WEP Warwick Evans Publishing

International Journal of Global Economics and Management

ISSN: 3005-9690 (Print), ISSN: 3005-8090 (Online) | Volume 5, Number 2, Year 2024
DOI: https://doi.org/10.62051/ijgem.v5n2.26
Journal homepage: https://wepub.org/index.php/IJGEM/index

Impact of Income Levels and Residential Concerns among China's Migrating Population

——An empirical analysis based on urbanization

Kexuan Li

Tianjin Foreign Studies University, Tianjin, 300204, China

ABSTRACT

This paper utilizes data from the China Migrant Dynamic Survey (CMDS) to empirically analyze the relationship between the income level of migrants in their destination cities and their attention to changes in their place of residence. The regression results of the logit model indicate that an increase in income level significantly enhances individuals' attention to changes in their place of residence. This paper also employs robustness checks and heterogeneity analysis, and the conclusions are consistent with the baseline regression results, supporting the hypothesis that income level has a positive impact on attention to place of residence. The paper also uses entropy balancing matching methods to address potential endogeneity issues that may affect the robustness of the conclusions, reducing the impact of sample selection bias, two-way causality, and omitted variables, thereby enhancing the robustness of the analysis results and the accuracy of causal inference. Heterogeneity analysis results show that the impact of income on different groups is significantly different. Particularly, high-income males, individuals with low education levels, and those with agricultural household registrations are more sensitive to changes in their place of residence, indicating that these groups have higher adaptation needs and attention when facing urban changes.

KEYWORDS

Migrant Population; Income Level; Attention to Place of Residence; Urban Adaptation

1. INTRODUCTION

Driven by globalization and modernization, population mobility has become an important characteristic in the urbanization process of countries around the world [1]. Especially in China, the rapid economic development and regional imbalance in recent years have brought about a large-scale population movement phenomenon [2]. According to data from the National Bureau of Statistics, by the end of 2020, the scale of China's floating population has reached nearly 376 million, accounting for 26.6% of the total national population [23]. This huge floating population group not only provides a continuous supply of labor resources for China's urbanization and economic growth but also brings great challenges to urban infrastructure, public services, and social governance [3]. Compared with the registered population, the floating population shows greater flexibility in choosing employment locations and is more easily guided and influenced by urban policies [4]. Studying the behavior and decision-making patterns of the floating population, especially the impact of income levels on their economic adaptation and social integration, is not only an important issue in understanding social changes in the urbanization process of contemporary China but also has significant practical significance for formulating targeted policies to promote coordinated regional development and improve the quality of life of the floating population [5].

The income level of the floating population is a core indicator reflecting urban attractiveness, economic opportunities, and social integration capabilities [6]. The level of income not only determines the quality of life of individuals in the destination area but also affects their career development and willingness to settle long-term. In the context of significant economic regional disparities, the income level of the floating population reflects the imbalance of economic development in different regions, influencing their life decisions and choices [7]. On the other hand, the place of residence for the floating population is not only a place of life but also an important carrier for integrating into the city [8]. The floating population's attention to changes in the city or place of residence reflects their attitude towards the living environment, urban planning, public services, and housing policies. This attention is not only an individual's feedback on urban adaptation and changes but also an important basis for them to assess and choose a better living environment. Understanding the relationship between income and attention to changes in the place of residence can help us better understand the behavioral motivations and integration difficulties of contemporary urban floating populations, reveal their residential choices and adaptive behaviors in the city, and provide valuable references for urban management and planning. At the same time, China's urbanization and regional coordination policies provide a practical background for studying the relationship between the income of floating populations and changes in their place of residence. Studying the relationship between income levels and attention to changes in the place of residence can provide data support for city managers and policymakers to help formulate more inclusive and effective urban development policies [9].

Based on the above background, choosing the floating population as the research object of this paper has important practical significance. On the one hand, the floating population has a large base and, as an important support force for China's economic development, understanding the economic behavior and social adaptation patterns of this group is crucial for the sustainable development of cities [10]. On the other hand, as a relatively vulnerable group in cities, the residential choices and living stability of the floating population are not only affected by the level of income but are also closely related to changes in the place of residence [11]. Therefore, studying the relationship between income levels and attention to changes in the place of residence can provide data support for city managers and policymakers to help formulate more inclusive and effective urban development policies [12]. This paper is based on the China Migrant Dynamic Survey (CMDS) data, and through the logit model, it empirically analyzes the relationship between the income level of migrants in their destination cities and their attention to changes in their place of residence or local areas and uses entropy balancing matching methods for robustness checks to ensure the accuracy of the analysis results. Through heterogeneity analysis, this paper further examines the differences in residential choices and attention to urban changes among different income groups. The study shows that: the income level of the floating population is significantly positively correlated with their attention to changes in their place of residence. Migrants with higher income pay more attention to urban changes, such as urban planning, infrastructure construction, housing price fluctuations, and public service levels. This indicates that individuals with more economic resources can better choose and adapt to changes in the living environment and have more options to improve their living conditions. These high-income individuals are more sensitive to long-term urban development and changes in quality of life [19].

