

Credential Inflation Over the Centuries – The Rise and Forecast of Median Education for Entry-Level Jobs

Abstract

Credential requirements for entry-level employment have risen dramatically from the 19th century to the present. This report traces **credential inflation** – the steady increase in educational qualifications demanded for jobs – in the United States and Europe from the 1800s through projections to 2045. Using historical data (census records, Eurostat, OECD reports) and scholarly literature, we find that the median educational attainment for entry-level jobs has climbed from only a few years of schooling in the 19th century to a high school diploma by the mid-20th century, and now often a college degree in the 21st century ¹ ². We analyze causes (mass educational expansion, professionalization, technological change) and effects (degree devaluation, overqualification, inequality) of credential inflation across sectors. A comparative U.S.–EU perspective highlights both common trends and variations (e.g. the role of vocational education in Europe). Using current trends and labor forecasts, we project further increases in required education through 2045, with many entry-level roles likely requiring a bachelor's or higher. The report discusses policy implications, including the rise of skills-based hiring, alternative credentials, and educational reforms aimed at mitigating credential inflation. The overall conclusion is that without interventions, formal education requirements for jobs will continue to rise, posing challenges for workforce development and social equity.

Introduction

Educational credentials have become increasingly central to labor markets over the past two centuries. **Credential inflation** refers to the phenomenon in which ever-higher levels of education are required for jobs that previously were accessible with lower qualifications ³. In other words, the “face value” of a given diploma or degree diminishes as more people attain that level and employers raise the bar for new hires. For example, where a high school diploma once sufficed for clerical or managerial work in the early 20th century, today a bachelor's degree is often considered the minimum – and in some fields a master's degree is now preferred for entry-level positions ³. This inflation of credential requirements has profound implications: it can limit opportunities for those without advanced degrees, contribute to underemployment of the highly educated, and drive individuals to pursue more schooling at great personal and public cost.

This report provides an exhaustive examination of credential inflation over time, focusing on the United States and European Union (EU). We investigate how the **median education level for entry-level jobs** has evolved from roughly 1800 to the present, and use data-driven analysis to forecast trends through 2045. We begin with historical context on educational attainment and job entry requirements in the 19th and early 20th centuries, then detail the causes and effects of credential inflation as mass education expanded. We compare U.S. and European trajectories, noting both similarities and differences in educational systems and labor markets. Quantitative data – from historical census records to recent labor statistics – underpin our

analysis of how many years of schooling have typically been needed for a new worker over time. We then present a forward-looking **forecast to 2045**, extrapolating current trends and using labor market projections to estimate future credential requirements. Finally, we discuss policy implications and emerging counterforces, such as the shift toward skills-based hiring and the growth of alternative credentials, which may alter or slow the trend of rising formal education requirements. The goal is to provide a rigorous, well-sourced account of credential inflation's past, present, and future, and to inform policymakers, educators, employers, and workers about its consequences and potential responses.

Historical Background

In the 19th century, formal education was not a prerequisite for most jobs. Around 1800, the majority of the population in both the United States and Europe had minimal schooling, often only a few years of basic literacy if any. The economy was largely agrarian or artisan-based, where young people typically learned trades through apprenticeships or on-the-job training rather than through formal diplomas. In 1870, the global average length of schooling for adults was only about **0.5 years**, and even in relatively advanced countries education levels were low ⁴. For instance, estimates suggest that as of 1870 the average adult in the United States had roughly **4 years** of schooling, while in countries like France and the United Kingdom it was under 1 year ⁴. Entry into most occupations – farming, factory work, domestic service, and the like – required no certified education at all. Basic reading, writing, and arithmetic skills were certainly useful, but beyond primary school few jobs expected any formal credentials.

By the late 19th and early 20th centuries, **primary education** had become widespread in Western countries, and literacy rates rose sharply. Most Western European nations and North America instituted compulsory elementary schooling laws (for example, France mandated schooling to age 13 in 1882, contributing to literacy rising from ~60% in 1870 to ~95% by 1900 in France ⁵). However, **secondary education** (high school level) remained the preserve of a minority until well into the 20th century. Around 1900 in the U.S., less than 10% of teenagers graduated from high school ¹. A high school diploma at that time signified a relatively high level of education, often conferring social respectability and serving as a ticket to white-collar and managerial jobs ¹. In contrast, those without a diploma (the vast majority) could still find gainful entry-level employment in factories, farms, or trades, where practical experience was valued over schooling. In Europe, secondary schooling was often restricted to academic tracks feeding universities or civil service, and only a small elite attended those; most working-class youth finished at a primary level or entered apprenticeships. Thus, in **1900**, the median education of a new labor market entrant might be roughly an elementary-level education (on the order of 6–8 years of schooling). Formal credentials beyond that were generally not expected for most entry jobs.

The 20th century brought a massive expansion of educational attainment and a corresponding shift in job requirements. In the United States, the **high school movement** led to the majority of youth finishing secondary school by mid-century. High school graduation rates in the U.S. climbed from under 10% in 1900 to around 50% by 1940 and about 80% by the 1960s, fundamentally changing the baseline qualification of the workforce ⁶. By the 1940s–1950s, over half of young adults (25–29 years old) were high school graduates, and their **median educational attainment was 12 years** (a full high school education) ⁷. The *typical* entry-level job by the mid-20th century, especially in an industrialized economy like the U.S., now presumed a high school diploma as the standard credential. For example, clerical workers, bank tellers, and supervisors in factories increasingly were expected to have completed high school, whereas a generation earlier an eighth-grade education might have sufficed. Meanwhile, only a small fraction (under 10%) of Americans held a college (bachelor's) degree before World War II ⁸, and those degree-holders were

funneled into the professions (law, medicine, engineering, academia) or managerial tracks. In Europe, a similar expansion occurred a bit later: after World War II, many countries reformed and broadened secondary education. By the 1970s, most Western European nations had made upper secondary education (high school equivalent or vocational training) near-universal, though the structure varied (academic vs. vocational tracks). Thus, by **mid-20th century**, a high school level education (around 12 years of schooling) had become the median attainment for young workers in the U.S., and was rapidly becoming the norm in Europe as well.

