

Industrial Revolution and the Expansion of Europe: The Consequences on the Economies of Developing Nations

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Abstract

This paper examines the expansion of Europe in the wake of the Industrial Revolution and the consequences thereof on the economies of developing nations. The paper employed the qualitative research design by relying heavily on existing secondary data. The paper utilized the Capitalist Theory as a framework of analysis. Findings from the research revealed that the industrial revolution and the subsequent expansion in Europe led to the infiltration and disarticulation of the economies and culture of the developing nations. Therefore, the paper concluded that the Industrial Revolution transformed the social-economy of Europe. The creation of an industrial proletariat produced a whole new force for change. The development of a wealthy industrial middle class presented a challenge to the long-term hegemony of landed wealth. Though that wealth had been threatened by the fortunes of commerce, it had never been overturned. Sequel to the above findings and conclusion, the paper recommended that the political elites and leaders in developing nations across the globe need to understand and apply the principles of industrial revolution as state policy in order to improve the lots of their subjects and create enabling environment for a modern state system; developing nations should stimulate primary production to enhance the competitiveness of real sector participation in their economies.

Key Words: Industrial Revolution, Expansion of Europe, Developing Nations

Introduction

The Industrial Revolution played a pivotal role in the transformation of economic and socio-political systems across the globe. Through the introduction of machinery and factory-based production, it laid the

foundation for the modern state system. As one of the most significant forces of change in the nineteenth century, the Industrial Revolution propelled Western civilization into an era of mechanization that continues to define the modern world (Eric, 1991). Originating in Britain, its rapid diffusion across continental Europe and the newly independent United States solidified the West's dominance in global economic and industrial advancements. This transition from traditional modes of labour and production to mechanized and technologically sophisticated systems was a major step toward modern economic development (Foster, 2004).

This period marked a profound shift in economic and socio-political structures worldwide, driven by the large-scale adoption of machinery and industrial factories (Hobsbawm, 1991; Inikori, 2005; Berg & Hudson, 1992; Lorenzen, 2005). The rapid industrial expansion spread from Great Britain to other European nations and the United States during the nineteenth century. Belgium and the United States became prominent in textile and coal production, while France made significant advances in textile manufacturing. These industrial advancements not only enhanced productivity but also redefined labor organization and economic structures.

The Industrial Revolution led to a dramatic increase in industrial output, facilitated by new energy sources such as coal and steam. These innovations replaced wind and water power, leading to the development of labour-saving machines that reduced reliance on human and animal labor while significantly boosting productivity. The rise of power-driven machinery necessitated new labour management strategies, prompting the transition from small workshops and cottage industries to large-scale factory production. However, early industrial factories often exposed workers to harsh conditions, drawing criticism from reformers, particularly regarding the treatment of married women in the workforce.

Europe's economic landscape underwent a fundamental transformation as it shifted from a labour-intensive agrarian economy to a capital-intensive industrial one characterized by mechanized manufacturing, specialized labour, and large-scale factory production. Though the Industrial Revolution took decades to spread globally, it profoundly altered European societies and their interactions with the rest of the world. The expansion of large factories led to mass migrations from rural areas to urban centers, replacing traditional rural social structures with impersonal urban living conditions. Increased productivity created a growing demand for raw materials and new markets, fueling changes in global consumption patterns and advancements in transportation that facilitated the rapid movement of goods worldwide.

Moreover, the Industrial Revolution contributed to the rise of a wealthy industrial middle class and a vast industrial working class (proletariat), reshaping traditional social hierarchies (Anthony, 2018). Within this context, the expansion of European influence driven by industrialization had profound consequences for developing nations. These regions were integrated into a global economic system that often prioritized European industrial needs over local development. The demand for raw materials from Africa, Asia, and Latin America led to the restructuring of their economies, often creating long-term dependencies and economic imbalances. Against this backdrop, this paper examines the expansion of Europe in the wake of the Industrial Revolution and its consequences on the economies of developing nations.

Literature Review

The Industrial Revolution is widely recognized as a transformative period in global economic history, marking the transition from agrarian and craft-based economies to industrial and mechanized systems of production. Historians and economists generally agree that the Industrial Revolution began in Britain in the late 18th century before spreading to other parts of Europe and North America (Ashton, 1948; Hobsbawm, 1999). This period was characterized by the introduction of new technologies, changes in labour organization, and the emergence of factories, which led to unprecedented increases in productivity and economic growth (Landes, 1969).