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

In recent years, the impact of the income level of the floating population on their social adaptation and choice of residence has become a focus of academic attention. The income level of the floating population plays a key role in their social adaptation and choice of residence. Studies have shown that the level of income directly affects the quality of life, accumulation of social capital, and social integration ability of migrants [13]. Individuals with higher incomes are often able to better access economic opportunities in cities, thereby increasing their life satisfaction and happiness [14]. In the process of urbanization in China, there is a significant positive correlation between the income level

of the floating population and the quality of urban life [15]. Research has found that high-income individuals are more inclined to pay attention to changes in urban planning, infrastructure construction, and public services, reflecting their sensitivity to changes in the living environment [16]. Floating populations in large cities can usually obtain better employment opportunities and higher wage levels, which further widens the income gap between urban and rural areas. With the increase of income, the attention and participation of the floating population in their place of residence have significantly increased [17], especially in cities with high housing prices and high living costs, individuals with higher incomes show greater concern for changes in housing policies and living conditions [18]. In contrast, low-income groups, due to limited economic resources, often have lower attention to changes in their place of residence, which makes them face more challenges in the process of urban adaptation [19]. In addition, the education level of the floating population has an important impact on their income and choice of residence. Floating populations with higher education levels are more inclined to choose economically developed cities to achieve better career development. This choice not only increases their income level but also enhances their attention to changes in their place of residence [20]. The social network of the floating population also plays an important role in their economic adaptation process. Establishing good social connections can help individuals obtain more information and resources, enhancing their survival ability in cities [21].

From the existing literature at home and abroad, many scholars have conducted extensive theoretical discussions and empirical studies on the relationship between the income level of the floating population and their attention to changes in their place of residence. The academic community generally believes that the income level of the floating population significantly affects their social adaptation ability and attention to the living environment. Especially in China, the acceleration of the urbanization process has enabled the floating population in large cities to obtain better employment opportunities and higher wage levels, thereby enhancing their sensitivity to urban changes. However, there are still deficiencies in existing research. Many literatures mainly focus on the relationship between income level and employment status of the floating population, and less attention is paid to the direct impact of income on attention to changes in the place of residence. In addition, some studies have not fully considered the heterogeneity of different income groups in their attention to changes in the place of residence, leading to an incomplete understanding of the behavioral patterns of the floating population. Therefore, this paper aims to fill this research gap by empirically analyzing the relationship between the income level of the floating population in their destination and their attention to changes in their place of residence, discussing the key factors affecting this relationship, and providing deeper theoretical support and empirical evidence for the social integration of the floating population and policy formulation.

The research contributions of this paper are reflected in the following aspects. First, this paper combines the income level of the floating population with their attention to changes in their place of residence for analysis, expanding existing research on the economic adaptation and social integration of the floating population. Second, this paper ensures the reliability of the conclusions through robustness checks and heterogeneity analysis, providing a more comprehensive analytical framework for empirical research in related fields. Third, combined with China's policy background, this paper discusses the policy significance of the research results, providing empirical evidence for the government to optimize population mobility and urban development policies.

3. RESEARCH DESIGN

3.1. Benchmark Regression Model

In the process of urbanization, there is a complex relationship between the income level of the floating population and their attention to changes in their place of residence [22]. The income level of the floating population is not only an important indicator of their quality of life and social adaptation

ability but also significantly affects their sensitivity to changes in their place of residence. According to social capital theory, individuals with higher incomes usually have richer resources and broader channels for obtaining information, which enables them to more effectively evaluate and adapt to changes in the living environment. To explore the impact of the income level of the floating population on their attention to changes in their place of residence, this paper uses the Logit model for empirical analysis. This model can effectively handle the case where the explained variable is a binary variable, transforming the attention into odds ratio and log-odds, mapping the probability range from (0,1) to the entire real axis. Therefore, we first need to transform the probability π_i to eliminate the constraint on its range, and then set the transformed value as a linear function of the explanatory variable x_i. We define the odds ratio Ω_i as the ratio between the probability π_i that individual i pays attention to changes in their place of residence and the probability $(1-\pi_i)$ that they do not, expressed as:

