

1: Search Land For Sale In East Riding Of Yorkshire | OnTheMarket

Note: Citations are based on reference standards. However, formatting rules can vary widely between applications and fields of interest or study. The specific requirements or preferences of your reviewing publisher, classroom teacher, institution or organization should be applied.

Creation, "edit] Division of Germany[edit] Occupation zone borders in Germany, Berlin is the multinational area within the Soviet zone. Soviet leader Joseph Stalin favored the maintenance of German unity, but supported its division among the Allied powers, a view that he reiterated at Potsdam. It was also decided that a "Committee on Dismemberment of Germany" was to be set up. The purpose was to decide whether Germany was to be divided into several nations, and if so, what borders and inter-relationships the new German states were to have. Economic demilitarization however especially the stripping of industrial equipment was the responsibility of each zone individually. The city of Berlin was placed under the control of the four powers. The German territory east of the Oder-Neisse line, equal in size to the Soviet occupation zone, was handed over to Poland and the Soviet Union for de facto annexation. This territory transfer was seen as a compensation for Nazi German military occupation of Poland and parts of the Soviet Union. The millions of Germans still remaining in these areas under the Potsdam Agreement were over a period of several years expelled and replaced by Polish settlers see Expulsion of Germans after World War II. Soviets raped an estimated two million women and girls in East Germany alone immediately after occupation. Each occupation power assumed rule in its zone by June. The powers originally pursued a common German policy, focused on denazification and demilitarization in preparation for the restoration of a democratic German nation-state. According to Soviet Foreign Ministry data, Soviet troops, organised in specialised "trophy" battalions, removed 1. By the end of the US had dismantled or destroyed all war-related manufacturing capability in its occupation zone. Under the terms of the agreement the Soviet Union would in return ship raw materials such as food and timber to the western zones. When the Soviets did not fulfil their side of the agreement, the US temporarily halted shipments east, and they were never resumed. It was later shown that although utilized for cold war propaganda reasons, the main reason for halting shipments east was not the behavior of the USSR but rather the recalcitrant behavior of France. Sowjetische Aktiengesellschaften -SAG- were formed. Agrarian reforms[edit] The agrarian reform Bodenreform expropriated all land belonging to owners of more than hectares of land as well as former Nazis and war criminals and generally limited ownership to 1 square kilometre 0. State farms were also set up, called Volkseigenes Gut State-owned Property. The division of Germany was made clear with the currency reform of 20 June, which was limited to the western zones. Three days later a separate currency reform was introduced in the Soviet zone. The introduction of the Deutsche Mark to the western sectors of Berlin, against the will of the Soviet supreme commander, led the Soviet Union to introduce the Berlin Blockade to try to gain control of the whole of Berlin. The Western Allies decided to supply Berlin via an airbridge. This lasted 11 months until the Soviet Union lifted the blockade on 12 May. Political developments[edit] An SMAD decree of June 10 allowed the formation of antifascist democratic political parties in the Soviet zone; elections to new state legislatures were scheduled for October. The Berlin SPD managed to preserve its independence and, running on its own, polled. However, voters were only allowed to approve or reject slates of candidates drawn from the so-called anti-fascist coalition. According to official results, two-thirds of voters approved the unity lists. The SED modelled itself as a Soviet-style "party of the new type". According to the Leninist principle of democratic centralism, each party body was controlled by its members. Ulbricht, as party chief, carried out the will of the members of his party. Many former members of the SPD and some communist advocates of a social-democratic road to socialism were purged from the SED. Incidentally, the party system was designed to allow reentry of only those former NSDAP adherents who had earlier decided to join the National Front, which was originally formed by emigrants and prisoners of war in the Soviet Union during World War II. Political denazification in the Soviet zone was thus handled rather more transparently than in the Western zones, where the issue soon came second to considerations of practicality or even just privacy. Wilhelm Pieck, a party leader, was elected first

