.⁶⁹ This extreme flooding also caused extensive damage to underground infrastructure such as service pipes, leading to problems long after the storm had passed from sinkholes to leaks and more sewer overflows.⁷⁰ New Orleans continues to suffer from ongoing flooding and inadequate infrastructure.⁷¹

Hurricane Katrina disproportionately affected New Orleans' African-American residents, which accounted for nearly 75 percent of the city's displaced population.⁷² A decade after Katrina ravaged New Orleans, 60 percent of the city's African-American population said that Louisiana had "mostly not recovered," compared to 80 percent of white residents who found that the state had "mostly recovered."⁷³ Nearly half of New Orleans' African-American population said that their quality of life in their communities was "worse" than it was before the historic storm; only 13 percent of white residents said the same.⁷⁴

Sandy

In 2012, Hurricane Sandy ravaged the U.S. East Coast. The storm surge caused billions of gallons of raw and partly treated sewage to flood waterways in New York and New Jersey, which overflowed and inundated streets.⁷⁵ The regional sewage system was not designed to withstand a storm of this caliber.⁷⁶ Afterward, experts advised residents of New York City, its northern suburbs, Long Island and New Jersey to conserve water and take extra caution by boiling it before consumption.⁷⁷ Purifying drinking



Aerial view of the flooding and structural damage caused by Hurricane Sandy in 2012. U.S. COAST GUARD PHOTO

water with tablets was also recommended.⁷⁸ Overall, damage to public drinking water systems resulted in the State of New York issuing more than 60 boil advisories.⁷⁹ In New Jersey, 35 water systems issued boil advisories.⁸⁰

Widespread damage in New Jersey led then-Governor Chris Christie to issue an Executive Order declaring a water emergency. Water restrictions were put in place to reduce the volume of water delivered to the already overburdened wastewater treatment facilities.⁸¹ In total, the state experienced damage to 70 drinking water systems and 80 wastewater treatment plants that left it with a \$2.6 billion tab.⁸²

Harvey

In 2017, Hurricane Harvey made landfall along the Texas coast, with the eye of the storm hovering in place for four days.⁸³ Historic amounts of precipitation resulted in cataclysmic flooding, 61 inoperable public water systems and more than 200 boil advisories.⁸⁴ Water shortages after the storm resulted in



Widespread residential flooding in Port Arthur, Texas after Hurricane Harvey, 2017. SC NATIONAL GUARD PHOTO

extreme price gouging of bottled water, with prices as high as \$99.⁸⁵ Nearly a week after landfall, at least one town still lacked access to safe drinking water.⁸⁶

Hurricane Harvey posed unique challenges since it made landfall in the nation's largest petrochemical hub. More than 100 Harvey-related toxic releases contaminated the air, land and water.⁸⁷ The heavy rains released dozens of tons of industrial toxins including benzene, butadiene and other known carcinogens into neighboring communities and waterways.⁸⁸ In Baytown, Texas alone, nearly half a billion gallons of industrial wastewater mixed with stormwater gushed from a single chemical plant.⁸⁹ Barely any of these discharges were investigated by federal regulators; a majority were not publicized until later.⁹⁰

Maria

Also in 2017, Puerto Rico was devastated by Hurricane Maria, which significantly damaged the island's water system.⁹¹ A week after Maria made landfall, nearly all of Puerto Rico's 3.4 million residents struggled to find food and a majority lacked access to safe drinking water.⁹² Without power, their water system could not operate the equipment to treat and distribute water.⁹³ While San Juan experienced sporadic water service, people living farther away needed to bring large trash cans and buckets to collect water from distribution stations.⁹⁴ Three weeks later, 80 percent of the population was still without power, and more than 30 percent still lacked access to safe drinking water.⁹⁵

The situation was so dire that the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency had to issue a warning for desperate people not to consume water from wells at



Residents desperate for clean drinking water crowd a water distribution center in Juncos, Puerto Rico.

FEMA PHOTO

contaminated toxic Superfund waste sites.⁹⁶ But even before Maria ravaged Puerto Rico, the island suffered from a troubled water system, with the worst drinking water contamination problems of any U.S. state or territory.⁹⁷ Maria merely worsened Puerto Rico's water woes, which included impaired sewerage treatment plants and old water lines that are now even more prone to leaking.⁹⁸

Freshwater Under Threat

Beyond jeopardizing vulnerable infrastructure systems, climate change threatens our planet's limited freshwater resources. Already, in part due to climate change, an estimated 80 percent of the world's population is faced with water insecurity, which means that people lack access to affordable, safe, clean drinking water.⁹⁹ An estimated 1.3 billion people suffer from outright water scarcity¹⁰⁰ — the lack of sufficient water resources to meet demands — because of water shortages or inadequate infrastructure.¹⁰¹ Climate change will deepen this water crisis.¹⁰²

Currently, the world is faced with a global water emergency, with 25 percent of the population under "extremely high" water stress, meaning that water withdrawals for industry, agriculture and municipal uses exceed 80 percent of annual available supplies.¹⁰³ In 2013, the U.S. Government Accountability Office surveyed state water managers and found that 80 percent of respondents anticipated water shortages to occur sometime in their state "under average conditions" by 2023.¹⁰⁴

