

Conformity and Soft Skills as Determinants of Alternatively Credentialed Non-College Graduate Hireability

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Abstract

Despite targeting technical skills, vocational school graduates earn less than college graduates. This paper hypothesizes that conformity selection and a perceived deficit in soft skills substantially explain reduced alternatively credentialed non-college graduate (ACNG) hireability. Microdata from the United States confirm a perceived soft skill deficit for ACNG labor. Results indicate that conformity is a critical factor of hireability, but the direction of effect is heterogeneous by employer type. Conformity and perceived skill gaps explain about one-third of hireability variance. Perceived soft skill explains more hireability variance than widely recognized factors like the industry of occupation. Opposite conventional explanation, results suggest that conformity reduces hireability on average. Respondents tend to perceive ACNG candidates as an even mix of high and low performers. Evidence favors employer risk aversion toward labor productivity as a preferred explanation of low ACNG demand. ACNG labor is perceived as low in conscientiousness and body language communication skills compared to college graduates. The conclusion incorporates discussion of public misperception on vocational school costs and suggests activities to reduce unconscious bias.

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1. Introduction

A substantial gap exists between the skills expected by employers and those possessed by college graduates[1, 2, 3, 4]. Experts view college alternatives, including vocational school, to be useful for technical training, but the traditional college degree retains a wage premium over vocational education. Unemployment, underemployment, and other adverse labor outcomes follow a similar pattern[5]. This paper seeks to resolve the apparent discrepancy between these outcomes while preserving the mainline view that employers pay for perceived job candidate skill. To explain the apparent discrepancy, this paper tests the hypothesis that employers expect an offsetting non-technical skill deficit when considering an alternatively credentialed non-college graduate (ACNG). I find evidence that the general population of the United States, including employers, does apply a stigma to the ACNG in which soft skills are assumed to be deficient.

Alternative credentials refer to credentials other than the undergraduate degree[6]. The category includes, for example, industry certifications, portfolios of work, digital badges, and other records of unaccredited learning and achievement. Individuals pursuing alternative credentials typically intend to leverage the credential toward better employment. That is, they typically have the same goals as a college student. Many individuals obtain alternative credentials as a supplement to the college degree. Such a situation is Pareto-superior to degree attainment alone and is therefore intentionally excluded from the analysis. This paper focuses on the comparatively interesting case of alternative credentials as a substitute for the college degree in order to diagnose comparative disadvantage at the skill level. If a specific set of skills effectively explain labor outcome differences, then alternative learning providers could update products to affect better outcomes for their consumers.

The signaling model has become one of the two standard explanations of the value of the college degree. Signaling theory provides three advantages over human capital theory for the purposes of the present study. First, signaling

theory is able to explain labor outcome variance when human capital is held constant.

Second, the signaling model empowers a questionnaire research design. In an idealized human capital model, the measures of human capital would correspond
35 to production process inputs. To establish a wide array of such skill measures would be complicated and prone to measurement sensitivities, assumptions, and errors of various kinds. In this framework, a questionnaire is a second-best design that provides a proxy for the functional measure of skill. Signaling theory takes the reverse approach. According to the signaling model, labor demand is
40 formed on the basis of job candidate value as perceived by an employer. In this framework, a questionnaire is ideal. The manner in which employer perception relates to job candidate technical skill, if at all, is secondary. An additional benefit of using a questionnaire is the ability to ask hypothetical questions. In pondering hypotheticals, employer evaluation of a credential or
45 signal can be isolated from the human capital variance, which occurs in actual job candidates.

Third, signaling theorists have laid out a testable hypothesis for weak labor outcomes among non-college graduates. Following this model, scholars claim that the college degree signals intelligence, conscientiousness, and conformity[7].
50 Nontraditional education, in contrast, is hypothesized to signal nonconformity. Nontraditional courses can be completed in a shorter span of time and with reduced entry qualifications relative to the traditional degree. For this reason, alternative credentials are thought to signal low conscientiousness relative to the college degree.

55 Research indicates the existence of bliss points for employee conscientiousness and conformity from the point of view of an employer. Excess individual conscientiousness can disturb team performance[8]. Conformity can lead to a lack of innovation and suboptimal organizational practices[9]. Conformity selection occurs in part through heuristic decisioning rather than conscious choice.

