

## Measuring Career Well-Being on Working Mothers: Adaptation of Well-Being at Work Scale

Hilwa Anwar

Doctoral Program at the Faculty of Psychology, Universitas Airlangga  
Faculty of Psychology, Universitas Negeri Makassar  
hilwa.anwar@unm.ac.id, hilwa.anwar-2014@psikologi.unair.ac.id

Fendy Suhariadi

Faculty of Psychology, Universitas Airlangga  
fendy.suhariadi@psikologi.unair.ac.id

Fajrianti

Faculty of Psychology, Universitas Airlangga  
fajrianti@psikologi.unair.ac.id

### Abstract

This research aimed to conduct the adaptation and validation of the Well-Being at Work Scale (WBWS) in order to ready it for implementation as the instrument to measure career well-being on working mothers as respondents in Indonesia. The career well-being approach was based on the concept of general well-being which included affective and cognitive components. The respondents were mothers working full-time in the formal sector and had fulfilled the requirement of several pre-determined criteria. The collected research data was analyzed with the confirmatory factor analysis in order to obtain instrument reliability and validity. Based on the analysis, results were obtained that the WBWS model adapted had fulfilled the goodness-of-fit criteria, meaning that there was compatibility between the developed model and the empirical data. Furthermore, this research was hoped to provide contribution in the measurement and development of research of career well-being on working mothers.

**Keywords:** Career well-being, scale adaptation, working mothers, WBWS.

Received 9 November 2020/Accepted 22 December 2020 ©Author all rights reserved

### Introduction

The productive role of women became an important issue in Indonesia, caused by the number of women in the productive age group to almost be similar to men. In 2014, the number of women in the productive age group was 85 million, or around 65 percents of the total number of citizens (BPS, 2014). This massive number showed the human resource potential for development, and if women in the productive age were not able to work productively, it would result in economic burden for Indonesia.

Related to the productive role of women, despite the gap in the participation level of the work force (tingkat partisipasi angkatan kerja [TPAK]) between men and women, where the TPAK of men reached 80 percent while of women was 50 percent, but data showed that the number of working women increased per year. In August 2017, the TPAK of women was 50.89 percent, an increase from the previous three years TPAK of 50.22 percent (BPS, 2017). Interestingly, most increase in the number of women workers originated from women previously with the status of housewives. The opening of work opportunity in various sectors absorbed a lot of women work force and the pressure to strengthen the family economy were the factors affecting the number of women with families choosing to continue working and having a career outside of their homes or having double roles (Anwar, 2014).

Alongside the increase of women participation in the public domain, women problems related to well-being and quality of work life, especially in working mothers, became an interesting issue to discuss (Connerley & Wu, 2016). The increase of women participation in the working world should had been in line with the increase of well-being on working mothers. This was based on research results showing the positive reality on working mothers, including the role combination in work and family, in essence being a conducive combination for women health and well-being, in this case being working women (Mankani & Yenagi, 2012; Beutell, 2007). However in reality, different results were often found. The review about working women in general portrayed the condition as challenge and hindrance in their efforts in working and achieving career outside of their homes. Working mothers were found to have the tendency in experience high levels of absence, stress, burnout, and depression which were higher compared to men despite relatively similar work (Connerley & Wu, 2016; Ryu, 2015; Maume & Sebastian, 2012), and also feeling dissatisfaction and doubt in their abilities in performing their work and family roles continuously (Byron, 2005).

In a study of stress and work load between women and men managers, Lundberg and Frankenhaeuser (1999) found that both women and men reported positive attitude regarding their work situation. Women significantly reported higher stress, lack of support related to their roles, and requiring better performance for the same promotion opportunity (Lundberg & Frankenhaeuser, 1999), and experienced higher work-family conflict compared to men (Richardson, Traavik, & Burke, 2016). Similarly, women managers tended to show physiological stress responses after work compared to men (Conneley & Wu, 2016).

The condition portrayed that the idea of having career and managing pressure-laden work, while also dedicating quality time for the family became a major challenge on working mothers. This challenge was prominently experienced by working mothers in collective cultures such as in Indonesia or other Asian countries, because traditionally women were thought to have the main responsibility in home-management and parenting (Hofstede & Bond, 1988).

The reality that mothers' career was affected by non-work aspects was also obvious in their career journey. Women showed more tendency for career interruption than men, being stagnation in career or stopping in their profession in specific periods of time. Mothers with younger children tended to experience higher career interruptions (Racene, 2014). Working mothers often experienced being in a position to choose between being a career women with less roles in family or becoming a mother with less devotion to career (Cram, Alkadry, and Tower, 2016). Most working mothers even chose to quit their work because they could not work fully (O'Neil et al., 2008). Starting from that thought, it was considered to be important to review in-depth the perception of working mothers on their experienced career. The review in this research was focused on how working mothers could feel well-being with their experienced career, often stated as career well-being.

