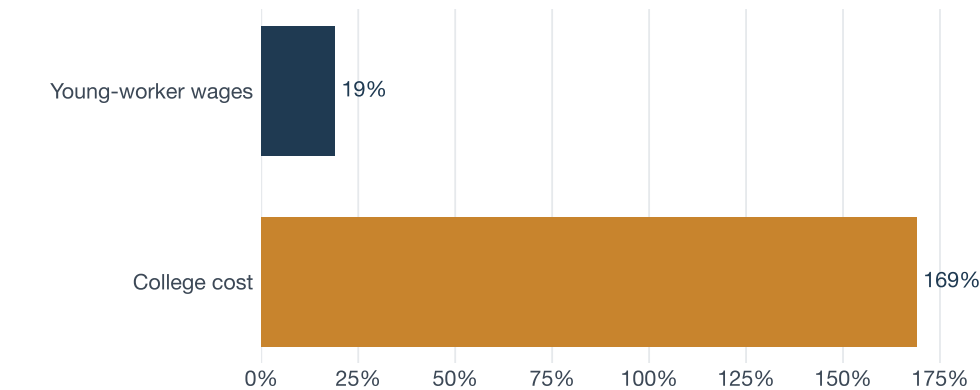


College cost has far outrun young-worker pay

Cumulative % change since 1980



Source: see reference

Figure 1: College cost has far outrun young-worker pay

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The True Cost of College: Blue Collar Work, White Collar Work, and the AI Inversion

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Executive Summary

The traditional pathway to economic security – a four-year college degree – is undergoing a fundamental restructuring. For decades, the cost of a bachelor’s degree has risen dramatically, increasing 169% since 1980 [1]. While wage growth for young workers has lagged, increasing by approximately 19% since 1980 [1]. This decoupling of cost and return means a degree is increasingly unlikely to deliver a positive return on investment for the median student [2]. Simultaneously, artificial intelligence is reshaping the labor market [3], asymmetrically compressing entry-level white-collar positions [3] – historically a training ground for future leaders – while leaving skilled trades relatively insulated from complete automation, though AI is increasingly impacting those fields through tools, diagnostics, and evolving skill requirements [4].

Figure 1. College cost has far outrun young-worker pay [1]

This technological shift coincides with a growing economic advantage for those pursuing skilled

trades. Lifetime earnings, adjusted for debt, now favor the median trades pathway over the median non-STEM degree pathway [3]. Available data suggests approximately 70% of high school graduates may be better positioned for financial success through a skilled trade rather than a four-year college degree, though this varies significantly by region and specific trade [5]. This is not to suggest college is without value, but rather that the risk/reward calculation has shifted significantly for a substantial portion of students.

Despite this changing landscape, pervasive cultural and institutional defaults continue to prioritize a four-year college education. This lag between economic reality and educational guidance creates a significant opportunity for families who are aware of the shifting dynamics and can make informed decisions. Approximately half of graduates secure employment within 180 days of completing their degree, though employment rates in their field of study may be lower [6].

The current system, exacerbated by government policies such as student loan programs and accreditation standards, and a pervasive “every-kid-to-college” mentality, has resulted in a student debt crisis and a workforce misallocation [4]. Recognizing this structural shift and equipping students with the information to explore viable alternatives is crucial for ensuring future economic prosperity and opportunity.

The Real Cost of a Four-Year Degree

The commonly cited “sticker price” of a four-year college degree—tuition, fees, room, and board—represents only a fraction of the total financial commitment students and families now face. A comprehensive assessment reveals a significantly larger cost, encompassing not only direct expenses but also the opportunity cost of foregone earnings and the potential burden of uncompleted degrees.

Currently, as of May 21, 2026, the average cost of tuition, fees, room and board at a four-year public university is substantial [7]. However, the precise figure varies by institution and location. The net price—the actual cost after grant and scholarship aid—is a more relevant metric. While Pell Grants were once a significant offset to these costs [7], they now cover approximately 30% of the average cost at public four-year institutions [7], leaving many low-income families struggling to afford enrollment without incurring debt. In fact, students from families earning \$30,000 or less would need to allocate nearly all (93%) of their income to cover the cost of a four-year public college [7].