The freshwater supplies of five states (Arizona, California, Colorado, Nebraska and New Mexico) are significantly stressed.¹⁰⁵ New Mexico, faces significant water stress that is comparable to that in the United Arab Emirates.¹⁰⁶ Some of these states rely heavily on irrigated agriculture (such as nut crops in California and cotton in Arizona) rather than planting crops more suited to the climate.¹⁰⁷

Climate and freshwater systems are complexly interconnected.¹⁰⁸ As the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change has explained, "Any change in one of these systems induces a change in the other."¹⁰⁹ Climate change will intensify prolonged drought conditions, decrease freshwater availability

and hinder groundwater recharge.¹¹⁰ Some parts of the United States, particularly the Southwest and Southern Great Plains, will experience more frequent and intense droughts,¹¹¹ which have an enormous impact on water resources. During droughts, freshwater supplies can become dangerously low as evaporation from increased temperatures occurs, hindering groundwater recharge and impacting surface water levels and supplies.¹¹² Water utilities can suffer under these conditions, especially those that depend on groundwater.¹¹³

Pollution and Scarcity

Climate change-fueled water contamination will further erode access to safe water. Water quality and water scarcity are also directly linked.¹¹⁴ Water scarcity occurs when the water demand nears or exceeds the available supply.¹¹⁵ It is difficult for freshwater bodies to process pollution discharges from varying agricultural, urban and industrial uses, which means that the contamination of water sources can be a significant cause of water scarcity.¹¹⁶

Warmer temperatures combined with increasingly extreme storm events and droughts will lead to more water pollution.¹¹⁷ Heavy and intense rainfall events create more storm runoff that can contaminate surface waters. As rainfall hits saturated or impervious surfaces, such as roads, it cannot infiltrate the ground and instead flows overland as runoff, picking up pollutants along the way.¹¹⁸ And industrial sites that are ravaged by natural disasters can release toxins into the environment and water supplies. For example, after Hurricane Harvey devastated the Gulf Coast, several water systems went offline, dozens of spills from sewage and wastewater systems released contaminants, and more than 30 industrial facilities reported chemical spills.¹¹⁹

In addition, increasing temperatures melt snowpack, ice caps and glaciers.¹²⁰ Glacial melting causes sea

levels to rise,¹²¹ which increases saltwater intrusion in many freshwater sources, reducing the amount of drinkable water.¹²² Rising ocean temperatures will lead to more rapid evaporation.¹²³ Likewise the increase in frequency, size and severity of wildfires associated with climate change can have huge impacts on water sources in burned areas. These regions have more soil and stormwater runoff, increasing the amounts

of sediment, nitrogen, phosphorus and trace metals present in the water, as well as causing higher turbidity and more organic material to enter the water.¹²⁴

Algal blooms from agricultural pollution also threaten safe drinking water and are exacerbated by climate

change.¹²⁵ Algae occur naturally in surface waters, but under the right conditions (warm water, adequate sunlight, and high nitrogen and phosphorous levels) algae can swiftly proliferate and form blooms.¹²⁶ Blooms that impair ecosystems or pose hazards to human health are known as harmful algae blooms.¹²⁷ The growing trend toward the increasing size, frequency and duration of harmful algae blooms in the United States will only worsen as global temperatures continue to rise.¹²⁸

Conclusion: Tackling Climate Change to Save Our Most Essential Resources

The United States is a major contributor to climate change through fossil fuel emissions and agricultural production.¹²⁹ Globally, natural disasters have increased significantly since 1980,¹³⁰ and our planet is increasingly impacted by extreme weather events.

These disasters can curtail freshwater supplies, and our water systems are aging and unprepared to meet the challenges associated with climate change-fueled natural disasters. Hurricanes can take systems completely offline. Flooding and sea level rise further

Glacial melting causes sea levels to rise, which increases saltwater intrusion in many freshwater sources, reducing the amount of drinkable water.

threaten systems and can force infrastructure relocation, heavy rainfall leads to more sewage overflows, and the total cost of climate adaptation for our water and sewer systems is high, nearing \$1 trillion by 2050.¹³¹

Climate change also threatens our ability to feed a growing population, with future droughts and famines potentially leading to more political unrest and displacement of people. At the same time, agriculture remains a leading contributor to climate change. A recent report found that food producers have the largest external environmental costs of any industry analyzed.¹³²

Our planet is cooking, with 2015 through 2019 on record as the five warmest years ever.¹³³ The earth has already warmed 1 degree Celsius since the dawn of the Industrial Revolution; another 0.5 degree rise could cause irreversible damage, potentially making parts of the world uninhabitable this century.¹³⁴ We must make enormous cuts in our greenhouse gas emissions in order to avoid the most severe impacts to our most essential resources: food and water. Climate change has already begun to impact freshwater resources and food production across the globe.

Mitigating the worst effects of climate change will require fundamental, systemic transformation.