president. On October 9, the Soviet Union withdrew her East Berlin headquarters, and subsequently it outwardly surrendered the functions of the military government to the new German state. The SED controlled the National Front coalition, a federation of all political parties and mass organizations that preserved political pluralism. The Volkskammer, according to the East German constitution the highest state body, was vested with legislative sovereignty. The SED controlled the Council of Ministers and reduced the legislative function of the Volkskammer to that of acclamation. Election to the Volkskammer and the state legislatures later replaced by district legislatures was based on a joint ballot prepared by the National Front: All members of the SED who were active in state organs carried out party resolutions. The First Five-Year Plan 1955 introduced centralized state planning; it stressed high production quotas for heavy industry and increased labor productivity. The pressures of the plan caused an exodus of East German citizens to West Germany. In the conference a new economic policy was adopted, "Planned Construction of Socialism". The plan called to strengthen the state-owned sector of the economy, further to implement the principles of uniform socialist planning, and to use the economic laws of socialism systematically. The churches, while nominally assured of religious freedom, were, nevertheless, subjected to considerable pressure. There were also other indications of opposition, even from within the government itself. In the fall of several prominent members of the SED were expelled and arrested as "saboteurs" or "for lacking trust in the Soviet Union. At the end of the draft of a new family code was published which aimed at destroying all parental influence. In monthly emigration figures fluctuated between 11, and 17, By an average of 37, men, women, and children were leaving each month. The uprising of June [edit] Main article: Uprising of in East Germany Stalin died in March The SED, in addition to shifting emphasis from heavy industry to consumer goods, initiated a program for alleviating economic hardships. This led to a reduction of delivery quotas and taxes, the availability of state loans to private business, and an increase in the allocation of production material. While the New Course increased the consumer goods workers could get, there were still high production quotas. When work quotas were raised in , it led to the Uprising. Strikes and demonstrations happened in major industrial centers. The workers demanded economic reforms. The Volkspolizei and the Soviet Army suppressed the uprising, in which approximately participants were killed. By this time, reparations payments had been completed, and the SAGs had been restored to East German ownership. The five states formerly constituting the Soviet occupation zone also had been dissolved and replaced by fifteen districts Bezirke in ; the United States, Britain, and France did not recognize the fifteenth district, East Berlin. According to its terms the German Democratic Republic was henceforth "free to decide questions of its internal and foreign policy, including its relations with the German Federal Republic as well as with other states. The two governments would strengthen the economic, scientific-technical, and cultural relations between them and would consult with each other on questions affecting their interests. Economic policy, 1975[edit] Collectivization and nationalization of agriculture and industry, 1963[edit] Economic activity in the GDR. Around this time, an academic intelligentsia within the SED leadership demanded reform. To this end, Wolfgang Harich issued a platform advocating radical changes in East Germany. In late , he and his associates were quickly purged from the SED ranks and imprisoned. The plan employed the slogan "modernization, mechanization, and automation" to emphasize the new focus on technological progress. At the plenum, the regime announced its intention to develop nuclear energy, and the first nuclear reactor in East Germany was activated in The Second Five-Year Plan committed East Germany to accelerated efforts toward agricultural collectivization and nationalization and completion of the nationalization of the industrial sector. In 1959 the SED placed quotas on private farmers and sent teams to villages in an effort to encourage voluntary collectivization. An extensive economic management reform by the SED in February included the transfer of a large number of industrial ministries to the State Planning Commission. In order to accelerate the nationalization of industry, the SED offered entrepreneurs percent partnership incentives for transforming their firms into VEBs. Emigration again increased, totaling , in and , in The labour drain exceeded a total of 2. New Economic System, 1970[edit] Main article: New Economic System The annual industrial growth rate declined steadily after The Soviet Union therefore recommended that East Germany implement the reforms of Soviet economist Evsei Liberman, an advocate of the principle of profitability and other market principles for communist economies. The NES aimed at creating an efficient

economic system and transforming East Germany into a leading industrial nation. Under the NES, the task of establishing future economic development was assigned to central planning. The central planning authorities set overall production goals, but each VVB determined its own internal financing, utilization of technology, and allocation of manpower and resources. The NES stipulated that production decisions be made on the basis of profitability, that salaries reflect performance, and that prices respond to supply and demand. The NES brought forth a new elite in politics as well as in management of the economy, and in Ulbricht announced a new policy regarding admission to the leading ranks of the SED. Ulbricht opened the Politburo and the Central Committee to younger members who had more education than their predecessors and who had acquired managerial and technical skills. As a consequence of the new policy, the SED elite became divided into political and economic factions, the latter composed of members of the new technocratic elite. Because of the emphasis on professionalization in the SED cadre policy after 1961, the composition of the mass membership changed: The SED emphasis on managerial and technical competence also enabled members of the technocratic elite to enter the top echelons of the state bureaucracy, formerly reserved for political dogmatists. Managers of the VVBs were chosen on the basis of professional training rather than ideological conformity. Within the individual enterprises, the number of professional positions and jobs for the technically skilled increased. The SED stressed education in managerial and technical sciences as the route to social advancement and material rewards. In addition, it promised to raise the standard of living for all citizens. From 1961 until 1964, real wages increased, and the supply of consumer goods, including luxury items, improved much. Ulbricht in 1964 launched a spirited campaign to convince the Comecon states to intensify their economic development "by their own means. Overall, centralized planning was reintroduced in the so-called structure-determining areas, which included electronics, chemicals, and plastics. Industrial combines were formed to integrate vertically industries involved in the manufacture of vital final products. Price subsidies were restored to accelerate growth in favored sectors.

2: USDA - National Agricultural Statistics Service Homepage

Agricultural price policies in the Near East: lessons of experience. 7. Agricultural price policies in the Near East: lessons of experience. Print book: English.