Higher education experienced enormous growth in the second half of the 20th century, leading to the next wave of credential inflation. The GI Bill in the U.S. after WWII and democratization of university access in Europe (aided by programs like the expansion of public universities and later the Bologna Process harmonizing European higher education) vastly increased the number of college-educated individuals. In the U.S., the proportion of adults with a four-year college degree rose from about 6% in 1950 to roughly 24% by 2000, and has continued to climb in the 21st century (as of 2020, around 36% of U.S. adults 25+ have at least a bachelor's degree) ⁹. Europe saw a similar surge in tertiary education attainment in recent decades: for example, the share of 25–34 year-olds in the EU with tertiary education was only on the order of 20–25% in the 1990s but reached **41–43% by the early 2020s** ¹⁰. Today, some European countries (Ireland, Sweden, Luxembourg, among others) have nearly half of their young adults holding a university degree ¹¹. This expansion of higher education has fundamentally altered entry-level hiring. By the late 20th century and into the 2000s, an increasing array of entry-level *white-collar and professional jobs* – from office administrators to sales managers to school teachers – began stipulating a college degree as a minimum requirement, where a generation prior a high school diploma was enough. Many occupations “crept” upward in credentials: jobs like bank loan officer, insurance underwriter, or executive assistant that once might have been open to high school grads now list a bachelor's degree as the expected qualification ³. In the academic and scientific fields, the escalation continued: entry-level college teaching positions that once required a master's now demand a Ph.D., and so on ¹². By **2000**, one could argue that the median entry-level job in the U.S. required education beyond high school – either some college, an associate degree, or a bachelor's degree, depending on the field.

To summarize the historical trend: - **19th century**: Most entry-level jobs had **no formal education requirement**; basic literacy or primary education was sufficient for the majority. - **Early 20th century**: **Primary education** became universal; some jobs began to require a **high school diploma**, but many did not. High school was a differentiator for better jobs. - **Mid-20th century (Post-WWII)**: A **high school diploma (12 years)** became the **standard entry credential** for most jobs in advanced economies. Completing high school was expected for most non-manual careers, while a college degree was a bonus for entering elite professions. - **Late 20th century**: **Mass higher education** led to many entry-level jobs requiring **college degrees (16 years)**. A bachelor's degree became increasingly common among job seekers and thus started to be expected even for roles that previously didn't require one (e.g. entry-level business or government positions). - **Early 21st century**: Credential inflation continued: in some sectors, an **advanced degree (master's or higher)** is now needed for entry-level roles that used to require only a bachelor's. At the same time, virtually all workers are expected to have finished high school, making it a basic prerequisite even for low-skill jobs.

This trajectory underscores how the **median years of education for new entrants** kept rising: from perhaps <5 years in 1800, to ~8 years in 1900, to ~12 years in 1950, and to beyond 14–16 years by 2020 in the U.S. and much of Europe. Educational attainment in the population grew dramatically, and **employers' expectations rose in tandem**, either out of necessity for higher skills or as a convenient filtering

mechanism. By the 2010s, an estimated 60–65% of jobs in the U.S. required at least some form of post-secondary education or training, compared to only 20–30% of jobs in the 1970s ². This is clear evidence of credential inflation over the decades.

Methodology

This research employs a **historical-comparative approach** using both quantitative data and qualitative analysis to examine credential inflation. We drew upon a variety of reliable data sources to reconstruct the trend in required education for entry-level jobs from circa 1800 to the present:

- **Historical educational attainment data:** We utilized records from national censuses and historical datasets (such as the **Barro-Lee dataset** and UNESCO reports) to determine the average or median years of schooling of the population and workforce over time. For the United States, data from the National Center for Education Statistics (e.g., the “120 Years of American Education” statistical portrait ⁸ ⁷) provided figures on high school and college completion rates across the 19th and 20th centuries. For Europe, historical statistics on schooling (e.g., literacy rates, enrollment rates, and attainment levels) were gathered from Eurostat, OECD reports, and academic sources on the history of education.
- **Labor market data on job requirements:** We compiled statistics and findings from labor ministries and research organizations regarding the education qualifications required by jobs. For example, the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) and studies by the Georgetown University Center on Education and the Workforce were used to quantify what percentage of jobs require a high school diploma, some college, a bachelor’s degree, etc., at various points in time ². For recent decades and current figures, **Eurostat’s labour force surveys** and **OECD indicators** were used to approximate European job requirements (often proxied by the qualifications held by job holders or specified in job postings). Where direct data on “entry-level job requirements” were scarce (especially for the distant past), we used educational attainment of young adults as a proxy, under the assumption that employers generally could only require what a typical young worker had. We also incorporated case studies of specific professions to illustrate how credential requirements changed (as documented in historical accounts and the scholarly literature).
- **Literature review:** To analyze causes and effects of credential inflation, we reviewed sociological and economic literature on educational credentialism. Key works include Randall Collins’ theory of credential inflation ¹³, which argues that the expansion of schooling (supply of educated labor) has largely driven up credential requirements beyond true skill needs, and human capital theorists who conversely argue that rising education levels match higher skill demands. We also reviewed sector-specific studies (for instance, how healthcare or civil service professionalized over time via higher credential standards).
- **Forecasting method:** For the quantitative **forecast through 2045**, we extrapolated from recent trends and utilized existing projections. Notably, forecasts by organizations like the **Georgetown CEW** were referenced – for example, their projection that by 2031 about 72% of U.S. jobs will demand postsecondary education ¹⁴. We extended such trendlines using assumptions of continued growth in educational attainment and technological change. We considered demographic projections (e.g., the increasing education levels of younger cohorts entering the workforce, as projected by Barro-Lee up to 2040 ¹⁵). Our forecast is not a precise prediction but rather an informed scenario based on

linear continuation of current credential trends moderated by potential policy changes. We also factored in qualitative foresight from “future of work” literature regarding automation and the evolving skill mix, which can influence whether credential inflation accelerates or plateaus.

In terms of analysis, we explicitly compare the United States and the European Union (and within Europe, note differences among member states when data allow). We define **“entry-level jobs”** as those positions meant for new workforce entrants (often young adults or recent graduates) and looked at the typical educational requirement listed or implied for those positions. We synthesized the data into an estimate of **median years of education required** at different time points. Because direct measurements for “years of education required by jobs” over centuries do not exist, these estimates rely on proxies (median years of schooling attained by new entrants, and the common education level required for the most common occupations in each era). All data and factual claims are cited to their sources. Limitations of our methodology include the uneven availability of historical data (especially pre-20th century), differences in how educational levels are defined across countries and time, and the difficulty of separating cause and effect in credential trends. Nonetheless, by triangulating multiple sources – quantitative data, historical narratives, and theoretical insights – we aim to present a robust and credible analysis of credential inflation.

Results: Trends in Required Education from 1800 to Present

The data assembled confirm a clear upward trajectory in the education levels required for entry-level employment over the past two centuries. **Figure 1** below visualizes the long-run trend in the **median years of formal education required** for entry-level jobs from 1800 through today, with an extension to 2045 based on projections. The rise is exponential in the 20th century, illustrating the phenomenon of credential inflation in both the U.S. and Europe.

Figure 1: Estimated median years of schooling required for entry-level jobs, 1800–2045. The curve illustrates credential inflation over time, with education requirements rising from only a few years of schooling in the 19th century to around 12 years (high school) by mid-20th century, and approximately 16 years (college level) in the early 21st century. Projections to 2045 suggest further increases (approaching postgraduate levels).

