Migration Letters

Volume: 21, No: S4 (2024), pp. 2092-2101

ISSN: 1741-8984 (Print) ISSN: 1741-8992 (Online)

www.migrationletters.com

Effect Of Urbanization On Wealth Accumulation In Pakistan

Rehmat Ali[1] , Muhammad Tayyab[2] , Sabahat Jalal[3]

Abstract

Urbanization is an important determinant of wealth accumulation and a defining feature of contemporary economic development. In Pakistan, nature and magnitude of the relationship between urbanization and wealth accumulation need to explore. This study aims to examine the impact of urbanization on wealth accumulation in Pakistan. The study uses annual time series data for 48 years (1970–2017). Advanced econometric techniques are employed, including the Augmented Dickey–Fuller unit root test, the Autoregressive Distributed Lag (ARDL) model to analyze short-run and long-run dynamics, and the Breusch-Godfrey and Breusch-Pagan [1]tests for diagnostic checks. The empirical results indicate that urbanization significantly contributes to wealth accumulation in Pakistan, despite ongoing economic challenges. In the short run, real interest rate, gross domestic income, life expectancy, and gross national expenditures positively influence wealth accumulation, whereas some variables exhibit inverse long-run relationships. These findings highlight the economic implications of urbanization for Pakistan and underscore the importance of urban-focused policies to enhance wealth generation. While Pakistan's experience differs from advanced economies, urbanization still exerts a substantial influence on wealth accumulation due to the country's evolving economic landscape.

Keywords: *Wealth Accumulation; Urbanization; Life Expectancy; Age Dependency; National Expenditures.*

1. Introduction

Wealth accumulation comprises savings and investment in human capital and has long been recognized as one of the major features of economic behavior and an important outcome of the development process. As economies advance, increases in national income are typically accompanied by growth in wealth, reflected through higher private savings and greater investment in human capital. At the global level, wealth has expanded substantially, with total wealth rising by USD 36.3 trillion and wealth per adult reaching USD 77,309, an increase of 8.5 percent compared to 2018 (Global Wealth Report, 2020). Economic literature has examined the determinants of wealth accumulation, with recent studies increasingly emphasizing the role

[1]Assistant Professor Institute of Management Sciences Peshawar Email; rehmat.ali@imsciences.edu.pk
[2]Associate Professor of Economics, Head, School of Economics and Finance, Minhaj University Lahore Email; hod.eco@mul.edu.pk
[3]Student, Institute of Management Sciences Peshawar Email; sabahatjalal906@gmail.com

of structural and demographic transformations. Among these, urbanization has emerged as a critical factor shaping economic opportunities, income distribution, and saving behavior. Urbanization is progressing worldwide and has been described as a defining characteristic of the contemporary era, with more than half of the global population now residing in urban areas and the proportion expected to exceed 70 percent by 2050 (UNDESA, 2011).

In Pakistan, wealth accumulation and urbanization have gained particular relevance. The country has witnessed a rapid expansion of urban centers alongside notable growth in private savings and investment in human capital, especially in education. Pakistan also ranks among the fastest-growing countries in terms of ultra-high-net-worth individuals, indicating significant shifts in wealth dynamics. Simultaneously, urbanization in Pakistan has accelerated markedly, with the urban population projected to approach half of the total population in the near future (UNDP Pakistan, 2019). Despite this parallel growth, empirical evidence on how urbanization influences wealth accumulation in Pakistan remains limited, underscoring the need for a systematic investigation of the effect of urbanization on wealth accumulation in the country.

2. Literature

Wealth accumulation has gained attention in economic literature and is examined through its indicators and determinants at both national and international levels. Urbanization has emerged as an important area of research due to its complex economic and social implications. Existing literature identifies investment in human capital and savings as the two principal components of wealth accumulation. Early theoretical and empirical studies highlight cities as centers of learning and skill exchange, where population density promotes interaction and accelerates human capital accumulation (Glaeser, 1999). Empirical evidence further shows that urban wage premiums largely reflect skill acquisition over time rather than initial endowments, confirming that urbanization speeds up human capital formation (Glaeser & Mare, 2001). Historical evidence from Victoria, British Columbia, demonstrates that rapid urbanization increased demand for public education and institutional development, reinforcing investment in human capital (Glegg, 2001).