$$\Omega_i = \frac{\pi_i}{1\text{-}\pi_i} \tag{1}$$

Next, we take the logarithm of the odds ratio to obtain the logit (log-odds):

$$\text{logit}(\Omega_i) = \ln(\Omega_i) = \ln\left(\frac{\pi_i}{1\text{-}\pi_i}\right) \tag{2}$$

Thereby, we can remove the lower limit constraint. As the probability π_i approaches 0, the logit approaches $-\infty$; and when the probability π_i approaches 1, the logit approaches $+\infty$. Through the above transformation, logit(Ω_i) maps the probability πi's range from (0, 1) to the entire real axis.

After completing the above transformation, we can define the Logistic regression model. At this point, we assume that the logit transformation of the probability π_i (not the probability π_i itself) follows a linear model, that is:

$$\text{logit}(\Omega_i) = \ln\left(\frac{\pi_i}{1-\pi_i}\right) = x_i'\beta \tag{3}$$

Where x_i is the vector of explanatory variables, and β is the vector of coefficients. Since the logit transformation is one-to-one, we can obtain the probability value by taking the inverse logarithm from the logit:

$$\pi(x_i) = \frac{\exp(x_i'\beta)}{1+\exp(x_i'\beta)} \tag{4}$$

Further, the explained variable y_i can be expressed as:

$$y_i = \pi(x_i) + \epsilon_i \tag{5}$$

Where ϵ_i is the random disturbance term, which has two possible values: if $y_i=1$, then $\epsilon_i = 1-\pi(x_i)$, and the corresponding probability is $\pi(x_i)$; if $y_i=0$, then $\epsilon_i = -\pi(x_i)$, and the corresponding probability is $1-\pi(x_i)$. Therefore, ϵ_i follows a distribution with a mean of 0 and a variance of $\pi(x_i)[1-\pi(x_i)]$.

In this paper's Logit model, P_i represents the probability that individual i pays attention to changes in their place of residence. The model is set as follows:

$$\text{logit}(P_i) = \log\left(\frac{P_i}{1-P_i}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 income_i + \beta_k x + \delta_j + \epsilon_i \quad (6)$$

Where P_i represents the frequency of individual i's attention to changes in their place of residence, β_0 is the constant term, β_1 is the regression coefficient of the income variable, x is the control variable, including factors such as gender, age, education, household registration type, etc., to control other factors affecting attention to changes in the place of residence, β_k are the regression coefficients of these control variables, and ϵ_i is the error term. δ_j is the fixed effect coefficient for each city, representing the fixed impact of city on attention to changes in the place of residence, helping to control for heterogeneity between cities.

Through the Logit formula, we can estimate the impact of income level and other control variables on the probability that the floating population pays attention to changes in their place of residence. Specifically, if the regression coefficient β_1 of the income variable is positive, it indicates that with the increase of the income level, the probability that the floating population pays attention to changes in their place of residence will also increase.

3.2. Entropy Balancing Matching Model

Based on the above model analysis and theoretical inference, we have established the potential link between the income level of the floating population and their attention to changes in their place of residence, and recognized that this relationship may be influenced by a variety of complex factors. To ensure the accuracy and robustness of the analysis results, after the preliminary analysis using the Logit model, this paper adopts the Entropy Balancing method to balance the covariate distribution between the treatment group (low-income group: D=0) and the control group (high-income group: D=1), thereby reducing the impact of potential confounding factors on the estimation results. Through entropy balancing, we can ensure that the treatment group and the control group have similar means, variances, and distribution shapes (skewness) in various covariates (such as gender, age, education, etc.), and then conduct weighted regression analysis to estimate the causal effect of income on attention to changes in the place of residence.