Historically, as noted, around **1800–1850**, the median entry-level worker had very little formal schooling. The vast majority of the labor force had not completed secondary education (which often wasn’t even widely available), and many had only basic literacy. By the **late 19th century**, primary schooling became common. For example, by 1870 in the U.S. about half of children aged 5–19 were enrolled in school (though often only up to elementary grades) ¹⁶ ¹⁷. In many European regions, schooling also expanded, but secondary education remained rare (with as little as 1–5% of youth attending secondary school in the 19th century) ¹⁸. Consequently, the median job entrant around 1900 might have had on the order of **6–8 years** of education. This is corroborated by U.S. census data from 1910–1940, which show the median adult had about 8 years of schooling in that era ⁸. Indeed, in 1940 over half of Americans had not gone beyond 8th grade ⁸, meaning many entry-level jobs could not realistically require more than that at the time.

The big shift came in the mid-20th century: by **1950**, completing high school (12 years) was increasingly typical for young workers. In the U.S., the median educational attainment of 25–29 year olds hit **12 years by the 1940s-50s** ⁷. Europe followed suit; by the 1970s, most Western European countries had a majority of youth attaining an upper secondary qualification (academic or vocational). Therefore, by **1960–1980**, one can say the median entry-level job in advanced economies effectively **required a high school diploma** – if not by explicit demand, then in practice because most job-seekers had one. Jobs that earlier accepted an

8th-grade education now asked for a high school graduate. For instance, manufacturing or clerical jobs that in 1920 might have been filled by someone with grade school education in 1970 would typically be filled by someone with a high school education. The data also reflect this: in the U.S., high school graduates as a share of the labor force grew immensely in mid-century, and in Europe the proportion of the population with low education (below secondary) steadily fell ¹⁹ ²⁰ .

From **1980s to 2000s**, the rise of **college-educated workers** led to a new inflationary push. The share of jobs requiring a college degree or other postsecondary training climbed. In the United States, around **1973 only 28% of jobs were held by people with some college or higher**, whereas by the 2010s about **60% of jobs were held by people with postsecondary education** ² . This reflects both supply (more people getting degrees) and demand (employers seeking more skills or using degrees as a hiring filter). By the 2000s, many entry-level positions in fields like finance, marketing, technology, and even areas of government and public service listed a bachelor's degree as a requirement. In the European Union, tertiary education attainment tripled from roughly 10–15% of the workforce in 1970 to around 30% by 2010, indicating a similar trend. By 2024, **33.5% of EU adults aged 25–74 had tertiary education** (and over 45% had upper-secondary as their highest) ¹⁹ ²¹ . In several EU countries, well over 40% of the young workforce have a college degree ¹¹ , effectively raising the credential bar for desirable entry jobs.

Today, in the **2020s**, the median required education for an entry-level job in the U.S. and EU can be characterized as **“some college”**, often a **bachelor's degree**. Not every job requires a B.A. – there are still many entry roles in trades, services, and blue-collar work that require high school or vocational certificates. But statistically, a majority of new job openings in the U.S. now call for postsecondary credentials. One analysis noted that nearly **65–72% of U.S. jobs in the near term will require some level of postsecondary education or training** ¹⁴ . As of 2024, about **two-thirds of new jobs** in the U.S. were described as requiring a college degree (associate or bachelor's), even though only roughly 38% of American adults have a bachelor's degree ²² . This mismatch is itself a symptom of credential inflation – the job market is demanding more education than the population at large has attained, pressuring individuals to upskill. In Europe, while the picture varies by country, there is a general expectation in advanced economies that young people will have at least upper secondary education; in fact, EU policy targets have aimed for *40% of young adults to have tertiary education*, a goal that has been met or exceeded by many member states ¹⁰ . Consequently, for EU entry-level white-collar positions, a university degree (or equivalent higher vocational credential) is increasingly standard.

Sectoral differences are evident in these results. **Professional and STEM fields** have seen the steepest credential inflation – e.g., entry-level accounting or nursing positions that once required a diploma or associate degree now often require a full bachelor's, and roles in academia or research that once accepted a master's now expect a Ph.D. Meanwhile, **trades and technical jobs** have also raised credential expectations, but often in the form of specialized certifications or vocational training rather than academic degrees. For instance, many skilled trades require passing formal exams or obtaining licenses today (a form of credential), whereas historically skills might have been validated solely via apprenticeship. Overall, the data shows **credentials have escalated across nearly all fields**, albeit at different paces. A construction supervisor in 1950 might need only experience and perhaps a high school education; by 2020 many construction firms prefer or require supervisors to have taken college courses or obtained construction management certification ³ .

To illustrate with concrete examples drawn from historical records and contemporary job requirements: - **Clerical/administrative jobs**: In 1900, a bank clerk or postal worker often had only a high school or even

grade-school education. By 1950, a high school diploma was typically required for such clerical roles. By 2000, many administrative assistant job postings started asking for a college degree (or at least some college coursework), even though the job duties had not fundamentally changed ³. - **Teaching:** In the 19th century U.S., teachers in common schools might only have a secondary education or attend a short “normal school” course. By the late 20th century, public school teachers are required to have bachelor’s degrees and often teaching credentials (and a master’s in some regions). - **Healthcare:** A registered nurse in 1950 could enter the profession with a hospital diploma or associate degree; today, the preferred entry-level qualification for RNs is a Bachelor of Science in Nursing in many hospitals. Likewise, physician assistants and other mid-level practitioners now usually need master’s degrees, where new roles didn’t even exist before. - **Technology:** In early computer programming days (1960s), many programmers were self-taught or learned on the job as the field was new; by the 2000s, an entry-level software developer is generally expected to have a bachelor’s in computer science or related field, although this is an area where alternative pathways (bootcamps, self-taught skills) can still occasionally substitute for formal credentials.

These trends confirm the **rise of median education requirements**. By quantifying it: In 1940, the median education of the U.S. adult population was about 8.6 years ⁸; by 1980 it was around 12 years (high school), and by 2020 it exceeds 13 years (due to many having some college). The **median entry-level worker today likely has around 14-15 years of education**, i.e. “some college” (with a large portion holding a bachelor’s). Our comparative analysis finds that the U.S. led the expansion of mass secondary education earlier, while many European countries have now caught up or surpassed in higher education rates. Notably, some EU countries have mitigated pure degree inflation by emphasizing **vocational training** – providing alternate credentials that are not traditional college degrees but still count as elevated qualifications (e.g. Germany’s Meisterbrief for trades). Nonetheless, Europe has also experienced credential creep as more jobs require formal qualifications that in the past were not needed.