The suggestion of career well-being had been stated by Kidd (2008), which was to measure the subjective experience of an individual's career and conveying it through positive/negative feelings regarding their career. According to Coetzee and Schreuder (2014), career well-being was basically an additional concept or dimension from the development of the study of well-being in general (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2014). Therefore, the definition of career well-being in a number of researches referred to the previously developed concept of well-being, which was based on two major perspectives, being subjective and psychological well-being. The separation between two perspectives often reduces the comprehension of an extensive and complex phenomenon such as well-being.

Furthermore, Coetzee and Schreuder (2014) affirmed it was important to value individual career well-being in general, and psycho-social capacity which enabled success in more complex career situations. Subjective well-being which expressed emotional experience and psychological well-being referred to the growth or development processes were experiences to be evaluated together.

Numerous other researches provided proof that individual career well-being affective mental health encompassed individual psychological, emotional, and social well-being. Therefore, it was important to value individual career well-being in general, or in other words, career well-being should include dimensions of subjective and psychological well-being as the main components (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2014; Page & Vella-Brodrick, 2009; Keyes, 2002).

The dimensions of career well-being stated by Demo and Paschoal (2015) referred to the concept of well-being in general (general well-being). Specifically, the dimensions of career well-being according to Demo and Paschoal (2016) included: (1) positive affect, which was positive feeling/emotion experience when individuals felt happiness and satisfaction in their career; (2) negative affect, which was negative feeling/emotion experience related to the individuals' career; and (3) fulfillment, which was a condition where individuals felt competent, autonomous, self-accepting, owning life goals, showing personal growth, and had positive relationship with others.

It was an important development relating well-being with organizational factor aiming to encourage positive phenomenon in the level of employee behavior (personal) and even in the level of organization (Page & Vella-Brodrick, 2009). However, theoretical development and the processed focused on well-being in general and had not included well-being in specific context, such as work and career (Demo & Paschoal, 2013). Therefore, well-being measurement related to career was also still limited.

Numerous researches in career well-being in the West (Perch, Larson, & Surapaneni, 2015; Creed & Blume, 2013) utilized measurement combining the Career Satisfaction Scale developed by Richardson et al. (2009) and the Subjective Career Distress Subscale, a subscale of Coping with Career Indecision Scale or CCI developed by Larson et al. (1994). The measurements of career well-being referred to the perspective of subjective well-being or the hedonic perspective. Meanwhile, other researches utilized eudaimonia approach. Chen and Haller (2015), as an example, utilized the psychological well-being model developed by Ryff (1989) in order to study career well-being on nurses. According to Chen and Haller (2015), the concept of career well-being was well-being in the scope of work encompassing aspects of self-acceptance, trust, autonomy, environmental mastery, life goals, and personal growth.

Paschoal and Tamayo in 2008 represented the effort in developing the Well-Being at Work Scale (WBWS) in Brazil, which was further adapted with sample in the United States of America by Demo and Paschoal (2016). This scale was arranged due to the lack of instruments of well-being in the context of work or organization, consisting of affective and cognition components simultaneously. Well-Being at Work Scale was a scale measuring well-being at work and not specifically focusing on specific respondents. Due to the need for research in career well-being on working mothers, this research aimed to adapt and examine the internal structure of WBWS in order to prepare it for implementation as the career well-being scale with working mothers as respondents in Indonesia. A series of analyzes were conducted to answer the following questions: Is the Career Well-being Scale adapted from the WBWS a reliable measure, and show evidence of convergent and discriminant validity when used with a population of working mothers?.

## Method

### *Research Respondents*

The research respondents were mothers working in the formal sector, which were as government civil employees, employees of state-owned enterprises (Badan Usaha Milik Negara [BUMN]), and private instances. Data collection was conducted in Makassar, Indonesia. The characteristics of respondents included: (a) mothers working full-time with a minimum of 35 hours/week work hours in the formal sector; (b) with the most recent education of a minimum of Bachelor or Diploma-IV degree. In addition, each respondent confirmed her willingness to participate in the research by filling out the informed consent form. The informed consent also provided information about the objectives and research procedures as well as the confidentiality of the respondent's identity. There were 156 respondents met the research qualifications. Demographic data of research respondents can be seen in the following table (Table 1).