This presence will lead to promotion of the development and application of technology that improves yield, reduces risk and is environmentally sustainable. For crops this involves extending the area under irrigation wherever economically feasible and sustainable, improving water resources management, breeding and use of high, yet stable, yielding varieties and optimal use of fertilizers. For livestock it involves integration with crop production, optimal use of natural grazing, forage crops and crop by-products, improved breeding management and animal health measures. Nevertheless attention is still needed through more training and extension programmes in these areas and through strengthening and expanding post-harvest food storage facilities and documentation services. Biotechnology has great potential to influence and benefit agriculture, forestry and fisheries. Modern techniques of biotechnology offer the potential of moving any cloned gene from any organism into any other organism and confer much greater precision and speed in achieving results as compared to conventional techniques. In conjunction with conventional technologies, modern biotechnology holds promise of increased and sustained productivity, efficient processing for improved product diversification and utilization, adaptation of product quality to functional requirements, and decreased reliance on agrochemicals and other external inputs. It may also promote better conservation and use of genetic resources, and environmentally friendly management of natural resources. However, the number of marketable products and their influence at the farm level still seems to be limited, but is likely to increase in the next decade. Biotechnology also poses certain challenges. These are largely determined by how, where and when it finds application. In general, the fast-paced research, predominantly funded by private-sector investment and use of intellectual property rights in industrialized countries are seen as evidence that the application of biotechnology will hold the key to competitiveness and comparative advantage in many fields, including agriculture and food. Biotechnology, with its vast potential and challenges, is thus of the utmost importance to agricultural development. However, the application of biotechnology tools in the development process requires preconditions which hardly exist in most the countries of the Near East. Therefore, one of the major concerns of the countries of the Region is the development of more capacities and expertise in this area. Knowledge and information are increasingly becoming the key factors of production and exchange, and this has major implications for developing countries. The innovations are so numerous and radical that they are deeply affecting competition, social organizations, institutions, materials, and even life itself. In electronic information processing, performance per unit cost has doubled every two to three years since the start of the computer revolution Dahlman In the life sciences, the increased ability to measure, analyze, and model living processes allows opening new possibilities to agriculture. The most immediate consequence of these developments is to increase the speed of production and product development. This in turn is leading to a revolution in business practices. Time and speed are now more central to competitive success, providing an advantage to producers with the best links to the markets and the greatest flexibility. In addition, the continuing rapid decline in the costs of transporting information and goods due to advances in telecommunications and the use of information technology have led to the growing irrelevance of the boundaries of geography and even of time, unifying national economies in a fast-moving, highly interdependent world economy. The capacity of the Near East Region to absorb new technologies is greater now than it has ever been due to the continuing rise of educational levels in comparison to Africa and to the younger and more adaptable populations The Region has relatively high educational level in comparison to Africa. This is particularly true as far as the availability of large pool of expertise in agriculture. Many countries of the Region are also better integrated than before into the advanced science and engineering education systems of the most technologically-dynamic countries. Added to this are ongoing improvements in production and design know how obtained through prolonged experience of working with and for export markets and multinational enterprises. Advances in telecommunications and informatics are globalizing labour

markets and permitting workers from developing countries to export service inputs to production processes in developed country markets. In the Sudan, the use of satellite remote sensing after the drought allowed the government to assess the acreage and conditions of crops. The countries of the Region are pursuing this in different degrees, speeds and sequences. The private sector, supported by Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs), is expected to have a larger role in the development process. Most governments in the Near East Region seek to provide a broad range of social and other public goods to promote both economic and social development. The Region has made significant progress over the past decades in extending education and health care, water, and public infrastructure. Against these signs of progress, however, stands evidence of enduring weaknesses in public services, precisely at a time when burgeoning populations and increasingly limited public resources are straining existing services and even threatening to reverse past gains. Good public services require good public governance, especially stronger accountability. And public accountability is precisely the area where the NE Region falls short. The first is to enlist citizens in monitoring and even managing agencies providing public services, since they are in a better position to judge quality and effectiveness. Governments can move in this direction by using feedback surveys to allow users to grade agencies, by enhancing the transparency and client focus of their e-government initiatives, by allowing different service providers to compete, by decentralizing more services to local agencies or governments, and by designing participatory processes that give citizens a direct say in public services. The second is to expand public participation in government generally, directly through competitive elections and indirectly through a broader array of consultations and public debate. Such participation puts pressure on policymakers, whether in the executive or the legislature, to pay attention to public service issues, to adopt policies that improve quality and coverage, and to strengthen administrative accountability systems. Overall, increasing such participation is one of the greatest governance challenges facing this Region, and any Region with a legacy of limited public disclosure and restrictions on the media and public debate. But addressing this governance challenge is the only way for NE governments to continue building on past achievements in delivering public services, and in meeting the growing shortfall in ensuring appropriate public services for the next generation. Most countries of the Region especially the Mediterranean ones have strong economic ties with Europe. The core element of this agreement is the creation of bilateral free trade areas between each of the Near East countries and the EU by the year 2000. Agricultural goods are exempted from the free trade commitment but are subject to preferential trade rules. This means that for particular products tariff reductions are applied, limited to fixed quantities and certain periods of the year in many cases. For the Near East Region, the EU is the principle trading partner, regarding imports as well as exports. Access to EU markets is therefore of central importance to the countries of the Near East. These figures indicate that in relative terms the EU is a much more important trade partner for the Near East countries on their export side than on the side of their imports. The composition of agricultural exports to the EU also differs widely from country to country. Fish is important only in the case of Algeria, Morocco and Tunisia. Fruits and vegetables are important export products in trade with the EU for all of the NE countries except Syria and Lebanon. Production of fruits and vegetable and trade with EU is expected to increase further in future as the growing scarcity of water may drive many countries to shift further to the production of fruits and vegetable, which have a relatively high return to water use. Cities in the Near East have grown and continue to grow. In the year 2000 nearly two billion people lived in cities all over the world, and by this figure will have more than doubled. Due to recent implementation of the economic reform programmes including privatization and measures to reduce Government expenditure affecting earning capacity of labourers. Meanwhile, as cities expand so do the food needs of urban families. In most cities poverty rates are 30 percent and rising, consequently more and more people have difficulty in accessing the food they need. Protecting and promoting the food security of urban populations is therefore becoming an increasing concern for Governments in the countries of the Region. The last few years have witnessed the crises of mad cow disease in British cattle and dioxin in foodstuffs produced in Belgium. This has caused a lot of disruption to international trade. In November 2000, Spain banned imports of fresh citrus fruit from Argentina and Brazil. The Ministry of Agriculture said that inspections of fruit from these countries had shown a higher incidence of exotic organisms, including one that causes citrus canker. In the Near East Region, few countries