In summary, the data and historical records strongly substantiate that **credential inflation is a real and ongoing trend**. From 1800 to 2000, there was roughly a tripling of required education (from a few years of schooling to ~12 years). From 1900 to 2020, median required schooling roughly doubled (from ~8 years to ~16 years). The next section will explore **why** this has happened – the causes and consequences – before turning to what the future might hold through 2045.

Discussion: Causes, Effects, and Sectoral Variations of Credential Inflation

Why have educational requirements kept rising? The causes of credential inflation are multifaceted, involving both **supply-side** and **demand-side** dynamics, as well as institutional and cultural factors:

- **Expansion of Education (Supply-side):** Perhaps the most cited cause is that as more people attain higher education, the labor market becomes saturated with credentials, prompting employers to raise the minimum requirements. This is a **supply-driven inflation** analogy: sociologist Randall Collins compares it to printing more money – as governments “print” more diplomas by expanding college enrollments, each diploma’s value drops, so employers seek the next higher credential ¹³. By this view, the proliferation of high school grads by mid-20th century led employers to start preferring those with some college; later, the glut of bachelor’s degrees led to master’s becoming the new differentiator, and so on. The evidence supports this interpretation: many jobs’ educational requirements rose even when the job tasks did not markedly change, suggesting it was not purely

higher skill demand but also the **excess supply of educated workers** that allowed (or forced) employers to require more. For example, a generation ago, a bachelor's degree holder was relatively scarce and often overqualified for a clerical job, but today with so many graduates, employers can ask for a degree for the same position to sift through applicants. This **credential creep** is often a convenient filtering mechanism: requiring a degree, even if not strictly necessary for the job's duties, is a way to reduce the applicant pool and assume a baseline of general skills ²³ .

- **Economic Transformation (Demand-side):** Another driver is the genuine increase in skill requirements for many occupations due to technological and economic changes. The transition from an agricultural economy in the 18th–19th centuries to an industrial economy in the late 19th–20th, and then to a modern **knowledge economy** in the late 20th–21st century, has raised the complexity of work ²⁴ . In a **knowledge-based economy**, more roles require abstract thinking, technical knowledge, and information processing, which formal education ostensibly provides. For instance, automation has phased out many routine manual jobs and created new jobs in programming, data analysis, healthcare technology, etc., which often require advanced training. According to functionalist theories, rising education levels are a response to these increasing skill demands: employers need more educated workers to handle sophisticated machinery, computing, customer service, regulatory compliance, etc. There is truth to this – certain sectors (like STEM fields) have seen credentials rise largely because the knowledge base expanded (e.g., medicine and engineering today involve far more complex knowledge than a century ago, necessitating longer training). Our data reflects this in the **professional economy**: between 2021 and 2031, about 95% of job openings in high-skill clusters (tech, healthcare, professional services) are projected to require postsecondary education ²⁵ ²⁶ , consistent with the idea that modern jobs in those fields demand it.
- **Professionalization and Licensing:** Many occupations underwent **professionalization** over the last century – forming associations, setting licensing standards, and lobbying for higher entry requirements to ensure quality (and often to limit competition) ²⁷ ²⁸ . Classic examples are fields like law, medicine, accounting, teaching, and engineering. Professional bodies and governments increasingly established formal educational qualifications as prerequisites (e.g., one must have a law degree and pass a bar exam to practice law, where in the 1800s one could become a lawyer by apprenticeship). This institutionalizes credential requirements and often ratchets them up over time. For instance, nursing moved from a vocational diploma to requiring a college degree (B.S.N.) in many countries as part of professionalizing nursing. The **credentialism** concept captures how society came to rely on diplomas and certificates as signals of competence and gateways to practice ²⁹ . In effect, formal credentials became proxies for skills and trustworthiness, and once entrenched in regulations or hiring norms, they created a baseline qualification that can creep upward (as seen when master's degrees become required in fields like education administration or library science, largely due to professional norms). Often, raising credentials can also be a way to elevate the status and pay of an occupation – but it can exclude those who cannot afford or access the required schooling.
- **Employers' Screening and Social Signals:** Even when higher education does not directly impart much more job-specific skill, employers may use it as a **screening tool** (as per Michael Spence's signaling theory). A degree signals certain attributes – basic literacy, work ethic, conformity, or simply intelligence – that employers desire. As more candidates obtain the signal, employers “raise the bar” to maintain selectivity. This cause is subtle but pervasive. For many white-collar jobs, a college degree became a default requirement not necessarily because the job content changed, but

because it became the new norm to assume only degree-holders are “**qualified**” or serious. There is also an element of **credential signaling for social status**: a firm might prefer hiring a college grad as a prestige marker or due to bias that non-graduates are less capable, regardless of actual skill. This feedback loop perpetuates inflation: once a majority of applicants for a job have a degree, *not* asking for a degree may even be seen as lowering standards.

- **Globalization and Competition:** The late 20th and 21st century brought global competition for high-skill jobs. With a larger pool of applicants (sometimes worldwide) for desirable positions, employers could be pickier. The text highlights that the **increasingly global nature of competitions for high-level positions** may contribute to credential creep ²³. For example, a multinational company receiving thousands of applications might require a master’s degree for an entry analyst role simply to narrow the field, especially if, say, in Asia and Europe many candidates now have master’s degrees. Additionally, multinational hiring means comparing credentials across countries, possibly encouraging candidates to acquire more certificates and degrees to stand out.

These causes often intersect. It is important to note a debate in the literature: **human capital theorists** argue rising educational requirements reflect real needs for higher skills and productivity, whereas **credentialists** (like Collins) argue it’s mostly inflationary excess beyond what jobs truly require ¹³ ³⁰. Empirical evidence shows elements of both. Many jobs in 2025 undeniably use more technology and cognitive skill than their 1925 counterparts (justifying more education), but there are also many instances of “**overqualification**” where workers have more education than the job really needs – a direct outcome of credential inflation. For instance, requiring a college degree for an executive assistant job may not be about any specific knowledge from college, but because enough people have degrees that employers can demand it.

Effects and consequences: Credential inflation has significant impacts on individuals, employers, and society: - **Rising Entry Barriers:** One clear effect is that young people now face more hurdles to qualify for jobs. The **median young person** has to invest more years in education (often incurring financial costs and debt) just to attain what is considered an “entry-level” qualification today. This can delay entry into the workforce and create frustration, as evidenced by phenomena like underemployed graduates. A bachelor’s degree today “often barely qualifies the graduate for menial service work” in terms of opportunities ¹, whereas a century ago it would have been a ticket to a top job. The **diminishing value of degrees** means each level of education yields less advantage than before ³¹. In some cases, we see “degree holders sweeping the floors” (metaphorically) – e.g., college graduates working low-paying jobs that historically high school grads did, because they cannot find graduate-level employment. This underutilization of education is inefficient from an economic standpoint and disheartening for individuals.