The term Industrial Revolution was popularized by Arnold Toynbee (1884) to describe the rapid technological and economic changes that occurred between 1750 and 1850 (Toynbee, 1884). It refers to the large-scale transformation in industrial production, driven by innovations such as the steam engine, mechanized textile production, and iron and steel manufacturing (Mokyr, 1990). Some scholars like Crafts, (1985), argue that the Industrial Revolution was not a single event but a gradual evolution of industrialization over several decades

Several factors contributed to the onset of the Industrial Revolution. The development of new machinery, such as the spinning jenny (1764) and the power loom (1787), revolutionized textile production (Allen, 2009). James Watt's steam engine (1776) played a crucial role in mechanization, enabling greater efficiency in manufacturing and transportation (Cardwell, 1995). The rise of capitalism and entrepreneurship fostered investment in industrial ventures (Landes, 1969). The availability of capital, combined with a growing consumer market, encouraged industrial expansion (Mokyr, 2010).

Also, the Industrial Revolution was accompanied by significant population increases, which provided both labor for factories and a larger

market for manufactured goods (Wrigley, 2013). As industries grew, people migrated from rural areas to urban centers, leading to the expansion of cities such as Manchester and Birmingham (Hobsbawm, 1999). Furthermore, the availability of raw materials from colonized regions in Africa, Asia, and the Americas played a crucial role in sustaining industrial production (Inikori, 2002). European powers utilized on cheap raw materials such as cotton, rubber, and sugar, extracted through exploitative trade systems (Beckert, 2014).

Theoretical Framework

This paper adopted the Capitalist Theory as its analytical framework. Originating from Adam Smith's *The Wealth of Nations* (1776), capitalism advocates for a self-regulating market driven by supply, demand, and profit motives. However, Karl Marx's *Das Kapital* (1867) provided a critical exposition, arguing that capitalism inherently leads to wealth concentration, market instability, and economic inequalities. Marx contended that industrialization fosters large-scale enterprises, where stronger firms acquire weaker ones, perpetuating economic disparity.

According to capitalist theory, economic growth is driven by profit expectations, leading to cycles of booms and recessions (Reisman, 1998). While capitalism fosters innovation, entrepreneurship, and wealth accumulation were key factors behind Britain's industrial dominance. Critics such as Feinstein (1998); Foster (2004), argue that it also creates instability and inequality, particularly affecting developing nations.

Despite these criticisms, capitalism remains relevant in explaining the Industrial Revolution and its global impact. It illustrates why developed economies continue to prosper while developing nations struggle, as wealth accumulates in entrepreneurial cultures that prioritize progress, technology, and hard work. Furthermore, capitalism facilitates global trade by allocating resources based on consumer preferences, transcending barriers such as race and religion. Thus, the theory underscores the role of market-driven economic systems in shaping industrial and global economic transformations.

The Historical antecedents of the Industrial Revolution (1775)

The Industrial Revolution began in Britain in the late 18th century, making it the wealthiest nation by 1850. Over time, industrialization spread to Europe with Germany and the U.S. surpassing Britain by the end of the 19th century. The Industrial Revolution in Britain was driven by several key factors that laid the foundation for rapid economic and technological advancement. One of the primary catalysts was the Agricultural Revolution, which brought significant improvements in farming techniques and livestock breeding. These advances led to

disposable income for manufactured goods. Additionally, the resulting population growth provided a surplus labor force for emerging factories (Berg & Hudson, 1992).

Another crucial factor was the availability of capital and a robust banking system. Britain had accumulated substantial investment capital from trade and small-scale industries, while its well-established central bank and credit facilities encouraged entrepreneurship and industrial expansion. The country was also endowed with abundant natural resources and a strong infrastructure. Rich deposits of coal and iron ore provided essential raw materials for manufacturing, while an extensive transport network—including roads, rivers, and canals—connected industrial centers, making the movement of goods and resources efficient (Landes, 1999).

Government policies further supported industrial growth. A stable political environment and laws protecting private property fostered a business-friendly climate. Compared to other European nations, Britain imposed fewer restrictions on private enterprise, allowing innovation and industrial development to flourish.