60 Risk aversion is a distinct explanation for conformity selection. An employer may not be able to evaluate an alternative credential with confidence. From

the point of view of such an employer, an ACNG may range in value from a positive outlier to a negative outlier. The employer may not prefer to hire such a candidate on the basis of risk aversion, even if their point estimate
65 for ACNG labor value is higher than their point estimate for a recent college graduate. If employers with many employees are positively associated with ACNG hireability, this will add weight to an explanation based on risk aversion.

2. Data and Methodology

The hypothesis in this paper is based on a simple model of demand for labor
70 which is clarified in Equations 1a and 1b:

$$S_j = f(H_j) \tag{1a}$$

$$w_{ij} = E_i(MRP_j) = f_i(S_j) \tag{1b}$$

Job candidate j , generates a signal of productivity, S_j from unobserved human capital, H_j . Employer i , forms an expectation of the marginal revenue product of j on the basis of $f_i(S_j)$, an employer-specific evaluation of S_j . A
75 specific employer is willing to pay a specific job candidate wages of w_{ij} .

This study uses ordinary least squares (OLS) regression analysis to estimate the effect of perceived skill gaps on hireability. An employer is willing to pay more for a relatively hireable individual. This makes hireability a proxy of demand for labor and w_{ij} . In order to explain reduced willingness to pay for
80 ACNG labor relative to college graduate labor, this paper hypothesizes that employers preferentially value soft skills in the course of $f_i(S_j)$. To provide evidence for preferential evaluation of soft skills by employers, one or more soft skills should yield a negative coefficient in a regression on hireability.

Regression analysis in this study is conducted using original cross-sectional
85 data from an online self-completed questionnaire ($n = 212$). The data is avail-

able for replication or any other use¹. Respondents were obtained through the Amazon Mechanical Turk crowdsourcing service. Respondents were United States citizens at or over the age of eighteen, paid for participation, and selected on an opt-in, first-come, first-serve basis. The survey administration took place
90 in July of 2020.

The survey includes 65 questions in two sections². The first section captures respondent characteristics and the second section captures perceived skill relative to hypothetical job applicants. Employer responses did not significantly differ from the general population, so respondent characteristics are also interpreted as employer characteristics.
95

Regression variables in this study are categorical or Likert-type responses based on a scale from 1 to 10³. Higher Likert-type values indicate greater agreement with a statement that varies by variable. Categorical variables include state of residence, industry of occupation, employer status, firm size, and
100 a measure called duration.

Duration measures the length of time the respondent believes it takes to obtain an alternative credential. Employer status describes whether an individual makes hiring and firing decisions in the course of their employment. The variable takes one of three values: yes, no, or unemployed. Employer effects
105 refer to the case where an individual states that they do make hiring and firing decisions. State of residence refers to a state within the United States. Respondents were allowed to select the District of Columbia as a state of residence, but no such responses were obtained.

¹See https://osf.io/8qtxf/?view_only=95b0c0b0c65e4b7983198cc87c2ab733 for data used in this study.

²See Appendix A for a full copy of the survey.

³Likert-type responses can be treated as categorical or continuous for the purposes of regression analysis. Jaccard and Wan provide support for continuous analysis of Likert-type data. They note that severe departures from the assumptions on cardinality "do not seem to affect Type I and Type II errors dramatically," particularly when the Likert scale is 5 or more points[10]. This paper uses a 10-point scale and treats these data as continuous. A 10-point scale is equivalent to a continuous response from 1 to 10 with rounding.

Three other factor groups are investigated in the regression analysis. These
110 variables are measured using Likert-type units and they include hireability, rule-
breaker effects, and perceived skill gaps. Hireability is the dependent factor and
it indicates the degree of agreement that, "For many professions, alternative
credentials can qualify a person for an entry-level position."

Rulebreaker effects refer to a collection of three factors that measure re-
115 spondent agreement with statements about nonconformists, or "People who are
willing to break formal or informal rules and norms." The first statement in-
dicates that nonconformists present a risk to the reputation, productivity, or
value of a company. This statement received the least agreement and greatest
response variance among three qualitatively different descriptions of people that
120 are willing to break rules ($\mu = 6.40, \sigma = 2.55$).