A first step would be rapidly decarbonizing our grid so that we can hit net-zero global emissions by 2050 (this requires a transition to 100 percent renewable energy), and we must make significant changes to our agricultural system.¹³⁵

Agricultural recommendations:

We need to swiftly transform our food system into one that produces fewer emissions and is resilient to a changing climate.¹³⁶ We can achieve this, but only if we revamp our farm policies to put farmers and consumers — not big agribusinesses — at the center. We should:

Fix the farm “safety net.” Our farm safety net incentivizes the planting of top commodities like corn and soybeans on monocultures. We need a dramatic shift in agricultural policy that ties in climate-smart

practices while incentivizing the planting of more crops that directly feed humans. We can curb overproduction of commodities.

Invest in research for sustainable practices. The USDA spends billions of dollars each year on agricultural research, yet only a small slice of this goes into research on sustainable systems.¹³⁷ Federal dollars should prioritize research practices that improve sustainability, help farmers adapt to climate change, and work toward creating sustainable systems. State legislatures can also earmark funding toward sustainable practices, as is happening in California and Maryland.¹³⁸ State extension services have long played an important role in disseminating new practices to farmers and can be an important facilitator to connect farmers with this growing body of research on climate-friendly practices.¹³⁹

Increase grants for conservation practices and close loopholes that enable factory farms to capture this funding. Federal dollars can help farmers implement these sustainable practices. Existing programs like EQIP pay farmers to implement conservation practices such as planting cover crops or protecting streams. Yet Big Ag has hijacked this program, and now factory farms gobble up a significant share, using these funds to build methane-releasing manure storage facilities or to transport their wastes to other communities. We need to prevent factory farms from participating in EQIP and other conservation funding, and to end the funding of dirty practices. This would free up more funding for farmers interested in incorporating truly sustainable practices on their farms.

Ban factory farms and support a just transition.

Finally, we must ban new factory farms and the expansion of existing ones while aiding current factory operations in transitioning to integrated crop and livestock systems. We must also invest in local markets and the required infrastructure to help farmers bring their products to market.

Water recommendations:

Climate change threatens our freshwater supplies and the functioning of our critical water services. We need all levels of government to work together to tackle this crisis and protect our water resources. We must

overhaul our country's outdated water and sewer systems to bring them into the climate reality of the 21st century. We should:

Build more resilient water infrastructure, including:

adding more redundancy in drinking water distribution to avoid outages during disasters even if one pipeline fails; reinforcing the structural integrity of water systems; having backup power sources so that systems can continue operating even during extreme weather events; increasing wastewater storage capacities to prevent flooding and combined sewage overflows; building protective infrastructure that blocks flooding; relocating treatment plants and facilities as necessary under more extreme scenarios; reinforcing infrastructure like dams and spillways for more extreme flooding events; protecting infrastructure by moving it above ground to decrease the risk of damage from floods or storms; and improving modeling, planning and real-time monitoring to account for increasingly extreme rainfall and flooding.

Protect our water as a public trust. As safe water becomes increasingly scarce, we must fight off efforts to treat it like a commodity. It is more urgent than ever to prevent water privatization, water bottling and water markets. We cannot price our way out of water shortages, and we need water resources to go to the highest public benefit, not the highest bidder.

Create a water trust fund to fully fund our public water infrastructure. It is urgent that Congress create a dedicated source of federal support for our public water and sewer systems to meet the growing demands of our changing climate. One model is the Water Affordability, Transparency, Equity and Reliability (WATER) Act in Congress. Without delay, we must fully fund our water infrastructure to make water safe, affordable and accessible for all.

