Journal of Management Info

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Research Article

A study of socio-economic determinants of internal migration in Pakistan

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Keywords

Migration;

Education and Logistic Model

Submitted:
13 January 2024

Revised:
22 February 2024

Accepted:
26 February 2024

ABSTRACT

The migration is a dynamic process and it effects the growth of economy. The process of migration may happen due to number of reasons and factors. The migration may be internal and external. The present study investigates and explains the factors responsible for migration in Pakistan. This study is limited to explain the internal migration in Pakistan and concludes that female education is a significant determinant of the internal migration. The study uses the data from Labour Force Survey 2017-2022. Data is statistically analyzed on the basis of distribution of migrants by their characteristics and on the basis of migration reasons. It captures the impact of age, education and other factors on the migration process. The determinants of migration are estimated with the help of logistic regression model. Here dependent variable of migration model is dichotomous. Therefore, logistic regression model is formulated to know the impact of education and other factors on internal migration in Pakistan. The positive and significant effect of education on migration for both males and females is found and it proves that migration is a human capital investment.

1. INTRODUCTION

Rapid urbanization in recent decades has been rising at an alarming rate globally, and by the end of 2050 it will exceed 70% (Aziz et al., 2015; Malik et al., 2017; Zhang, 2016). Thousands of people move to cities every day in order to live a better life (Cobbinah et al., 2015; Cohen, 2006). The migration of villages to cities areas is increasing. The quick growth of towns in most developed countries, such as Pakistan, due to educational and health facilities in existing cities is appropriate and persistent. Currently, 36.4% of the total population of the country is accommodated in urban areas, which could rise to 50% by 2025 (Aziz et al., 2015). Due to sub-continental partition in 1947, war on terrorism and rural-urban migration, much of the urbanization has increased (Hasan, 2016; Qureshi & Lu, 2007).

Pakistan's urbanization and city development began after independence in 1947. But since 1971, it has risen quickly (Blank et al., 2014). In 1971, the break-up of Pakistan and the formation of Bangladesh also led to the displacement of around 3 million refugees, who migrated to areas in the 'West,' including the Northwestern Frontier, Karachi and

https://doi.org/10.31580/jmi.v11i1.2985

Balochistan, further defining the migrant nature of Pakistan. This led some people to call Pakistan a 'immigrant state (Shahbaz et al., 2017).

The degree of urbanization can be achieved by analyzing the fact that in 2011 more than ten million residents have been living in twenty extra-large cities. In the emerging world, both of these cities expect three of them to be in developed countries. Fast population growth and growing migration from rural to urban areas may be the key reasons behind urban expansion in these countries. Internal migration over a period of approximately six times over the period from 1951 to 1998 has risen in Pakistan's lifetime (Swerts & Denis 2015).

The population of the world is almost twice as large as the population of the same time. The rate of urban population growth in Pakistan continued to increase over the decade between 2004 and 2014 to between 3% and 3.3% annually. With the exception of Sindh, all of Pakistan's provinces led to an increase in urban populations, which decreased between 2001 and 2015.

Migration involves transferring people at some point during their life from one administrative district to another administrative district. It excludes population migration in the present region (FBS, 2009-10). In Pakistan's development environment, migration is a fundamental population, social and economic feature which greatly affects cities, towns and villages and transforms its urban population. There are two major forms of migration with respect to borders of the country: 1) National (internal) and international (external) migration. National migration means migration of individuals within the country. While The migration of citizens from the native residence to some other place or country is international migration (Usman, 2009). Over the years, rural to urban migration in Pakistan is largely indicative of urban prejudicial government policies and lack of rural development projects and systems strategic planning (Farooq et al., 2005). Awareness of internal migration would also help to explain population distribution and structure in the country. The project would provide significant future urban planning in the country, as the effects of migration on people are vastly socio-economic.

Internal and external migration trends in Pakistan and the gap considered to be a significant determinant of internal migration (Irfan et al., 1983). In addition, migration path in Pakistan was from rural to urban. The ties between migration, economic growth and development in the country have been clarified by Irfan (1986). The study looked at the link between migration and fertility, the effect of migrants' human capital movements and their incomes as transfers from internal migration to the country's revenue distribution. Higher tendency to migrate between females due to marriages was the key findings of the report. Migrants aged from 15-24 have been checked for the inverted U-shaped age mobility curve (Irfan, 1986).

Pakistan's internal migration activity using the theoretical PLMS-data investment paradigm (Ahmed & Sirageldin, 1993). It was concluded that people with graduate or college degrees more expected to move. The staff of the profession or professional professionals show higher patterns in migration. Engagement in the place of residence has been shown to have detrimental effects on migration. Included in the variable of

dedication to the place of residence were the land, house possession and participation of school children. The effect on Pakistan's domestic migrants' income has been clarified by (Ahmed & Slrageldin, 1994). The statistics were used from the 1979-80 census of population, labour and migration. The findings have shown that migrants' wages have risen comparatively long in comparison to those who have spent less time since the migration.

Individuals traditionally move from one place to the next to benefit from better economic opportunities. (Mayda, 2007), clarified on its migration decision the impact of the average wage and income gap between the migrant's origin and destination. The increasing migration produces multi-faceted outcomes, and hence policymakers have a need for better and timely policies to address the strain imposed by heavy migration in the country on the infrastructuring of major urban centres. The effects or outcomes of migration may be clarified by studying the trends and determinants of migration. Internal migration redistributes the population from rural to urban or urban to rural to rural areas within the nation.

Migration process in Pakistan is an old phenomenon. Migration trends and nature differ over time and have various effects on the life of a migrant (Adewale, 2005; Hamid, 2010).

'Tribal wars' have caused communities to flee in the case of Baluchistan. For instance, because of clashes between Kalpar and the dominant Rahija Bugtis, Kalpar Bugtis have been expelled from the Dera Bugti area. There was also a similar situation among the Bugtis, the Marris and the Mengals, when the tribes of the latter two had to flee (Harrison, 1981). There are several effects of migration. While the growth of poor migrant households may contribute to more balanced regional development, it can also lead to pollution and congestion, which can impact on accessibility and efficiency of publicly limited resources in relatively rich migrants' areas of reception. More broadly, the effect on labor markets, employment levels and economic productivity as well as governance, law, culture and identification is reflected in every form of migration listed here.