- **Credential Arms Race:** Students and workers respond to credential inflation by pursuing even higher credentials, leading to a self-perpetuating arms race ³² ³³. As bachelor’s degrees became commonplace, many students felt compelled to get master’s degrees to differentiate themselves. The number of master’s and doctoral degrees awarded has risen sharply in the past few decades. Employers then start expecting those in certain roles. This cycle can contribute to **inflated educational requirements** where, for example, some job postings now ask for a master’s for positions that historically needed only a bachelor’s. In aggregate, society spends more time and resources on education, which is positive up to a point (if it leads to a more educated populace), but problematic if much of that extra education is not actually utilized on the job – representing a form of **over-education** or credential overshooting.

- **Wage and Inequality Effects:** Paradoxically, while average education levels have risen, the wage premium for each level is subject to dilution when everyone attains it. Workers without the latest credential (e.g., those with only high school in an era when many have college) see their employment and earnings prospects deteriorate. This can widen inequality between those who can afford and access higher education and those who cannot. It also can entrench **class and racial disparities**, since historically underprivileged groups have lower college completion rates; requiring degrees for jobs can unintentionally exclude capable workers from those groups, exacerbating inequality ³⁴ ³⁵ . On the flip side, those who do chase higher credentials often do so to maintain their relative position, not necessarily to gain huge absolute advantages. Some economists worry that credential inflation contributes to **credentialism-based unemployment** – people being jobless not for lack of ability, but for lack of a formal certificate.
- **Skill Mismatch and Underemployment:** A notable effect is the phenomenon of people working in jobs that *do not fully utilize* their education. For instance, many European countries report significant overqualification rates – college grads doing jobs that require no degree. Tunisia’s story cited in our sources is poignant: a glut of university graduates with not enough graduate-level jobs led to high unemployment among the educated youth ³⁶ ³⁷ . Such conditions can breed social discontent (e.g., the role of graduate unemployment in the Arab Spring uprisings ³⁸ ³⁹) or at minimum personal dissatisfaction and wasted human capital. **Employers**, too, may face negative effects: if a job is filled by someone overeducated for it, they might be less satisfied or leave sooner, raising turnover.
- **Sectoral Variations:** Credential inflation has not been uniform across sectors. We see a **bifurcated labor market**: in the “**managerial and professional economy**,” almost all workers now have higher education, whereas in the “**blue-collar and service economy**,” a significant segment still works with only high school or less ⁴⁰ ⁴¹ . This can lead to polarization. For example, tech, finance, and healthcare fields keep pushing up credentials – requiring not just degrees but often elite university degrees or specific certifications. Meanwhile, some skilled trades or service jobs (electricians, plumbers, retail managers, etc.) might not require degrees but may require other credentials (like vocational diplomas or on-the-job certifications). That said, even many blue-collar jobs now demand more **basic education** than before (e.g., a factory line worker today often needs a high school diploma and some technical coursework, whereas 50 years ago they might not). The divergence means that the **median required education** we discuss is an average across a split landscape: high in one cluster of occupations, lower in another. However, the trend in each cluster is upward – even the trades increasingly formalize training (through community college programs or certification).

It’s worth noting **counterexamples** and periods of stalling: In some cases, when a credential becomes overly inflated, there’s pushback. Some countries in Europe experienced “qualification inflation” in the 2000s but then saw a shift to emphasizing practical skills, acknowledging that not everyone needs a university degree. Likewise, if a labor market gets very tight (worker shortages), employers may relax credential demands out of necessity. But generally, over the long run, the direction has been towards more credentialing, not less.

The discussion of effects would be incomplete without mentioning **employer perspectives**: Employers have often found it easier to use education level as a proxy for job readiness instead of investing in training. As public education expanded, employers effectively outsourced entry training to schools and universities.

This arguably made businesses less inclined to provide robust on-the-job training programs as they did in earlier eras, further entrenching the need for formal credentials before hiring.

Finally, credential inflation has sparked debates on the **true value of education**. If degrees are required for jobs that don't necessarily need the material learned, it brings into question the alignment of education and labor market needs. Some critics argue this has led to an **educational bubble** or "overqualification crisis," while others worry about those left behind – the ones without degrees now being shut out of decent jobs entirely (credentialism as a barrier).

In summary, credential inflation is driven by both **structural changes** (needing a more skilled workforce) and **social-institutional dynamics** (signaling, gatekeeping, professional norms). Its consequences include higher barriers to entry for young workers, possible misallocation of talent, and reinforcement of socioeconomic divides. These trends and impacts provide a backdrop for considering how things might evolve in the future – whether credential inflation will continue unchecked or whether new developments (like skills-based hiring or alternative credentials) might alter the trajectory.

Forecast to 2045: Education Requirements for Entry-Level Jobs

Projecting current trends into the future suggests that, barring significant changes, **credential inflation will continue through 2045**, meaning the median education level required for entry-level positions will keep rising. Our quantitative forecast, based on historical growth rates and existing projections, indicates that by the mid-21st century, the typical entry-level job in advanced economies will likely demand a **postsecondary credential as a baseline**, with a large share requiring a full university degree or beyond.

Several converging lines of evidence support this forecast: - **Rising Educational Attainment:** Younger generations are more educated than any before. In the EU, for example, **nearly 40% of people aged 25–54 have tertiary education as of 2024** (versus 24% of the older 55–74 group) ⁴² ⁴³. In the U.S., the proportion of bachelor's degree holders among young adults is expected to continue climbing. By 2045, it is plausible that around half of all 25–34 year-olds in the U.S. will hold a four-year degree if current trends persist (several demographic projections foresee U.S. college attainment reaching ~45-50% in that cohort by 2030s). Europe has set targets to keep increasing higher education attainment as well. Simply put, the **labor supply will be more educated in 2045** than today. Following the historical pattern, this will enable employers to set higher educational requirements. If in 2025 a position could realistically ask for a bachelor's because, say, 40% of candidates have one, by 2045 if 60–70% have a bachelor's, the employer might ask for that as a minimum and perhaps prefer a master's.

- **Technological Advancement and Skill Demands:** The continued advancement of technology – particularly AI, automation, and digitalization – is expected to transform many jobs. Routine tasks will be further automated, and the jobs that grow in demand will often be those requiring complex problem-solving, creativity, and high-level technical skills. Occupations in healthcare, STEM, education, and business services are projected to grow the fastest through 2030 and beyond ⁴⁴ ⁴⁵, and these occupations currently have disproportionately high education requirements. For example, the healthcare sector's new jobs (like data analysts in health informatics, genetic counselors, etc.) require degrees. As these sectors expand their share of the economy, they pull the average required education upward. By 2045, we can expect *many middle-skill roles to either be automated away or upgraded* into higher-skill roles. A famous forecast (by economist Richard Florida and others) is that the future job market will be polarized between high-skill, highly-educated

professional jobs and lower-skill service jobs, with the former growing more. If so, the median entry-level job falls in the high-skill category, implying more years of education.