The second statement indicates that nonconformists are held back by rules
and "could just as easily be high performers as low performers." This statement
received the most agreement and least variance among rulebreaker statements
($\mu = 7.42, \sigma = 1.91$). The agreement with this statement provides evidence
125 against the thesis that employers value conformity for its own sake. In turn,
this adds weight to the theory that employers value conformity as a risk aversion
tactic while knowing that nonconformity signals positive outlier potential. The
third description of nonconformists states that they tend to be gifted in the
areas of innovation or creativity, and that such people may benefit the culture
130 of a company ($\mu = 7.25, \sigma = 2.03$).

Perceived skill gaps are computed two ways from perceived skill questions
in the second section of the survey. Perceived skill gaps are measured seper-
ately with and without overqualification effects. Overqualification effects have
been identified as important in external research[11, 12], but these effects are
135 sometimes ignored during skill gap analysis[13].

Perceived skill is a Likert-type response reporting agreement with the state-
ment that a particular candidate has a particular skill. For each of 13 skills,
the respondent is asked to imagine and report skill levels for the ideal candi-
date, the average actual employee, the average recent college graduate, and the

140 average ACNG. Raw perceived ACNG skill gaps are calculated by differencing
the perceived skill of an ideal candidate with the perceived skill of an ACNG.
The perceived skill gap with overqualification effects equals the raw perceived
skill gap. The perceived skill gap without overqualification effects is calculated
as the raw skill gap or zero if the raw skill gap value is negative.

145 Rulebreaker effects and perceived skill gaps are structurally linked. Re-
spondents are asked to evaluate the soft skill of nonconformity, or "willingness
to break formal or informal rules and norms." Nonconformity interacts with
employer disposition to rulebreaking. For this reason, discussions on the impor-
tance of skill gaps include discussion on rulebreaker effects.

150 These methods allow for identification of a preferred model that explains
hireability using perceived ACNG skill gaps. The identified model will support
the hypothesis if soft skills are more important than technical skill gaps. The
model will support the risk aversion explanation of ACNG hireability over an
explanation from conformity selection if large employer size is positively associ-
155 ated with hireability.

Comparative analysis provides additional confidence in the data by repli-
cating the hireability gap between ACNG labor and recent college graduates
reported in external research. A comparative skill gap variable is constructed
for each perceived skill gap that is important in the preferred hireability model.
160 Comparative skill gap variables are constructed by subtracting perceived re-
cent college graduate skill from perceived ACNG skill. Multiple regression of
these comparison factors on hireability demonstrates which, if any, perceived
skill gaps are important distinguishers of the ACNG from the college graduate.
Identification of significant differences with a negative total effect on hireability
165 will replicate external data on the lower job market value of ACNG labor and
provide a diagnostic on which skill or skills must be better addressed through
alternative learning programs.

3. Results

3.1. Identification of the Preferred Model

170 Results confirm that employers, and the population in general, associate a soft skill deficit with ACNG candidates. Employer status was associated with an insignificant positive coefficient on hireability. Hireability was generally positive ($\mu = 7.57, \sigma = 1.80$) and depends critically on rulebreaker effects. Rulebreaker effects have more explanatory power than perceived skill gaps, and
175 perceived skill gaps have more explanatory power than widely recognized factors like state of residence and industry of occupation. Duration effects, positive nonconformity selection, and the lack of important differences in conformity between ACNG and college graduate labor provide support for an explanation of ACNG hireability based on risk aversion rather than positive conformity
180 selection.

Table 1 reports statistics for five multiple regressions. Coefficients are reported for selected variables for brevity. Selected variables include rulebreaker effects and any perceived skill gap which is important in any specification. In these models, an important factor is one that improves the adjusted explanatory
185 power of the model when included. These factors are not constrained to have a p-value less than 0.1, but as a rule of thumb they happen to have a p-value less than 0.3. Of the thirteen perceived skill gaps tested, eight were important in at least one specification. Seven skill gaps were important in Model 5, the preferred model. An important interaction between the information technology
190 industry and perceived body language communication skill was also identified.