Migration decisions have varied according to social and demographic conditions. The population distribution in a country is based on the existence, pushing and pulling factors, of the sending and receiving areas, which lead to rural-urban, urban-town, rural-rural and urban migration. Pakistan's cities have therefore faced massive problems, in particular the Metropolitan Karachi, in terms of the socio-economic and environment circumstances (Jan & Iqbal, 2008). including illegal settlements, improper basic infrastructure, a lack of safe sea, inadequate sanitation and solid waste management services, environmental degradation, inappropriate public transport, economic instability, bad governance (Hassana et al., 2022).

The above-mentioned problems in Pakistan's metropolitan cities (i.e. Karachi) are the key impediments to sustainable development where planning and monitoring are not properly implemented (Mangi et al., 2018). The area of science and politics should therefore be established and take an important step towards sustainable urban centers (Ghalib et al., 2017).

If the economy expands, it leads to structural change which reduces the agricultural sector's share in the economy and increases the participation of the industry. This increases job opportunities through industrial expansion in the urban areas. This process is called urbanization in the quest for better work prospects, thus, for people to move into urban areas (Hassana et al., 2022). Over the past six decades, Pakistan's population has risen slowly, over a span between 1951 and 2010 the overall population is more than 52.5 percent. During 1951, the population of the rural areas was 82.26%, but in 2008 that number fell to 66%. Rural-urban migration growth trend is 2 percent a year. Around 68% of residents live in low socio-economic situations in rural areas. Approximately a third of the rural population are below the poverty line and thus move to urban areas for improved socio-economic prospects because people have no other route (Imran et al., 2013).

Literature shows some significant migration push and pull factors. The factors of migration are: (i) The social, political and caste system differences throughout the country. (ii) Reduction of rural job opportunities by heavy mechanization. (iii) The reduction in the share of labor in agriculture per capita and the lack of rural agricultural land. (iv) The development in some parts of the world of technological changes, wood and other tools and the closing of factories (v) Better infrastructure, higher incomes, better basic sanitation services, growth of transportation and communication skills in cities. (vi) Educational options, better living conditions, equality of marriage, increased protection in urban society. (vii) Improved health and recreational services for residents in all aspects of life (Datta, 1998; Solimano, 2002). Borjas (2001), attributes great significance to friends and relatives in a region where the migrant needs to travel because the networking between family and friends is a big source for helping the migrant.

Migration theories exist; the migration is viewed in various ways by any theory. The variation in the understanding of migration depends on each approach's institutional and philosophical context. Neoclassical theory claims that the decision on relocation of workers depends on the salary difference and migrates only for the right economic prospects. The migration decision is based on the Todaro model on the contrast of urban wages with current wages in rural areas. The Lewis model suggested that rural-urban migration is based on unregulated rural labor supplies. In comparison, the theory of human capital indicates migration as a cost/return investment. The Theory of amenities claims that people move for personal desires and pleasure. The modern economy of labour movement theory indicates that actions on relocation are made in order to enter the target countries for the temporary settlement. When these aims are accomplished, migrants plan to come back (Ullah, 2011). Almost all theories based on the area, community and social values, are significant for their outcomes.

Ullah (2011), analyze the effect on migration choices of a number of socio-economic factors. The findings indicate that a favorable association exists between work opportunities, land ownership and migration. Although (Khan et al., 2011), on the other hand, explores socio-economic and gender-based migration decision in India, the analysis indicates that women are migrating due to social factors and mostly women migrating due to economic factors, respectively.

Hoynes et al. (2006), also indicated that access to the labor market opportunities is a significant determinant of the poverty status of both persons and communities, that people live at different places and having different migrants' influences could be exposed to different conditions on the local labor market. In the case of developed countries as well as emerging and transitional economies with deep economic and social change over the last 30 years, such effects of internal migration may become more common.

The local males living in Provinces noted that migrants' inflows in their labor markets have dramatically increased. More migrant inflows have decreased the job ratio of indigenous men plays an important role. The negative impacts on migrant migrants occur both in terms of schooling and age, i.e. predicted negative impacts of the recent migrants ratio, which are more pronounced for older people with the highest qualifications in education and are less pronounced for younger people with lower educational qualifications (Hassana et al., 2022).

Household income has often been increased by migration. Education boosts migration prospects, leading to higher wages. In Pakistan the major factors of domestic migration are low household income and a lack of job opportunities on the labor market. Migration also offers employment for the sake of well-being of the household (Arif, 2005).

The demographic prospects of Baluchistan, where the progressive ethnic composition affects social and political agreements, are also modified by migration and urbanization. Pakistan's future is still in Baluchistan, not only because it is regionally the largest territory with many natural resources, but also because Pakistan as a nation remains at a time of torment without guaranteeing the cultural, social and political rights of the Baloch people. The rulers of Pakistan have ignored the social sensitivity of the Baloch as ethnic group and of the 'Baluchistani,' as well as demands for a satisfactory policy image and have ignored a restored violation of human rights and ordinary interests.

Baluchistan's cultural difficulty and political dispute background has taken more notice of the fact that incidents of 'missing persons' have become increasingly common, as have sporadic rebellions and solid arm strategies in the Pakistani state. Specifically, the community of Hazara people was overly influenced as a helpful target of ferocious radicalism, affecting the development of human rights in the nation. In Pakistan, brutality and violation continue despite the restoration of the popularity based method in 2008, although Baluchistan continues to be seen and assessed as the country's most malrendered region.

In any case, in the course of recent years, there includes been developing acknowledgment inside society and at the government level that there is a need to embrace an increasingly far reaching approach in managing Baluchistan's multifaceted advancement issues. Consideration ought to be paid to regulating strategies to the districts' social, financial and political encounters specifically. This requests a vision that organizes the individuals of Baluchistan and offers priority to their advancement objectives. Specific consideration should be paid to building up an intelligible urban strategy (comprehensive of migration), as Baluchistan takes on the situation of Pakistan's quickest urbanizing territory.

The nation is as of now seeing the expenses of disorganized city-arranging in other super urban areas like Karachi in Sindh or Lahore in Punjab, where enter alia wasteful open service delivery, access to clean water, germ-free sanitation, deficient housing and genuine ecological dangers ruin occupants' entitlement to sheltered and sound occupations. Endless greenbelt and overpopulated vagrant settlements perplex rare land and money related assets, while at the same time troubling open framework.

In addition, Balochistan faces the double challenges of migration and town growth with an increasing population of migrant networks. A heterogeneous combination of socially, phonetically and ethnically divergent networks tests local resistance to modern thinking and their ability to respond to the obvious financial and political changes. The city of Quetta is now indicating the proven degeneration as more people migrate to the provincial capital and the infrastructural breakdown. The arrangement of these variables within the general framework of development in Baluchistan is necessary to expand its wilderness of advance.