- **Employer Hiring Trends:** There are indications that employers' inclination to require degrees is still strong, though there is some counter-movement (discussed later). Georgetown University's CEW forecasts that by **2031, 72% of all jobs in the U.S. will require some postsecondary education/training** ¹⁴. Extrapolating that trend to 2045, the figure could approach or exceed 80%. Within that, the share of jobs requiring a bachelor's or higher was about 35% in 2020 and is projected to rise to over 40% by 2031 ⁴⁶ ⁴⁷. By 2045, it is conceivable that **around half of all jobs could require a bachelor's degree** or higher, absent a change in course. This would make a 4-year degree effectively the **new high school diploma** – a baseline for the middle class. The **median years of schooling** for new job entrants would thus be around 16 (bachelor's degree) by the 2030s. Moreover, in more competitive fields, entry-level job ads might increasingly list master's degrees preferred or required. For instance, entry-level data scientists, urban planners, or marketing analysts might commonly need a master's by 2045 where today a bachelor's suffices. This suggests the median could edge toward 17-18 years of education for those roles, especially if master's programs (often 1-2 years post-bachelor's) become more common among young professionals.
- **International Context:** In the European Union, by 2045 many countries will likely have well over half of their young workforce with tertiary education if current trajectories continue (some EU countries already near 50% today for age 25–34 ¹¹). The EU's emphasis on creating a "knowledge society" and investment in higher education and lifelong learning supports the view that formal qualifications will remain highly valued. Furthermore, developing countries are also massively increasing higher education graduates, which means globally the competition for skilled jobs intensifies. Countries like China and India are churning out millions of degree holders annually; while this question is focused on US/EU, the global trend can influence multinational employers and comparative standards. By 2045, a globalized professional labor market might nudge Western employers to expect even more credentials to sift the **"best"** candidates.

Forecast numbers: Combining these factors, our forecast estimates that by **2045**: - In the United States, roughly **80%+ of entry-level jobs will require some form of postsecondary education** (including certificates, 2-year or 4-year degrees). Around **50% or more of entry-level openings may require a bachelor's degree or higher**. This would make the median required education ~16 years. Certain fields (tech, finance, academia, specialized healthcare) will commonly require **master's or professional degrees** even at entry-level, raising the bar to ~18 years for those sectors. - In the European Union, there will be variation by country, but overall a similar pattern: we project **most EU countries will have well above 50% of young workers with tertiary education by 2045**, so entry-level professional jobs will routinely require a university degree. The median educational attainment of new labor market entrants in the EU could be on the order of 15–16 years (with many having university plus perhaps some postgraduate training). Countries with strong vocational systems might channel a portion of youth into non-degree credentials, but those are still formal qualifications (often 1–3 years post-secondary in nature). Thus, whether through academic degrees or advanced vocational certifications, the level of training will be high. It is plausible that by 2045 **the typical new hire in Europe will have an upper-secondary certificate and additional tertiary or vocational credentials**.

One should note that **2045 is 20 years in the future**, and unforeseen changes could alter these outcomes. Our forecast assumes continuity in the value placed on degrees. However, there are emerging

countervailing forces that could modulate credential inflation: - **Skills-Based Hiring Revolution:** There is growing momentum to shift hiring practices away from rigid degree requirements toward demonstrated skills and competencies. As of mid-2020s, some leading companies (Google, Apple, IBM, and others) have announced they no longer require a college degree for certain tech positions, focusing on coding ability and experience instead ⁴⁸. Surveys indicate that **about 1 in 3 U.S. companies removed bachelor's degree requirements for some roles in 2023** ⁴⁹, and more plan to do so. Governments are also acting: several U.S. states (e.g., Maryland, Colorado, Pennsylvania, and recently Massachusetts) have eliminated degree requirements for the majority of state government jobs, opening them to anyone with the requisite skills or alternative training ⁵⁰ ⁵¹. If this trend accelerates, by 2045 we might see a significant subset of jobs where **skills certificates, portfolios, or apprenticeship credentials substitute for a college diploma**. This could slow or even partially reverse credential inflation in those areas, effectively “*decredentializing*” some occupations. For instance, the IT field might develop robust certification pathways that employers trust as much as a degree, thereby reducing the pressure to have a CS degree. Our forecast above (80% of jobs requiring postsecondary) might be moderated if such practices take hold widely. However, as of now, the impact is nascent – e.g., while one-third of companies removed some requirements, **none reported eliminating degrees for all roles** ⁵² ⁵³, and many changes are limited to specific job categories.

- **Alternative Credentials & Lifelong Learning:** By 2045, the landscape of credentials themselves will likely evolve. We anticipate a rise in **micro-credentials, online course certificates, bootcamp diplomas, and industry-specific certifications**. These are shorter-term credentials focusing on specific skills (e.g., a coding bootcamp certificate, a digital marketing badge, etc.). If employers increasingly accept these as proof of competency, some roles might no longer demand a traditional 4-year degree. Instead, they might require a *combination* of smaller credentials – for example, an employer might say “we need someone proficient in data analysis and project management” and accept evidence from a recognized certificate program. The EU has been exploring the concept of microcredentials in vocational training as a means to upskill workers flexibly ⁵⁴ ⁵⁵. By 2045, we may have a more modular education system where the **median years of schooling** could be computed not only in formal years but also in terms of accumulated learning credits. Nonetheless, those microcredentials could also contribute to inflation if they simply stack on top of existing degrees (i.e., employers might ask for a degree *plus* certain certificates).

- **Educational Reforms:** Both in the U.S. and Europe, there is awareness of the pitfalls of credential inflation, and reforms could be implemented. For instance, there is a push to strengthen **vocational education and apprenticeship programs** as equally respected pathways (especially in the U.S., learning from European models). If successful, by 2045 more students might pursue 2-year career-focused training and go straight into jobs without a bachelor's, and employers might value those pathways more. Policies that promote “**skills-first**” education and better align curricula with labor market needs could reduce the pressure to overshoot on general education credentials. Additionally, reforms in higher education (like 3-year bachelor's programs, competency-based degrees, or expanded Recognition of Prior Learning) could make obtaining necessary credentials more efficient, potentially shortening the time spent accumulating them.

Taking these factors together, our baseline forecast is a **continuation of rising credential requirements** into 2045, but there is a plausible scenario where the curve begins to **plateau** or even dip slightly if systemic changes take hold. For example, if by 2035 a majority of employers genuinely adopt skills-based hiring, the effective required schooling might level off (maybe a solid high school education plus specific job training, rather than everyone needing a generic bachelor's). On the other hand, if nothing changes, we

might see absurd outcomes like internships asking for master's degrees, or fields where a Ph.D. is the new entry standard (some would argue this is already happening in academia and research).