Studies show that urban areas provide higher returns to education due to better infrastructure, technology, and interaction, thereby encouraging education expenditure and skill formation (Bertinelli, 2003; Bertinelli & Black, 2004). It is further shown that urbanization raises human capital accumulation once economies surpass a certain development threshold (Bertinelli & Zou, 2008). City-based and regional studies from Europe, Africa, and Asia reinforce the view that urbanization acts as a catalyst for educational advancement and human capital formation (Grosvenor & Watts, 2010; Arouri et al., 2014; Konuk et al., 2016).

Another strand of the literature focuses on wealth accumulation through savings and its interaction with macroeconomic and demographic factors. Inflation has been shown to affect savings behavior, wealth accumulation, and inequality through asset composition and uncertainty channels (Wolff, 1979; Kessler & Wolff, 1991; Wolff, 1994; Heer & Süssmuth, 2007; Camera & Chien, 2014). National income and asset accumulation studies emphasize the role of income growth, wealth structure, and institutional quality in shaping long-run wealth dynamics (Daniels, 2014; Waldenström, 2016; Daniels & Augustine, 2016).

Demographic factors such as dependency ratios, life expectancy, income levels, and female labor force participation also play a critical role in saving behavior and wealth accumulation,

often improving with urbanization (Ram & Schultz, 1979; Kim & Zang, 1997; Yasin, 2007; Apps & Rees, 2001; Lee, 1998; Ketkaew et al., 2019). Country-specific evidence from Pakistan confirms the importance of income, age, dependency ratio, and residence in shaping saving behavior (Burney & Khan, 1992). Interest rates and financial policies further influence savings and investment dynamics across developing and developed economies (Mwega et al., 1990; Desroches & Francis, 2006, 2010; Chinyere, 2015; Raza et al., 2017; Moyo & Le Roux, 2018). Finally, recent studies emphasize the role of government expenditure in education and health as a key driver of human capital formation and long-run economic growth (Kousar et al., 2020; Shafuda & De, 2020). Despite extensive global evidence, empirical studies jointly examining urbanization and wealth accumulation, particularly for Pakistan, remain limited.

Theoretical growth models underscore savings as central to capital accumulation and economic growth (Harrod, 1939; Domar, 1946, 1947; Modigliani, 1966, 1970; Tobin, 1967; Lucas, 1988; Romer, 1986). Empirical evidence suggests that per capita income growth, financial development, demographic structure, and urbanization-related factors significantly influence private and national savings (Leff, 1969; Ogaki et al., 1995; Masson et al., 1998; Edwards, 1995, 1996; Lahiri, 1989; Loayza et al., 2000; Hondroyiannis, 2006; Bandari et al., 2007; Faruqee & Husain, 1998; Hess, 2010). The impact of inflation on savings remains ambiguous and depends on household expectations and uncertainty (Deaton, 1977; Chopra, 1988; Miller & Benjamin, 2008).

3. Theoretical Model

There is a positive relationship between wealth accumulation and urbanization. As urbanization cuases industrial development and urban centers act as engines of economic growth (Bhagat, 2011; Mitra and Mehta, 2011). Urbanization is typically accompanied by the expansion of the secondary and tertiary sectors; industry and services. With economic development, individual productivity rises, leading to higher income levels, in turn, increases consumption and saving, where saving directly contributes to wealth accumulation. Moreover, urbanization enhances access to education and encourages higher expenditure on human capital, thereby further supporting wealth accumulation (Glegg, 2001). Inflation also influences the wealth accumulation. That is, the poor agents save mostly in the form of cash, whereas wealthier agents invest in the stock market and build equity. Inflation causes nominal interest rates to rise, as well as the actual tax liability on interest income. Interestingly, higher inflation leads to decrease stock market participation. Additionally, the decline in savings leads to a decline in wealth accumulation and increases wealth distribution inequality (Heer and Süssmuth, 2007). The real interest rate is another important determinant of wealth accumulation. A substantial body of literature supports a positive relationship between real interest rates and wealth accumulation, as higher real returns incentivize saving and capital formation (Hondroyiannis, 2006; Paul, 2004). Urbanization also operates through the demonstration effect. Rising income and living standards in urban areas encourage individuals to align their consumption and saving behavior with prevailing social norms. This behavior extends beyond consumption to wealth accumulation, as individuals seek to secure future welfare for their offspring. Altruistic motives, whereby parents accumulate wealth for intergenerational transfers, further reinforce this mechanism (Mitrut and Wolff, 2009). Additionally, higher income levels stimulate economic activity, expand industrial output, and increase both private and public savings through higher tax revenues Demographic structure, particularly the dependency ratio, plays a crucial role in determining saving behavior. Empirical evidence suggests that a higher proportion of the working-age population significantly raises private and public savings, while an increase in the dependency ratio elevates consumption relative to income and reduces