A dream that, accordingly, lightens the business states of the most underestimated – not just giving them equivalent open doors for quality wellbeing and learning, work and enterprise, yet in addition the chance to practice fundamental rights like, the right to speak and worship – will without a doubt be key instruments in this procedure.

In fact, Baluchistan's advancement relies upon the financial pointers that are assorted and unpredictable, extending from checking ethnic cruelty and battling tireless yet low level uprising to speaking difficulties of human capital growth and hindered monetary development. Making such a change in Baluchistan could reinforce Pakistan's endeavors towards practical advancement in the more extended run.

The salary or income differential between industries is the key determinant of intersectoral movements. Microeconomic experiments focused on the principle of utilities pretend that logical economic actors determine their future work's existence and position geographically and measure it according to the likelihood of eventually hitting a job, based on incomes in various areas and places. Migration should then be used as a road to economic chance. People with better schooling, expertise and access are more likely to migrate, and migration is more likely than a random phase to migrate.

Migration does not inherently limit the economic benefit obtained by the human migrant. Indeed, the financial connections that migrants have in their regions of origin with their families are known well and remittances are seen as important to the well-being of geographically isolated households. The shortage of insurances is seen in migration, which is put in industries that are not in danger, which helps raise and separate household members from exogenous shocks. Migration is seen to be a solution to the lack of insurance markets. This diversification of risk is not only important to the migration of labor, but also for marital migration between the villages.

The benign consequences of migration are not limited solely to refugees and their families. In principle, the growth in the physical stock and mechanization of the labor force in the non-agricultural field raises productivity and the incomes. However, objective

proofs are mixed. The concepts of migration and household/individual welfare development are also in line with the principle that jobs can move from low marginal productivity to higher marginal productivity, relying on decent wages on the market. This effective distribution of output factors could improve the economy's productivity and increase the population's overall wellbeing.

Individual/household migration rationalities do not necessarily result in macro-level socially optimal migration. In the case of rural and urban refugees, this is particularly true. Of course, while politics and public debate cannot define the perfect degree of rural to urban migration, migration per se is almost always associated with urban congestion, regardless of its extent (Andrew & Meen, 2006). Additional research suggest that the rising growth of urban areas ensures that the proportion of residents with access to modern services rises which ultimately results in social progress.

The objective of this study is to explore rural-urban migratory socio-economic determinants in Pakistan. This research will allow policymakers to strengthen the causes of accelerated unplanned migration by solving the grassroots issues and offering rural jobs if migration is an issue. The main reason for moving from rural to urban areas may be low socioeconomic conditions in Pakistani society. A detailed study of the prevalent socio-economic conditions in rural and urban areas is therefore important to consider the key reasons for the decision on migration.

2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE:

Migration is a selective process that happens more frequently in some people(Kanbur & Rapoport, 2005). Studies show, for instance, that individuals who are single, younger, well educated, unemployed, working in management or technical occupations, renting a home and do not have dependent children are more likely to move to the UK (Böheim & Taylor, 2002). The longer the distance moved, the more selective these characteristics are (Lee, 1966).

For instance, people prefer to migrate to higher-aged areas, green areas and private rented homes, less population density and lower unemployment and manufacturing levels (Congdon, 2010). Literature concerning these determinants of migration at individual and regional levels is well developed and covers many academic areas, including economics, geography, sociology and demography. However, the impact of migration in each of these disciplines is far less centered (Greenwood et al., 1991). For example, there are few studies about the socioeconomic composition of sub-national areas changed by internal migration. Change in the socio-economic area triggered by migration is of great significance to policymakers because, if the consequences of internal immigration are important, they would be forced to adapt their services. For example, if the concentration of poorer people is increased, welfare and health services will need more investment (Greenwood, 1975).

"To consider one form of migration without the others, as it has so much happened in the past, is only to look at part of the story and lead to the partial and unbalanced interpretation," King and Skeldon (2010), challenged the importance of distinguishing

between foreign and inner migration (King & Skeldon, 2010). They acknowledge that crossing national borders often has a political dimension which distinguishes them from internal migration. For example, when traveling from one country to another visas and permits are also required to be permanently settled. However, when considering that some migrants don't have to travel as far as a nation's borders as other immigration moves in to remain in a country, it would be incorrect to fully distinguish two types of migration. Furthermore, national borders do not always function as a migration barrier, for example, EU people have the right to travel and settle freely in any other Member State (Bailey & Boyle, 2004).

Inter-regional flux and located sources, also known as residential mobility, are typically segregated by internal migration(Andrew & Meen, 2006; Rowland, 2003). The distinction between internal migration (inter-regional mobility) and residential mobility in literature is not compatible and may cause uncertainty in the creation of the theory in particular. The terms are used synonymously occasionally and apply to long and shorter distance motions on other occasions. This division of various internal migration levels is connected to motivations associated with longer and shorter distance movements. Long or interregional movements are commonly seen as being driven by job reasons, whereas short distance movements are typically related to housing preferences (Meen, 2005)

Pakistan's migration from rural to urban areas is considered a significant social factor leading to change in current economic and social circumstances(Farooq et al., 2005).The migration process in Pakistan is a long-standing phenomenon and migration patterns and nature vary over time and has different effects on the lives of individual migrants(Adewale, 2005; Hamid, 2010).

Migration trends in the postcolonial geography of migration are examined, as well as regional migration systems and migration corridors, according to research findings. Twenty-five percent of Singapore's workforce is foreign-born. Brokerage firms and labor recruiters recruit, transport, and place migrants. Their sophisticated administrative systems are geared toward border control, while brokerage businesses and labor recruiters handle the recruitment, transportation, and placement of migrants. They also give incentives for skilled workers, encourage circular migration among low-skilled employees, and impose harsh sanctions on unauthorized migrants. As a result of the comparisons made between these countries, patterns of convergence have been identified.

One of the many reasons of vast migration is that there are various areas in South Asia that are extremely vulnerable to climate change. People living in coastal, river basin, and semi-arid regions are particularly vulnerable to the impacts of climate variability and change due to their dependence on climate-sensitive livelihoods, such as fisheries and agriculture. Current and future climate change are aggravating South Asia's natural dangers, such as glacial lake outburst flood and storm surge flooding. As people's livelihoods degrade, they are displaced or forced to make a difficult decision: whether to migrate or not (Nordqvist & Krampe, 2018).