The weights in entropy balancing need to meet certain constraints: (1) All weights are non-negative: wi≥0; (2) The sum of the weights is 1: $\sum_{i \in D=0} w_i = 1$

In entropy balancing matching, the estimation of the average treatment effect on the treated (τ) is a core step, which aims to quantify the average difference between the treatment group and the control group due to receiving or not receiving a certain "treatment" (in this case, changes in income level), as follows:

$$\tau = E[Y(1)|D=1] - E[Y(0)|D=1] \quad (7)$$

Entropy balancing matching adjusts the weights of the control group by optimizing sample weights w_i to make the weighted means of the treatment group (high-income group) and the control group (low-income group) equal in covariates (such as gender, age, education, etc.). The minimization of the entropy distance is as follows:

$$\min H(w_i) \sum_{i \in D=0} w_i \log\left(\frac{w_i}{q_i}\right) \quad (8)$$

Where w_i is control group sample weight, $q_i = \frac{1}{n}$ is the initial weight value of the control group samples, and n is the number of control group samples.

By introducing moment balance constraints, we ensure that the weighted covariate distribution of the control group is consistent with that of the treatment group, and we hope to satisfy:

$$\sum_{i \in D=0} w_i X_{ik} = \sum_{i \in D=1} X_{ik} \tag{9}$$

Where X_{ik} represents the value of the k covariate of the i sample. w_i represents the weights of the control group samples. The moments include first-order moments (means), second-order moments (variances), etc.

Based on the weights calculated by entropy balancing, the expected value of the counterfactual result can be expressed as:

$$E[Y(0) \mid D=1] = \frac{\sum_{i \in D=0} Y_i w_i}{\sum_{i \in D=0} w_i} \tag{10}$$

Where Y_i is the outcome variable of the control group, and w_i is the balanced weight after entropy balancing.

3.3. Variable Selection and Data Sources

3.3.1. Variable Selection

Explanatory variable: The income level of individuals in their destination area. Specifically, the monthly income reported by individuals (calculated in RMB) is used. To enhance the interpretability and comparability of the model, the income is standardized in this paper.

Dependent variable: The degree of personal attention to changes in the city or region of residence (q503b). Based on the response to "I pay attention to the changes in the city/area where I currently live." "Do not pay attention" is assigned settle=0, and "pay attention" is assigned settle=1.

Control variables include multiple factors that may affect the relationship between the dependent variable and the explanatory variable, such as age, gender, education level, marital status, etc. Table 1 shows the variable assignment rules.

Table 1. Variable Assignment Rules

Variable	Variable Name	Variable Assignment
social	Social Integration	1 for sample concerned with the settlement area, 0 for not concerned
income	Income	Individual's monthly income in the destination area (log-transformed), calculated in RMB
gender	Gender	1 for male, 0 for female
age	Age	Sample's age
edu	Years of Education	Sample's years of education
hukou	Household Registration Type	1 for agricultural household registration, 0 for non-agricultural household registration
marriage	Marital Status	1 for married, 0 for unmarried
scope	Scope of Migration	1 for inter-provincial, 0 for intra-provincial
output	Individual or Household Output	Sample's output in the local area

3.3.2. Data Sources

The data used in this paper comes from the 2017 China Migrant Dynamic Survey (CMDS) and the National Bureau of Statistics' migrant population survey data, covering a wide range of migrant populations across the country, with a long-time span and a large sample size, making it highly representative. The Migrant Dynamic Survey samples migrant populations in different cities and regions each year, covering various aspects such as economic conditions, social integration, employment, living environment, and household registration, providing a solid foundation for analyzing the relationship between individual income in the destination area and attention to changes in the place of residence. In addition, the CMDS and the National Bureau of Statistics' migrant population survey data also provide rich information on employment, income, and residence, supporting regional analysis in this study. This paper selects the floating population aged 18 to 60 as the research subject, and the data has been strictly cleaned, excluding missing values and outliers. The final sample includes 158,320 individuals, with a wide geographical and industrial distribution. In the sample, males account for 51.5%, the average age is 35.6 years, the average years of education are 10.23 years, and married individuals account for 81.5%. The average monthly income is 6,897 yuan, with a significant income gap, and 95.3% of individuals frequently engage in social activities in the destination area. The sample's geographical distribution covers major cities in China's eastern, central, and western regions, including first-tier cities such as Beijing, Shanghai, and Guangzhou, as well as second-tier cities such as Nanjing, Chengdu, and Chongqing. The industries are mainly concentrated in the service industry, manufacturing, and construction. These data provide strong empirical support for in-depth study of the impact of individual income on attention to changes in the place of residence, and in combination with China's urbanization and regional policy background, discuss the mechanisms behind income differences, ensuring the representativeness and wide applicability of the research results. Table 2 shows the descriptive statistical characteristics of the related variables.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics Results