savings (Kim and Zang, 1997; Yasin, 2007 Finally, life expectancy is another channel through which urbanization influences wealth accumulation. Urban residents generally enjoy better health outcomes and longer life expectancy than rural populations (Phillips, 1993). An increase in life expectancy extends individuals' participation in the labor market, enhances lifetime earnings, and strengthens the capacity for saving and wealth accumulation.

4. Methodology

The econometric model specified by the study is the one used by (Ali et al. 2019). The model is given below:

$$WA_t = f(Urb_t, CPI_t, RIR_t, GDI_t, ADR_t, LE_t, GNEXP_t)$$

The above model reveals that urbanization Urb_t, inflation CPI_t, real interest rate RIR_t, national income GDI_t, dependency ratioADR_t, life expectancyLE_t, and government expenditures $GNEXP_t$) all are the determinants of wealth accumulation WA. The above general model could be transformed into a regression model as Eq. (1) below:

$$WA_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Urb_t + \beta_2 CPI_t + \beta_3 RIR_t + \beta_4 GDI_t + (-\beta_5) ADR_t + \beta_6 LE_t + \beta_7 GNEXP_t + \varepsilon_t$$

In Eq. (1), β_0 is the intercept of the model; whereas β_1, β_2, β_3, β_4, β_5, β_6 and β_7 are the slope coefficients for urbanization, inflation, real interest rate, national income, dependency ratio, life expectancy, and government expenditures, respectively. Moreover, the "t" in the subscript reveals the time period of the data, which is annual in this case, while the term ε_t is the error term of the model.

The study used Dickey and Fuller's (1979) Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) test. In general, the Dickey-Fuller test's inclusive version is provided as below:

$$\Delta y_t = (\mu - 1) y_{t-1} + \gamma + \theta t + e_t$$

The study uses an autoregressive distributed lag (ARDL) approach which was initially presented by Pesaran et al. (2001) to analyze the long and short-run impacts of urbanization and other controlled variables on wealth accumulation in Pakistan. A variety of studies from the literature were examined for empirical assessment, with several cointegration methodologies for different scenarios being employed. (Engle and Granger 1987) developed the first cointegration method, which may be used with any two study variables in I(1) order. Johansen and Juselius (1990) proposed a second cointegration method, which may be used with large sample sizes and any research variables that have an identical integrating order. Both cointegration methods have some limitations, such as requiring variables in this study to be stationary and have the same order of integration. The ARDL approach is far more beneficial than that of other cointegration methods, and it provides reliable results for small samples (Ozturk and Acaravci, 2011). The estimating process of ARDL could be provided in the equation form as follows:

$$\Delta WA_t = \alpha_0 + \sum_{i=1}^{p} \alpha_{1i} \Delta WA_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{p} \alpha_{2i} \Delta Urb_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{p} \alpha_{3i} \Delta CPI_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{p} \alpha_{4i} \Delta RIR_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{p} \alpha_{5i} \Delta GDI_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{p} \alpha_{6i} \Delta ADR_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{p} \alpha_{7i} \Delta LE_t + \sum_{i=1}^{p} \alpha_{8i} \Delta GNEXP_{t-i} + \theta_1 Urb_{t-1} + \theta_2 CPI_{t-1} + \theta_3 RIR_{t-1} + \theta_4 GDI_{t-1} + \theta_5 ADR_{t-1} + \theta_6 LE_{t-1} + \theta_7 GNEXP_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$

The ARDL model can determine both the short-run and long-run estimates along with the cointegration equation revealing the convergence or divergence of each variable to/from the

equilibrium point. Moreover, this study also provides the diagnostics including the Autocorrelation test and heteroscedasticity test of the data under consideration to indicate the robustness of the model.

5. Results

This section presents the findings of the study, highlighting the application of econometric techniques and their outcomes.