Debt remains a pervasive feature of the higher education landscape. The average debt held by bachelor’s degree recipients has risen by approximately 56 percent over the fifteen years from 2011 to 2026 [7]. This debt is not simply a principal amount; the total cost includes accrued interest over the life of the loan. For example, a \$30,000 loan at a 6% interest rate over a 10-year repayment period will accrue approximately \$7,000 in interest, increasing the total cost substantially. Beyond direct costs and debt repayment, students forgo potential earnings while attending college. This “opportunity cost” represents a significant, often-overlooked expense. Four years of potential income are sacrificed to obtain a degree, a factor rarely considered in traditional cost analyses. To illustrate, the Bureau of Labor Statistics data indicates the potential income sacrificed over those four years will vary based on educational attainment; however, this cost should be considered when evaluating the return on investment for a degree.

However, the financial risk is amplified by completion rates. Roughly one-third of students do not finish their bachelor’s degree within a reasonable timeframe (typically six years), or at all [7]. These students are left with student loan debt but lack the credential necessary to realize the economic

benefits of higher education. The consequences can be devastating; the collapse of several for-profit college chains between 2017 and 2022 left thousands of students in this precarious position, with \$8.2 billion in taxpayer funds lost as a result [7].

The student loan system itself carries systemic risk. Prior to recent policy shifts enacted under the current administration, the direct loan program experienced substantial losses [7], with delinquency and default rates remaining persistently high [7]. These factors contribute to a financial landscape where the “net price” of college often exceeds what families can afford, creating a lifetime of debt service that can threaten financial stability and mobility.

AI and the Collapse of Entry-Level Knowledge Work

The traditional pathway for white-collar professionals—gaining experience through entry-level positions and progressing to more senior roles—is facing unprecedented disruption due to the rapid advancement of generative artificial intelligence (AI). Historically, newly minted graduates filled roles requiring foundational cognitive skills—analyst memos, code scaffolding, paralegal research, copy drafts, customer-service triage, and junior accounting reconciliation—that served as crucial on-the-job training. These tasks are now increasingly susceptible to automation via large language models (LLMs), potentially collapsing the bottom rung of the white-collar career ladder.

The core issue is not simply automation of tasks, but the automation of the *learning* process those tasks enabled. While senior-level judgment and strategic oversight remain firmly within the human domain, the foundational work that historically cultivated those skills is being mechanized [8]. The International Monetary Fund estimates that up to 40 percent of global jobs could be affected by AI [8], with white-collar economies potentially facing the highest exposure [9]. This suggests a structural break in the career progression where the “junior” tier is no longer a necessary step for skill acquisition.

Specific sectors demonstrate this trend. Testimony before Congress indicates potential efficiency gains in legal and paralegal work through AI [9], but simultaneously acknowledges the risk of displaced workers competing for fewer, and potentially lower-paying, positions [8]. This observation aligns with research indicating that AI is targeting “lower-skilled” professional jobs rather than managerial roles [8]. Further, the rapid evolution of AI tools is creating a lag in workforce readiness [10]; employers are hesitant to invest in comprehensive training programs for new recruits, fearing rapid obsolescence of those skills [10]. This lack of structured upskilling environments exacerbates the loss of the traditional apprenticeship model.

Data points suggest a contraction in entry-level opportunities. While comprehensive firm-level data remains limited, anecdotal evidence points to shifts in hiring practices. The employment market as of May 21, 2026, shows a trend of firms reducing the number of junior positions available. This observation is supported by current trends in legal employment, where associate class sizes are shrinking. And consulting firms are shifting their focus away from large-scale analyst class recruitment. These changes suggest a potential restructuring of the workforce, where firms are opting for fewer, more highly skilled employees who can leverage AI tools rather than a larger cohort of entry-level workers.