In quantitative terms, we predict by 2045 the **median entry-level education in years** will be approximately: - **USA**: ~16 years (equivalent to a bachelor's), with many roles at 18 years (master's). The lower end of jobs will still only need ~12 years (high school), but those will mostly be low-wage. The weighted median across the labor market skews higher due to more jobs on the high end. - **EU**: ~15-16 years on average (bachelor's or advanced vocational diploma). Countries with strong vocational systems might have a bifurcated outcome: median years might appear slightly lower if people take 2-3 year occupational programs instead of 4-year degrees, but those are still post-secondary credentials, just not measured in the same way as academic years. In highly educated countries like Ireland or Sweden, the median new hire in a white-collar job will likely have 16+ years of education.

To illustrate the forecast, consider a young person in 2045: likely they will have completed 12 years of basic education, plus perhaps 4 years of tertiary (for a degree) and possibly additional 1-2 years of specialized study or internships. The **upshot** is that the entry point to a career is moving further up the educational ladder.

It's also worth acknowledging **uncertainties**: The rapid growth of AI might create new jobs that don't fit current patterns, or could reduce the total number of high-skilled jobs (if AI does some of that work). Demographic shifts (aging populations in EU, etc.) could cause labor shortages that force employers to lower credential requirements out of necessity. Political shifts could lead to stronger support for vocational tracks or for making college more accessible (or conversely, cutbacks that make it harder for everyone to get degrees, which might in turn force employers to adjust expectations). Our forecast assumes a general continuation of present trends without revolutionary change in how society values credentials.

In conclusion, absent major changes, by 2045 **entry-level job qualifications will be at their highest levels in history** – truly a different world from 1800 or 1900. The median entry-level hire will be very well educated in formal terms. Whether this trend is sustainable or efficient is a critical question. It places burdens on individuals and education systems to continually produce more credentials. The next section will delve into what can be done about credential inflation and how policy and employers might respond to ensure that the future of hiring is both fair and aligned with actual skill needs.

Policy Implications and Countervailing Forces

The trajectory of ever-increasing credential requirements raises important policy and practical questions. If left unchecked, credential inflation could exacerbate skills mismatches, talent waste, and social inequities. However, as noted, there are emerging countervailing forces that might alter this course. Here we discuss implications and potential strategies, as well as signs of change in hiring practices and education that aim to counter credential inflation:

1. Rethinking Hiring Practices (Skills over Credentials): A key implication is that employers and policymakers may need to **decouple jobs from unnecessary credential requirements** ⁵⁶. If a job can be performed competently without a four-year degree, insisting on one can needlessly shrink the talent pool and reinforce inequality. There is a growing movement advocating **skills-based hiring** – focusing on a candidate's actual abilities, portfolios, and experience rather than diplomas. Government initiatives, like the **executive orders eliminating degree requirements for most state jobs** (e.g., in Massachusetts,

Maryland), are leading by example ⁵⁰ ⁵⁷. Companies too are starting to follow: as of 2024, **33% of U.S. companies surveyed had removed degree requirements for some positions** and another 25% planned to do so by 2025 ⁴⁹. These changes are especially noted in tech, finance, and healthcare support sectors ⁵⁸. Such shifts can serve as a release valve for credential inflation by valuing alternative proofs of skill (certifications, prior work experience, coding bootcamp completion, etc.). If this becomes mainstream by 2045, it could halt the escalation of formal degree requirements. Policymakers can support this by creating frameworks for credential transparency and skill assessment, encouraging industries to define job requirements in terms of competencies, not just degrees.

2. Investing in Vocational and Technical Education: Strengthening **vocational education and apprenticeships** is a strategy to provide high-quality, job-relevant training without necessarily going through the traditional college route ⁵⁶. Europe has long traditions of vocational training (e.g., the German dual system, Swiss apprenticeship model) that produce skilled workers with recognized qualifications. The U.S. is looking to emulate some of these aspects to fill trades and advanced manufacturing jobs. By elevating the prestige and effectiveness of vocational training, policymakers can create parallel pathways that employers respect. If employers trust a 2-year technical diploma plus apprenticeship to signal a worker's capability, they might not inflate requirements to demand a generalist bachelor's degree. **Cedefop (European Centre for Development of Vocational Training)** and similar bodies are actively researching the future of vocational training in Europe ⁵⁹ to adapt to the changing skill needs. A forward-thinking move is to incorporate **microcredentials in vocational training** – allowing workers to continually upskill in specific areas without returning for full degrees ⁶⁰. For individuals, a robust vocational system provides a way to obtain good jobs without accumulating college debt or spending extra years in school. For society, it produces skilled labor aligned with market needs, potentially reducing the mismatch where we have college grads lacking practical skills and jobs lacking qualified technicians.

3. Encouraging Alternative Credentials and Lifelong Learning: Policy can also support the development of credible **alternative credentials** – such as industry certifications, bootcamp certificates, nanodegrees, etc. For example, in IT, certifications like AWS Cloud Practitioner or Cisco's CCNA can carry weight. If more industries create these kinds of credentials (and update them frequently to remain relevant), employers might prefer a candidate with targeted certificates and proven skills over one with a generic degree. Governments and educational institutions can collaborate to ensure quality and recognition of these credentials (perhaps through accreditation or standardization frameworks). Additionally, promoting a culture of **lifelong learning** means workers continuously update their skills through short courses and training throughout their careers, rather than assuming one big credential at age 22 will suffice. By 2045, continuous upskilling might be the norm, and employers might value a portfolio of varied learning experiences. This could break the one-upmanship of chasing ever-higher formal degrees.

4. Higher Education Reform: The role of universities is crucial. Some argue that universities need to adapt to the reality of credential inflation by either *offering more practical training* or *shortening time to degree*. Ideas include integrating more work experience in degree programs, implementing **competency-based degrees** (where students progress upon mastering skills, potentially faster than the standard time), and providing **stackable credentials** (segments of a degree that have standalone value). There's also discussion about **graduate degree inflation** – e.g., should every job truly require a master's or could undergrad education be restructured to cover more? Universities and employers could collaborate to define curricula that meet entry-level job requirements, reducing the need for employers to seek additional credentials on top of a degree. If academia becomes more attuned to specific skills (without sacrificing broad education), the argument for extra credentials might weaken. Conversely, if higher education remains out of sync (e.g.,

teaching mostly theory while employers want practical skills), the proliferation of extra credentials will continue as job candidates seek to supplement their degrees with more job-focused training.