Before moving towards Auto-Regressive Distributed Lag (ARDL) model results the study applies Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) or unit root test to determine stationarity of the variables (Mushtaq, 2011) at the level. Table 1 displays the results:

Table- 1: Unit root test

Variables	Level [I(0)]	First Difference [I(1)]
WA	-4.411***	-
RIR	-3.879**	-
URB	-5.650***	-
GNEXP	-2.053	-6.323***
GDI	-1.747	-5.632***
LE	-2.887	-4.799***
CPI	-3.787**	-
ADR	-2.242	-4.171**

Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF), Note: Stars on the values represent the significance and stationarity of the variable at the level or first difference. **shows significance at 5% and *** shows significance level at 1%

The results of the ADF test indicate that some variables contain a unit root at the level. We again take the unit root test at the first difference for stationarity. The variables like wealth accumulation (WA), real interest rate (RIR), urbanization (URB), and inflation (CPI) are stationary at Level I(0) with values -4.411, -3.879, -5.650, and -3.787 respectively. While the remaining variables Gross national expenditures (GNEXP), Gross Domestic Income (GDI), and Age dependency ratio (ADR) are stationary at first difference i.e. -6.323, -5.632, -4.799, -4.171. the order of integration is not same, therefore the study moves towards the Auto-Regressive Distributed Lag (ARDL) model:

Table- 2: Auto-Regressive Distributed Lag (ARDL)

Short-run Results				
Variable	**Coefficient**	**Std. Error**	**t-Statistic**	**Prob.**
WA(-1)	3.419985***	0.592256	5.774505	0.0004
URB	7.710893***	2.022156	3.813204	0.0051
CPI	-0.004229	0.005198	-0.813532	0.4395
RIR	0.038979**	0.012974	3.004387	0.0170
GDI	5.842503***	1.585559	3.684822	0.0062
ADR	-0.271984***	0.079818	-3.407550	0.0093
LE	17.208525***	4.559960	3.773832	0.0054

GNEXP	0.136449	0.343182	0.397600	0.7013
Cointegration	-5.363595***	0.771920	-6.948383	0.0001
Long-run Results				
URB	-0.377020**	0.140564	-2.682189	0.0278
CPI	-0.029771***	0.005726	-5.198834	0.0008
RIR	-0.026003***	0.004478	-5.806472	0.0004
GDI	2.057542***	0.510856	4.027634	0.0038
ADR	-0.012465**	0.004878	-2.555440	0.0339
LE	0.085220	0.123512	0.689974	0.5097
GNEXP	0.610227**	0.204677	2.981410	0.0176
Constant	-43.207765***	12.203886	-3.540492	0.0076

Note: Starred values of coefficient display the significance of the value. **shows significance at 5% and *** shows significance at 1%

The ARDL test is applied when there is both stationary and mixed integration order in the information (Pesaran, Shin, and Smith, 2001). It is generally utilized to unravel the long-term association and short-term dynamics. The majority of the variables are significant at a 0.01 level of significance whereas others are significant at 0.05. The variables like urbanization, gross domestic income, age dependency ratio, and life expectancy are significant in the short term though inflation, real interest rate, and gross domestic income are significant at a 1% level of significance. Further, the real interest rate is significant in the short term whereas urbanization, age dependency ratio, and gross national expenditures are significant at a 5% level of significance in the long term as displayed in the table. The constant and cointegration probability values depict that the variables are significant and there exists a relationship between wealth accumulation and urbanization and control variables do play a vibrant role in this regard. The coefficients of the variables confirm that there is a long-term and short-term relationship among dependent and independent variables.

Now, proceeding to the diagnostic tests of the coefficients and error terms, autocorrelation and heteroskedasticity are assessed. Autocorrelation is examined using the Breusch–Godfrey serial correlation test, while heteroskedasticity is tested using the Breusch–Pagan–Godfrey test. Tables 3 and 4 present the diagnostic test results, along with the corresponding chi-square statistics and probability values.