Endnotes

- 1 Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO). (2016). "2016: The State of Food and Agriculture." Rome: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations at 30 and 32.
- 2 FAO. (2018). "2017: The Impact of Disasters and Crises on Agriculture and Food Security." Rome: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations at 2.
- 3 National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA). National Centers for Environmental Information (NCEI). U.S. billion-dollar weather and climate disasters. Available at <https://www.ncdc.noaa.gov/billions/>. Accessed September 2019.
- 4 *Ibid.*; NOAA. NCEI. Billion-dollar weather and climate disasters: Events. Available at <https://www.ncdc.noaa.gov/billions/events>. Accessed February 2020.
- 5 Lund, Jay et al. "Lessons from California's 2012-2016 drought." *Journal of Water Resources Planning and Management*. Vol. 144, No. 10. 2018 at 1 and 3.
- 6 FAO (2018) at 4.
- 7 Bélanger, J. and D. Pilling (eds.). (2019). "The State of the World's Biodiversity for Food and Agriculture." Rome: Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations at 114.
- 8 de Sousa, Agnieszka and Hayley Warren. "Climate change is messing with your dinner." *Bloomberg*. April 13, 2018.
- 9 Deutsch, Curtis et al. "Increase in crop loss to insect pests in a warming climate." *Science*. Vol. 361, Iss. 6405. August 31, 2018 at 1.
- 10 Pathak, Tapan B. et al. "Climate change trends and impacts on California agriculture: A detailed review." *Agronomy*. Vol. 8, Iss. 3. 2018 at 1 and 2.
- 11 California Department of Food and Agriculture (CDFA). "Agricultural Statistics Review 2017-2018." 2019 at 53.
- 12 *Ibid.* at 53 and 96; CDFA. "California Agricultural Resource Directory 2010-2011." 2010 at 13 and 17.
- 13 Vermeulen, Sonja J. et al. "Climate change and food systems." *Annual Review of Environment and Resources*. Vol. 37. October 2012 at 200.
- 14 Tubiello, Francesco N. et al. "The FAOSTAT database of greenhouse gas emissions from agriculture." *Environmental Research Letters*. Vol. 8. February 12, 2013 at 6.
- 15 Gerber, P. J. et al. (2013). "Tackling Climate Change Through Livestock: A Global Assessment of Emissions and Mitigation Opportunities." Rome: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations at xii.
- 16 *Ibid.*
- 17 Bélanger and Pilling (eds.) (2019) at 114; Schnitkey, Gary. "Concentration of corn and soybean production in the U.S." *farmdoc daily*. Vol. 3, No. 130. July 9, 2013 at 1.
- 18 Ratnadass, Alain et al. "Plant species diversity for sustainable management of crop pests and diseases in agroecosystems: A review." *Agronomy for Sustainable Development*. Vol. 32, Iss. 1. January 2012 at 274 to 275; University of California, Davis. "Why insect pests love monocultures, and how plant diversity could change that." *ScienceDaily*. October 12, 2016; Wetzels, William C. et al. "Variability in plant nutrients reduces insect herbivore performance." *Nature*. 2016 at 1 and 2; Killebrew, Katherine and Hendrik Wolff. University of Washington. Evans School of Public Affairs. Evans School Policy Analysis and Research. Prepared for the Agricultural Policy and Statistics Team of the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation. "Environmental Impacts of Agricultural Technologies." EPAR Brief No. 65. March 17, 2010 at 1, 3 and 4.
- 19 Neff, Roni A. et al. "Peak oil, food systems, and public health." *American Journal of Public Health*. Vol. 101, No. 9. September 2011 at 1589; Woods, Jeremy et al. "Energy and the food system." *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B*. Vol. 365. 2010 at abstract.