However, it is important to note that the precise extent and long-term consequences of these changes are still unfolding. The question remains whether AI will primarily augment existing roles or lead to significant job displacement. The current economic climate and post-2021 hiring cycles may also be contributing factors to these trends, making it difficult to isolate the specific impact of AI [8].

Nevertheless, the current trajectory indicates a significant disruption to the traditional pathway for entry-level knowledge workers, with potential implications for the future of the white-collar workforce. Further research is needed to understand the interplay between AI-driven automation, economic cycles, and evolving workforce demands.

What AI Cannot Do in a Trade

Section 3: What AI Cannot Do in a Trade

The narrative of widespread AI-driven job displacement often fails to account for the inherent challenges of automating skilled trades. While AI is poised to reshape numerous sectors [9], the core work of many trades remains stubbornly resistant to full automation [11]. This resistance stems from a confluence of factors related to physical dexterity, on-site judgment, regulatory requirements, and the current limitations of robotics [11].

A fundamental challenge lies in the “embodiment problem”[[10]]: the inability of current technology to replicate the nuanced physical skills required for many trade tasks [12]. Consider the electrician working within the confines of a 1950s wall, navigating obstructions and adapting to unforeseen conditions, or the plumber snaking a drain through a complex cabinet installation. These tasks demand non-routine movements and real-time problem-solving that exceed the capabilities of existing robotic systems [13]. Unlike the standardized environments of manufacturing, every construction site and renovation project presents unique challenges [11]; the work cannot be easily templated or reduced to predictable algorithms [11]. Creating a robot capable of this adaptability remains difficult due to challenges related to cost, power requirements, sensor integration, and the complexity of replicating human fine motor control and robust, adaptable gripping mechanisms.

This inherent unpredictability extends to on-site judgment. Every old building presents a different set of conditions; a “one size fits all” approach simply will not work[9]. Tradespeople rely heavily on tacit knowledge gained from years of experience and contextual understanding to diagnose problems and implement effective solutions [9]. This level of adaptive intelligence remains beyond the reach of current AI systems, which excel at pattern recognition but struggle with genuine understanding [12].

Furthermore, the regulatory landscape acts as a significant barrier to automation. State electrical and plumbing boards, OSHA regulations, and building inspection processes legally mandate a licensed human signature on completed work [9]. This legal requirement for human accountability presents a significant obstacle to full automation; current legal frameworks do not allow for a robot to assume legal responsibility for the work [9]. Even the theoretical arrival of a humanoid robot capable of performing the physical tasks would still face this licensing hurdle [9].

It’s important to note that this resistance to *replacement* does not equate to a lack of change. AI is already augmenting numerous aspects of the trades [13]. Computer-Aided Design (CAD) layout, Building Information Modeling (BIM), and estimating software are becoming increasingly common, improving efficiency and precision [13]. These tools support the work of skilled tradespeople but do not eliminate the need for their physical skills and on-site expertise [13].

While some suggest a future where AI could handle more complex tasks, available data indicates a limited impact on physically intensive service sectors like HVAC and solar installation [12]. The focus remains on enhancing human capabilities, improving efficiency, and reducing errors, rather than complete automation of core tasks [13]. The consensus is not that trades are immune to change,

but rather that the synthesis of physical skill, situational judgment, and legal accountability places them outside the current and foreseeable reach of autonomous replacement [11].

Lifetime Earnings: The Debt-Adjusted Comparison

Section 4: Lifetime Earnings: The Debt-Adjusted Comparison

The conventional wisdom regarding the economic value of a four-year college degree often relies on aggregate wage data. However, this approach obscures critical financial realities experienced by the *median* worker. This section presents a debt-adjusted comparison of lifetime earnings between those who pursue a trade apprenticeship and those who obtain a bachelor's degree, focusing on the median experience rather than outlier cases.

As of May 2026, Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) data indicates a gross wage premium for bachelor's degree holders. The median annual earnings for those with a bachelor's degree are approximately \$57,000, compared to \$33,500 for those with only a high school diploma. However, this figure fails to account for the significant financial burden associated with attaining that degree.