Model 1 allows for overqualification and Model 2 uses the perceived skill gap measures that exclude overqualification effects. Models 3 and 4 are equivalent to models 1 and 2, respectively, after normalizing for industry, state, and firm size effects. Effect normalization involves retaining those factors which are robust
195 across both models 1 and 2. For example, Alabama has a significant effect when overqualification is allowed in Model 1. The effect for respondent residence in the state of Alabama is insignificant when overqualification is excluded in Model

Table 1: Table of Coefficients for Multiple Regressions on hireability, Selected Variables

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5
Gap, Body Language	-2.240e-01* (8.314e-02)	-3.831e-01** (1.124e-01)	-1.507e-01+ (8.980e-02)	-3.155e-01* (1.173e-01)	-3.060e-01* (1.145e-01)
Gap, Body Language-IT	2.199e-01+ (1.269e-01)	2.298e-01 (1.656e-01)	1.837e-01 (1.334e-01)	2.791e-01 (1.707e-01)	2.771e-01+ (1.665e-01)
Gap, Commute		-2.320e-01++ (9.720e-02)	-4.953e-02 (6.862e-02)	-1.197e-01 (1.023e-01)	-1.582e-01 (1.010e-01)
Gap, Conscientiousness	2.416e-01* (8.000e-02)	3.223e-01* (1.045e-01)	1.387e-01 (8.483e-02)	2.174e-01+ (1.129e-01)	2.175e-01++ (1.093e-01)
Gap, Customer Service	-1.259e-01+ (6.389e-02)	-1.512e-01 (9.599e-02)	-1.253e-01+ (7.162e-02)	-1.276e-01 (1.037e-01)	-1.323e-01 (1.009e-01)
Gap, Nonconformity		-6.336e-02 (1.028e-01)	-3.896e-02 (6.054e-02)	-8.535e-02 (1.082e-01)	-1.034e-01 (1.036e-01)
Gap, Salary		-1.135e-01 (8.284e-02)	3.873e-02 (6.597e-02)	-6.250e-03 (8.575e-02)	
Gap, Teamwork		1.227e-01 (9.179e-02)	6.812e-02 (6.963e-02)	1.287e-01 (9.697e-02)	1.131e-01 (9.505e-02)
Gap, Technical	-1.274e-01+ (7.443e-02)		-9.408e-02 (7.702e-02)	-1.010e-01 (1.023e-01)	-9.806e-02 (1.001e-01)
Rulebreaker, Culture Add	2.612e-01** (7.057e-02)	2.829e-01** (7.015e-02)	2.114e-01* (7.187e-02)	2.279e-01* (7.190e-02)	2.235e-01* (7.036e-02)
Rulebreaker, Risky	1.688e-01** (4.993e-02)	1.758e-01** (4.813e-02)	1.517e-01* (5.160e-02)	1.472e-01* (5.063e-02)	1.686e-01** (5.006e-02)
Rulebreaker, Rockstars	1.406e-01+ (7.646e-02)	1.748e-01++ (7.245e-02)	1.669e-01++ (7.851e-02)	1.546e-01++ (7.754e-02)	1.655e-01++ (7.599e-02)
Adj R-sqr	0.3100	0.3491	0.2317	0.2554	0.2866
R-sqr	0.4408	0.4663	0.3409	0.3613	0.3880

Standard errors in parentheses. + $p < 0.10$, ++ $p < 0.05$, * $p < .01$, ** $p < .001$

For each model, the probability of a greater F-statistic is less than 0.0001 and the sample size is 212.

2. Because Alabama is sensitive to this specification change, it is considered nonrobust and excluded after normalization. Employer status was positive in
 200 all models, but it was only significant in models 1 and 2. Significance loss on employer status during normalization suggests that the effect of employer status on hireability critically interacts with industry, state of residence, and firm size, which are the normalized effects.

Model 5 is specified as Model 4 plus two adjustments. First, the factor for
 205 salary is dropped. The salary factor improved adjusted explanatory power in Model 2, but it provided no such benefit in any other model. Moreover, the p-value of this factor was unacceptably low in Model 4 ($p > 0.9$). The second adjustment is to insert a variable for duration⁴. The belief that it takes more than a year to obtain an alternative credential is positively correlated with
 210 hireability ($\beta = 0.875, p < 0.01$).

The preferred model is able to explain roughly one-third of the variance in hireability. Rulebreaker effects are significant invariant to specification. Six of the seven perceived skill gaps in the preferred model are measures of soft skill. The coefficient for the perceived technical skill gap is insignificant, but it does
 215 possess an intuitive negative sign which is robust to specification. The dominant effect of soft skills in the preferred regression supports the main hypothesis.

In the classic signaling explanation of low ACNG demand, the ACNG signals an abnormal lack of conscientiousness and conformity. Regression analysis raises three problems for the conformity component of the classic explanation. These
 220 problems are robust to the specification and operationalization of conformity. First, rulebreaker effects are positively related to hireability. Secondly, a gap in perceived nonconformity skill yields a negative coefficient on hireability. This gap effect is equivalent to an association of low hireability and high conformity.