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. dev.	Min	Max
social	158320	0.953	0.211	0	1
income	158320	6.897	3.046	0	12.206
gender	158320	0.515	0.500	0	1
age	158320	35.645	9.555	18	60
edu	158320	10.230	3.344	0	19
hukou	158320	0.166	0.372	0	1
marriage	158320	0.815	0.389	0	1
scope	158320	0.491	0.500	0	1
output	158320	838.286	1256.876	1	80000

4. EMPIRICAL RESULTS

4.1. Benchmark Regression: The Impact of Personal Income Level on Attention to Changes in Place of Residence

In accordance with the research design of this paper, the logit model is used to estimate the impact of personal income levels on the attention paid to changes in the place of residence. Based on the regression results presented in Table 3, an increase in income is positively correlated with an individual's attention to changes in their city of residence, indicating that those with higher incomes are more likely to be aware of and consider changes in their place of residence. Specifically, the analysis can be divided into two model groups for comparison: Model (1) is a simplified model that only analyzes the impact of income on the dependent variable ("I pay attention to the changes in the city/area where I currently live"). It does not take into account other control variables or fixed effects

that may influence the dependent variable. Model (2) includes income along with multiple control variables and incorporates city fixed effects. Comparing the two models, the coefficient for income in Model (1) is 0.0140, and in Model (2) it is 0.0123, both of which are statistically significant. This suggests that for each unit increase in income, the log-odds of an individual's attention to changes in their city of residence (q503b) increases by approximately 1.4% and 1.2%, respectively. This indicates that an increase in income may make individuals more sensitive to changes in their living environment. Individuals with higher incomes may pay more attention to changes in their city of residence because they have more choices and resources to adapt to or take advantage of these changes. By introducing control variables and fixed effects, the pseudo R^2 value of Model 2 significantly increases, indicating that the model's explanatory power for the dependent variable is enhanced, which improves the effectiveness and credibility of the research findings.

Table 3. The Impact of Income and Control Variables on Attention to City of Residence

	(1)	(2)
	logit	logit
income	0.0140***	0.0123***
	(0.00377)	(0.00421)
gender		0.115***
		(0.0254)
age		0.0108***
		(0.00149)
edu		0.0975***
		(0.00433)
hukou		0.0657
		(0.0404)
marriage		0.314***
		(0.0326)
scope		-0.228***
		(0.0296)
output		0.0000807***
		(0.0000136)
Constant	2.921***	1.286*
	(0.0282)	(0.733)
Control variables	No	Yes
City FE	No	Yes
N	158320	158320
Pseudo R^2	0.0002	0.0439
*Standard errors in parentheses * p < 0.10, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01, and so on.		

4.2. Entropy Balancing Matching

To enhance the rigor of the research findings, this paper employs the entropy balancing matching method for robustness checks. This method eliminates the imbalance of covariates, ensuring that the high-income group and the low-income group have similar distributions in key covariates, thereby more accurately assessing the causal effect of income on attention to changes in the place of residence. In the entropy balancing test, the high-income group is set as the treatment group, and the low-income group as the control group. Covariates such as gender, age, education, household registration, marital status, and migration scope are selected for balancing. By calculating weights, the distribution of the control group in these covariates is made consistent with that of the treatment group, and the results before and after entropy balancing are compared to test whether the means and distributions have reached balance. This process effectively eliminates the impact of covariate imbalance on regression

results. According to the results in Table 4, before entropy balancing, the treatment group and the control group show significant differences in gender, education, migration scope, and residential output in multiple covariates, especially in the treatment group, the proportion of males, education level, and inter-provincial migration is higher. These factors may simultaneously affect income and attention to changes in the place of residence. Table 5 shows that after entropy balancing matching, the treatment group and the control group have essentially the same means in all covariates, successfully eliminating the differences between the high-income group and the low-income group in multiple covariates, making the baseline regression results more robust.

At the same time, entropy balancing matching effectively addresses potential endogeneity issues by balancing the distribution of key covariates between the treatment group (high-income group) and the control group (low-income group), reducing the impact of sample selection bias, two-way causal relationships, and omitted variables, thereby enhancing the robustness of the results and the accuracy of causal inference. Specifically, entropy balancing matching optimizes sample weights so that the treatment group and the control group have consistent means and variances in covariates such as gender, age, education level, marital status, and migration scope. This allows for a more accurate assessment of the causal effect of income levels on the floating population's attention to changes in their place of residence.