5. Addressing Inequality and Access: From a policy perspective, it's important to ensure that raising credential requirements does not unfairly lock out certain groups. One implication is the need to improve **access to education** at all levels. If a bachelor's degree is effectively required for a decent job, then making college affordable and accessible to all becomes a social imperative (through scholarships, public financing, etc.). Some countries in Europe already have free or low-cost university, which mitigates the class barrier – but even there, if someone doesn't pursue college, they need other opportunities. So policies must also validate and reward other forms of learning (not everyone should need a university to have a good career). **Job placement and training programs** could be expanded to help non-graduates get equivalent skills. Another angle is **transparency in job postings**: encouraging employers to be explicit about which skills are needed versus which credentials are just proxies. The U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) could conceivably scrutinize excessive degree requirements if they lead to disparate impact on protected groups, pushing employers to justify that a requirement is a “business necessity.”

6. Cultural Shift in How We Value Education: Ultimately, tackling credential inflation may require shifting the cultural notion that *more education is always better*. Education for education's sake is valuable for personal development and civic life, but using it as a jobs filter is a specific phenomenon that could be moderated. Recognizing **nontraditional forms of knowledge and skill** is key – for example, valuing self-taught programmers or entrepreneurs who learned by doing, as well as experienced older workers who may not have formal credentials but have rich tacit knowledge. There's already evidence of some backlash against the blanket idea that a degree equals ability ⁶¹. Public trust in the “college = success” narrative has eroded slightly in the U.S. ⁶¹, and that might accelerate if people see successful careers built on alternatives. By 2045, if enough high-profile companies and government agencies demonstrate that dropping degree requirements leads to good hires, societal attitudes may shift to accept that **a college degree is not the only path** to competence.

7. Monitoring and Governance: International organizations (like the OECD) and national statistical agencies should continue monitoring the relationship between education and jobs. Improved data on exactly what training is needed for what job (and performance outcomes) can guide better policies. If we identify that certain jobs truly do *not* need degree-level knowledge, policies could discourage credential creep there (for example, via occupational licensing reform – examining if requiring a college degree for certain licensed professions is genuinely warranted or just exclusionary).

It must be stressed that **counteracting credential inflation is challenging**. It requires coordination between education providers, employers, and policymakers. There are risks: if we push too hard against degrees, we must ensure quality in whatever replaces them as a signal (we don't want to hire surgeons with no formal training just because they say they have skills!). Also, people have invested heavily in obtaining credentials; suddenly devaluing degrees could be seen as unfair to them. The optimal approach is likely a balanced one: continue to encourage high-quality education but also broaden the pathways of proving one's capabilities.

In summary, policy implications revolve around creating a more **skill-centric employment system** and a more **flexible education system**. By focusing on competencies, broadening training pathways, and removing artificial barriers, we can mitigate the negative aspects of credential inflation. Some practical steps already underway (like companies eliminating certain degree requirements) demonstrate that change

is possible. Over the next two decades, we may see a recalibration where **degrees are one of many ways to the labor market, not the only ticket**. This would ideally slow the inflationary cycle and make the hiring process more equitable and efficient. The discussion above echoes the recommendations from experts: for example, proposals to “*focus on applicants’ skills and experiences, rather than college credentials*” ⁵¹ and to “*build more inclusive and skilled workforces*” by dropping unnecessary requirements ⁶² align with these policy directions.

Conclusion

Credential inflation – the steady rise in educational qualifications required for entry-level jobs – has been a defining feature of labor markets in the United States and Europe over the past two centuries. Our comprehensive examination shows that what started as a largely uncredentialed job market in the 1800s has transformed into one where formal education plays an unprecedented gatekeeping role. The **historical analysis** revealed that the median education for job entrants rose from just a few years of schooling in 1800 to a full high school education by the mid-20th century, and then to some college or a bachelor’s degree by the early 21st century, reflecting massive expansions in public education and higher learning ⁷ ². We documented how high school diplomas, once a mark of distinction granting access to white-collar careers, became merely a basic requirement by the 21st century, with college degrees taking over as the new baseline ¹. In parallel, Europe experienced similar trends, albeit with local nuances (such as later but rapid tertiary education growth and strong vocational tracks).

Our **analysis of causes** underscored that credential inflation results from both genuine economic shifts – requiring more knowledgeable workers in a complex, technology-driven economy – and social processes like credentialism, professionalization, and the oversupply of graduates ¹³ ²⁹. The evidence suggests that while more education has undoubtedly equipped many workers with valuable skills (contributing to productivity and innovation), there is also a significant element of the **credentials race** that goes beyond practical skill needs, serving more as a sorting mechanism. The **effects** are double-edged: on one hand, populations today are more educated than ever (a positive human development outcome), but on the other hand, the devaluation of each level of education has led to underemployment, frustration among youth, and barriers for those unable to attain higher degrees ³¹ ³⁴. Sectoral comparisons highlighted a polarized landscape – a high-education knowledge sector and a medium/low-education service sector – though credentials have risen in both to varying extents.

Looking toward the future, our **forecast for 2045** indicates that if current trends persist, the median entry-level job will require roughly a college-level education, and many will expect postgraduate credentials. However, this is not set in stone. We stand at an inflection point where the costs of unchecked credential inflation are being recognized. **Policy implications** and recent developments provide both hope and a roadmap for change: initiatives in skills-based hiring, promotion of alternative credentials, and educational reforms could moderate the inflationary spiral. The rise of prominent companies and public employers dropping degree requirements in favor of skill assessments ⁴⁹ ⁵² is an early sign that the labor market of the future might rebalance toward competence over credentials. Likewise, investments in vocational training and lifelong learning can ensure that workers acquire in-demand skills without always defaulting to multi-year academic programs.

In conclusion, the **rise of median education requirements** for entry-level jobs over the centuries is a testament to profound social and economic evolution. It reflects greater access to education and higher skill needs, achievements we should celebrate. Yet, it also poses a challenge: ensuring that the pursuit of

credentials remains a means to genuine empowerment and productivity, rather than a costly signaling game. Policymakers, educators, and employers must collaborate to calibrate the balance between educational attainment and labor market needs. If successful, by 2045 we could see a labor market that values multiple pathways and keeps credentials meaningful. If not, the forecasted future of pervasive credential inflation could further entrench disadvantages and inefficiencies.

Ultimately, confronting credential inflation is about asking: **what truly makes someone ready for a job?** By refocusing on that question, we can implement strategies (from skills-based hiring to curriculum updates) that honor the purpose of education as developing capability, not just collecting certificates. The research presented in this report provides a historical lens and data-driven foundation for understanding these issues. As we move forward, continuous monitoring and adaptation will be key. The story of credentials over the centuries is still being written – and with conscious effort, stakeholders can ensure that the next chapters foster both educational excellence and inclusive opportunity in the world of work.

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