This increases job prospects for economic development in urban areas. This phenomenon is called urbanization in order to find more work prospects for people to migrate to urban areas (Ullah, 2011). Over the last sixty-three years, Pakistan's general population has steadily increased over the period 1951-2010, by more than 52.5%. In 1951, 82.26% of the population lived in rural areas, but in 2008 this figure fell to 66%.Rural/urban migration's growth rate is 2 percent per year. Roughly 68 percent of people live in low socio-economic conditions in rural areas. Some one third of the rural population is under poverty, so people can move to urban areas for better socio-economic opportunities when they see no other way (Imran et al., 2013). The rate of unemployment and projected income gaps between origin and destination are responsible for rural to urban migration. Thus, people move from rural to urban areas to increase jobs in towns (Todaro, 1980).

However, due to extremely dynamic nature, historically limited legal support, strong regulatory competencies of the state, and significant intraregional differentiation, as well as their cultural uniqueness make South Asian economies stand out. It is due in great part to these characteristics that labour migration in the region is on the rise. We need to do more research on labour migration in Asia, its trends and the government policies that go along with it, because Asia currently actively supplies labour resources to a wide range of other countries (Ushakov & Auliandri, 2020).

On the contrary, the author of the book claims that migration has aided globalization. Especially in global communication and transportation systems, which allow individuals to learn about opportunities elsewhere and move at low cost, and which disaggregate the various dimensions of the crisis to determine which aspects of the flows have caused anxiety among political leaders and citizens. Controlling admission, absorbing migrants and refugees, international relations, international regimes and institutions, and moral issues are the five components of the worldwide migration dilemma. To put it another way, migration can open doors for people while also benefiting numerous countries economically and socially. The migration rate is expected to increase in recent years. World economy are at risk due to the coronavirus illness pandemic, including widespread unemployment and reduced incomes. 9 countries still enforced the mandatory shutting of all but essential workplaces as of June 2020. Migrant workers may be one of the hardest hit groups in the United States and elsewhere.

2.1. Determinants of Migration

Nearly all migration studies recognized that economic motives are necessary but not sufficient to explain population movements, and much of the recent work has sought to identify causation on different scales—from the macro-scale, based on broad and generalized inferences from structuralist analyses, to the micro-scale, based on behavioral studies (Oucho & Gould, 1993)

2.2. External Factors

States, whether indirectly, through export prices for instance or directly through structural adjustment policies, increasingly have a global economic and political order. In

turn, this may influence internal movements patterns and forms. Nevertheless, the mechanism should not contribute to crude economic determinism(Oucho & Gould, 1993). However, as Jamal and Weeks (1988), amply showed that despite reducing the incomes difference between rural and urban areas, rural-urban migration has not stopped. There was a strong need, in particular, for supply rather than demand factors in rural and urban immigrants, to be provided much greater attention to these impacts.

2.3. Government Policies and Programs

Administrative and institutional structures affected migration specifically and broadly. Planned by governments, development plans also included policies that directly discussed migration, while migration is usually less important than fertility or death. Both include rural development projects as well as river or lake basin resource development programs. Some countries had very direct migration triggered by government policies. In Northern Cameroon, an attempt to increase rice has changed demographics and migration trends (Audibert, 1985).

2.4. Community Level Variables

The factors that work at the community level (e.g. transport networks, societies (mainly social) and institutional elements, agriculture, economics and modernization) influenced migration. The involvement of families in a destination was often more important than economic reasons because potential migrants need to begin from a base until they are self-reliant. Chain migration may also be maintained in racial or parental systems (Oucho & Gould, 1993).

2.5. Household Decisions and Consideration

In the case of rural-urban migration, the mechanism could create a 'one family, two households' phenomenon (Weisner, 1980). These and other studies showed that individual migration behaviour, rather than individual economic decisions, can be triggered more by household or family obligations.

2.6. Environmental and Resources Factors

The climate has an important influence on movement of people. The most obvious example is the case of nomadic pastoralists and seasonal or shorter-term drivers seeking pastures for their livestock, but if the pastoralists are sedentarised, the climate must ensure their survival. More generally, however, migrants migrate to areas which was less hostile, or to environments that was recently released themselves from environmental diseases (Oucho & Gould, 1993).

Mortimore (1989), analysed the farmers' responses to drought in Northern Nigeria showed that the range of answers that enabled people to be resilient to environmental degradation, including both circulation and permanent migration. His methodology served as a model for a large-scale study of migration in the years on this theme.

Irfan et al. (1983), has analyzed Pakistan's internal and external migration trends and has found that the difference is a significant determinant of internal migration. Ahmed and Sirageldin (1993), illustrated Pakistan's internal migration actions using PLMS data from theoretical HCI system. People with a high school or university degree were concluded that they were likely to move. The people who belong to the trade or skilled workers show higher trends in migration. A dedication to place of residence has been found to have a detrimental effect on migration. Land, home ownership and school presence were included in the contribution component to the place of residence. The effect of migration on internal migrants income in Pakistan had been clarified by Ahmed and Slrageldin (1994).

The data had been used in the 1979–80 survey on population, labor, and migration. The findings showed that migrants' income increased relatively over time compared to those who spent less time following migration. By means of the labor force survey, Khan et al. (2000), studied migration decision.

The migration was focused on non-economic factors with family or spouse as well. (Memon, 2005), used the Pakistan Integral Household Survey and the Labor Force Survey to perform an internal migration study in Pakistan. Research was conducted to examine the effects of education on migration decision-making and migrants' revenue within the context of human capital. The outcome indicated a likelihood of increased migration: the decision to migrate with age had a considerable impact on immigrants' wages, human capital determinants such as education and experience. It means a positive relationship between education and earning. The empirical research on internal migration determinants has been conducted in Turkey by (FİLİZTEKİN & ÇELİK, 2010). Results showed that migration is strongly affected either by economic elements such as income differentials and unemployment rates or by social factors such as the existence of social networks and personal characteristics, such as age and education.

For this purpose, data was collected from both primary and secondary springs, Muhammad (2004), studied the migration from rural to urban districts from Lahore, studying the profile of rural migrants and determining the distance range of the migrants to the city of Lahore. The study sample was selected using a variety of sample techniques such as simple sampling, stratified sampling and systemic sampling, etc., to estimate the effect of push and pull factors that contribute to the move from rural to urban areas, using linear and log linear approaches. The study recommended that infrastructure should be improved and training institutions for unskilled workers should also be established.

Ullah (2004), analyzed the rural people being pushed into towns. Data was gathered through a 2003 survey questionnaire. For the entire analysis, SPSS was used. The findings of this study showed that the effect of migration on employment, landlessness, extreme poverty and easy access to informal areas in cities was significantly linked to pull and shoot. Oda (2005), analyzed the impact of internal migration on the well-being of the house, and information was collected from PSES for this purpose (2000-01). This paper examined why migrants were moving and how they were moving. The study showed that

males migrated due to their economic conditions while females, on the other hand, migrated on the grounds of non-economic reasons. Second, the study examined the effects of domestic migration using household migration as a distinction between migrants and non-migrants.