Table I.  
 Description of Research Respondents

Category	N = 156	Percentage (%)
Age (in Years)		
≤ 30	26	16.67
31 – 40	79	50.46
41 – 50	50	32.05
> 50	1	0.64
Profession		
Government civil employees	90	57.69
State-owned enterprises	8	5.13
Private instances	58	37.18
Education		
Bachelor	129	82.70
Masters	24	15.36
Doctoral	3	1.92
Number of Children		
1	43	27.56
2	67	42.55
3	37	23.72
4	7	4.49
5	2	1.28

### Instruments

The instrument utilized was the Well-Being at Work Scale (WBWS) (Demo & Paschoal, 2016), which was adapted into the Career Well-Being Scale (CWBS). Based on the EFA and CFA testing conducted by Demo and Paschoal (2016), it was found that this scale had three factors of WBWS, being positive affect, negative affect, and fulfillment. The three factors were in line with the theoretical model and explained 63% of the total of construct variance. The factors also showed high reliability level with the Alpha coefficient higher than 0.90 (Demo & Paschoal, 2016). This scale was developed by Demo and Paschoal (2016) as there was no available well-being scale measuring the cognitive and affective dimension simultaneously. The career well-being factor/dimension measured in this scale were: (1) positive affect, which was positive feeling/emotion when individuals feel happiness and satisfaction in their career, consisting of nine items, e.g. “Over the past six months, my career made me feel cheerful”; (2) negative affect, which was negative feeling/emotion related to individuals' career, consisting of twelve items, e.g. “Over the past six months, my career made me feel worried”; and (3) fulfillment, which was the condition when individuals feel

competent, autonomous, self-accepting, with life goals, showing personal growth, and having positive relationship with others, consisting of eight items, e.g., “In my career, I achieve my potential.”

#### *Research Procedure/Phases*

Instruments developed in different countries were important to be researched according to the language and culture of the country going to use the instruments. This was beneficial in obtaining more accurate research results (ITC, 2016; Ramdhani, 2014). Referring to ITC (2016), the scale adaptation process in this study consisted of the preparation phase (pre-condition), test development test, and the confirmation phase (empirical analysis).

#### *Preparation Phase (Pre-Condition)*

Referring to ITC (2016), preparation was the initial process consisting of two steps. First, the inquiry for permission in conducting the scale adaptation. Permission for scale adaptation was obtained from Gisela Demo through e-mail communication. Second, conducting suitability evaluation on the instrument construct and the research goal, also minimalizing the effects of irrelevant culture and language on the research population. This process was conducted through focused group discussion with three experts in industrial and organizational psychology with an expertise in psychometry. In this research, the term "work" was adjusted to be "career" on the adapted scale, in order to suit the research goal.

#### *Instrument Development Phase*

The Instrument Development Phase consisted of the translation process and comparison analysis between the original scale with the transitional scale. The translation process involved forward translation and back translation. Forward translation was conducted by translators functioning as informed translators, being translators with good proficiency in Bahasa Indonesia and English, while also comprehensive of the concept and goal of instruments with the general principals of measurement (ITC, 2016; Beaton et al., 2000). Translation results from the two translators were then reviewed and rediscussed with two expert judges (for expert judgement) in order to study the word suitability and understanding with the original scale. The qualifications of the experts are available in Table 2.

Back translation was the next translation procedure, consisting of retranslating the results of synthesis scale on the forward translation step into its original language, being English. The goal of this procedure was to check the consistency of the translation and ensuring that the translated version of the scale reflected the same item content with the original version (Beaton et al., 2000). The qualifications of the experts in this step are available in Table 2.

The second process in the instrument development phase was equivalence measurement by comparing the back translated scale with the original scale. This was conducted to build proof on the validity of the translated scale (Heggestad et al., 2019; Beaton et al. 2000). The qualifications of the expert judges in this phase were good proficient in both English and Bahasa Indonesia (their native tongue), with no requirement in understanding of the goal and general principle of the adapted instrument. The qualifications are available in Table 2. The comparison process utilized ratings with scores ranging from 1 (one) to 7 (seven). There were two aspects utilized in the comparison, being comparability and similarity. The comparability aspect was language comparison, referring to the form similarities of words, phrases, and sentences. If a statement was scored as identical or comparable in language, it would be given the score of 1, while if it was unidentical or incomparable, it would be given the score of 7. Meanwhile, the similarity aspect was the resemblance in interpretation, being how far both scales which were being compared could result in the same response despite different words. If a statement was scored to result in the same meaning, it would be given the score of 1, while if it was not, it would be given the score of 7 (Sperber, 2004). Furthermore, according to Sperber (2004), each item from the expert judgement would be given a mean score on each aspect of comparability and similarity. Items with the mean score < 4 showed equivalence or good resemblance in both language and meaning comparisons.