have been the subject of bans from developed countries imposed on their food exports. Iranian pistachios were banned from the EU and the Japanese markets because of their high content of aflatoxin. Egyptian peanuts have also been the subject of similar ban from the EU because of their high content in aflatoxin, while Egyptian potatoes underwent a ban because of brown rot. In both cases the economic loss for Egypt was big. Food control systems in most of the NE countries are far from ideal. Many of the countries have not yet comprehensive and self-contained food legislation, which would meet the present day requirements in this field. The UAE and Jordan have recently updated and strengthened their food control infrastructure and introduced the risk based system in their food control set-ups for both domestic and imported food consignments. Egypt now is reviewing and up-dating its food standards in harmony with the Codex Alimentarius. Food control legislation is also being up-dated in the line with WTO agreements. Food inspection services vary greatly from one country to another. In most countries, analytical service facilities are only adequate for simple routine analysis and as a consequence the food control service, at least in certain aspects, is minimal. In presence of comprehensive food legislation, and adequate inspection and analytical service, the success of a food control service in providing adequate and effective protection to the consumer as well as the import and export service is dependent on an overall proper administration, capable of overseeing, programming and directing the food control activities. However, complying with these agreements might not be always easy for many of the countries in the Region because this requires human, technical and financial resources that could be lacking. The movement is strongly developed especially in Europe. From the 20ties to the 80ties it was a prerogative of a small group of farmers but it has significantly expanded during the last decades as result of the increasing public awareness. Originally, organic farming was a sector of agriculture that developed to a large extent independently of governmental influence. Within the last few years, public interest in organic farming practices and products has been continually growing in response to increase environmental and health problems e. BSE linked to conventional farming systems. The main motivation for people, in the Western society to consume organic products will remain the assumed positive ecological impact of organic agriculture versus the known negative impact of conventional agriculture. In the Near East Region, under the pressure of globalization many countries have liberalized their economy. This has led to public budget declining and forced governments to re-structure their economy even those with high crude oil returns. The agriculture sector was deeply affected by this movement and since that relevant policy in Near East have been seeking to increase their earning from export. Public structures, institutions have to lay down developmental strategies export oriented and encourage the private sector to play a greater role in agriculture sector. This trend has given in some countries of the Region Tunisia, Egypt an impulse to the introduction and development of organic agriculture. However, some specialists in Region do not feel that organic farming is able to respond to food security concerns. This attitude denotes their reservation and is likely to limit their motivation for policy changes to support organic agriculture. Although the Region has a great potential for organic agriculture i. Safety net programmes are designed to ensure ongoing viability of the farm business by reducing fluctuations in farm income. Producers today face an agricultural economy that is radically different from that which existed just a few years ago. Furthermore, the changes occurring in agriculture are continuing to escalate, resulting in both new opportunities and challenges. One of the foremost challenges is an environment that requires new and improved risk management tools and knowledge. There are many risk management tools that could be available to farmers to reduce the risk of unpredictable decreases in farm income. However, these risk management strategies cannot be considered in isolation. For example, there are some alternative private risk management strategies a producer can implement such as forward contracting, futures and options, etc. Agricultural Policy decision makers and analysts in some countries of the Near East Region including Egypt, Turkey, Tunisia and Morocco have started to discuss government run risk management tools and the programmes currently available to farmers in developed countries. These programmes attempt to reduce the impact of unexpected drops in income due to output price fluctuations, input cost increases and physical losses in commodity production.

3: Agricultural price policies in the Near East: lessons and experience - CORE

Agricultural Policy decision makers and analysts in some countries of the Near East Region including Egypt, Turkey, Tunisia and Morocco have started to discuss government run risk management tools and the programmes currently available to farmers in developed countries.