The study revealed that urban social conditions were better than rural migrants. Arif (2005), assesses the effect on household well-being of internal migration. PSES from 2000-01 was the data source for this study. The study was analyzed in two phases and first examined the rate and direction of migrant population movements. The results showed that men mostly migrate for economic reasons from rural to urban, while women migrate on non-economic grounds, for non-economic reasons, only one-sixth of them migrate from rural to urban. In the second phase, the research uses a head of the household's migration status to distinguish migrants from non migrants to study the effects on the household weeks of internal migrations. The determinants of internal migration in Faisalabad Metropolitan were investigated by Farooq et al. (2005).

Three hundred people who responded to the sample are collected by randomization from four districts in Faisalabad. The estimate technique used for estimation was the Probit model estimated by the SPSS. The study results showed that land preservation was the biggest economic opportunity in Pakistan's rural areas and landlessness and complete land deprivation was a positive factor in the migration of families or individuals from rural to urban areas.

From a household perspective, Oda (2005), studied labor migration. The study was based on a field study carried out in the district of Chakwal. The study showed that non-migrants was with very poor economic conditions and widespread poverty. The study also showed that non-farmers and non-migrants live at the highest degree of poverty and 60% of them live under the significant amount. Hamid (2010), looked at rural to urban migration gender aspects. The research was performed between 1996 and 2006 on the basis of a Labor Force Survey (LFS). The selected LFS contains a sub-sample of migrant populations. Persons were regarded as an analytical entity. The results of the study indicated that internal migration remained stable over time, female migration predominated, and marriages were the dominant factor in women migration. The study showed that the percentage of rural to urban migration has increased as women migrate in large areas, where the percentage of urban and urban migrations has decreased but was still high.

Ullah (2011), assessed the influence on rural-urban migration of a number of socioeconomic factors. The research was carried out in Northwest Pakistan on the basis of a survey. In estimation of different socioeconomic variables, researchers use the Binary Probit Model. The findings indicated a positive correlation between employment prospects, workforce family members and years of schooling. Khan et al. (2011), explored the gender wise causes of rural and urban migration and the socio-economic factors of migration as well. The secondary data gathered from the Indian Migration Census 2011 in New Delhi was used in this report. The study showed that people migrate because of socio-economic factors, and men migrate mainly due to economic factors.

In Sri Lanka, a study was carried out a study to examine the effect of rural migration and household welfare remittances on urban labor migration. The survey was carried out from February to April 2011 in Sri Lanka with a total of 377 interviewees. In order to investigate the determinants of the flow of funds and use of the transfers in sent communities the analysis utilized Tobit, Probit analyzes. The results of the analysis indicated that the patient is never married more often than not. The study showed that migration within rural communities could minimize poverty by improving well-being. Imran et al. (2013), conducted a study in the town of Sargodha to examine the socio-economic conditions for rural-urban migration in urban areas. Three randomly selected sites, i.e., were taken with a sampling of 120 respondents (40 from each colonie). Farooq Colony and Old Civil Line, Satellite Town.

3. SOURCE OF DATA ON MIGRATION

Although there was no database for internal migration in Pakistan explicitly, there were nevertheless three data sets that contained information about the same subject. The PIHS 2017-2022, Labor Force Survey (LFS) 2017-2022 and Pakistan Census 2017. These included Pakistan Integrated Home Survey 2017-2022. On the basis of four parameters the three data sets can be compared:

1. Coverage,
2. Definition of migration,
3. The kind and demographic and economic indicators of regional (rural/urban) movements for which data was available. Since no data set was collected in particular for the purpose of researching migration, all data sets have their own limitations and must be used together.

3.1. PIHS 2017-2022:

An integrated household survey of Pakistan has been prepared using a sample of 16,305 households which comprises 115,171 households. A migrant was described as anyone who had not lived since birth in the same town/town/dorf. Therefore, a person who has migrated from one village to another in the same area was also a migrant. Only by the urban-rural division and not by district, province or any geographic location was the place of the previous residence defined. Therefore, the PIHS was useful for the study of rural-urban migration.

The significant advantage PIHS had over other data sets was that it contains data on asset holdings and household expenditure that was not available in any other data set. Since all these characteristics can be correlated with migration status, the PIHS can allow a much more nuanced analysis of the migration process. The ability to link migration with land ownership was a particularly important relationship that the PIHS allows to be studied. A major drawback of the data set was that the province of origin was not specified for migrants and inter and intra-provincial migration cannot be studied.

3.2. 2017-2022 LFS:

The labor force survey sample size was equivalent and enumered about 18,000 homes and 113,000 individuals. LFS 2017: Labor force survey. A migrant that had not lived in the same district since birth was specified by LFS. How-ever, internal activity iwas overlooked. The LFS enables intra- and interprovincial movements to be mapped and this reflected its advantages over the PIHS.

3.3. Census of Population 2017:

The census described a migrant as a person who did not come from a residence district. It also gave information on the whole population instead of a random sample. In addition, the Census provided information on migration between, within and outside provinces, as well as rural-urban migration. Latin was therefore constrained in such a way as to allow migration to be studied from rural to urban areas and not from rural or urban areas in a known target region, i.e. the source region was not known (Memon, 2005).

3.4. Migration Selectivity and Differentials

The selectivity of migrants by demographic and socioeconomic characteristics of the general population was an essential feature of any form of voluntary internal migration. In this segment, the most commonly discussed disparities of interest to population analysts are addressed: age, sex, education and employment.

3.5. Age Selectivity

The peak age of internal migration in selected countries, based on census and survey data for 2010–2022 is 20-24 model age group. The declined in the average migrant age had, however, created a generic desire among governments to curbed youth, better educated, more growth-conscious migration from rural and urban areas and encouraged them to become more involved in rural development (Oucho & Gould, 1993).

3.6. Sex Differentials

In both forced and voluntary recruitment during the colonial period a very important sex difference existed. For difficult tasks in both the agricultural and the mining sectors, males were recruited. They often served in urban areas with blue-collar and white colors, but they were also forbidden to carry their families and wives. The continuous sexual differences in migration allowed the use of the sex ratios to differentiate between migration and migration areas possible.

Census and survey estimated sex ratios suggested high sex ratios in destination areas (i.e. more men than women) and low sex ratios in the origin areas. A survey in Nairobi, Kenya, at the same time as the Senegal study found that most migrant women were engaged in household movements (Omogi, 1992).

