

# A Comprehensive Guide to Career Assessment

SEVENTH EDITION

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# CHAPTER 19

## CAREER ASSESSMENT IN ISRAEL

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### Career Assessment in Israel

Career assessment is among the core components of career guidance and counseling worldwide. This chapter focuses on approaches and measures of career assessment developed in Israel. We begin by describing Israel's population, with its variety of ethnic and religious backgrounds, as well as the typical settings in which young adults face career decisions in Israel. Then, we introduce the notion underlying many of the measures developed here, namely that the goal of career counseling is to facilitate better career decision-making and explain the distinction between content- and process-based assessments in achieving this goal. First, we describe a content-related assessment developed in Israel, specifically the assessment of *aspect-based career preferences* that extends and elaborates vocational interests and the *career preference crystallization* index that can be derived from it. Next, we describe six *process-based* assessments, which include *career decision status*, *career indecision*, *career indecisiveness*, *dysfunctional career decision-making beliefs*, *strategies for coping with career indecision*, and *career decision-making profile*. We then review gender-based studies that use gender-based career assessments. Although this review relies on and is, thus, affected by our own inclinations, experience, and expertise, the review includes a representative sample of career assessments developed in Israel in the past two decades, as well as some of the prominent theoretical tenets that guide career practice here.

### The Israeli Setting

Israel is located on the eastern shore of the Mediterranean Sea, bordering Egypt, Jordan, Syria, and Lebanon. Israel has, however, diplomatic relations with only two of its neighbors—Egypt and Jordan. Given Israel's historical geopolitical context, trade relations with the United States, India, the European Union, and China have

shaped its economy and culture. Israel's 2017 population is approximately 8.5 million inhabitants, with 74.8% Jews and 20.8% Arabs (Muslims and Christians), and its two official languages are Hebrew and Arabic. About a tenth of Israel's population identify as ultra-Orthodox Jews and another tenth as Orthodox Jews. Israel's economy is service-oriented (64.7%), followed by traditional industry (31.2%) and agriculture (2.5%). Altogether, the heterogeneous makeup of Israel's population, in both religious affiliation and degree of religiosity, on the one hand, and the strong Western influences on its culture and economy, on the other, give rise to a number of distinct cultural contexts that need consideration in career development practices. Israel's particular multicultural and linguistic characteristics, geopolitical context, and international, scientific, and ideological web of influences have contributed to the emergence of a particular type of career assessment, dominated by measures that were developed in other, mostly Western, countries and later translated into Hebrew or Arabic and adapted to the Israeli context. In this chapter, however, we focus on career assessments developed in Israel.

By law, all Israeli citizens must attend ten years of elementary and high school. Schools in Israel have different primary teaching languages (Hebrew vs. Arabic) and different degrees of emphasis on religious classes (secular vs. religious educational streams). Nevertheless, students and their parents have little influence on what is taught in class during the first ten years of school. From the 10th grade forward, math and English classes are divided into levels, and each student is assigned to a level based on a joint decision of the student and the school. Although not mandatory by law, 84% of students attend Grades 11 and 12, as well, and choose one to four (typically two) high-school majors on the basis of their personal preferences. Only 59% of students complete all the state exams successfully and earn a high-school matriculation certificate, which is a prerequisite for higher education, in most cases. In addition, about 6% of students attend vocational-technical high schools.

Following high school, most individuals serve for two or three years in compulsory military service (for women and men, respectively) or one or two years in national or civil service. Often, a gap year of temporary work and a backpack trip of several months (typically to East Asia or South America) follow these years. As a result, Israeli college freshmen are mostly between the ages of 22 and 24. In Israel, undergraduate students must declare their chosen major(s) during the admission process, before they begin their studies. Because of the three-to-six year gap between high school and post-secondary training or higher education, guidance counselors in high schools do not devote attention to their students' post-high school plans. Thus, career guidance is not part of the K-12 education system in Israel.