Finally, expanding markets played a vital role in Britain's industrial success. The country's vast colonial empire and powerful merchant navy facilitated global trade, leading to a fourfold increase in exports between 1660 and 1760. Mass-produced textiles, in particular, found eager buyers in Africa, the Americas, and the East, where demand for affordable goods was high (Horn, Rosenband & Smith, 2010). As domestic and international markets grew, British entrepreneurs embraced new manufacturing techniques, driving the Industrial Revolution and reshaping economies worldwide.

Technological Changes and New Forms of Industrial Organization

The cotton textile industry was the first major sector to embrace the Industrial Revolution in the 1770s and 1780s with the emergence of factories. Britain had already dominated cotton production through cottage industry, but technological advancements revolutionized the process. The advancement of textile machinery played a crucial role in accelerating the Industrial Revolution. One of the earliest innovations was the Flying Shuttle, which significantly increased the speed of weaving. However, this rapid improvement created an unexpected consequence, a shortage of yarn, as traditional spinning methods could not keep up with the demand.

To address this issue, James Hargreaves invented the Spinning Jenny in 1768, allowing multiple threads to be spun simultaneously and greatly boosting yarn production. This innovation was soon followed by Richard Arkwright's Water Frame and Samuel Crompton's Mule, both of which further enhanced the efficiency and quality of spinning. In 1787,

Edmund Cartwright introduced the Power Loom, which automated the weaving process, reducing the reliance on manual labor and increasing textile output (Berg & Hudson, 1992). These technological breakthroughs revolutionized the textile industry, paving the way for mass production and the expansion of Britain's industrial economy.

By the mid-1820s, hand-loom weavers were largely replaced by power looms, which grew from 2,400 in 1813 to 250,000 by 1850 (Eric, 1991). The emergence of factories concentrated the workforce around rivers and streams, which provided power for machinery. This shift led to rapid urbanization as people migrated from rural areas to newly developed industrial towns in search of work. The demand for even greater productivity led to the steam engine, which further transformed the cotton industry, making Britain the global leader in textile manufacturing.

i. The Steam Engine

The steam engine was a driving force behind the Industrial Revolution, transforming cotton production and expanding the factory system into new industries. Initially, its development was driven by Britain's need for efficient pumps to remove water from deep coal mines, as wood shortages made coal an essential alternative fuel.

Thomas Newcomen (1712) created the first atmospheric steam pump, though it was inefficient (Foster, 2004). James Watt (1760s) improved the design by adding a separate condenser, greatly enhancing efficiency (Eric, 1991). By 1782, Watt introduced a rotary engine, allowing steam power to drive machinery, revolutionizing spinning and weaving. By 1850, steam engines powered 87% of the British cotton industry. Britain's cotton imports rose from 22 million pounds (1787) to 366 million pounds (1840), with most supplied by slave labor in the American South (Feinstein, 1998). Cheap cotton textiles became widely available, improving clothing for all social classes.

Steam engines eliminated dependence on rivers, allowing factories to be built anywhere. By 1850, steam engines generated 500,000 stationary horsepower and 790,000 mobile horsepower, mainly in locomotives (Acemoglu, Johnson & Robinson, 2005). Increased demand for coal boosted mining and iron production, fueling further industrial growth. The steam engine was a tireless and powerful energy source that secured Britain's industrial dominance, paving the way for global economic transformation.

ii. The Iron Industry: During the Industrial Revolution, the British iron industry underwent a major transformation. Although Britain had abundant iron ore, production remained primitive until the 18th century, relying heavily on charcoal. Early 18th-century advancements introduced coke-based smelting, improving iron output, while in the

1780s, Henry Cort developed puddling, a process that burned away impurities, producing high-quality wrought iron.

Iron production soared. In 1740, 17,000 tons were produced, while in 1780s, 70,000 tons were produced. By 1840s, over 2 million tons were produced and in 1852, nearly 3 million tons were produced, surpassing the rest of the world combined (Acemoglu, Johnson & Robinson, 2005).

Wrought iron became the dominant metal until cheaper steel emerged in the 1860s. Lower iron costs accelerated machinery use and enabled advancements in transportation, such as railways and steam engines. This iron revolution played a critical role in industrial expansion, fueling the rise of machines, infrastructure, and economic growth.

i. A Revolution in Transportation: In the 18th century, Britain expanded its transportation network, building roads and canals to improve the movement of goods. However, these were soon surpassed by the railroad, which became the most significant driver of European economic progress in the 1830s and 1840s. Mining operations in Germany in (1500s) and Britain in (1600s) used wooden rails to reduce friction for horse-drawn carts. By 1830, George Stephenson's Rocket ran on the first modern public railway from Liverpool to Manchester and in 1700s, wooden rails were replaced with cast-iron rails, leading to widespread horse-drawn railways in mining areas. In 1804, Richard Trevithick introduced the first steam-powered locomotive in Wales.