Current issues in agricultural development The country: The second most populous African country after Nigeria, Ethiopia has a population of The main characteristic of the climate is its erratic rainfall patterns. The southwest highlands receive the highest average rainfall, while precipitation decreases towards the northeast and the east. Even in areas with a high mean annual rainfall, the variations can be extreme. Disaster management in Ethiopia: Drought was at the root of at least ten famine episodes in the last 40 years which have affected large areas and significant portions of the population. In the last 20 years, the most serious droughts in terms of human suffering were those of and In terms of area under cultivation, cereals teff, maize, barley, wheat are the major crop category, followed by pulses horse beans, chickpeas, haricot beans and oilseeds mainly neug and linseed. Coffee is the main export accounting for The average farm size is estimated to be between 1 and 1. The overall growth of GDP during the s and s 1. Economic policies affecting agriculture The search for proximate causes of both agricultural and general economic stagnation in Ethiopia since the mids leads to a set of interrelated structural constraints and policy factors. In addition to the harsh agroclimatic conditions, inadequate and poorly maintained infrastructure, environmental degradation and inadequate technology have contributed to the decline of agriculture. At the policy level, macroeconomic and sector-specific policies have contributed to the creation of a negative environment for agricultural growth. The rise to power of the revolutionary government in marked the beginning of an era of tight direct government controls on the production and distribution systems. A brief description of the policies implemented as well as their effects help explain the nature and magnitude of the problems facing Ethiopia today. In Ethiopia, macroeconomic policies have traditionally been characterized by prudent fiscal management. The fiscal deficit was kept at an average of 7 percent of GDP for most years between and , with the exception of drought years. An aggressive policy of fiscal receipts prevented the deficits from ballooning. The budgetary effects of external shocks were mitigated by foreign disaster-relief flows. In general, foreign flows of grants and loans left about half the deficit to be financed internally. As the government avoided recourse to inflationary financing, average inflation was kept close to 9 percent during the 17 years ending in While a macroeconomic balance and price stability are necessary for growth, Ethiopia is an example of how these two factors may not be sufficient. Public fixed investment expenditure grew by almost 16 percent annually after , while recurrent expenditure grew by 5 percent. It was chiefly channelled towards directly productive activities mainly in manufacturing and public utilities , which often had questionable efficiency performances. During the s, 30 percent of real capital outlays were devoted to agriculture including state farms and land settlement and only 15 percent to infrastructure transport and communications. II - statistical annex. An aggressive revenue policy brought total fiscal revenues from 20 to 29 percent of GDP in the s. Tax collection was divided evenly among domestic indirect taxes, business profit taxes and taxes on foreign trade. Taxes on coffee exports amounted to 30 to 40 percent of the f. Profits made by the lucrative state enterprises mainly airways, mining and shipping constituted an increasing share of total revenues. Occasionally, emergency levies and surcharges were imposed. Institutional constraints on private business activity, for example a ceiling of 0. High levels of deposits could be attracted at low interest rates forced savings and they were, in turn, mobilized for financing the domestic deficit. As a result, 85 to 90 percent of domestic financing came from the banking system. On the expenditure side, the relative neglect of infrastructure and less than optimum public investment allocation in agriculture weakened the overall productivity of the economy. Likewise, the emphasis on security in the recurrent budget and the maintenance of uneconomical projects further aggravated the situation. Furthermore, non-inflationary financing of the budget deficit was achieved at the expense of private investment opportunities. Thus, overall domestic balance was achieved but basic sources of productivity and growth were neglected or suppressed. Agricultural sector policies Between and , the agricultural policy environment as well

as that of the economy as a whole can be divided in three periods: In March , the government announced sweeping changes in the structure of land tenure and labour relations in rural areas. The major elements of the law Proclamation 31 of were: Individual farm units were organized in peasant associations PAs which allocated and reallocated land among households, collected taxes and production quotas and organized voluntary labour for public works. The PAs, in turn, formed service cooperatives SCs which carried out supply, marketing and extension functions. A number of large state farms were also established. Despite efforts directed towards the "socialization" of agriculture, the structure of production basically remained private because peasants strongly resisted integration in PCs. By , the share of individual peasant holdings in total cultivated land was around 94 percent, with the remainder divided between PCs 2. The allocation of public resources between the socialized and the non-socialized sectors was not proportionate to their importance, with the bulk of financial resources, modern inputs and extension personnel allocated to the socialized sector whose productivity performance often did not justify this disproportionate allocation. By , one-third of the rural population had been transferred to villages. In , in the wake of the drought, the campaign to resettle peasants from drought-stricken areas to uncultivated lands was intensified. Poor organization and settler selection transformed the scheme into an extremely costly project which required continuous subsidies in order to survive. Pricing and marketing policies also reflected the tendency towards heavy state control. The Agricultural Marketing Corporation AMC was responsible for wholesale domestic procurement of grains, oilseeds and pulses and for cereal imports. The AMC was responsible for collecting all the marketable produce from PCs and state farms and required individual farms to deliver a quota based on their assessed capacity to produce a marketable surplus. From , a pan-territorial pricing system was in effect for the quotas, with procurement prices remaining fixed until when they were increased by 7. Even after their increase in , procurement prices for teff, wheat and barley were, respectively, 37, 61 and 45 percent of free market prices. There were intermittent bans on private trading in major producing regions until In addition, private traders were obliged to sell the AMC a share of their purchases ranging between 50 to percent at br 4 to br 5 more than the price paid to farmers. The functioning of the public procurement system created a market "dualism". On one side, there was the public distribution system which delivered to mills, hospitals, urban associations kebeles , educational institutions and the army. On the other, there were poorly integrated free markets where grains and pulses were sold at substantially higher prices. Exports of pulses and oilseeds, coffee and livestock were also handled by parastatals. Livestock products for export were procured at market prices while domestic trade was free. Coffee farmgate prices have been kept low at 35 to 45 percent of their f. The reforms of Faced with economic stagnation and mounting social problems, in the government initiated a programme of economic reforms aimed at liberalizing the economic system. The government pointed to the following causes for the economic stagnation: In response to the diagnosis above, the government endorsed and started implementing a series of measures, including increases in price incentives as well as institutional reforms. Official procurement prices were increased and crop quotas for delivery to the AMC were reduced. Price incentives for coffee were improved substantially. The number of licensed traders was increased, interregional restrictions on the movement of agricultural produce was abolished. Participation in PCs became voluntary and, by the end of , 95 percent of these cooperatives had disintegrated. Several PAs also disappeared. Another set of reforms was introduced in , liberalizing the foreign investment code, while plans existed to allow the hiring of rural labour. As the country plunged increasingly into civil strife, political instability and institutional disintegration, those policies were not put into effect. The post economic environment. It faced an economy that was devastated by the long period of civil strife, with low living standards and deteriorating infrastructure and social conditions. In addition to the deep-rooted problems of poverty in the country, there was the challenge of providing a livelihood for demobilized soldiers and their families as well as for a large number of war refugees and displaced civilians. Along with measures to establish peace and security in the country, a wide-ranging programme of economic and social reforms was introduced by the government with support from the donor community. On the macroeconomic side, the government devalued the birr from br 2. In agriculture, the government guaranteed use, lease and inheritance rights to land. In the transition period, land redistribution has stopped and the hiring of rural labour is now allowed. The TGE has announced that an