Table 4. Results Before Entropy Balancing Matching

		Treat			Control	
	mean	variance	skewness	mean	variance	skewness
gender	0.6724	0.2203	-0.7349	0.3731	0.2339	0.5247
age	35.09	72.67	0.4546	36.14	107.5	0.3028
edu	10.88	10.68	0.008091	9.643	10.92	-0.2707
hukou	0.1954	0.1572	1.536	0.1389	0.1196	2.089
marriage	0.8183	0.1487	-1.651	0.8113	0.1531	-1.591
scope	0.5575	0.2467	-0.2315	0.431	0.2452	0.2788
hosoutput	1029	2217478	5.934	666.8	943369	6.585

Table 5. Results After Entropy Balancing Matching

		Treat			Control	
	mean	variance	skewness	mean	variance	skewness
gender	0.6724	0.2203	-0.7349	0.6707	0.2209	-0.7263
age	35.09	72.67	0.4546	35.1	97.98	0.4685
edu	10.88	10.68	0.008091	10.88	9.766	0.0516
hukou	0.1954	0.1572	1.536	0.1953	0.1572	1.537
marriage	0.8183	0.1487	-1.651	0.8184	0.1486	-1.652
scope	0.5575	0.2467	-0.2315	0.557	0.2468	-0.2293
hosoutput	1029	2217478	5.934	1028	1.15e+07	14.76

4.3. Heterogeneity Analysis

After conducting the entropy balancing test, we further conduct heterogeneity analysis to explore the differences in attention to changes in the place of residence among different groups. We ensure the balanced distribution of control variables across different groups to more accurately estimate the impact of the explanatory variable on attention to changes in the place of residence. According to the results in Table 6, there are significant differences in the attention to changes in the place of residence among different income groups, especially among high-income males, individuals with low education levels, and those with agricultural household registrations, who show higher sensitivity to changes in their place of residence. This finding not only supports the hypothesis of a positive correlation

between income levels and attention to the place of residence but also reveals how social characteristics affect individuals' adaptation needs and attention to urban changes.

Table 6. Entropy Balancing Matching Results

Concern for changes in the current city/area of residence.	Coefficient	Robust std.err.	z	P>z	[95% conf.interval]	
incomedummy	0.0633251	0.0279212	2.27	0.023	0.0086005	0.1180496
gender	0.1055484	0.0274722	3.84	0	0.0517039	0.1593929
age	0.0114072	0.0018217	6.26	0	0.0078367	0.0149776
edu	0.1008356	0.0052623	19.16	0	0.0905216	0.1111496
hukou	0.0937234	0.0467136	2.01	0.045	0.0021664	0.1852805
marriage	0.3702431	0.0373023	9.93	0	0.297132	0.4433542
scope	-0.2920574	0.028398	-10.28	0	-0.3477164	-0.2363983
hosoutput	0.0001228	0.0000162	7.6	0	0.0000912	0.0001545
_cons	1.298448	0.0907771	14.3	0	1.120528	1.476368

However, simple overall regression cannot reveal the heterogeneous effects of these variables in different groups. Therefore, we conduct further heterogeneity analysis through subgroup regression. The sample is divided by gender, education level, and household registration type to assess the differentiated impact of these variables in different groups. According to the results of the heterogeneity analysis shown in Table 7, we can see that variables such as income, gender, age, education, household registration type, and marital status have significant differences in their impact across different groups. Specifically, in column (1), which represents the regression coefficients for females, and column (2), which represents the regression coefficients for males, we find that the confidence level for females is 90%, and for males, it is 95%. Moreover, in the female group, the impact of income is smaller, with a regression coefficient of 0.00928, significant at the 10% significance level; while in the male group, the impact of income on male attention to the place of residence is greater, with a coefficient of 0.01628, significant at the 5% significance level, indicating that males are more sensitive to income changes than females. Similarly, we can obtain that in column (3), which represents the regression coefficient for the low education level group, it is significant at the 1% significance level, indicating that the impact of income on the low education group is particularly significant. In column (4), which represents the high education level group, although the regression coefficient is higher (0.0188), it is not significant. This suggests that individuals with low education levels are more dependent on income to determine their place of residence, possibly because their economic resources are more limited, while individuals with higher education levels may rely on other factors (such as information acquisition ability and social capital). In column (5), which represents the urban household (non-agricultural household registration) group, the regression coefficient for income is 0.00913, significant at the 5% significance level. However, in column (6), which represents the agricultural household registration group, the regression coefficient for income is 0.0429, significant at the 1% significance level, indicating that the impact of income on attention to changes in the place of residence is most significant among the agricultural household registration group, and the sensitivity to income changes is the greatest in this group. This may be because individuals with agricultural household registrations experience more noticeable improvements in life after migrating to cities, and such groups are more sensitive to the process of urbanization and changes in their place of residence, as these changes directly affect their quality of life, employment opportunities, and social integration. In contrast, the impact of income is relatively weak in the urban household registration group, possibly because these individuals already enjoy more stable urban resources and social security, and their dependence on income is lower.