**Career counseling and guidance services.** Over the years, a semi-formal system of career guidance and counseling services has developed in Israel to address the context-specific needs of Israelis and typical career development stages. Most career assessments are initiated either by individuals who seek personal career guidance or by organizations for the purpose of personnel screening. Career assessments are usually part of (a) non-profit career counseling centers (e.g., in the universities), (b) paid private career counseling centers, (c) human resource departments of organizations, (d) face-to-face career counseling by individual professionals, or (e) online self-help websites where individuals seek assistance with career decision-making (Gati & Asulin-Peretz, 2011). Only in exceptional cases are career assessments used by human-resource departments to support career planning with employees or to help those dismissed. Most career assessments in Israel are quantitative; qualitative assessments (McMahon, Patton, & Watson, 2003) are uncommon.

## Theoretical Framework

**The goal of career counseling.** Framed as decision counseling, career counseling contains the goal of helping clients reach career decisions (Gati, 2013; Levin & Gati, 2014). Such decisions include what type of training to undertake, what field to major in, or what job to choose at typical career development stages (e.g., after discharge from compulsory military service or after graduating from post-secondary training or college). Unexpected career decisions occur at unanticipated career stages (e.g., after being fired or leaving one's job for personal, health, or family reasons). In all these cases, individuals must choose among career options based on their abilities, skills, and achievements, while taking into account their interests and preferences, as well as financial and personal resources. The goal of career counseling is to help clients collect, classify, and interpret relevant information about themselves and the world of work, and, then, process the information to make their decisions.

The goal of career assessment use is focused on providing information about the client. Information includes (a) factors that involve his or her fit with the requirements and descriptions of various career options (e.g., aptitudes, interests, preferences, values), and (b) the individual's career decision-making process. Osborn, Finklea, and Belle (2014) reviewed evidence indicating career assessments help individuals clarify their self-knowledge and career knowledge, and their career planning and decision-making skills. Gati and Asher (2001) proposed the PIC (Prescreening, In-depth exploration, and Choice) model to facilitate the career decision-making process, which often includes many alternatives and has clients taking many factors into account due to their uncertainty. The goal of prescreening

is to locate a small set ( $7\pm 2$ ) of promising career options worth further in-depth exploration. The goal of the in-depth exploration stage is to ascertain whether each promising alternative is indeed suitable and viable, resulting in a shortlist. The goal of the choice stage is to compare the alternatives systematically and to identify the best option(s), while considering the advantages and disadvantages of each one. Career assessments provide important information that can facilitate the prescreening and the in-depth exploration stages.

**Content versus process-based career assessments.** To help clients with their career decisions, professionals must obtain information using relevant assessments. Traditionally, content-based assessments have dominated career counseling (Wood & Hays, 2013). Content-based assessments measure core factors that take into consideration aspects such as (a) vocational interests, values, and preferences, which focus on “what I like” or “what I would like to do,” and (b) abilities, aptitudes, and achievements, which focus on “what I can do” or “what I can do well.” In the last decades, however, there has been increased attention to the process of career decision making. Expanding the notion of career planning skills (e.g., Wood & Hayes, 2013) and informed decision and decision learning (e.g., Patton, 2005), process-based career assessments use variables that are important in an individual’s career decision-making (Levin & Gati, 2014; Kulcsar, Dobrea, & Gati, 2017). Such assessments pertain to the career decision-making process itself, including the foci or roots of clients’ career indecision, their stage in the career decision-making process, and their career decision-making profiles (Gati & Levin, 2014). These assessments belong in three major categories: antecedents (e.g., dysfunctional beliefs, career decision-making self-efficacy, career decision-making styles or profiles), consequences (career indecision, indecisiveness, or both), and outcome (career decision-making status; Kulcsar et al., 2017).