Railroads expanded rapidly. In 1840, 2,000 miles of track were constructed while in 1850, 6,000 miles were constructed, connecting much of Britain (Acemoglu, Johnson & Robinson, 2001). Railroads boosted coal and iron industries, fueling Britain's engineering dominance after 1840. Also, faster, cheaper transport lowered production costs, expanded markets, and led to increased industrial output. Profits from railroads encouraged continuous economic growth, reinforcing the self-sustaining nature of the Industrial Revolution.

Railroads showcased technological power, connecting distant regions and transforming landscapes through tunnels and bridges. This era marked a break from traditional economies, ushering in modern industrial capitalism. The railroad revolutionized transportation, industry, and economic growth, making it a defining force of the Industrial Revolution.

i. The Industrial Factory: The factory system emerged as the primary way to organize labor in the new cotton industry, replacing the artisan's shop and peasant's cottage. Unlike previous workers who owned their tools, factory workers were hired solely to operate machines in exchange for wages. From the start, factories required strict discipline to keep machines running efficiently. Unlike pre-industrial workers, who followed irregular schedules, factory employees had to work fixed hours

in structured shifts. This was a major shift, as agricultural laborers and cottage industry workers were accustomed to periods of intense work followed by downtime.

Factory owners enforced rigid time discipline to maximize productivity. Workers performed repetitive tasks for long hours, and factory regulations were strict. Fines and dismissals were common for lateness or serious offenses like drunkenness, which was especially dangerous around machines. With a surplus of unskilled labor, losing a job could be devastating, making workers more compliant. Over time, second and third-generation factory workers adapted to structured schedules, seeing a regular workweek as normal. This shift in attitude played a key role in Britain's rapid economic growth in the 19th century.

v. The Great Exhibition: Britain in 1851. In 1851, the British organized the world's first industrial fair. It was housed at Kensington in London in the Crystal Palace, an enormous structure made entirely of glass and iron, a tribute to British engineering skills. Covering nineteen acres, the Crystal Palace contained 100,000 exhibits that showed the wide variety of products created by the Industrial Revolution. Six million people visited the fair in six months. Though most of them were Britons, who had traveled to London by train, foreign visitors were also prominent. The Great Exhibition displayed Britain's wealth to the world; it was a gigantic symbol of British success. Even trees were brought inside the Crystal Palace as a visible symbol of how the Industrial Revolution had achieved human domination over nature (David, 1969).

By the year of the Great Exhibition, Great Britain had become the world's first and richest industrial nation. Britain was the “workshop, banker, and trader of the world.” It produced one-half of the world's coal and manufactured goods; its cotton industry alone in 1851 was equal in size to the industries of all other European countries combined. The quantity of goods produced was growing at three times the growth rate in 1780. No doubt, Britain's certainty about its mission in the world in the nineteenth century was grounded in its incredible material success story.

The Expansion of Europe

Eventually, the Industrial Revolution revolutionized the social life of Europe and the world. Although much of Europe remained bound by its traditional ways, already in the first half of the nineteenth century, the social impact of the Industrial Revolution was being felt, and future avenues of growth were becoming apparent. Vast changes in the number of people and where they lived were already dramatically evident.

Population Growth: Population increases had already begun in the eighteenth century, but they became dramatic in the nineteenth century.

accurate. In the nineteenth century, governments began to take periodic censuses and systematically collect precise data on births, deaths, and marriages. In Britain, for example, the first census was taken in 1801, and a systematic registration of births, deaths, and marriages was begun in 1836. In 1750, the total European population stood at an estimated 140 million; by 1800, it had increased to 187 million and by 1850 to 266 million, almost twice its 1750 level (Berg & Hudson, 1992).