Table-3: Autocorrelation Test

F-statistic	1.434974	Prob. F(8,32)	0.2202
Obs*R-squared	12.67324	Prob. Chi-Square(8)	0.1236

Breusch-Godfrey Serial Correlation LM, p> 0.05: do not reject the hypothesis

Table-4: Heteroscedasticity Test

F-statistic	1.073199	Prob. F(7,40)	0.3982
Obs*R-squared	7.589490	Prob. Chi-Square(7)	0.3702
Scaled explained SS	4.931316	Prob. Chi-Square(7)	0.6683

Note: for Breusch-Pagan-Godfrey test null hypothesis: There is no Heteroscedasticity, p> 0.05: do not reject the hypothesis

Breusch-Godfrey Serial Correlation test to check the presence of serial-autocorrelation in the residuals of the model. The probability values given in Table 3 show that there is no serial autocorrelation alongside the chi-square values confirms this hypothesis. Breusch-Pagan test is

a quick way to determine heteroscedasticity statistically. It is a Chi-square test that investigates the null hypothesis; there is no heteroscedasticity and error terms are normally distributed. The lower the chi-square value, the lower will be the heteroscedasticity or no heteroscedasticity. The chi-square values are lower along with the probability values displayed in Table 4 that confirms do not reject the null hypothesis. It means there is no heteroscedasticity. These diagnostic tests confirm the robustness of the model.

6. Discussion

Empirical findings indicate that urbanization significantly affects wealth accumulation in Pakistan. These results are consistent with the theoretical arguments of (Bhagat, Mitra, and Mehta 2011), who suggest that urbanization and wealth accumulation are closely associated and move in the same direction. Pakistan is experiencing rapid urbanization alongside accelerated wealth generation in urban areas.

Short-run results of the Autoregressive Distributed Lag (ARDL) model reveal that the coefficients of the control variables—real interest rate, gross domestic income, life expectancy, and gross national expenditure—are positive, indicating a favorable short-term impact of urbanization on wealth accumulation. As income increases, wealth accumulation also rises, supporting the findings of Ketkaew et al. (2019). Similarly, life expectancy improves with the expansion of urban areas. In contrast, inflation and the age dependency ratio exhibit negative coefficients in the short run, implying that higher inflation and dependency levels reduce wealth accumulation. This inverse relationship reflects the declining dependency ratio associated with increasing urbanization, as documented by (Loayza et al. 2000). Inflation contributes to a reduction in total wealth by increasing the debt-to-wealth ratio, thereby widening wealth disparities (Wolf, 1979). Furthermore, a decline in savings leads to lower wealth accumulation and greater inequality in wealth distribution (Heer and Süssmuth, 2007). The error correction (cointegration) term is statistically significant in the short run, confirming the presence of a stable long-run relationship and indicating that short-run deviations are corrected over time.

Long-run results of the ARDL model show that several variables exhibit negative coefficients, indicating an inverse relationship with wealth accumulation, except for life expectancy, gross domestic income, and gross national expenditure, which remain positive and statistically significant. Although urbanization contributes to economic transformation, in a developing country like Pakistan it may also intensify inequalities, unemployment, and regional disparities in the long run (Layne, 2021). These structural challenges help explain the inverse association between urbanization and the age dependency ratio, as reflected in the long-run estimates and supported by Loayza et al. (2000). Conversely, gross domestic income and gross national income positively influence wealth accumulation, highlighting the role of sustained economic growth and development, as emphasized by (Bhagat, Mitra, and Mehta 2011). Urbanization is therefore closely linked to economic development; any disruption in this process may hinder social and economic progress. Maintaining a steady pace of urbanization is essential for development, which in turn supports wealth accumulation in the country (Malik and Wahid, 2014).

7. Conclusions

Urbanization plays a significant role in shaping wealth accumulation in Pakistan. Urbanization and the selected control variables significantly influence wealth accumulation, although the

magnitude and direction of effects vary between the short run and the long run due to the country's developmental structure and economic challenges.

In short run, variables such as real interest rates, gross domestic income, life expectancy, and gross national expenditures positively affect wealth accumulation, while inflation and the age dependency ratio exert a negative influence. In the long run, urbanization shows an inverse relationship with wealth accumulation, reflecting structural constraints and adjustment costs associated with rapid urban expansion in a developing economy. However, life expectancy, gross domestic income, and gross national expenditures remain positively associated with wealth accumulation in both periods, highlighting the importance of income growth, improved living conditions, and public spending in generating national wealth

8. Policy Implications

Effective urbanization policies are essential for enhancing wealth accumulation in Pakistan. Policymakers should prioritize planned and inclusive urban development to ensure that urban growth contributes to wealth accumulation. Additionally, policies aimed at controlling inflation and reducing the age dependency ratio can strengthen wealth accumulation by supporting higher savings.