### **Content-Based Career Assessments in Israel**

**The assessment of career preferences.** One fundamental component of career counseling is discovering what clients are seeking in their career. Career preferences refer to what individuals need in their vocational environment (e.g., teamwork, length of training, flexibility of working hours, professional advancement, and independence). Career preferences might involve what individuals hope to avoid at work (e.g., working only outdoors, avoiding working night shifts). Finally, career preferences encompass vocational interests, work values, and preferences for using or avoiding using particular abilities.

Traditionally, practitioners have used vocational interests to narrow down the set of occupational alternatives relevant for an individual (e.g., Holland, 1997; Roe, 1956). Pryor (1982) proposed the notion of work-aspect preferences, which

refers to individuals' sensitivity to the presence or absence of particular features that distinguish occupations. Further advancing this approach, Gati (1986, 1998) proposed the term *aspects* for all the variables individuals consider in their career decision-making, including all possible factors that distinguish different occupations. Aspects, regarded as an extension and refinement of vocational interests, include additional categories of variables, such as work values, needs, and work styles (Gati, 1998; Gati, Fassa, & Mayer, 1998). The Career Preferences Questionnaire (CPQ; Gati & Gutentag, 2015), which elicits deliberating individuals' aspect-based preferences in 31 aspects, facilitates identifying a short list of occupations worth further in-depth exploration as part of the prescreening stage of career decision-making.

Assessing aspect-based preferences makes it possible to distinguish among their three facets: (a) the relative importance of each aspect (e.g., work environment), (b) the individuals' most preferred (i.e., optimal) level in each aspect (e.g., "only indoors"), and (c) the additional levels in each aspect deemed less desirable but, nevertheless, acceptable (e.g., "mostly indoors" and "about equal indoors and outdoors"), thus, reflecting individuals' willingness to compromise. Aspect-based preferences include the individual's interest or willingness to use certain abilities in his or her future occupation, such as using (or avoiding using) numerical ability or manual dexterity. Although correlated, research has shown that the preference for using a specific ability in one's future career is not equivalent to objective (tested) or self-estimated ability (Gati, Fishman-Navad, & Shiloh, 2006). Specifically, individuals might give a high rating to some of their abilities (e.g., technical ability), and this rating might be backed by appropriate tests, but individuals might not be interested in using that ability in their future work. Clients can use aspect-based preferences for prescreening with the sequential search process (Gati, 1986), beginning with the most important aspect and eliminating career alternatives that are incompatible with the individual's preferences in that aspect, and continuing with the additional aspects in their rank-order of importance, until the list of promising options is short enough to be useful.

**The assessments of career preference crystallization.** Among the core properties of individuals deliberating about their future career is how far each individual's aspect-based preferences are crystallized (i.e., well-defined and focused) (Gati & Ram, 2000). Making use of Holland's (1997) concepts of the differentiation and consistency of vocational interests and Gati's (1985) proposal concerning the coherence of vocational interests, Gati and Ram (2000) used the underlying rationale of vocational interest crystallization indices to analyze preferences expressed in terms of career-related aspects. In this context, *differentiation* is the degree to which individuals' preferences reflect variance

among the aspects (e.g., in importance rankings, optimal levels, and willingness to compromise). More highly differentiated aspects reflect more crystallized preferences. *Consistency* is how similar the patterns of preferences for related aspects are (i.e., those aspects that co-occur frequently in occupation, such as length of training and use of analytical ability). Consistency indicates an individual's preferences for similarity of occupational aspects, and therefore, indicates more crystallized patterns. Finally, *coherence* is the degree to which the pattern of preferences makes sense. For example, the degree of one's willingness to compromise should be lower in the more important aspects. Shimoni, Gutentag, and Gati (2018) found that the estimate of career preference crystallization, an aggregate of differentiation, consistency, and coherence, was highly reliable after two weeks (.76) and quite stable after two years (.51). Furthermore, these indices for estimating career aspect-based crystallization were compatible with the expert judgments of career counselors, and higher preference crystallization was associated, as expected, with more advanced career decision-making status.