This population explosion cannot be explained by a higher birthrate for birthrates were declining after 1790. Between 1790 and 1850, Germany's birthrate dropped from 40 per 1,000 to 36.1; Great Britain's from 35.4 to 32.6 and France's from 32.5 to 26.7 (Berg & Hudson, 1992, p.67). The key to the expansion of population was the decline in death rates evident throughout Europe. Two major causes explain this decline; there was a drop in the number of deaths from famines, epidemics, and war. Major epidemic diseases, in particular, such as plague and smallpox declined noticeably, although small-scale epidemics continued. The ordinary death rate also declined as a general increase in the food supply, already evident in the agricultural revolution of Britain in the late eighteenth century, spread to more areas. More food enabled a greater number of people to be better fed and therefore more resistant to disease. Famine largely disappeared from Western Europe, although there were dramatic exceptions in isolated areas, Ireland being the most significant. Although industrialization itself did not lead to population growth, industrialized areas did experience a change in the composition of the population. By 1850, the proportion of the active population involved in manufacturing, mining, or building had risen to 48 percent in Britain, 37 percent in Belgium, and 27 percent in France (Foster, 2004). But the actual areas of industrialization in 1850 were minimal, being concentrated in northern and central England, northern France, Belgium, and sections of western and eastern Germany.

The Growth of Cities: Although the Western world would not become a predominantly urban society until the twentieth century, cities and towns had already grown dramatically in the first half of the nineteenth century, a phenomenon related to industrialization. Cities had traditionally been centers for princely courts, government and military offices, churches, and commerce. By 1850, especially in Great Britain and Belgium, they rapidly became places for manufacturing and industry. With the steam engine, entrepreneurs could locate their manufacturing plants in urban centers where they had ready access to transportation facilities and unemployed people from the country looking for work.

In 1800, Great Britain had one major city, London, with a population of 1 million, and six cities with 50,000 and 100,000. Fifty years later, London's population had swelled to 2,363,000, with nine cities over 100,000 and eighteen cities with populations between 50,000 and 100,000 (Berg & Hudson, 1992, p.98).

All together, these twenty-eight cities accounted for 5.7 million or one-fifth of the total British population. When the populations of cities under 50,000 are added to this total, we realize that more than 50 percent of the British population lived in towns and cities by 1850. Britain was forced to become a food importer rather than an exporter as the number of people involved in agriculture declined to 20 percent of the population.

Urban populations also grew on the Continent, but less dramatically. Paris had 547,000 inhabitants in 1800, but only two other French cities had populations of 100,000: Lyons and Marseilles. In 1851, Paris had grown to 1 million while Lyons and Marseilles were still under 200,000. German and Austrian lands had only three cities with over 100,000 inhabitants (Vienna had 247,000) in 1800; fifty years later, there were only five, but Vienna had grown to 440,000 (Eric, 1991, p76). As these figures show, urbanization did not proceed as rapidly here as in Britain; of course, neither had industrialization. Even in Belgium, the most heavily industrialized country on the Continent, almost 50 percent of the male workforce was still engaged in agriculture by mid century.

New Social Classes: The Industrial Middle Class. The rise of industrial capitalism produced a new middle class group. The bourgeois or middle class was not new; it had existed since the emergence of cities in the middle Ages. Originally, the bourgeois was the burgher or town dweller, whether active as a merchant, official, artisan, lawyer, or scholar, who enjoyed a special set of rights from the charter of the town. As wealthy townspeople bought land, the original meaning of the word bourgeois became lost, and the term came to include people involved in commerce, industry, and banking as well as professionals, such as lawyers, teachers, physicians, and government officials at various levels. At the lower end of the economic scale were master craftspeople and shopkeepers.

The social origins of industrial entrepreneurs were incredibly diverse. Many of the most successful came from a mercantile background. Three London merchants, for example, founded a successful ironworks in Wales that owned eight steam engines and employed 5,000 men (Foster, 2004). In Britain, land and domestic industry were often interdependent. Joshua Fielden, for example, acquired sufficient capital to establish a factory by running a family sheep farm while working looms in the farmhouse. Intelligent, clever, and ambitious apprentices who had learned their trades well could also strike it rich (Anthony, 2018).

Within the cities, artisans or craftspeople remained the largest group of urban workers during the first half of the nineteenth century. They worked in numerous small industries, such as shoe making, glove making, bookbinding, printing, and bricklaying. Some craftspeople formed a kind of aristocracy of labor, especially those employed in such luxury trades as coach building and clock making who earned higher wages than others. Artisans were not factory workers; they were traditionally organized in guilds where they passed on their skills to apprentices. But guilds were increasingly losing their power, especially in industrialized countries. Fearful of losing out to the new factories that could produce goods more cheaply, artisans tended to support movements against industrialization.