3.7. Educational Differentials

In Tanzania, it was discovered that "where educated workers are in surplus in comparison with their number of high-quality jobs, the anticipated income from the qualified to the unskilled was falling in urban areas" (Barnum & Sabot, 1976). The trained people, however, increasingly participate in rural-rural migration to employment they had previously disregarded, or migrate to low-income or informal activities in urban areas. School leavers, like in Kenya in the tea and sugar industries, can readily take any job to survive (Odallo, 1985; Oucho, 1985).

3.8. Occupational Characteristics

Research into urban and rural migration in Africa and elsewhere has shown that relatively rich households sponsor the migration of some of their members more than the poorer. Home incomes therefore have a strong relation with internal migration, since they are with the anticipated income at the destination. Qualified persons with some education and skill training capacity tend to favor rural-urban migration, but rural-rural migration sources are unqualified and poorly trained. There was a rising number of rural, town and city flows in West and Central Africa involving self-employed persons and citizens in formal employment with some informal revenue sources (Oucho & Gould, 1993).

Data from two countries in West Africa indicated migrants' occupational differences. Ghana, in 1970 — 63% and 44% respectively — was employed in agriculture, followed by trade for a distant second -– in significant proportions of intraregional and inter-regional gender migrants. In the neighboring country, in 1970, 45% of the intraregional male migrants were listed as producers, transporters and workers; the corresponding figure for migrants in the agro-industry, in particular hunting and fishing, was 38% and 41% (Zachariah & Conde, 1981).

4. SPATIAL PATTERNS

4.1. Rural–Rural Migration

Since most people live in rural areas and the continuous and complicated movement within rural societies in all countries, even at livelihood level, intracommunal movements continued to be the most frequent among the four main directions. More commonly, rural migration involved farmers traveling randomly in search of new land or in formally organized relocation schemes. As sufficient land was gradually lacking in availability, spontaneous migration would probably decline. In the general drift south in West Africa and movement to marginal countries, however, spontaneous migration continues to be of great significance, just as in Kenya (Dietz, 1986).

4.2. Rural-Urban Migration

Conclusions about urbanization as a phenomenon of migration were discussed in detail. It was sufficient at this point to conclude that there was largely, but not fully, an economic attraction to urban are as Adepoju (1990), with broad rural and urban incomes and

disparities in quality of life. Jobs were important and migration from rural to urban employment was prevalent. However, there can be additional attractions to enhance accessibility of high-quality health care, education (Gould, 1990) and housing (Ohadike & Teklu, 1990).

4.3. Urban-Rural and Intra-Urban Migration

The urban/rural movement comprised both routine return migration and migration into rural agricultural or mining complexes, which was synchronized with the peak agricultural seasons (especially in weeds and harvesting). Urban rural migration was characterized not only by unemployed people but also offenders, irregular "repatriation" and the relatively permanent return of both retreaters and unsuccessful urban migrants. Migrants included self-employed individuals, prospect successful businesses and travel regularly. The transition from smaller to larger cities for migrants involved both public and private sector employees moving from one city center to another (Oucho & Gould, 1993).

4.4. Return Migration

By default, a return visit was temporary, with further migration anticipated, even if its exact timing was uncertain. In comparison, returning "migration" means a longer time to the source and maybe no additional migration. Due to their strong connection to home zones and their temporary occupation at the rural or urban destination, African workers tend to be visiting or moving home after a period. The remittance which migrants send or carry back to their homes is a related issue of return migration. These transfers help to ensure migrants were welcomed back to their homes when they need to or wish to return (Oucho & Gould, 1993).

4.5. Theories of Internal Migration

This section discusses the growth of interdisciplinary migration theory. It begins with the debate in the late 19th century of Ravenstein's migration 'laws.' Then there is a debate on economic theories of internal migration, including neoclassical viewpoints and the theory of human capital. Their expected effects on socioeconomic change is addressed.

4.6. Ravenstein's Laws of Migration

Interior migration theories could be traced back to the internal migration laws established largely through the findings of the British Census of 1881 (Ravenstein, 1885). Ravenstein compared the residential county with the county of their birth for migration flow calculation and then created declarations which characterized those flows. The following are his laws summarized:

1. Most migrants traveled short distances
2. Stage by step migration
3. Migrants who travel long distances normally go to one of the great centers of trade or industry trade
4. Nation migrants from a city flock to the city

5. Migration was primarily directed from agricultural to industry centres. and trade
6. A compensating counter current was produced from each current of migration
7. Towns' indigenous people was less migrating than rural people
8. Women are more migratory than husbands, but men were more likely to continue
9. Migration rises with the growth and transportation of industries and trade Enhancements
10. The key causes of migration were economic higher wage pay

4.7. Neoclassical Economic Migration Perspective

In his first study of migration, Greenwood (1975), applied neoclassical economic theory Wages Theory novel. He argued that the key cause of migration was disparities in incomes and that high unemployment and low salaries would drive migration at a low rate The pull impact would be unemployment and high salaries. This theory of push-pull Migration can be conceived as a balance of supply and demand-related mechanism Differences in labor and therefore wages (Greenwood et al., 1991).

The theory indicated that wage levels between regions would remain unchangeable in the long term as migration generates a socio-economic balance. Surprisingly, amid continuing evidence of increased regional wage differentials in the face of increased migration, the migration model remained the guide in economic literature (Groenewold, 1997; Kanbur & Rapoport, 2005).

The problem with neoclassical theory was, however, that it presupposed uniform labor, complete information, and perfect mobility for all within a society, but the truth was more like heterogeneous jobs, partial information and great mobility potential differentials. Economists with the development of the theory of human capital and its application to migration surveys were partly concerned with that. Sjaastad (1962), introduced instability and other migration-related factors that might delay or even stop the process. That relaxes the idea of all internal migration from low to high wage areas as the moving costs are higher than the return for some people and this would differ from person to individual. However, the theory of human capital assumes that migrants would optimize their income and respond to reasonable expectations.

4.8. Cumulative Causation Theory

Since the development of individual and household data sets, the theory of human capital on internal migration has been developed and tested. This form of data helps economists, geographers and sociologists to test drivers of internal migration and figure out why those individuals and families are moving. These investigations have resulted in internal conclusions that migration was selective. Some scholars rethought its impact upon the long-standing balance of socioeconomic region changes which was not clarified by the theory of human capital because of the selective existence of internal migrations (Peeters, 2008).

Hassana et al. (2022), suggested cumulative cause as a mechanism explanation of steady population and economic growth in net migration and decrease in net migration areas.