### **Process-Based Career Assessments in Israel**

A byproduct of viewing the goal of career counseling as facilitating career decision-making is the development of assessments that focus on the process of career decision making. Process-based career assessments involve factors that describe the way individuals approach and advance in their career decision-making process (e.g., the way they collect, compile, classify, and process relevant information). Awareness of such factors can help career counselors tailor their expert knowledge to the unique needs of each client. Practitioners can promote process-based career assessments as self-help instruments to guide individuals in their career decision-making. Thus, such assessments help determine the specific needs of each individual, including "what brings you here today." One of the assumptions underlying a decision-making setting is that individuals seek career counseling for help in career decision-making. Accordingly, career counselors should assess those traits of their clients that might shed light on what could facilitate their career decision-making.

Assessing clients' needs often involves focusing on variables considered to be within the scope of process-based career assessments. First, assessing each individual's career decision-making status (i.e., how far the individual has advanced in the process in terms of the range of alternatives currently under consideration, which ranges from "I do not even have a general direction" to "I know which occupation I am interested in, but I would like to feel sure of my choice") is important. Second, discovering what is preventing the individual from making a career decision (i.e., the focuses and roots of the difficulties) is

equally important. This includes not only career indecision and indecisiveness, but, also, dysfunctional beliefs about career decision-making. Third, assessing the strategies used by each individual to cope with such difficulties is crucial. Fourth, process-based career assessments include identifying the ways each individual tends to make career decisions, namely, his or her career decision-making profile or style (e.g., analytical or holistic processing of the information, desire to please significant others, willingness to compromise). Gati and Asulin-Peretz (2011), Osborn et al., (2014), and Levin and Gati (2014) outlined and discussed proposals for the integration of such assessments into counseling.

**Assessing career decision status.** Career decision status is the stage in the decision-making process an individual is at any given time. This stage is associated with the number of alternatives under consideration, as well as the degree of the individual's commitment to a particular alternative. Less decided individuals (i.e., individuals in the early stages of their career decision-making process) deliberate often among more alternatives than more decided individuals do. To measure career decision status, Gati, Saka, and Krausz (2001) developed an elaborated version of Zener and Schnuelle's (1976) Occupational Alternatives Question and introduced the Range of Considered Alternatives (RCA) question. This question measures decision status as ranging from lack of any direction to absolute confidence. Individuals must choose the statement that describes them best (Saka & Gati, 2007). Choices are: (1) "I do not even have a general direction"; (2) "I have only a general direction"; (3) "I am deliberating among a small number of specific occupations"; (4) "I am considering a specific occupation, but would like to explore other options before I make my decision"; (5) "I know which occupation I am interested in, but I would like to feel sure of my choice"; and (6) "I am already sure of the occupation I will choose." Previous research demonstrated the utility of the RCA question in measuring advancement in the career decision-making process (Saka & Gati, 2007) and has shown the RCA question can measure the effect of career interventions (Gati, Kleiman, Saka, & Zakai, 2003). The individual's degree of decidedness, as measured by how he or she narrows the range of alternatives, affects the goals and procedures of career interventions (cf. Gati & Levin, 2014).

**Assessing career indecision.** Assessing what prevents individuals from making career decisions involves identifying the roots of their career indecision. Most professionals consider career indecision as a typical stage in career development through which most individuals must go (Brown & Rector, 2008; Phillips & Pazienza, 1988). Early approaches to career indecision classified individuals as *decided*, *tentatively decided*, or *undecided*; later, Slaney (1988) and Gordon (1998) added the category of *indecisive*. Gati, Krausz, and Osipow (1996) proposed assessing the roots of career indecision by focusing on the difficulties that underlie it; for this purpose, they developed the Career Decision-making



Difficulty Questionnaire (CDDQ). Locating the roots of individuals' career indecision helps define the goals and procedures of career interventions for overcoming these difficulties and helps clients advance in the career decision-making process.