Table 7. Heterogeneity Analysis Results

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
	Female	male	Without high-edu	With high-edu	City hukou	Rural hukou
logincome	0.00928*	0.0162**	0.0160***	0.0188	0.00913**	0.0429***
	(0.00502)	(0.00816)	(0.00441)	(0.0137)	(0.00453)	(0.0117)
gender			0.194***	-0.0122	0.115***	0.0740
			(0.0268)	(0.0794)	(0.0271)	(0.0749)
age	0.0136***	0.00793***	0.00138	0.00858	0.0117***	0.00835**
	(0.00211)	(0.00215)	(0.00143)	(0.00708)	(0.00160)	(0.00423)
edu	0.101***	0.0924***			0.103***	0.0595***
	(0.00578)	(0.00674)			(0.00466)	(0.0126)
hukou	0.0236	0.103*	0.272***	-0.0320		
	(0.0559)	(0.0589)	(0.0480)	(0.0817)		
marriage	0.218***	0.407***	0.288***	0.547***	0.266***	0.602***
	(0.0469)	(0.0464)	(0.0354)	(0.0902)	(0.0355)	(0.0851)
scope	-0.254***	-0.191***	-0.237***	-0.246***	-0.234***	-0.196**
	(0.0412)	(0.0428)	(0.0314)	(0.0930)	(0.0318)	(0.0863)
hosoutput	0.0000447***	0.000125***	0.000112***	0.0000392	0.0000820***	0.0000800***
	(0.0000177)	(0.0000212)	(0.0000160)	(0.0000266)	(0.0000155)	(0.0000290)
Constant	1.129**	0.567	2.349***	2.463**	1.221*	0.193
	(0.476)	(0.761)	(0.730)	(1.042)	(0.735)	(0.668)
Control	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
City FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
N	75989	80028	129681	25814	131965	23988
R^2	0.0471	0.0454	0.0343	0.0505	0.0424	0.0639

5. RESEARCH CONCLUSIONS AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS

This paper, based on the 2017 China Migrant Dynamic Survey (CMDS) data, empirically analyzes the impact of the income level of the floating population on their attention to changes in their place of residence. The research results indicate that there is a significant positive correlation between the income level of the floating population and their attention to changes in their place of residence. Sufficient economic resources enable individuals with higher incomes to better focus on and choose changes in their living environment, thereby enhancing their urban adaptation capabilities. Floating populations with higher incomes show greater sensitivity when facing urban changes; they pay more attention to factors such as urban planning, infrastructure construction, public service levels, and housing price fluctuations. In contrast, low-income groups, due to limitations in economic resources and social capital, have relatively lower attention to changes in their place of residence. This phenomenon may be related to their weaker economic adaptation capabilities; low-income groups often face greater survival pressures, so their main focus may be on daily life and meeting basic needs, with lower attention to urban planning or changes in the living environment. Heterogeneity analysis shows that the impact of income on different groups varies significantly, especially among high-income males, individuals with low education levels, and those with agricultural household registrations, who are more sensitive to changes in their place of residence. This indicates that these groups have higher adaptation needs and attention when facing urban changes, reflecting the differentiated role of income levels among different population groups.

Based on the research conclusions, the following policy implications are derived: First, in the process of urban planning, infrastructure construction, and residence policy formulation, it is essential to fully consider the sensitivity and needs of higher-income groups towards urban changes, as these groups are likely to pay more attention to the improvement of the living environment and the direction of urban development. Therefore, policies targeting high-income groups should focus more on improving urban quality of life, enhancing urban infrastructure, and optimizing the living environment to meet their needs for urban changes. Secondly, policymakers should also pay attention to the needs of low-income groups, providing more social support and public services to help them better adapt to changes in the urban environment. For example, policy preferences or support measures can assist low-income groups in improving their living conditions, enhancing their stability in life, and providing more information and resources so that they can pay more attention to and participate in the process of urban changes. Thirdly, addressing the settlement of the floating population is key to their integration into society. The reform of China's household registration system, adjustments in housing policies, and the equalization of public services not only provide better living conditions for the floating population, help increase their income levels, but also promote their attention to the city of residence, providing security for the survival and development of the floating population in cities, and further enhancing their attention to and adaptability to changes in their place of residence.