Migration can lead to increased growth in host regions and migration can result in lower growth in sending regions, leading to a cumulative cause phase.

The concept of cumulative caused as a mechanism was suggested by Greenwood in 1975. Explaining ongoing population and economic growth in net migration regions and decreased in net migration regions. In-migration in receiving regions could lead to increased growth, and out-migration in sending regions might result in lower growth, resulting in a cumulative causes phase (Greenwood, 1975). This was due to the fact that refugees were not Same but limited population that contained highly active workers disproportionately. These employees would be drawn from the least demanded areas and from the fast growing areas of work.

4.9. Family Migration

The literature on migration in theory economics was largely individually framed, and seldom takes into account the fact that migration required a household or a family for several people. In the theory of human capital, there have been attempts to incorporate a multi-person aspect by assuming that people move when a net family benefit from moving was aggregated (Blackburn, 2010; Mincer, 1978). This means that many families would move, even if the income of a partner falls or at least temporarily they had to give up their jobs. This contributed to the belief that women were 'female refugees' and 'female trailers' (Boyle et al., 2003).

But Blackburn (2010), indicated that this was becoming less necessary and that internal migration was becoming more and more linked to local facilities, because couples sacrifice combined income to made a living atmosphere more comfortable.

4.10. Child Migration

The economic effect of movements on the income of married and cohabiting parties was a significant part of family literature on the migration. There had been an underexplored effect on the internal movement of children, as children were frequently tied in with their parents' own status and the absence of a private agency (Bushin, 2009; Dobson & Stillwell, 2000). Nevertheless, it was shown that the presence of children decreased family migration and restricted the movement to shorter distances than similar-age families without children (Long, 1992).

This means that migration was less desirable or at least limited whether the kids were in the family. Interestingly, the propensity of child migration was declining with age, which means that parents would travel even less if their children were older (Dobson & Stillwell, 2000; Long, 1992). This may be due to the greater possibility of older children having brothers and sisters that made it much more difficult for their family to settle on a move which did not affect all their children adversely.

5. MATERIALS AND METHODS

5.1. Model 1: Demographic Factors

The demographic variables of this model include age, locality, sex, and marital status of migrants, the models were constructed with explanatory variables and the following models were given. Migration takes value 1, as migrants migrate from urban to rural areas to zero when moving from rural to urban regions. Migration took value one. The age varieties were continual, while sex took the value 1 for men and 2 for women as a categorical variation. The position of the variable was available. The martial status also designated the meaning 1 of never married, 2 for married, 3 of wife/ widow and 4 of divorced. Marital status was also categorical (Kanwal et al., 2015).

5.2. Model 2: Socio-Economic Factors

Schooling, literacy, relationships, jobs, and business prospects comprised of socio-economic variables. The literacy variable was a binary variable which takes 1 for yes and 2 for no. Education was a categorical variable which valued 1 for below primary, two above primary but below metric, three above but below graduation and 4 above and beyond graduation. Employment was a categorical measure, taking 0 for others and 1 for workers. Land preservation was also a group variable with a value of 0 for others and 1 for agriculture. The company was a categorical variable which was 0 for others and 1 for business. Marriage was a group of different variables with the value 0 for others and 1 for marriages (Kanwal et al., 2015).

5.3. Model 3: Demographic and Socio-Economic Factors

This model composed of all the factors that were demographic, social and economic factors, which are listed above (Kanwal et al., 2015).

5.4. Flows

The first part of the research included an analysis of internal migration trends in Pakistan. We were estimating the number of persons migrating to and from a district from LFS data for this reason. We look at those people who had migrated in the last 10 years and not before, as the appropriate data sets for migration are no longer valid for more than 10 years.

5.5. Data Sources and Methodology

The data and survey was conducted according to the method described by Nisar et al. (2013).The data from the Labor force Survey (2017-2022) collected by the Federal Bureau of Statistics was obtained for the analytical part of the analysis. This survey provides information on the active and inactive people and on staff in Pakistan. The sample size of the survey consisted of 36,464 households, represented nationwide for example, listed in each year.

The LFS questionnaire was updated in due course to keep the best practices up to date. The 2017-2022 LFS questionnaire asked all people over ten years of age and who were over ten years of age. The issues involved migration, residential district prior to migration, former rural or urban residential area and reasons for migration.

The migration trend was examined based on major factors, the explanation being grouped into the categories of economic and non-economic migration (Chiswick, 1979; Khan et al., 2000). The main categories of migration were established Based on economic factors including work transfer, jobs searching, training and industry, economic migration is based. The explanation for non-economic migration was health, marriage, accompanying parents, or return to their roots.

The first part of the research included an analysis of internal migration trends in Pakistan. We were estimating the number of persons migrating to and from a district from LFS data for this reason. We look at those people who had migrated in the last 10 years and not before, as the appropriate data sets for migration are no longer valid for more than 10 years and analyzing two forms of migration: rural, and urban, and urban, because of the variations between the causes and drives behind the two types of migration (Mahmud et al., 2011).

The distribution profile was analyzed in depth by using LFS data based on the forming of reasons. The further study was then estimated of the determinants of the migration process in the context of human capital. The view of the system for human capital was that migration, preparation and expertise were investment. Unique to people, human capital investment often had a certain depreciation and deterioration of physical and economic conditions. The migration decision was modeled on the logistic model.

Logistic regression and multiple linear regression are close to each other, but the distinction between both is that logistic regression addresses only two values of 0 and 1, while the dependent variable is categorical. Independent variables are a blend of category and numerical variables in logistic regression. Logistic regression equation or function uses a method of maximum probability rather than a common lesser square method. Due to the regression coefficient, the highest likelihood form was that the observed data is grouped into the corresponding category.

Like normal regression, logistic regression had certain hypotheses like that, since the maximum chance coefficients were big samples, it had two categories or dichotomous; categories was exclusive and exhaustive; the sample size was large over 50 values percase.

logical regression equation;

Log [p(x)] = log [p(x)/1-p(x)]

Where;

p = is probable that a case is in a certain category

1-p = is likely not to be in a certain category.

The determinants of internal migration were described in terms of costs and returns to migration through a collection of explanatory variables. These factors consisted of traditional age-in-year human capital variables, schooling in terms of completed school years (EDUC) and technical and vocational training (TECHVOC). The marital status (MARTSTAT), the position of heads of the household or other house household members in the family, was a number of variables (HHEAD).

The particular model was written for the male and females as:

MIG=F(AGE, EDUC, TECHVOC, MARSTAT, HEAD)

These variables are further broken down into data groups.