elected government should handle the land tenure issue by referendum. The AMC lost its monopoly power so most grain is now marketed by private traders and the quota system has been abolished. Since January , all export taxes have been abolished, with the exception of the coffee export tax. A 15 percent subsidy on fertilizer has been instituted as partial compensation for the effects of the devaluation. In the transport sector, trucking has been liberalized and there are plans to parcel and sell the government trucking company. The impact of policies on agriculture The effects of the policies both macroeconomic and sector-specific followed from to , especially those applied before , created an overall negative environment for agricultural growth, thereby contributing to the virtual stagnation of agricultural output. Institutional changes with respect to land caused a drastic reduction in the size of farms which often were not sufficient to support a household. Tenure uncertainty had serious environmental implications while the small size of the holdings and the lack of timely distribution of fertilizers and seeds exclusively distributed by the public sector have contributed to the stagnation of yields. For pulses and oilseeds at 0. There has been insufficient research on appropriate technologies and inputs seeds and fertilizers adapted to the agroclimatic conditions of the country. The Ethiopian Seed Corporation distributed about half of the 40 tonnes of seeds that were estimated to be needed by the traditional farm sector. The erratic distribution of seeds and a lack of extension services caused many farmers to rely on traditional seeds and refuse new varieties. The final objective was for 44 percent of the cultivated land to be allocated to individual farms, 49 percent to PCs and 7 percent to state farms. Although the plan was never implemented, its provisions - along with the uncertain land tenure system and the frequent land reallocations within PAs - created great uncertainty among individual farm households and acted as a disincentive to long-term investments by farmers as well as to sustainable farm practices. Furthermore, the marketing system was not conducive to the production of a marketing surplus, as low prices were paid for quota deliveries. Restrictions on interregional movements prevented the integration of deficit and surplus areas, a situation that was exacerbated by the poor condition of rural roads, tight controls on the transport and hauling system and the long distance of the majority of small peasant holdings from all-weather roads.

4: Agricultural price policies in the Near East : lessons of experience. (Book,) [www.enganchecubano.com]

*Agricultural Price Policies in the Near East: Lessons of Experience (Fao Economic & Social Development Paper) [Not Available] on www.enganchecubano.com *FREE* shipping on qualifying offers.*

Technical Information Art, science, and industry of managing the growth of plants and animals for human use. In a broad sense agriculture includes cultivation of the soil, growing and harvesting crops, breeding and raising of livestock, dairying, and forestry. Regional and national agriculture are covered in more detail in individual continent and country articles. See also separate articles on the states of Australia and the U. Modern agriculture depends heavily on engineering and technology and on the biological and physical sciences. Irrigation, drainage, conservation, and sanitation each of which is important in successful farming—are some of the fields requiring the specialized knowledge of agricultural engineers. Agricultural chemistry deals with other vital farm problems, such as uses of fertilizer, insecticide, and fungicide, soil makeup, analysis of agricultural products, and nutritional needs of farm animals. Plant breeding and genetics contribute immeasurably to farm productivity. Genetics has also placed livestock breeding on a scientific basis. Hydroponics, a method of soilless gardening in which plants are grown in chemical nutrient solutions, may solve additional agricultural problems. The packing, processing, and marketing of agricultural products are closely related activities also influenced by science. Methods of quick-freezing and dehydration have increased the markets for farm products. Mechanization, the outstanding characteristic of late 19th and 20th-century agriculture, has eased much of the backbreaking toil of the farmer. More significantly, mechanization has enormously increased farm efficiency and productivity. Airplanes and helicopters are employed in agriculture for such purposes as seeding, transporting perishable products, and fighting forest fires, and in spraying operations involved in insect and disease control. Radio and television disseminate vital weather reports and other information that is of concern to farmers. The most important are cereals such as wheat, rice, barley, corn, and rye; sugarcane and sugar beets; meat animals such as sheep, cattle, goats, and pigs or swine; poultry such as chickens, ducks, and turkeys; and such products as milk, cheese, eggs, nuts, and oils. Fruits, vegetables, and olives are also major foods for people; feed grains for animals include soybeans, field corn, and sorghum. Separate articles on individual plants and animals contain further information. Agricultural income is also derived from nonfood crops such as rubber, fiber plants, tobacco, and oilseeds used in synthetic chemical compounds, as well as raising animals for pelt. The conditions that determine what will be raised in an area include climate, water supply, and terrain. The distribution in the late s ranged from 64 percent of the economically active population in Africa to less than 4 percent in the U. Farm size varies widely from region to region. In the late s, the average for Canadian farms was about ha about acres per farm; for U. The average size of a single landholding in the Philippines, however, may be somewhat less than 3. Size also depends on the purpose of the farm. Commercial farming, or production for cash, is usually on large holdings. The latifundia of Latin America are large, privately owned estates worked by tenant labor. Single-crop plantations produce tea, rubber, and cocoa. Wheat farms are most efficient when they comprise some thousands of hectares and can be worked by teams of people and machines. Australian sheep stations and other livestock farms must be large to provide grazing for thousands of animals. The agricultural plots of Chinese communes and the cooperative farms held by Peruvian communities are other necessarily large agricultural units, as were the collective farms that were owned and operated by state employees in the former Soviet Union. Individual subsistence farms or small-family mixed-farm operations are decreasing in number in developed countries but are still numerous in the developing countries of Africa and Asia. A "back-to-the-land" movement in the U. Nomadic herders range over large areas in sub-Saharan Africa, Afghanistan, and Lapland; and herding is a major part of agriculture in such areas as Mongolia. Much of the foreign exchange earned by a country may be derived from a single commodity; for example, Sri Lanka depends on tea, Denmark specializes in dairy products, Australia in wool, and New Zealand and Argentina in meat products. The importance of an individual country as an exporter of agricultural products depends on many variables. Among them is the possibility that the country is too little developed industrially to produce