⁴Duration is a categorical variable which was important in both Models 1 and 2. As a categorical variable, it was decomposed into a boolean series for factor analysis. Models 1 and 2 retained one or more duration boolean factors, but none overlapped. As a result, duration was dropped from Models 3 and 4.

Overqualification is ignored in Model 5, so a gap indicates that the job candidate has a low level of skill compared to an ideal candidate. In this model, an increase to gap size is equal to a reduction in the perceived level of skill possessed by a job candidate. The negative coefficient for nonconformity therefore indicates that a reduction to nonconformity is associated with reduced hireability. Similarly, an increase to the level of perceived nonconformity shrinks the gap size and produces a positive change in hireability. The positive relation between nonconformity and hireability is reinforced by a summary statistic, which is that the average actual employee is perceived to have a higher level of nonconformity than both the ACNG and the recent college graduate.

The third reason that an ACNG nonconformity signal does not explain reduced hireability is that the ACNG and recent college graduate do not significantly differ in perceived levels of conformity. This is presently demonstrated using summary statistics, but Table 3 also provides regression analysis for comparative skill gaps. The average level of perceived nonconformity for the ACNG is 6.43 with a standard deviation of 2.25. The average for a recent college graduate is 6.29 with a standard deviation of 2.36. Informally, a lack of significant difference is apparant in that the means differ by less than one quarter of a standard deviation. Formally, the F-statistic from an analysis of variance ($F = 19.25$) and Pearson's chi-squared test ($\chi = 298.80$) both indicate a probability of independence which is less than 0.0001.

The coefficient on conscientiousness is significant and positive across specifications. Intuition would dictate that a large gap in conscientiousness would be associated with reduced hireability. Regression of the perceived gap in conscientiousness alone on hireability does produce the expected negative coefficient. The explanation for the sign change is that the direct measure of conscientiousness is an attenuating effect within certain specifications. Conscientiousness is cross-correlated with several factors in all models from Table 1. It could be the case that negative variation in conscientiousness is partialled out into these cross-correlates. This hypothesis is tested by removing other skill gap factors and the rulebreaker effects from Model 5. The other factors for state, indus-

255 try, duration, and employer status are retained. When specified as such, the
factor for the perceived conscientiousness skill gap yields the expected negative
coefficient ($\beta = -0.084, p < 0.31$).

Employer size is an important factor in the preferred model. The largest
category of employer is positively associated with hireability. This finding sup-
260 ports the explanation of hireability from risk aversion over positive conformity
selection.

Some state and industrial effects are identified. No particular relation among
state effects was found, but further comparative policy research is encouraged.
With respect to industry, an interesting interaction between body language skill
265 and employment in the information technology industry yields a positive coeffi-
cient. Body language skill gaps on their are associated with reduced hireability.
The interaction indicates a reduced penalty for a lack of body language com-
munication skill in the information technology industry. With less confidence
and more generality, the interaction indicates a reduced penalty for generalized
270 soft skill deficiency in the information technology industry.

A reduced penalty for soft skill deficit helps explain the particular flourishing
of alternative credentials in the information technology industry. The reduced
penalty in this particular industry might be related to a relative lack of dereg-
ulation in the industry. Another explanation is that the reduced penalty may be
275 related to cultural norms in the industry. There is less technical need for social
skill in programming, so introverts may obtain a comparative advantage in this
field. These effects are not confirmed in the current study. Further study which
includes job candidate personality data could test this hypothesis.

3.2. Explanatory Share of Perceived Gaps

280 The preferred model explains about one-third of hireability variance, but how
much of the explanatory power is attributable to perceived skill gaps? Table 2
provides evidence on the importance of perceived skill gaps and rulebreaker ef-
fects relative to other factor groups. Industry and state effects are factor groups
that are widely regarded in the external literature as important for models in

Table 2: Factor Group Explanatory Power in a Simple Regression

Effect Group Name	Adj R-Sqr	R-Sqr	Max p-value
Industry	0.0185	0.0510	0.288
Rulebreaker	0.1432	0.1554	0.053
Skill Gaps with Overqualification	0.0558	0.0737	0.106
Skill Gaps without Overqualification	0.0758	0.0933	0.115
State, Robust	0.0177	0.0503	0.227
State, Semi-Robust	0.0034	0.0648	0.831

the labor market. Table 2 shows that perceived skill gaps and rulebreaker effects explain more variance in hireability than do the widely utilized variables for industry and state. Rulebreaker effects collectively explain more than three times as much response variance as do industrial or state effects.