New Social Classes: Workers in the Industrial Age: At the same time, the members of the industrial middle class were seeking to reduce the barriers between themselves and the landed elite, they also were trying to separate themselves from the labouring classes below them. The working class was actually a mixture of different groups in the first half of the nineteenth century. In the course of the nineteenth century, factory workers would form an industrial proletariat, but in the first half of that century, they by no means constituted a majority of the working class in any major city, even in Britain. According to the 1851 census in Britain, there were 1.8 million agricultural labourers and 1 million domestic servants, but only 811,000 workers in the cotton and woolen industries (Foster, 2004). Even one-third of these were still working in small workshops or in their own homes.

Industrial Revolution: Consequences on the Economies of Developing Nations

The manufacturing history of countries of the global south is often overlooked, but many developing countries had long-standing craft traditions and significant technical skills before European colonialism. Innovations like gunpowder, paper, and textiles originated in the East, and Indian textiles were once popular in Britain before import restrictions hurt local production. Similarly, Portugal restricted Brazil's textile production to protect its own industry. However, the European Industrial Revolution and colonial expansion devastated local industries in many developing countries.

Colonialism negatively impacted Africa economically, politically, and culturally. European powers seized fertile land for mining and commercial farming, often displacing locals and forcing them into low-wage labour with harsh conditions. Colonial governments taxed Africans heavily to fund their administration, forcing many into forced labour to meet tax demands. The focus on cash crops (like cocoa, coffee, and cotton) over food production led to famine. Africans were prohibited from trading among themselves and were forced to export raw materials while importing expensive finished goods from Europe, deepening economic dependency.

Despite these obstacles, some industrialization did occur. By 1914, India had over 250 cotton mills, and Brazil's textile and iron industries grew. However, the global south still contributes little to global manufacturing, with manufacturing accounting for less than 15-30% of GDP in most regions. Obstacles to industrialization include lack of infrastructure, capital, skilled labor, bad governance and lack of political will and limited markets.

Colonial policies deliberately prevented industrialization and created economic dependency. Even after independence, structural barriers remain, with monoculture economies, wage disparities, and foreign control of industries reinforcing underdevelopment. The unequal exchange of raw materials for industrial goods benefits capitalist economies, further widening the economic gap. Dependency theory argues that these nations were integrated into the global economy in a way that stunted their autonomous development, making self-sustaining industrial growth difficult.

Conclusion

The Industrial Revolution seemed to prove to Europeans the underlying assumption of the Scientific Revolution of the seventeenth century that human beings were capable of dominating nature. By rationally manipulating the material environment for human benefit, people could create new levels of material prosperity and produce machines not dreamed of previously. Lost in the excitement of the Industrial Revolution were the voices that pointed to the dehumanization of the workforce and the alienation from one's work, one's associates, one's self, and the natural world.

The Industrial Revolution also transformed the social world of Europe. The creation of an industrial proletariat produced a whole new force for change. The development of a wealthy industrial middle class presented a challenge to the long-term hegemony of landed wealth. Though that wealth had been threatened by the fortunes of commerce, it had never been overturned. The new bourgeoisie was however, more demanding.

Recommendations

Sequel to the above findings and conclusion, the following recommendations are made:

- I. Political elites and leaders in developing nations across the globe need to understand and apply the principles of industrial revolution as state policy in order to improve the lot of their subjects and create enable environment for modern state system.
- ii. Governments of developing nations must prioritize primary production such as agriculture, mining, forestry, and fisheries by Investing in modern agricultural and extraction techniques, providing financial and technical support, to strengthen their economies and boost real sector participation. The real sector, which includes industries that produce goods and services rather than engage in financial speculation, relies heavily on a strong foundation in primary production. By increasing efficiency, output, and value addition in these sectors, developing nations can enhance competitiveness, attract investment, and create sustainable economic growth.
- iii. To significantly increase the production of processed and manufactured goods for export, developing nations must adopt a strategic, actionable approach that includes industrial policy reforms, investment in infrastructure, workforce development, and market expansion through Special Economic Zones, agro-processing and value-addition industries.
- iv. The economies of developing nations should be organized in such a way to stimulate domestic and foreign trade in value added goods and services;
- v. Governments of developing nations should strengthen linkages among key sectors of the economy especially in agriculture and industrialization.

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