- 20 Liu, Chang et al. "Farming tactics to reduce the carbon footprint of crop cultivation in semiarid regions. A review." *Agronomy for Sustainable Development*. Vol. 36, No. 69. December 2016 at 3.
- 21 Liu, X. et al. "Effects of agricultural management on soil organic matter and carbon transformation — A review." *Plant, Soil and Environment*. Vol. 52, No. 12. 2006 at 537 to 538; Howarth, William and J. G. Boswell. University of California, Davis. Proceedings of the California Plant and Soil Conference. "How much can soil organic matter realistically be increased with cropping management in California?" February 6-7, 2018 at 1; Yang, Yi et al. "Soil carbon sequestration accelerated by restoration of grassland biodiversity." *Nature Communications*. Vol. 10, No. 718. 2019 at 1 and 2.
- 22 Kellogg, Robert L. et al. U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA). [Report]. "Manure Nutrients Relative to the Capacity of Cropland and Pastureland to Assimilate Nutrients: Spatial and Temporal Trends for the United States." Nps00-0579. December 2000 at Executive Summary, 58 and 89 to 92.
- 23 Vermeulen et al. (2012) at 198.
- 24 Rosa, Isabel and Renée Johnson. Congressional Research Service (CRS). "Federal Crop Insurance: Specialty Crops." R45459. Updated January 14, 2019 at 9; Smith, Trevor J. "Corn, cows, and climate change: How federal agricultural subsidies enable factory farming and exacerbate U.S. greenhouse gas emissions." *Washington Journal of Environmental Law & Policy*. Vol. 9, Iss. 1. March 2019 at 43 to 44.
- 25 Shields, Dennis A. CRS. "Federal Crop Insurance: Background." R40532. August 13, 2015 at summary; Schnepf, Randy. CRS. [Fact sheet]. "2018 Farm Bill Primer: Marketing Assistance Loan Program." IF11162. April 3, 2019 at 1 and 2; Schnepf, Randy. CRS. "Farm Commodity Provisions in the 2018 Farm Bill (P.L. 115-334)." R45730. May 21, 2019 at summary and 4.
- 26 U.S. Department of Energy. Alternative Fuels Data Center. "Corn production and portion used for fuel ethanol." Available at <https://afdc.energy.gov/data/10339>. Accessed September 2019; Pradhan et al. "Embodied crop calories in animal products." *Environmental Research Letters*. Vol. 8. 2013 at 2, 5 and 7.
- 27 Gnansounou, Edgard and Arnaud Daurat. "Ethanol fuel from biomass: A review." *Journal of Scientific & Industrial Research*. Vol. 64. November 2005 at 809 and 810; Wang, Michael et al. "Well-to-wheels energy use and greenhouse gas emissions of ethanol from corn, sugarcane and cellulosic biomass for US use." *Environmental Research Letters*. Vol. 7, No. 4. December 13, 2012 at 2, Figure 5 at 9; CRS. "The Renewable Fuel Standard (RFS): An Overview." September 4, 2019 at 1; Schnitkey, Gary et al. "Perspectives on 2019 corn and soybean acres: Impact of prevent plant." *farmdoc daily*. Vol. 9, Iss. 151. August 2019 at 2.
- 28 CRS (September 4, 2019) at 1.
- 29 Smith, Timothy M. et al. University of Minnesota. Final report to the Minnesota Pollution Control Agency. "Environmental and Economic Assessment of Ethanol Production Systems in Minnesota." March 19, 2008 at 5, 7, 32 and 33.
- 30 Liska, Adam J. et al. "Biofuels from crop residue can reduce soil carbon and increase CO2 emissions." *Nature Climate Change*. Vol. 4. May 2014 at 398; Pennington, Dennis. Michigan State University Extension. "Corn stover: What is its worth?" March 20, 2013; Eise, Jessica. Purdue University. "Study shows potential for growth in biofuels from corn stover." *Phys.org*. November 13, 2015.
- 31 Wang et al. (2012) at Figure 5 at 9.
- 32 Rosa and Johnson (2019) at 9; Smith, Trevor J. "Corn, cows, and climate change: How federal agricultural subsidies enable factory farming and exacerbate U.S. greenhouse gas emissions." *Washington Journal of Environmental Law & Policy*. Vol. 9, Iss. 1. March 2019 at 43 to 44.
- 33 Smith (2019) at 47 to 48 and 55.