A comparison of simple regressions of perceived skill gaps on hireability reproduces the finding from multiple regression analysis that overqualification effects reduce explanatory power. Overqualification effects are heterogenously signed and curved by skill, so nonlinear analysis where the overqualification effects are isolated in distinct factors is likely to improve explanatory power. Such analysis would also require a larger sample in order to compensate for the loss of degrees of freedom.

Semi-robust state effects are state effects which are significant in any multiple regression described in Table 1. Robust state effects are the significant factors in a simple regression of semi-robust state effects on hireability. Illinois is an example of a state effect that appears in models 1 and 2 from Table 1 but is not significant in a simple regression of semi-robust state effects on hireability.

The r-squared associated with a simple regression of semi-robust state effects is greater than the r-squared associated with robust state effects. Analysis has shown that perceived skill gaps that include overqualification effects are comparatively weak representations of perceived skill gaps for models of hireability.

305 A conservative lower-bound on the explanatory ratio of perceived skill gaps to state effects can be constructed by using these two measures. Perceived skill gaps conservatively explain about 14 percent more variance in hireability than do state effects⁵.

With overqualification, perceived skill gaps explain about fifty percent more

310 of the variance in hireability compared to industry or robust state effects. Without overqualification, the adjusted explanatory power of perceived skill gaps is about three times the adjusted explanatory power of industry or state effects. Rulebreaker effects are about twice as important as perceived skill gaps. These findings collectively provide evidence that perceived skill gaps and rulebreaker

315 effects are factors of high importance for models of hireability.

3.3. Perceived Gaps Compared to the Recent College Graduate

Table 3 provides two models of hireability where comparative skill gaps are the independent factors. Model 6 is derived from Model 5 by replacing perceived skill gap factors with comparative perceived skill gap factors and dropping other

320 factors. Model 7 is derived from Model 6 by consolidating factors in order to maximize adjusted explanatory power. The four factors that were eliminated in the consolidation from Model 6 to Model 7 had a p-value greater than 0.55. The maximum p-value in Model 7 is less than 0.16.

Models 6 and 7 demonstrate that a few soft skills do constitute a significant

325 difference between groups. The main differentiator between ACNG labor and the recent college graduate is body language communication skill. ACNG labor is perceived as comparatively deficient in this skill, and the comparative deficiency is associated with reduced ACNG hireability.

⁵This is computed as $(0.0737/0.0648) - 1 = .1373$ and rounded to 0.14.

Table 3: Multiple Regression of Comparative Skill Gap on Hireability

	Model 6	Model 7	Model 8
Body Language	-3.295e-01*	-3.395e-01*	-1.444e-01
Commute	1.498e-01	1.574e-01	8.030e-02
Conscientiousness	1.416e-01	1.508e-01	-5.239e-02
Customer Service	-1.493e-02		
Technical	4.955e-02		
Teamwork	1.552e-02		
Nonconformity	-5.822e-02		
Body Language ²			3.400e-02
Body Language ³			-1.938e-02
Commute ²			-1.124e-02
Commute ³			2.334e-03
Conscientiousness ²			-4.646e-02
Conscientiousness ³			3.801e-02
Constant	7.613**	7.629**	7.671**
Adj R-sqr	0.0311	0.0474	0.0571
R-sqr	0.0633	0.0609	0.0973
p(F)	0.0610	0.0044	0.0125

* $p < .01$, ** $p < .001$

Conscientiousness and willingness to commute are the other two comparative skill gaps in Model 7. These two factors are positively signed, smaller in magnitude, and lower in significance when compared to the factor for body language communication skill. Model 7 plus summary statistics on the average value for each independent variable demonstrates that the average total effect of comparative skill gaps on hireability is negative⁶. This replicates external research which shows lower demand for ACNG labor.

The average effect of an increased comparative gap in willingness to commute is positive on hireability. This is because ACNG labor is generally more willing to commute compared to the recent college graduate. The situation is reversed for body language communication skill. Because the recent college graduate has an advantage on average, the average effect of a comparative gap increase is negative on hireability.