6. STATISTICAL AND EMPIRICAL ESTIMATION

The data from labour forcesurvey2017-2022 is used in this study to estimate the determinants of internal migration Pakistan. The sample used in the study consists upon 100532 individuals including males and females population aged ten years and above. Out of this sample, 47250 (47%) individuals are females and 53281 (53%) are males. Among them 10111 are migrants and 90421 individuals are non-migrants.

Table 1. Incidence of Migration by Sex and Migration Status

Migration Category	Male	Female	Total
Migrants	4752	5359	10111
Non-Migrants	60850	29571	90421
Total	53281	47250	100532

Source: Calculated from Labour Force Survey (2017-2022).

It explains that 20.30 per cent individuals are migrants and 79.70 per cent individuals are non-migrants. The further analysis of migrants by sex shows that sample consist of more female (58.9 per cent) migrant than male (42.1 per cent). These results are provided in table 1.

The distribution of population of age ten and above is provided in table 2. It explains that only 10.30 per cent people are migrants and other 89.70 per cent are the non-migrants. The analysis of migrants on the basis of their previous place of residence shows that majority of them was living in rural are as before migration.

51.95 per cent individuals are those who migrated from rural areas while 39.9 percent are the migrants who are migrated from urban areas.

Table 2. Direction and Status of Migration

Migration Category	Total	Percentage
Migrants	10111	10.300
Non-migrants	90421	89.700
Rural	7929	58.950
Urban	5637	42.050

Source: Calculated from Labour Force Survey (2017-2022).

It explains the pattern and direction of migration and this direction of migration is found from rural to urban areas. The description of this pattern of migration is provided in table 2.

Table 3. Distribution of Migrants by Sex and Reason

Gender	Economic	Non-economic	Total
Male	1000 (35)	2591 (65)	3591
Female	229 (2)	6291(98)	6520
Total	1229 (17)	8882(83)	10111

Source: Calculated from Labour Force Survey (2017-2022). Note: that figures in brackets shows the percentages.

Distribution of migrants if further analyzed on the basis of migration, the results show that the major reason for migration in both male and females is non- economic. The economic reasons for migration are search for a new job, job transfer, education and business while non- economic reasons are like marriages, migration with spouse or with parents, health and others. The results of such type of analysis are provided in table 3. The results show that over al l73.10 percent people migrate due to non- economic reasons. 54.90 per cent male migration is based upon non-economic reasons whereas 78.00 per cent females migrate due to non- economic reasons.

Table 4 explains the distribution of migration by sex and attaches reasons for migration in case of male and female. It shows that marriages, migration with parents and others are the major reasons for female to migrate; whereas migration with parents and return home are the main reasons of migration for male members. These all reasons are considered as non economic reasons of migration.

Table 4. Distribution of Migration by Sex with Reason

Life Events Categorized	Male	Female	Total
Job Transfer	449	43	492
Job Research	1915	57	1972
Agri Land Research	186	18	204
Education	183	65	248
Business	300	29	329
Health	10	01	11
Marriage	181	5531	5712
With Parents	2899	1792	4691
With Spouse	90	2320	2410
With Son/Daughter	71	168	239
Return to Home	1746	105	1851
Others	594	374	968

Source: Calculated from Labour Force Survey (2017-2022).

In human capital framework, the factors responsible for migration or migration determinants are analyzed by using logistic model. In logistic model, the decision to migrate is a dichotomous variable and it describes status of the person as migrants and non-migrants. The pooled sample consist of 100532 males and female of age 10 years and above, out of which 47250 (47%) are females and 53281 (53%) are males. These results are given table 5.

Table 5. Estimated Coefficients of Male and Female Sample

Variables	Female	Male
Intercept	-7.03	-6.83
AGE	1.36*	0.98*
EDU	1.05*	0.58*
TECVOC	0.89	0.74*
MARSTAT	0.77*	-0.98*
HHEAD	0.32	0.23*

**Significantat0.05; Chi-square formale:109092.09&Samplesizeformale:95464; Chi-squarefor female: 60097.53 & Sample size for female: 90068*

AGE variable coefficient shows that probability of migration increases with age for males and females. The technical and vocational training variable TECH indicates that possession of this type of training increase the probability of migration.

For both males and females. This variable changes its significance when education variable is divided into categories.

The variable of education (EDU) shows a significant positive effect on probability of migration for females. In case of males it also shows significant positive effect on migration. The coefficient of education shows that there is greater and stronger magnitude for migration in case of females as compare to males. The coefficient of marital status MARTSTAT variable is negatively significant in case of males and positively significant in case of females. These results are in line with the results of distribution of male and female migrants according to reasons of migration. It is mentioned that majority of females migrate due to marriages. Therefore, probability of a married female to migrate is greater than an unmarried female.

The household head variable HHEAD represents the position of a family that whether person is the head of household. The coefficient of this variable is significant and positive for males; and positive but in significant for female. Explains that being a household head increases the probability of migration for male head as compare to female head.

7. CONCLUSION

The study investigates the process of internal migration in Pakistan utilizing the labour force survey data 2017-2022. This survey shows that the migrant are mostly comprises of males and females who migrate for non-economic reasons. The analysis of migrants also shows that most of the migrants before migration were residing in rural areas. Further migrants are grouped into economic and non- economic migrants for the analysis that whether the decision of migration is a rational keeping in view of expectations of economic rewards in destination. It is inconsistent with most of the studies that migrants in large number move from rural areas to urban areas for sake of more facilities in the urban areas. The positive and significant effect of education on migration for both males and females proves that migration is a human capital investment. The female education is also found an important determinant of migration. The process of migration contributes much in the growth and efficiency of the resources in the economy. Therefore, female education is suggested for policy implication.

Author Contributions:

The collaborative efforts of the research team for this article involved various contributions from each member. Karar Hussain and Mir Hassan conceptualized the study, with Mir Hassan also taking on the role of methodologist. Jaffar was responsible for software-related tasks, while Mir Hassan and Karar Hussain conducted validation. Mir Hassan and Karar Hussain participated in formal analysis, with Jaffar handling the investigation. Ajmal contributed to resource management, and Mir Hassan took charge of data curation. Karar Hussain played a key role in drafting the original manuscript, and both Mir Hassan and Karar Hussain were involved in the review and editing process. Jaffar handled visualization, while Mir Hassan supervised the project. Overall project administration was overseen by Mir Hassan.

Funding:

The research did not receive any financial support or funding.

Institutional Review Board Statement:

None.

Informed Consent Statement:

None.

Data Availability Statement:

N/A.

Acknowledgments:

None.

Conflicts of Interest:

None.

Reference:

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