- 34 Wise, Timothy A. Tufts University. Global Development and Environment Institute. "Identifying the Real Winners From U.S. Agricultural Policies." Working Paper No. 05-07. December 2005 at 1 to 4.
- 35 68 Fed. Reg. 6655-6656. February 10, 2003; 84 Fed. Reg. 69272-69273. December 17, 2019.
- 36 Food & Water Watch (FWW) analysis of CRS. "Environmental Quality Incentives Program (EQIP): Status and Issues." R40197. May 9, 2011 at Table 3 at 8.
- 37 FWW analysis of EQIP payments, using data received from the Environmental Working Group.
- 38 See: FWW. "Hard to digest: Greenwashing manure into renewable energy." November 2016.
- 39 Ashton, Adam and Andrew Sheeler. "Turning poop into power: California dairies appeal for more state climate change money." *Sacramento Bee*. May 29, 2019; CalEPA. "Facts about: California's climate plan." September 25, 2010 at 2; Lee, Hyunok and Daniel A. Sumner. "Dependence on policy revenue poses risks for investments in dairy digesters." *California Agriculture*. Vol. 72, No. 4. October-December 2018 at 226 to 230.
- 40 Ashton and Sheeler (2019); Newsom, Gavin. Governor. California Budget 2019-20: May Revision 2019-20. May 9, 2019 at 75.
- 41 Tanigawa, Sara. Environmental and Energy Study Institute. "Biogas: Converting Waste to Energy." October 2017 at 1; Environmental Protection Agency (EPA). "How does AD work?" Available at <https://www.epa.gov/anaerobic-digestion/basic-information-about-anaerobic-digestion-ad>. Accessed April 2019.
- 42 Tanigawa (2017) at 1; EPA (Accessed April 2019).
- 43 Jackson, Robert B. et al. "The depths of hydraulic fracturing and accompanying water use across the United States." *Environmental Science & Technology*. Vol. 49, Iss. 15. July 21, 2015 at 2051.
- 44 Kuo, Jeff. California State University, Fullerton. "Air Quality Issues Related to Using Biogas From Anaerobic Digestion of Food Waste." February 2015 at 2; Sharvelle, S. and L. Loetscher. Colorado State University. "Anaerobic Digestion of Animal Wastes in Colorado." May 2011 at 1 and 3; Whiting, Andrew and Adisa Azapagic. "Life cycle environmental impacts of generating electricity and heat from biogas produced by anaerobic digestion." *Energy*. Vol. 70. 2014 at 181, 184, 187 and 191 to 192.
- 45 Bélanger and Pilling (2019) at xxxvii and xxxviii.
- 46 FAO. "FAO's Work on Agroecology: A Pathway to Achieving the SDGs." 2018 at 6.
- 47 *Ibid.* at 6 and 20.
- 48 Schrama, M. et al. "Crop yield gap and stability in organic and conventional farming systems." *Agriculture, Ecosystems and Environment*. Vol. 256. March 15, 2018 at 123, 124 and 129; Ponisio, Lauren C. et al. "Diversification practices reduce organic to conventional yield gap." *Proceedings of the Royal Society B*. Vol. 282, Iss. 1799. January 22, 2015 at 1, 2 and 5; USDA. Natural Resources Conservation Service (NRCS). [Fact sheet]. "Cover Crops to Improve Soil in Prevented Planting Fields." June 2013 at 1; Aktar, Md. Wasim. et al. "Impact of pesticides use in agriculture: Their benefits and hazards." *Interdisciplinary Toxicology*. Vol. 2, Iss 1. 2009 at 1.
- 49 USDA. NRCS. "Case studies: Economic benefits of applying soil health practices." Available at <https://www.nrcs.usda.gov/wps/portal/nrcs/detail/national/soils/health/?cid=NRCSEPRD1470394>. Accessed September 2019.
- 50 Schrama et al. (2018) at 123 to 124; Ponisio et al. (2015) at 123; Bélanger and Pilling (2019) at xxxvii and xxxviii; Lin, Brenda B. et al. "Synergies between agricultural intensification and climate change could create surprising vulnerabilities for crops." *BioScience*. Vol. 58, No. 9. October 2008 at 847.
- 51 Pradhan et al. (2013) at 1 to 2 and 5 to 7.
- 52 Reynold, Emma. "World must reach 'peak meat' by 2030 to meet climate change targets, scientists warn." *CNN*. December 12, 2019; Ranganathan, Janet et al. World Resources Institute. "Shifting diets for a sustainable food future." Installment 11 of "Creating a Sustainable Food Future." April 2016 at 36 to 37.