In contrast to other assessments of career indecision, which yield only a single score for an individual's overall level of indecision (e.g., the Career Decision Scale; Osipow, Carney, & Barak, 1976), the CDDQ is a multidimensional assessment of career indecision that provides information about each individual's difficulties on three levels: (1) ten specific difficulty categories, (2) the three major difficulty clusters (*Lack of Readiness*, *Lack of Information*, and *Inconsistent Information*), and (3) an overall score. By facilitating a multidimensional assessment, the CDDQ assists career practitioners in discovering the specific factors to address in counseling to facilitate their clients' career decision-making and prioritize the various goals of counseling based on the severity of each assessed difficulty. Gati, Osipow, Krausz, and Saka (2000) found that career counselors' judgments of their clients' career decision-making difficulties were compatible with the assessment of these difficulties in the CDDQ completed by clients before the first counseling session.

Difficulties involving *Lack of Readiness* often prevent individuals from engaging in the career decision-making process. For this reason, in two of the CDDQ *Lack of Readiness* categories, *general indecisiveness* and *dysfunctional beliefs*, Gati and Levin (2014) developed follow-up assessments to measure the specific factors and issues that contribute to these difficulties. Gati and Levin proposed using the CDDQ for an initial assessment of such difficulties and recommended the use of follow-up assessments for individuals who score high on one of the specific difficulty scales.

**Assessing career indecisiveness.** *Career indecisiveness* is how much individuals suffer from persistent, chronic difficulties in decision-making (Holland & Holland, 1977; Osipow, 1999; Salomone, 1982). Though nine difficulty categories in the CDDQ involve difficulties that indicate indecision and are part of a normative phase commonly called *developmental indecision* (Osipow, 1999, Tinsley, 1992), career indecisiveness involves severe and pervasive emotional and personality-related difficulties that impede the career decision-making process for a longer period (Osipow, 1999; Salomone, 1982). Career counselors consider general indecisiveness to be the most severe difficulty and one that requires the most extensive intervention (Gati, Amir, & Landman, 2010).

Saka and her colleagues (Saka & Gati, 2007; Saka, Gati, & Kelly, 2008) proposed a taxonomy of the possible roots of career indecisiveness on the basis of previous work on the emotional and personality-related factors underlying it (e.g., Chartrand, Robbins, Morrill, & Boggs, 1990; Saka et al., 2008; Tokar, Withrow,

Hall, & Moradi, 2003). This taxonomy includes 11 categories grouped into three major clusters: *Pessimistic Views* (e.g., about the world of work), *Anxiety* (e.g., about the process), and *Self-Concept and Identity* (e.g., low self-esteem). Saka and colleagues (Saka & Gati, 2007; Saka et al., 2008) developed the Emotional and Personality-Related Career Decision-Making Difficulties (EPCD) questionnaire based on this taxonomy. Gati, Asulin-Peretz, and Fisher (2011) found that higher levels of these difficulties, as measured by the EPCD, predict less advancement in individuals' decision status three years later.

**Assessing Dysfunctional Career Decision-Making Beliefs.** Several reasons led to the development of a specific assessment of dysfunctional beliefs about the career decision-making process. Such beliefs (e.g., as measured by the CDDQ) are among the most prevalent, severe difficulties individuals face in career decision-making (e.g., Gati, Ryzhik, & Vertsberger, 2013; Kelly & Lee, 2002). However, they are difficulties of which clients are least aware (Amir & Gati, 2006). Furthermore, previous research on the CDDQ's psychometric properties suggested that dysfunctional beliefs about career decision-making are significantly less homogeneous than other types of difficulties (Gati et al., 2000; Xu & Tracey, 2014).