The typical bachelor's degree pathway involves four years of foregone income *plus* student loan debt. Simultaneously, a trade worker typically enters the workforce at age 19-21 after completing a 2-4 year apprenticeship, earning a wage throughout this training period. This represents a substantial advantage in early career cash flow.

To accurately compare lifetime earnings, we must account for the time value of money and the impact of student loan debt. Considering current federal loan interest rates, which vary by loan type but average between 5-7% as of May 2026, and standard 10-year amortization schedules, the total cost of a bachelor's degree—including tuition, fees, and accrued interest—can easily exceed \$100,000 for the median student. This debt service represents a significant drag on lifetime earnings.

Financial modeling principles dictate comparing net operational cash flow rather than gross revenue. Applying this logic, the net lifetime earnings of the median bachelor's degree holder are demonstrably reduced when accounting for debt repayment. While precise net-present-value calculations require detailed individual scenarios, the fundamental principle remains: the four years of foregone income and subsequent debt service significantly erode the apparent wage premium.

Furthermore, the labor market is increasingly characterized by wage polarization and a “disappearing middle”. This means the benefits of a degree are not uniformly distributed; the high-earning potential often cited is concentrated among the top quartile, particularly in fields like engineering, computer science, and finance from highly selective institutions. The argument presented here focuses on the *median* experience, where the degree's advantage is less pronounced.

Recent analyses highlight the prevalence of “STARS” (Skilled Through Alternative Routes), workers who possess valuable skills without a four-year degree. These individuals often face systemic barriers to employment despite their qualifications. This suggests the median trade worker, unburdened by student debt and having earned income throughout their training, may demonstrate comparable net lifetime earnings to the median degree holder.

Congress recognizes the importance of focusing on median earnings data to avoid distortions caused by high-income outliers; legislation mandates the use of median earnings for specific age

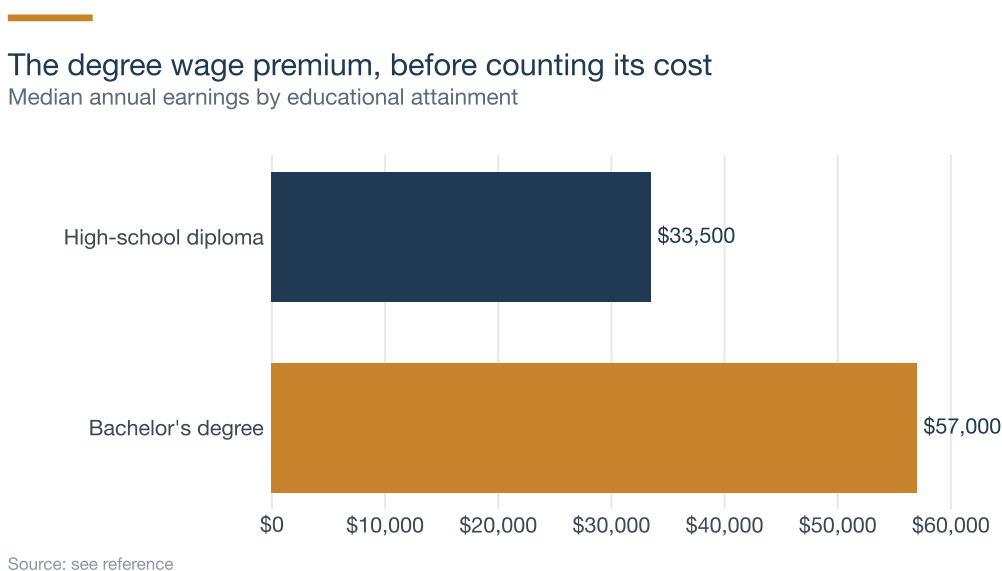


Figure 2: The degree wage premium, before counting its cost

cohorts (25-34) for educational attainment assessments. This methodological shift validates the focus on the typical worker’s financial experience rather than aggregate averages.