- 53 Harwatt, Helen et al. "Scientists call for renewed Paris pledges to transform agriculture." *Lancet Planetary Health* 2019. December 11, 2019.
- 54 Niggli, U. et al. FAO. "Low Greenhouse Gas Agriculture: Mitigation and Adaptation Potential of Sustainable Farming Systems." 2009 at 1 to 3.
- 55 FAO. "Coping with Water Scarcity in Agriculture: A Global Framework for Action in a Changing Climate." 2016 at 2 and 4.
- 56 EPA. "Climate Ready Water Utilities: Adaptation Strategies Guide for Water Utilities." EPA 817-K-15-001. February 2015 at PDF page 67.
- 57 U.S. Global Change Research Program (USGCRP). "Impacts, Risks, and Adaptations in the United States: Fourth Climate Assessment, Volume II." 2018 at 154 to 155.
- 58 U.S. Government Accountability Office (GAO). "Water Infrastructure. Technical Assistance and Climate Resilience Planning Could Help Utilities Prepare for Potential Climate Change Impacts." GAO-20-24. January 2020 at 2, 17 and 61.
- 59 Heyn, Kavita and Whitney Winsor. Portland Water Bureau. "Climate Risks to Water Utility Built Assets and Infrastructure." September 30, 2015 at 7, 10 and 16.
- 60 GAO. "Drinking Water and Wastewater Infrastructure: Information on Identified Needs, Planning for Future Conditions, and Coordination of Project Funding." GAO-17-559. September 2017 at 22; National Association of Clean Water Agencies (NACWA) and Association of Metropolitan Water Agencies (AMWA). "Confronting Climate Change: An Early Analysis of Water and Wastewater Adaptation Costs." October 2009 at ES-6.
- 61 Mack, Elizabeth A. and Sarah Wrase. "A Burgeoning Crisis? A Nationwide Assessment of the Geography of Water Affordability in the United States." *PLOS ONE*, Vol. 12, Iss. 4. January 2017 at 2; NACWA and AMWA (2009) at ES-7.
- 62 UN-Water. "Coping With Water Scarcity. Challenge of the Twenty-First Century." March 22, 2007 at 15.
- 63 National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA). Global Climate Change. "2018 fourth warmest year in continued warming trend, according to NASA, NOAA." February 6, 2019.
- 64 Fountain, Henry. "The hurricanes, and climate-change questions, keep coming. Yes, they're linked." *New York Times*. October 10, 2018.
- 65 Copeland, Claudia. CRS. "Hurricane-Damaged Drinking Water and Wastewater Facilities: Impacts, Needs, and Response." September 29, 2005 at CRS-1.
- 66 *Ibid.* at CRS-2.
- 67 Chisolm, Elizabeth I. and John C. Matthews. "Impact of hurricanes and flooding on buried infrastructure." *Leadership and Management in Engineering*. Vol. 12, Iss. 3. July 2012 at 153.
- 68 Copeland (2005) at CRS-3.
- 69 Matthews, John C. "Disaster Resilience of Critical Water Infrastructure Systems." *Journal of Structural Engineering*. Vol. 142, Iss. 8. August 2016 at C6015001-3.
- 70 Chisolm and Matthews (2012) at 152 to 155.
- 71 Office of Mayor LaToya Cantrell. [Press release]. "City, sewerage and water board provide statement on observed flooding." May 12, 2019; Childs, Jana Wesner. "New Orleans streets flood in up to 5 inches of rain." *Weather Channel*. August 26, 2019.
- 72 Phillip, Abby. "White people in New Orleans say they're better off after Katrina. Black people don't." *Washington Post*. August 24, 2015.
- 73 *Ibid.*
- 74 *Ibid.*
- 75 Schwirtz, Michael. "Report cites large release of sewage from Hurricane Sandy." *New York Times*. April 30, 2013.
- 76 *Ibid.*
- 77 "Water conservation essential in Sandy aftermath, say health officials." *New York Daily News*. October 31, 2012.
- 78 *Ibid.*
- 79 New York Department of Health. "Drinking Water Advisories Following Hurricane Sandy." Available at <https://www.health.ny.gov/environmental/water/drinking/boilwater/sandy/>. Accessed December 2019.
- 80 New Jersey Department of Community Affairs. "New Jersey Five Years Post-Sandy." October 2017 at 111.
- 81 *Ibid.*
- 82 Johnson, Tom. "Hurricane Sandy leaves state with \$2.6B tab for water infrastructure." *NJ Spotlight*. April 10, 2013; New Jersey Department of Environmental Protection, Office of Science. Prepared for Hurricane Sandy Natural & Cultural Resource Workgroup. "Damage Assessment Report on the Effects of Hurricane Sandy on the State of New Jersey's Natural Resources." May 2015 at 1.
- 83 Blake, Eric S. and David A. Zelinsky. NOAA. National Weather Service. "National Hurricane Center Tropical Cyclone Report. Hurricane Harvey." AL092017. May 9, 2018 at 1
- 84 *Ibid.*; Landsman, Matthew R. et al. "Impacts of Hurricane Harvey on drinking water quality in two Texas cities." *Environmental Research Letters*. December 9, 2019 at 1.
- 85 Landsman et al. (2019) at 1.
- 86 Chappell, Bill. "Harvey leaves challenges in Texas, from drinking water to rent payments." *NPR*. September 1, 2017; Landsman et al. (2019) at 1.
- 87 Bajak, Frank and Lise Olsen. "Hurricane Harvey's toxic impact deeper than public told." *Associated Press and Houston Chronicle*. March 23, 2018.
- 88 *Ibid.*
- 89 *Ibid.*
- 90 *Ibid.*
- 91 Graham, Dave and Robin Respaut. "In storm-ravaged Puerto Rico, drinking water in short supply." *Reuters*. September 27, 2017.
- 92 *Ibid.*
- 93 *Ibid.*
- 94 *Ibid.*
- 95 "Puerto Ricans scramble for food and water 3 weeks after Maria." *CNN*. October 13, 2017; Graham and Respaut (2017).
- 96 Greenwood, Max. "EPA tells Puerto Ricans not to drink water from hazardous waste sites." *The Hill*. October 12, 2017.
- 97 Graham and Respaut (2017).
- 98 *Ibid.*
- 99 Hoegh-Guldberg, O. et al. Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC). "2018: Impacts of 1.5°C Global Warming on Natural and Human Systems. In: Global Warming of 1.5°C. An IPCC Special Report on the impacts of global warming of 1.5°C above pre-industrial levels and related global greenhouse gas emission pathways, in the context of strengthening the global response to the threat of climate change, sustainable development, and efforts to eradicate poverty." 2018 at 213; UN-Water. "Water Security & the Global Water Agenda." October 2013 at 2.
- 100 Hoegh-Guldberg et al. (2018) at 213.
- 101 UN-Water. "Water Scarcity." September 2018 at 2.
- 102 Hoegh-Guldberg et al. (2018) at 213; UN-Water (2018) at 2.
- 103 Hofste, Rutger Willem et al. World Resources Institute. "17 countries, home to one-quarter of the world's population, face extremely high water stress." August 6, 2019.
- 104 GAO. "Freshwater: Supply Concerns Continue, and Uncertainties Complicate Planning." GAO-14-430. May 2014 at 28.
- 105 Hofste et al. (2019); Holden, Emily. "US states face water crisis as global heating increases strain on supplies." *The Guardian*. August 6, 2019.