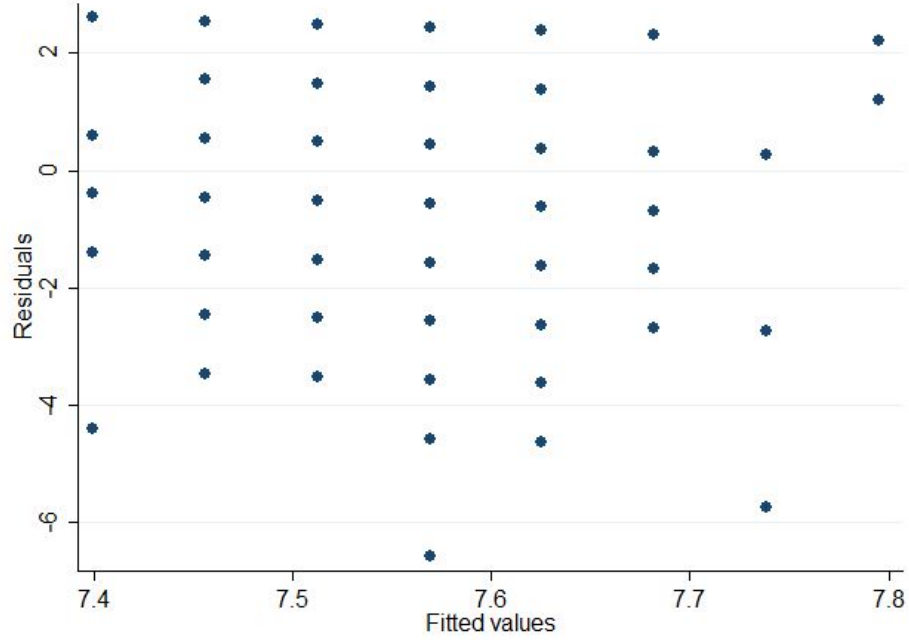
Conscientiousness has a more complicated result. The college graduate has an advantage on average, but the coefficient remains positive. This would seem to indicate that the ACNG maximizes hireability by minimizing conscientiousness. The reason is that there are important nonlinear effects which are missed in Model 7. Figure 1 is a scatterplot of residuals from a simple regression of comparative conscientiousness on hireability. The plot indicates a residual trend down and to the right with some heteroscedasticity. Looking along the bottom of the graph shows an m-shape, which is consistent with cubic effects.

Model 8 captures this curvilinear relationship by expanding Model 7 with quadratic and cubic factors. The coefficients in this model are not significant, but the directions of effect are as expected. In this model, the average total effect of the comparative conscientiousness gap on hireability is negative⁷. The average

⁶The respective mean values for the comparative gaps in perceived body language skill, willingness to commute, and conscientiousness are -0.1415, 0.0943, and 0.0330. The average total effect on hireability attributable to these effects is computed as: $-0.0579 = -0.3395 * 0.1415 - 0.1574 * 0.0943 + 0.1508 * 0.0330$.

⁷Computed as: $-0.0018 = -0.0524 * 0.0330 - 0.0465 * 0.0330^2 + 0.0380 * 0.0330^3$

Figure 1: Scatterplot of Residual and Fitted Values for Comparative Gap in Conscientiousness



total effect for Model 8 as a whole is also negative⁸. When the comparative
 355 gap in conscientiousness increases above the average of 0.33, the linear effect
 is negative and the marginal effect is also negative, but the marginal effect is
 becoming less negative as conscientiousness increases.

Models 7 and 8 provide a skill-level diagnostic in service of closing the de-
 mand gap for ACNG labor. Training for body language communication skill
 360 can be incorporated into alternative learning provider products, or alternative
 learning provider consumers can append additional training and credentials to
 their skill profile which target this skill. Alternatively educated individuals can
 offset perceived conscientiousness deficit by provisioning work history or results

⁸Computed as: $-0.0293 = -0.1444 * 0.1415 + 0.0340 * 0.1415^2 - 0.0194 * 0.1415^3 - 0.0803 * 0.0943 - 0.0112 * 0.0943^2 - 0.0023 * 0.0943^3 - 0.0524 * 0.0330 - 0.0465 * 0.0330^2 + 0.0380 * 0.0330^3$

of a personality test. External research indicates that psychological therapy and
365 other interventions can boost conscientiousness in some cases[14].