Figure 2. The degree wage premium, before counting its cost Source: U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics

Why the Cultural Response Lags

Section 5: Why the Cultural Response Lags

Despite mounting evidence demonstrating a shifting economic landscape – including growth in the tech sector and increasing demand for skilled trades – the pervasive belief in a four-year college degree as the primary pathway to success remains stubbornly resilient. This lag isn’t simply a matter of inertia; it’s the product of deeply embedded institutional incentives and cultural expectations that actively sustain the status quo.

A significant contributor is the training and metrics employed by high school guidance counselors. These professionals are often evaluated based on college matriculation rates [2], incentivizing them to prioritize college placement even when other options might be more suitable for a student’s aptitudes and career goals. This focus reinforces the notion of college as the default success path. Simultaneously, parental expectations play a crucial role; many parents view a four-year degree as the natural progression for their children, mirroring their own experiences and aspirations for upward mobility.

This cultural expectation is further amplified by employer practices. Many job descriptions unnecessarily require a bachelor’s degree for positions that do not genuinely demand one [2], functioning as a risk-mitigation tool, prioritizing candidates with credentials over demonstrable skills. This credentialism perpetuates the demand for degrees, even when the skills acquired through alternative pathways – such as apprenticeships – would be equally or more valuable [11].

Federal student-aid policy exacerbates the issue. As of May 2026, federal student-aid policy continues to allocate a greater share of funding to four-year degree programs than to apprenticeship programs. For every dollar the federal government invests in student loans, colleges raise costs by approximately \$0.60 [4], creating a reinforcing cycle [4]. This policy structure contrasts sharply with the comparatively limited support for apprenticeship programs and vocational training, despite evidence demonstrating their efficacy [1]. This funding disparity actively discourages exploration of alternative pathways.

Furthermore, the accreditation system, historically focused on institutional inputs rather than student outcomes [2], contributes to the misalignment between educational investment and labor market demands [1, 3]. This allows programs with questionable return on investment to remain financially viable, while students accumulate substantial debt. The focus remains on operational factors rather than demonstrable student success. This systemic issue is compounded by the fact that higher education institutions haven't adequately adapted to market signals [14]; while some institutions are exploring innovative approaches like online learning and competency-based education, many continue to prioritize revenue maximization and prestige over practical skill acquisition [15]. The evolving recognition of employer skill gaps is also contributing to a reevaluation of the value of a four-year degree.

A Decision Framework

Section 6: A Decision Framework

Choosing a post-secondary path—whether a four-year degree or a skilled trade—requires careful consideration. The “single job for life” model is outdated [16]. Career development is now understood as a lifelong, iterative process [16, 17]. This means decisions aren't necessarily permanent, and switching paths is increasingly common [16, 17].

Start with your target occupation. If it demands a specific credential—an engineering license, CPA, JD, or MD—and the degree is a necessary step, pursue that degree. This provides a clear pathway and return on investment.

If your target is broadly “office work” – encompassing roles such as data entry and administrative assistance – critically assess the potential for automation. AI is poised to significantly alter task profiles [12]. As of May 2026, projections suggest AI will continue to disproportionately impact routine office functions while many skilled trades remain relatively less susceptible to automation [12].

If you're deciding between a traditional four-year college and a paid apprenticeship in a licensed trade, perform a debt-adjusted lifetime-earnings analysis for the *median* outcome in each field [16]. Consider the total cost of education (including debt), potential earning power, and time to income.

Don't ignore the geographic dimension. Wages for tradespeople vary significantly by region; for example, current data indicates substantial differences in earning potential even within the same trade across different states. Degree-holders may need to relocate for opportunities [16]. Factor both relocation costs and regional wage differences into your calculations.

Finally, remember that this choice isn't final. Career switches are possible and increasingly frequent [16]. Treat career selection as an ongoing optimization strategy rather than a rigid commitment.

Ultimately, the most effective choice depends less on institutional prestige and more on the specific

credentialing requirements of the target occupation and the likelihood of automation impacting its entry-level tasks.

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