Reference

1. Bertinelli, L. (2003). Does urbanization always foster human capital accumulation? (No. UCL-Université Catholique de Louvain). Universite catholique de Louvain.
2. Bertinelli, L. (2003). Does urbanization always foster human capital accumulation? (No. UCL-Université Catholique de Louvain). Universite catholique de Louvain.
3. Bertinelli, L., & Black, D. (2004). Urbanization and growth. Journal of Urban Economics, 56(1), 80-96.
4. Bertinelli, L., & Zou, B. (2008). Does urbanization foster human capital accumulation?. The Journal of Developing Areas, 41(2), 171-184.
5. Bertinelli, L., & Zou, B. (2008). Does urbanization foster human capital accumulation?. The Journal of Developing Areas, 41(2), 171-184.
6. Burney, N. A., & Khan, A. H. (1992). Socio-economic characteristics and household savings: An analysis of the households' saving behaviour in Pakistan. The Pakistan Development Review, 31-48.
7. Byrne, B. M. (2010). Structural equation modeling with AMOS: Basic concepts, applications, and programming. New York: Routledge.
8. Camera, G., & Chien, Y. (2014). Understanding the distributional impact of long-run inflation. Journal of Money, Credit and Banking, 46(6), 1137-1170.
9. Carroll, C. D., & Weil, D. N. (1994, June). Saving and growth: a reinterpretation. In Carnegie-Rochester conference series on public policy (Vol. 40, pp. 133-192). North-Holland.
10. Chinyere, U. C. (2015). Impact of interest rate on savings on the Nigeria's economy (1981-2013). Journal of Policy and Development Studies, 9(3), 73-82.
11. Corbo, V., & Schmidt-Hebbel, K. (1991). Public policies and saving in developing countries. Journal of Development Economics, 36(1), 89-115.
12. Daniels, R. C., Finn, A., & Musundwa, S. (2014). Wealth data quality in the National Income Dynamics Study wave 2. Development Southern Africa, 31(1), 31-50.
13. Daniels, R. C., Finn, A., & Musundwa, S. (2014). Wealth data quality in the National Income Dynamics Study waves 2. Development Southern Africa, 31(1), 31-50.

14. Daniels, R., & Augustine, T. (2016). The measurement and distribution of household wealth in South Africa using the National Income Dynamics Study (NIDS) Wave 4.
15. Desroches, B., & Francis, M. (2006). Global savings, investment, and world real interest rates. Bank of Canada Review, 2006(Winter), 3-17.
16. Desroches, B., & Francis, M. (2010). World real interest rates: a global savings and investment perspective. Applied Economics, 42(22), 2801-2816.
17. Dickey, D. A., & Fuller, W. A. (1979). Distribution of the estimators for autoregressive time series with a unit root. Journal of the American statistical association, 74(366a), 427-431.
18. Doumbia, D., & Kinda, M. T. (2019). Reallocating Public Spending to Reduce Income Inequality: Can It Work?. International Monetary Fund.
19. Enders, W. (1976). Inflation, Wealth, and the Real Rate of Interest. Southern Economic Journal, 716-719.
20. Engle, R. F., & Granger, C. W. (1987). Co-integration and error correction: representation, estimation, and testing. Econometrica: journal of the Econometric Society, 251-276.
21. Glaeser, E. L. (1999). Learning in cities. Journal of urban Economics, 46(2), 254-277.
22. Glaeser, E. L., & Mare, D. C. (2001). Cities and skills. Journal of labor economics, 19(2), 316-342.
23. Glegg, A. (2001). Schools in the city: the effects of increasing urbanisation on education in Victoria, British Columbia, 1920-1929. Journal of educational administration and history, 33(2), 73-86.
24. Grosvenor, I., & Watts, R. (2003). Urbanisation and Education: the City as a Light and Beacon?. Paedagogica historica, 39(1), 1-4.
25. Hair, J., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J. & Anderson, R. E. (2010) Multivariate data analysis (7th ed.). Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Pearson Educational International.
26. Heer, B., & Süssmuth, B. (2007). Effects of inflation on wealth distribution: Do stock market participation fees and capital income taxation matter?. Journal of Economic Dynamics and Control, 31(1), 277-303.
27. Heer, B., & Süssmuth, B. (2007). Effects of inflation on wealth distribution: Do stock market participation fees and capital income taxation matter?. Journal of Economic Dynamics and Control, 31(1), 277-303.
28. Jarque, C. M., & Bera, A. K. (1987). A test for normality of observations and regression residuals. International Statistical Review/Revue Internationale de Statistique, 163-172.
29. Johansen, S., & Juselius, K. (1990). Maximum likelihood estimation and inference on cointegration—with appucations to the demand for money. Oxford Bulletin of Economics and statistics, 52(2), 169-210.
30. Kessler, D., & Wolff, E. N. (1991). A comparative analysis of household wealth patterns in France and the United States. Review of Income and Wealth, 37(3), 249-266.
31. Ketkaew, C., Van Wouwe, M., Vichitthamaros, P., & Teerawanviwat, D. (2019). The effect of expected income on wealth accumulation and retirement contribution of Thai wageworkers. SAGE Open, 9(4), 2158244019898247.
32. Ketkaew, C., Van Wouwe, M., Vichitthamaros, P., & Teerawanviwat, D. (2019). The effect of expected income on wealth accumulation and retirement contribution of Thai wageworkers. SAGE Open, 9(4), 2158244019898247.
33. Konuk, N., Turan, N. G., & Ardali, Y. (2016). The importance of urbanization in education. The Eurasia Proceedings of Educational and Social Sciences, 5, 232-236.
34. Kousar, S., Batool, S. A., Batool, S. S., & Zafar, M. (2020). Do Government Expenditures on Education and Health Lead Toward Economic Growth? Evidence from Pakistan. Journal of Research & Reflections in Education (JRRE), 14(1).
35. Layne. J 2021 https://www.ablison.com/urbanization-pros-and-cons/