Why We Need Food & Water Action on Climate Change

- 106 Hofste et al. (2019); Holden (2019).
- 107 Johnson, Renee and Betsy A. Cody. CRS. "California Agricultural Production and Irrigated Water Use." June 30, 2015 at Summary and 1; Pathak et al. (2018) at 1 and 2; Lahmers, Timothy and Susanna Eden. University of Arizona. College of Agriculture & Life Sciences Cooperative Extension. "Water and Irrigated Agriculture in Arizona." June 2018 at 1 and 2.
- 108 Kundzewicz, Z. W. et al. (2007). "Freshwater resources and their management." *Climate Change 2007: Impacts, Adaptation and Vulnerability. Contribution of Working Group II to the Fourth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, U.K. at 175 to 176.
- 109 *Ibid.* at 175 to 176.
- 110 *Ibid.* at 175, 176, 178 and 185; Pacific Institute and UN Global Compact. "Climate Change and the Global Water Crisis: What Businesses Need to Know and Do." May 2009 at 2.
- 111 USGCRP (2018) at 91.
- 112 EPA. "Climate Ready Water Utilities: Adaptation Strategies Guide for Water Utilities." EPA 817-K-15-001. February 2015 at PDF page 67.
- 113 *Ibid.*
- 114 UN-Water (2007) at 10.
- 115 GAO. Center for Science, Technology, and Engineering. Report to Congressional Requestors. "Technology Assessment. Municipal Freshwater Scarcity: Using Technology to Improve Distribution System Efficiency and Tap Nontraditional Water Sources." GAO-16-474. April 2016 at 9.
- 116 UN-Water (2007) at 10.
- 117 Kundzewicz et al. (2007) at 175 and 176.
- 118 Pacific Institute and UN Global Compact (2009) at 2; Frumkin, Howard. "Urban Sprawl and Public Health." *Public Health Reports*, Vol. 117. May-June 2002 at 206; Odefey, Jeffrey et al. American Rivers, American Society of Landscape Architects, ECONorthwest, Water Environment Federation. "Banking on Green: A Look at How Green Infrastructure Can Save Municipalities Money and Provide Economic Benefits Community-wide." April 2012 at 2.
- 119 Roth, Sammy. "Hurricane Harvey floodwaters brimming with raw sewage, toxic chemicals." *The Desert Sun*. September 5, 2017.
- 120 IPCC (2007). "Frequently Asked Questions." *Climate Change 2007: The Physical Science Basis. Contribution of Working Group I to the Fourth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, U.K. and New York, NY, at 105 to 111.
- 121 Schlesinger, William H. "Climate Change." *Interpretation*. Vol. 65, Iss. 4. October 2011 at 385.
- 122 Kundzewicz et al. (2007) at 175 and 179.
- 123 Schlesinger (2011) at 384.
- 124 Emelko, Monica B. et al. "Implications of land disturbance on drinking water treatability in a changing climate: Demonstrating the need for 'source water supply and protection' strategies." *Water Research*. Vol. 45, Iss. 2. January 2011 at 463 to 467.
- 125 Michalak, Anna M. "Study role of climate change in extreme threats to water quality." *Nature*. Vol. 535, Iss. 7612. July 19, 2016 at 349 to 350; Wilson, Robyn et al. "Improving nutrient management practices in agriculture: The role of risk-based beliefs in understanding farmers' attitudes toward taking additional action." *Water Resources Research*. Vol. 50. August 22, 2014 at 6735; Magnien, Robert. Director of Center for Sponsored Coastal Ocean Research. NOAA. "Harmful Algal Blooms: Action Plans for Scientific Solutions." Hearing before Committee on Science and Technology Subcommittee on Energy and Environment. U.S. House of Representatives. June 1, 2011 at 13, 17 and 18.
- 126 EPA. "Impacts of Climate Change on the Occurrence of Harmful Algal Blooms." EPA 820-S-13-001. May 2013 at 1.
- 127 *Ibid.*
- 128 Brooks, Bryan W. et al. "Are harmful algal blooms becoming the greatest inland water quality threat to public health and aquatic ecosystems?" *Environmental Toxicology and Chemistry*. Vol. 35, No.1. January 2016 at 8.
- 129 Vermeulen et al. (2012) at Figure 2 on C-2 and 200; Boden, Tom et al. Carbon Dioxide Information Analysis Center, Oak Ridge National Laboratory, Research Institute for Environment and Energy and Economics, Appalachian State University. "Ranking of the world's countries by 2014 total CO2 emissions from fossil-fuel burning, cement production, and gas flaring. Emissions (CO2_TOT) are expressed in thousand metric tons of carbon (not CO2)." Available at <https://cdiac.ess-dive.lbl.gov/trends/emis/top2014.tot>. Accessed June 2019.
- 130 FAO (2018) at 2.
- 131 NACWA and AWMA (2009) at ES-1 and ES-8.
- 132 KPMG International. "Expect the Unexpected: Building Business Value in a Changing World." 2012 at 8 to 10.
- 133 NOAA. [Press release]. "2019 was 2nd hottest year on record for Earth say NOAA, NASA." January 15, 2020.
- 134 IPCC. "Frequently asked questions." 2018 at 7; Hoegh-Guldberg et al. (2018) at 61, 177 and 447; Schär, Christoph. "The worst heat waves to come." *Nature Climate Change*. Vol. 6. February 2016 at 128 to 129.
- 135 Hoegh-Guldberg et al. (2018) at 95; Figueres, Christiana et al. "Three years to safeguard our climate." *Nature*. Vol. 546. June 2017 at 594 and 595; Institute for Agriculture and Trade Policy. [Fact sheet]. "Big meat and dairy's supersized climate footprint." November 7, 2017.
- 136 Arneeth, Almut et al. IPCC. [Summary for Policymakers.] "Climate Change and Land: An IPCC Special Report on Climate Change, Desertification, Land Degradation, Sustainable Land Management, Food Security, and Greenhouse Gas Fluxes in Terrestrial Ecosystems." August 7, 2019 at 25 to 26 and 40 to 41.
- 137 Lehner, Peter and Nathan A. Rosenberg. "Legal pathways to carbon-neutral agriculture." *Environmental Law Reporter*. Vol. 47. 2017 at 14; DeLonge, Marcia S., Albie Miles and Liz Carlisle. "Investing in the transition to sustainable agriculture." *Environmental Science & Policy*. Vol. 55, Part 1. January 2016 at 267.
- 138 Lehner and Rosenberg (2017) at 16.
- 139 *Ibid.* at 17.

Food & Water Watch mobilizes regular people to build political power to move bold and uncompromised solutions to the most pressing food, water and climate problems of our time. We work to protect people's health, communities and democracy from the growing destructive power of the most powerful economic interests.



(202) 683-2500

foodandwaterwatch.org • info@fwwatch.org

Copyright © April 2020 Food & Water Watch