manufactured goods in sufficient quantity or technical sophistication. Such agricultural exporters include Ghana, with cocoa, and Burma Myanmar, with rice. On the other hand, an exceptionally well-developed country may produce surpluses that are not needed by its own population; such has been the case of the U. Because nations depend on agriculture not only for food but for national income and raw materials for industry as well, trade in agriculture is a constant international concern. It is regulated by international agreements such as the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade and by trading areas such as the European Community. According to the FAO, world agricultural production, stimulated by improving technology, reached a record high in the late s. Further, agricultural output in developing nations increased 41 percent during the period, as compared to a rise of 9 percent in developed countries. On a per capita basis, however, food production rose by only 12 percent in developing nations, and less than 1 percent in developed countries.

HISTORY The history of agriculture may be divided into four broad periods of unequal length, differing widely in date according to region: Prehistoric Agriculture Early agriculturists were, it is agreed, largely of Neolithic culture. The dates of domesticated plants and animals vary with the regions, but most predate the 6th millennium bc, and the earliest may date from 10, bc. Scientists have carried out carbon testing of animal and plant remains and have dated finds of domesticated sheep at bc in northern Iraq; cattle in the 6th millennium bc in northeastern Iran; goats at bc in central Iran; pigs at bc in Thailand and bc in Thessaly; onagers, or asses, at bc in Jarmo, Iraq; and horses at bc in Ukraine. The llama and alpaca were domesticated in the Andean regions of South America by the middle of the 3d millennium bc. According to carbon dating, wheat and barley were domesticated in the Middle East in the 8th millennium bc; millet and rice in China and southeastern Asia by bc; and squash in Mexico about bc. Legumes found in Thessaly and Macedonia are dated as early as bc. Flax was grown and apparently woven into textiles early in the Neolithic period. The farmer began, most probably, by noting which of the wild plants were edible or otherwise useful and learned to save the seed and to replant it in cleared land. Long cultivation of the most prolific and hardiest plants yielded a stable strain. Herds of goats and sheep were assembled from captured young wild animals, and those with the most useful traits-such as small horns and high milk yield-were bred. The aurochs seems to have been the ancestor of European cattle, and an Asian wild ox of the zebu, the humped cattle of Asia. The cat, dog, and chicken were domesticated very early. The transition from hunting and food gathering to a dependence on food production was gradual, and in a few isolated parts of the world has not yet been accomplished. Crops and domestic meat supplies were augmented by fish and wildfowl as well as by the meat of wild animals. The Neolithic farmers lived in simple dwellings-in caves and in small houses of sun-baked mud brick or of reed and wood. These homes were grouped into small villages or existed as single farmsteads surrounded by fields, sheltering animals and humans in adjacent or joined buildings. In the Neolithic period, the growth of cities such as Jericho founded c. Pastoralism may have been a later development. Evidence indicates that mixed farming, combining cultivation of crops and stock raising, was the most common Neolithic pattern. Nomadic herders, however, roamed the steppes of Europe and Asia, where the horse and camel were domesticated. The earliest tools of the farmer were made of wood and stone. They included the stone adz; the sickle or reaping knife with sharpened stone blades, used to gather grain; the digging stick, used to plant seeds, and, with later adaptations, as a spade or hoe; and a rudimentary plow, a modified tree branch used to scratch the surface of the soil and prepare it for planting. The plow was later adapted for pulling by oxen. The hilly areas of southwestern Asia and the forests of Europe had enough rain to sustain agriculture, but Egypt depended on the annual floods of the Nile to replenish soil moisture and fertility. The inhabitants of the so-called Fertile Crescent, around the Tigris and Euphrates rivers, also depended on annual floods to supply irrigation water. Drainage was necessary to prevent the carrying off of land from the hillsides through which the rivers ran. The farmers who lived in the area near the Huang He developed a system of irrigation and drainage to control the damage caused to their fields in the floodplain of the meandering river. Although the Neolithic settlements were more permanent than the camps of hunting populations, villages had to be moved periodically in some areas, as the fields lost their fertility from continuous cropping. This was most necessary in northern Europe, where fields were produced by the slash-and-burn method of clearing. The settlements along the Nile, however, were more permanent, because the river deposited fertile silt annually. Historical Agriculture Through the Roman Period With the close of the