36. Malik, S. and Wahid, J., 2014. Rapid urbanization: Problems and challenges for adequate housing in Pakistan.
37. Masson, P. R., Bayoumi, T., & Samiei, H. (1998). International evidence on the determinants of private saving. The World Bank Economic Review, 12(3), 483-501.
38. Modigliani, F. (1966). The life cycle hypothesis of saving, the demand for wealth and the supply of capital. Social research, 160-217.
39. Moyo, C., & Le Roux, P. (2018). Interest rate reforms and economic growth: the savings and investment channel.
40. Mushtaq, R., 2011. Augmented dickey fuller test.
41. Mwega, F. M., Ngola, S. M., & Mwangi, N. (1990). Real interest rates and the mobilization of private savings in Africa: A case study of Kenya. Initiatives, Nairobi, KE.
42. Ozturk, I., & Acaravci, A. (2011). Electricity consumption and real GDP causality nexus: Evidence from ARDL bounds testing approach for 11 MENA countries. Applied energy, 88(8), 2885-2892.
43. Pakistan Education Spending 1993-2021. macrotrends.
44. Pesaran, M.H., Shin, Y. and Smith, R.J., 2001. Bounds testing approaches to the analysis of level relationships. Journal of applied econometrics, 16(3), pp.289-326.
45. Raza, H., Hena, S., & Saeed, A. (2017). The effects of Interest rate, on savings and deposits in Pakistan. International Journal of Business and General Management (IJBGM), 6(6), 67-74.
46. Shafuda, C. P., & De, U. K. (2020). Government expenditure on human capital and growth in Namibia: a time series analysis. Journal of Economic Structures, 9(1), 1-14.
47. Sustainable Urbanization (2019, May 08). UNDP Pakistan.
48. Waldenström, D. (2016). The national wealth of Sweden, 1810–2014. Scandinavian Economic History Review, 64(1), 36-54.
49. Wolff, E. N. (1979). The distributional effects of the 1969–75 inflation on holdings of household wealth in the United States. Review of Income and Wealth, 25(2), 195-207.
50. Wolff, E. N. (1979). The distributional effects of the 1969–75 inflation on holdings of household wealth in the United States. Review of Income and Wealth, 25(2), 195-207.
51. Wolff, E. N. (1994). Trends in household wealth in the United States, 1962–83 and 1983–89. Review of Income and Wealth, 40(2), 143-174.
52. World Urbanization Prospects Revision (2018). United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs. https://population.un.org/wup/Publications/Files/WUP2018-Report.pdf.