4. Conclusion

This study provides evidence that skill signals are an important factor of
hireability and are unique for the ACNG. Perceived skill gaps do a better job of
explaining hireability than do other widely recognized effects including industry
370 and state effects. Employer factors better explain candidate hireability than do
the perceived skill gaps themselves. Technical skill gaps were identified with
less relevance to hiring decisions compared to soft skill gaps for ACNG job
candidates.

The classic signaling model explanation for employer preference of college
375 graduate labor over ACNG labor is that the college degree provides a com-
parative signal of conscientiousness and conformity. The present paper finds
evidence that conscientiousness is an important comparative difference which
contributes to weak ACNG demand, but conformity does not have such a gen-
eral effect. This paper finds that employers of different types have qualitatively
380 different views about conformity. Some employers demand conformity and some
demand nonconformity.

This paper provides evidence that some employers engage in conformity se-
lection as a means of avoiding risk to the reputation, productivity, or value of
a company. Ironically, such employers are nonconformist themselves. Respon-
385 dents were most favorable to the description of nonconformists as individuals
that could just as easily be high performers as low performers. An explanation
from risk aversion is preferred because it explains low ACNG labor demand from
an employer giving either of the above responses, while positive conformity se-
lection is only able to explain the former case.

390 Risk aversion and conformity selection are both partially unconscious biases
which lead to suboptimal organizational operation. A practical recommendation
is for organizations to implement bias controls with respect to ACNG evaluation.

An example control would be to provide human resource procedures for formal evaluation of particular credentials which are relevant to specified job families.

395 These procedures can be immediately executed among known credentials and job families. These procedures should be retained for ongoing application as new credentials are developed and encountered over time.

Another action item for academics, policymakers, and the general public is to take action against misinformation about alternative education. Some
400 evidence on the role of misinformation is demonstrated in a survey on trade schooling taken in 2019[15]. Only 27 percent of respondents correctly responded that lower debt is an advantage of enrolling in trade school relative to college. Additionally, over 75 percent of respondents failed to notice that trade school graduates receive industry employment sooner and receive specialized training
405 when compared to a four-year college. Obtaining a college degree after obtaining some work experience will allow students to leverage employer tuition benefits. Because ACNG hireability varies importantly by particular employer, ACNG job candidates are advised to apply to a substantial number of employers at the outset of the job search. Insight into ACNG hireability at a particular firm can
410 be obtained prior to application through social networking with employees of the firm, online research into the policies of the target employer, or consulting a recruiter that specializes in the target employment industry.

The preferred model explains about one-third of hireability. Perceived skill gaps and rulebreaker effects account for most of the explanatory power in the
415 model. The explanatory power of this study can be meaningfully improved in a few ways. Longitudinal study would allow for causal analysis and improve forecasting of ACNG hireability in the future. Other research has conducted some dynamic analysis of the same dependent variable with different regressors[16]. Integrated analysis would be useful for replication and the generation of new
420 models of better explanatory power. Analysis that includes overqualification effects and heterogeneous nonlinear relations between skill gaps and hireability would improve estimates of hireability for a candidate of a particular skill profile.

This paper noted that large employers and the information technology industry has a peculiar susceptibility to alternative credentials, so recent changes implemented by Google may be indicative of future trends. Google has not required a college degree since prior to 2013[17]. Laszlo Bock, then Senior Vice President of People Operations at Google, stated the following in 2013: "After two or three years, your ability to perform at Google is completely unrelated to how you performed when you were in school, because the skills you required in college are very different." In 2020, Google added three new certificate programs to an existing set and declared that all of its certificates would be treated as the equivalent of an undergraduate degree for their hiring purposes[18].

If perceived skill is representative of actual skill, then the current study concludes that employers should be more willing to hire an ACNG. At the same time, this paper provides evidence that perceived and actual skill levels sometimes do not align. For example, the average recent college graduate in the sample is perceived to have better technical skill compared to the average ACNG. This is surprising because last mile training, a kind of alternative education, has been specifically recommended in popular literature as a remedy for the technical skill gaps that exist among recent college graduates.

Employers seem to be favorable to individuals with alternative credentials. In many cases, employer-perceived skill gaps are not statistically different when comparing recent college graduates with ACNG candidates. Social preference for the college degree may be better explained by public ignorance about appropriate alternative programs, a lack of appropriate programs for certain occupations, and government financial and other policy which gives preference to accredited education.

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