Neolithic period and the introduction of metals, the age of innovation in agriculture was largely over. The historical period-known through written and pictured materials, including the Bible, Near Eastern records and monuments, and Chinese, Greek, and Roman writings-was devoted to improvement. A few high points must serve to outline the development of worldwide agriculture in this era, roughly defined as bc to ad. For a similar period of development in Central and South America, somewhat later in date, see American Indians. Some plants became newly prominent. Grapes and wine were mentioned in Egyptian records about bc, and trade in olive oil and wine was widespread in the Mediterranean area in the 1st millennium bc. Rye and oats were cultivated in northern Europe about bc. Many vegetables and fruits, including onions, melons, and cucumbers, were grown by the 3d millennium bc in Ur. Dates and figs were an important source of sugar in the Near East, and apples, pomegranates, peaches, and mulberries were grown in the Mediterranean area. Cotton was grown and spun in India about bc, and linen and silk were used extensively in 2d-millennium China. Felt was made from the wool of sheep in Central Asia and the Russian steppes. The horse, introduced to Egypt about bc, was already known in Mesopotamia and Asia Minor. The ox-drawn four-wheeled cart for farm work and two-wheeled chariots drawn by horses were familiar in northern India in the 2nd millennium bc. Improvements in tools and implements were particularly important. Metal tools were longer lasting and more efficient, and cultivation was greatly improved by such aids as the ox-drawn plow fitted with an iron-tipped point, noted in the 10th century bc in Palestine. In Mesopotamia in the 3d millennium bc a funnel-like device was attached to the plow to aid in seeding, and other early forms of drills were used in China. Threshing was done with animal power in Palestine and Mesopotamia, although reaping, binding, and winnowing were still done by hand. Egypt retained hand seeding through this period, on individual farm plots and large estates alike. Storage methods for oil and grain were improved. Granaries-jars, dry cisterns, silos, and bins of one sort or another containing stored grain-supported city populations. Indeed, without adequate food supplies and trade in food and nonfood items, the high civilizations of Mesopotamia, northern India, Egypt, and Rome would not have been possible. Irrigation systems in China, Egypt, and the Near East were elaborated, putting more land into cultivation. The forced labor of peasants and the bureaucracy built up to plan and supervise the work of irrigation were probably basic in the development of the city-states of Sumer.

5: History of East Germany - Wikipedia

Agricultural price policies in the Near East: lessons and experience By Council and Protocol Affairs Div. Rome (Italy). Conference FAO, GIC and 11 Mar D.) Aden (Yemen 17 FAO Regional Conference for the Near East.

6: USDA ERS - Fertilizer Use and Price

Review of different water management policies should provide insights into the parameters and scope of research into improving water use efficiency in agriculture and the effect of water price on farmers' viability.

7: I. DEVELOPING COUNTRY REGIONS

This paper explores the current debate about water management policies and the factors affecting their formulation and implementation in the arid and semi-arid zones of the Near East and North.

8: Agriculture History and Information - One of the Best Sites in the World!

Review of agricultural water management policies in Near East and North African Region in light of water scarcity Abdulmagid Abdudayem, Kieran James and Albert Scott *African Journal of Economic and Sustainable Development*, , vol. 2, issue 2,

9: Selected issues in agricultural policy analysis in the Near East - CORE

Zeder Origins of Agriculture in the Near East S Figure 2. Time line of Near Eastern sites, Levantine chronology, and climatic conditions compiled using information from Aurenche et al.

Jurassic park operation genesis prima official strategy guide Wildlife and its protection Qualities to encourage in a directee Subnautica guide xbox one How to recognise true religion The manual of ideas the proven framework The War Lord (Casca, No. 3) Oh God in the United Nations Nobel prize chemistry 2015 Museum without walls Son of Stitch n Bitch Simple past tense irregular verbs list Adela Cathcart, Volume I The blue sitting room Akkordeon-spasp Bd. 2 C elegans life cycle Isuzu dmax parts catalog Airplanes for breakfast Form to get update on kids grades Lectures on the heart, comprising the Herter lectures, (Baltimore) How does an ipad a Leslie Nielsens stupid little golf book Introduction to nuclear and particle physics solution The Best Breweries and Brewpubs of Illinois The Great Wall of Forgetfulness Ecology and evolution of animal behavior Little Turtle the Story of an American Indian Jack russell savvy Relapse prevention planning Homosexuality : a Christian response The Magna charta of the kingdom of God Top 100 engineering colleges in india 2014 Magnificant Monuments 2008 Wall Calendar Ham radio frequencies list Xchange standard v6 Civil jet aircraft design Art past art present Adam Hitch of Old Somerset in ye Province of Maryland Financial Services Paperwork Reduction Act Estonian architecture