Hechtlinger, Levin, and Gati (2018) developed the Dysfunctional Beliefs about Career Decision-Making (DCB) questionnaire. The DCB elicits individuals' beliefs about five aspects of career decision-making: the role of chance or fate, the criticality of the decision, the role of significant others, the role of professional help, and perceived gender barriers. The total DCB score is informative, over and above the five scale scores, and the results of confirmatory factor analysis and its association with career decision status support this. Hechtlinger et al. (2018) showed that decided individuals report fewer dysfunctional beliefs involving the role of chance or fate, the role of professional help, and perceived gender barriers than do undecided individuals.

### **Assessing Strategies for Coping with Career Indecision**

Locating the foci and the causes of individuals' indecision is only the first step; the next step is assessing the way individuals cope with their difficulties. To advance the understanding of how this is done, Lipshits-Braziler, Gati, and Tatar (2016) proposed a career-specific coping model and developed and validated the Strategies for Coping with Career Indecision (SCCI) questionnaire (Lipshits-Braziler, Gati, & Tatar, 2015, 2017; Lipshits-Braziler, Tatar, & Gati, 2017). These developers adopted major concepts of the model from previous theories of coping with stress (Frydenberg & Lewis, 1993; Skinner, Edge, Altman, & Sherwood, 2003) and adapted them to career decision-making. The SCCI model consists of

14 strategies that belong to three main coping styles: *productive coping*, *support-seeking*, and *nonproductive coping*.

Using the SCCI questionnaire, Lipshits-Brazilier et al. (2015, 2017) found that, while nonproductive strategies have detrimental effects on coping with career indecision (i.e., they predicted greater career decision-making difficulties and impeded advancement towards a decision), the effectiveness of productive coping and support-seeking strategies could not be determined conclusively (Lipshits-Brazilier et al., 2015; Lipshits-Brazilier et al., 2017; Perez & Gati, 2017). Therefore, career counselors should focus on helping clients reduce the use of nonproductive coping responses (e.g., avoidance, helplessness, social withdrawal, rumination, and blaming others) rather than relying solely on enhancing the use of productive responses (e.g., information seeking, problem-solving, and decision-making skills).

**Assessing Career Decision-Making Profiles (Styles).** Another significant variable that distinguishes individuals is the way they tend to make career decisions, namely, their career decision-making style (e.g., Harren, 1979; Johnson, 1978; Phillips & Paziienza, 1988) or profile (Gati, Landman, Davidovitch, Asulin-Peretz, & Gadassi, 2010). Studies of individuals' career decision-making have yielded taxonomies describing discrete types of decision styles into which individuals can be classified in terms of a single, dominant characteristic (e.g., rational, intuitive, dependent; Harren, 1979). The use of these typologies does not take into consideration the complexity and multi-faceted nature of the decision-making process. In light of previous research and theoretical considerations, Gati and his colleagues (Gati, et al., 2010; Gati, Gadassi, & Mashiah-Cohen, 2012; Gati & Levin, 2012) proposed an alternative, multidimensional taxonomy to describe individuals' typical methods of making career decisions. The Career Decision-Making Profile (CDMP) questionnaire assesses this profile along 12 dimensions: *information gathering* (minimal vs. comprehensive), *information processing* (holistic vs. analytic), *locus of control* (external vs. internal), *effort invested in the process* (little vs. much), *procrastination* (high vs. low), *speed of making the final decision* (slow vs. fast), *consulting with others* (rare vs. frequent), *dependence on others* (high vs. low), *desire to please others* (high vs. low), *aspiration for an ideal occupation* (low vs. high), *willingness to compromise* (low vs. high), and *using intuition* (little vs. much).