REFERENCES

[1] Ekelund, H. M. (2009). Castles S. and Miller, MJ (2009). The Age of Migration: International Population Movements in the Modern World. Basingstoke: Palgrave MacMillan. Journal of Contemporary European Research, 5(2), 326-327.

[2] Cai, S., & Wang, J. (2020). Urbanization and subjective well-being in China: Differences between urban, migrant, and rural populations. Cai, Shu and Jia Wang.

[3] Borjas, G. J. (1999). The economic analysis of immigration. Handbook of labor economics, 3, 1697-1760.

[4] Meng, X., & Xue, S. (2020). Social networks and mental health outcomes: Chinese rural–urban migrant experience. Journal of population economics, 33(1), 155-195.

[5] QIU, F., WANG, H., CHEN, G., & ZHUANG, T. The Impact of Urbanization on Happiness Inequality: Evidence from China 2.

[6] Yang, T., & Zhang, T. (2024). Social capital meets guanxi: Social networks and income inequality in China. China Economic Review, 83, 102094.

[7] Shen, J. (2002). Urban and regional development in post-reform China: the case of Zhujiang delta. Progress in Planning, 57(2), 91-140.

[8] Zhu, Y., & Chen, W. (2010). The settlement intention of China's floating population in the cities: Recent changes and multifaceted individual-level determinants. Population, Space and Place, 16(4), 253-267.

[9] Rodríguez-Pose, A. (2008). The rise of the “city-region” concept and its development policy implications. European planning studies, 16(8), 1025-1046.

[10] Guan, X., Wei, H., Lu, S., Dai, Q., & Su, H. (2018). Assessment on the urbanization strategy in China: Achievements, challenges and reflections. Habitat International, 71, 97-109.

[11] Zhu, Y. (2007). China's floating population and their settlement intention in the cities: Beyond the Hukou reform. Habitat International, 31(1), 65-76.

[12] Rodríguez-Pose, A. (2008). The rise of the “city-region” concept and its development policy implications. European planning studies, 16(8), 1025-1046.

[13] Dustmann, C., & Mestres, J. (2010). Remittances and temporary migration. Journal of Development Economics, 92(1), 62-70.

[14] Gou, Z., **e, X., Lu, Y., & Khoshbakht, M. (2018). Quality of Life (QoL) survey in Hong Kong: Understanding the importance of housing environment and needs of residents from different housing sectors. International journal of environmental research and public health, 15(2), 219.

[15] Luo, J., Zhang, X., Wu, Y., Shen, J., Shen, L., & **ng, X. (2018). Urban land expansion and the floating population in China: For production or for living?. Cities, 74, 219-228.

[16] Wu, F., & He, S. (2005). Changes in traditional urban areas and impacts of urban redevelopment: A case study of three neighbourhoods in Nan**g, China. Tijdschrift voor economische en sociale geografie, 96(1), 75-95.

[17] Adger, W. N., Kelly, P. M., Winkels, A., Huy, L. Q., & Locke, C. (2002). Migration, remittances, livelihood trajectories, and social resilience. ambio: A Journal of the Human Environment, 31(4), 358-366.

[18] Glaeser, E. L., Gyourko, J., & Saks, R. E. (2005). Why have housing prices gone up?. American Economic Review, 95(2), 329-333.

[19] Wang, Y. P. (2003). Living conditions of migrants in inland Chinese cities. The journal of comparative Asian development, 2(1), 47-69.

[20] Iredale, R. (2001). The migration of professionals: theories and typologies. International migration, 39(5), 7-26.

[21] Dynes, R. (2006). Social capital: Dealing with community emergencies. Homeland Security Affairs, 2(2).

[22] Liu, R., Greene, R., Yu, Y., & Lv, H. (2022). Are migration and settlement environment-driven? Environment-related residential preferences of migrants in China. Journal of Cleaner Production, 377, 134263.

[23] Data sourced from the National Bureau of Statistics, with statistics up to the year 2020, for specific reference: National Bureau of Statistics. (2021). Statistical Bulletin on National Economic and Social Development in 2020.