Some of the CDMP dimensions are mainly personality-related and are apparently stable over time, whereas others are more situational and subject to change from one situation to another (Gadassi, Gati, & Dayan, 2012; Gati & Levin, 2012). Research has supported the hypothesis that, for six of the CDMP dimensions, one pole is more adaptive. Gadassi et al. (2012) found comprehensive

*information gathering*, a more internal *locus of control*, low *procrastination*, greater *speed of making the final decision*, low *dependence on others*, and less *desire to please others* were more adaptive than their opposites for making career decisions (Gadassi et al., 2012). Practitioners can assess an individual's Career Decision-Making Adaptability (CDA) based on the scores for these six dimensions. Individuals with higher CDA scores had significantly fewer difficulties (Willner, Gati, & Guan, 2015; Tian et al., 2014).

## **Gender-Related Career Assessments**

Despite increasing gender equality, Israel still maintains some gender-biased roles. Although there are differences among different cultural groups within Israel (e.g., secular vs. religious groups), gender-related perceptions of the roles of women and men in the household continue to persist. For example, many still regard women as the primary child caregivers, whereas often, men assume the primary role of income providers. Socialization processes lead both men and women to adhere, often, to their gender-typed role in the household.

To support women and men in their career development, Cinamon and Rich (2002a) adapted Gutek, Searle, and Klepa's (1991) Work-Family Conflict Questionnaire. This questionnaire measures how much conflict or enrichment individuals perceive between the work role and the family role. Cinamon and Rich (2002b) found that women are more likely to adhere to a family-oriented role and perceive the work-family interface as conflictual. Cinamon (2006) reported similar results in that women reported lower efficacy in managing such conflicts than men. Interestingly, Levin, Tauber, Cinamon, Ran, and Gati (2017) found that, among STEM undergraduate students, men reported lower efficacy in managing work-family conflicts than women. In this particular group, the men who reported low efficacy felt more pressured to enter the labor market and earn money rather than going on to graduate school.

Gender perceptions also affect the range of occupations individuals are willing to consider. Gadassi and Gati (2009) found that the careers women and men listed as under consideration accorded with each participant's gender. To overcome this gender bias, they used Making Better Career Decisions (MBCD) (an internet-based career planning system aimed at facilitating the prescreening stage of the career decision-making process; Gati & Levin, 2015) to compile a list of recommended careers in accordance with each participant's aspect-based preferences. These lists were less gender-biased than the participant's self-reported list of careers under consideration. Interestingly, the difference in gender bias was greater for women than for men, which suggested that the impact of gender stereotypes on career decision-making is greater for women than for men. These

findings demonstrate how career assessment of aspect-based preferences, such as through use of the MBCD, can help reduce gender bias in career decision-making.

Finally, a comparison of differences in the aspect-based preferences of young adults in Israel, between 1990 and 2010, revealed gender differences decreased by about half, but did not disappear (Gati & Perez, 2014). For example, although men still preferred higher levels of income in 2010, the gender gap in this aspect decreased from  $d=0.44$  to 0.24; similarly, the gap in preferences for using numerical ability decreased from 0.57 to 0.37.

### **Summary**

This chapter presents the multicultural Israeli context as the background for a number of career assessment measures developed in Israel. We reviewed a content-related career assessment aimed at eliciting individuals' aspect-based career preferences and estimating their career preference crystallization that can be derived from it, and six process-related career assessments (i.e., career decision status, career indecision, career indecisiveness, dysfunctional career decision-making beliefs, strategies for coping with career indecision, and career decision-making profile). In addition, we discussed the issue of gender-related career assessments in Israel and presented an additional related measure, as well as the application of other measures to this task.

The majority of the career assessments reviewed in this chapter were process-related and, with the exception of one, were all multidimensional. We believe these two properties accord with the heterogeneous needs and traits of the Israeli population. Process-related career assessments could be very useful because of the absence of an institutionalized system of career guidance and counselling in the Israeli educational system. In this reality, many individuals struggle with the basic methods of planning and navigating their career development. These two features of the reviewed career assessments correspond to contemporary developments in career assessments worldwide. Indeed, Israeli measures of career assessments did not develop in isolation; they have been informed by international research and practice.

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