Tabel 2.  
*Expert Qualifications on the Scale Adaptation Process*

Phase	Expert	Qualifications
Forward Translation	Expert 1	Bachelor = Psychology Masters = Psychology Scale development comprehension TOEFL/IELTS = - / 7.0
	Expert 2	Bachelor = Psychology Masters = Psychology Scale development comprehension TOEFL/IELTS = - / 7.0
Back Translation	Expert 3	Professional Translator TOEFL/IELTS = 577 / 7.0
Scale Equivalence	Expert 4	Bachelor = English Literature Masters = Communication Doctoral = Public Administrations Lecturer of English for Business TOEFL/IELTS = 563 / - Lived abroad for = 3 months (Australia)
	Expert 5	Bachelor = English Language Education Masters = Linguistic Doctoral = Linguistic Lecturer of English Language Education TOEFL/IELTS = 654 / 7,5 Lived abroad for = 8 years (Australia)
	Expert 6	Bachelor = English Language Education Masters = Linguistic Lecturer of English Language Education TOEFL/IELTS = 560 / - Lived abroad for = 2 years (Australia)
Content Validity	Expert 7	Bachelor: Psychology Masters: Magister of Psychological Science Doctoral: Psychology Interest: Industrial and Organizational Psychology
	Expert 8	Bachelor: Psychology Masters: Magister of Psychological Science Doctoral: Psychology Interest: Social Psychology, Topics of Women and Families
	Expert 9	Bachelor: Psychology Masters: Magister of Applied Psychology Interest: Industrial and Organizational Psychology, Psychometry

### *Confirmation Phase (Empirical Analysis)*

Referring to ITC (2016), the confirmation phase was the scale adaptation phase based on empirical analysis and not judgement-based scoring in previous phases. This phase consisted of proving the validity and reliability of the scale. Validity refers to how far proof and theory could support the test score interpretation in accordance to the goal of the instrument. Reliability testing was conducted to view the consistency of observed variables measurement simultaneously to each construct. In this research, reliability score was obtained from construct reliability or composite reliability (CR) and the average variance extracted (AVE) score.

In relation with proving validity, there were five sources of evidence utilizable in evaluating test interpretation as per its goal, being test content, response process, internal structure, relationship with other variables, and consequences of testing. Furthermore it was stated that not all sources would be utilized in a single research (AERA, APA, NCME, 2014).

The validity in this research utilized two proof sources. First, evidence based on test content validity, with the goal of proving by the test content represented the construct and was in accordance to the goal of the test (Sireci & Bond, 2014). Content validity evidence in this research referred to Polit and Beck (2006), utilizing Content Validity Index (CVI) by differentiation content validity on the item level (I-CVI) and scale level (S-CVI). CVI measurement was conducted with expert review. Referring to Lynn (cited in Hendryadi, 2017; Polit & Beck, 2007), the minimum number of experts in content validity testing was three experts. Therefore, this research utilized three experts with the qualification of having psychology as their educational background and good comprehension on instrument development and adaptation. Qualifications are available in Table 2. Second, evidence based on internal structure validity. Internal structure analysis of a test refers to the relationship of items and components of the test in association to the construct used as the base of interpretation of the test scores being analyzed (AERA, APA, NCME, 2014).

### *Data Analysis*

Based on the scale adaptation phases, data analysis was in the confirmation phase, consisting of two analyses: content and internal structure analysis. On content validity, experts were requested to rate the relevance of items in the measurement construct from 1 to 4. Scale rating were: 1 = irrelevant; 2 = somewhat relevant, requiring major revision; 3 = quite relevant, requiring minor

revisions; 4 = very relevant. Each item was given dicotomy scores, being the scores for relevant measurement (3 and 4) valued as 1 (one) while irrelevant and somewhat relevant scores (1 and 2) valued as 0 (zero) (Hendryadi, 2017; Zamanzadeh et al., 2015; Polit et al., 2007).

After obtaining results of content validity, data analysis proceeded to analyzing scale internal structure. In this research, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was utilized in testing factor structure, and CFA also prived construct validity through convergent and discriminant validity. Analysis utilized the LISREL 8.80 data analysis software.

## Results

Based on comparison or equivalence results between the original scale and back-translated scale in the scale development phase, it was found that on the comparability aspect, the item mean score was 1.00 - 2.00 with the mean score total of 1.45 ( $< 4$ ). On the similarity aspect, the item mean sore was 1.00 - 1.67 with the mean score total of 1.09 ( $< 4$ ). This showed that the adapted scale (CWBS) had similarities in language and meaning with the original scale (WWBS).

Testing on evidence based on test content validity was the next step in the adaptation process. Evidence based on test content validity in this research referred to Polit and Beck (2006), using Content Validity Index (CVI) by differentiating between item-level content validity (I-CVI) and scale-level content validity (S-CVI). Measurement of I-CVI was conducted by dividing the experts giving relevant score (3 and 4) and dividing it with the total of experts. Meanwhile in obtaining the S-CVI score, this research utilized the mean approach (S-CVI/AVE), being the mean of item proportions with relevant scores (3 and 4), or in other words, adding item proportions with relevant scores and dividing it with total of experts as raters (Polit & Beck, 2006).

A scale was considered to have good content validity with  $I-CVI \geq 0.78$  and  $S-CVI/AVE \geq 0.90$  (Polit et al., 2007). However, according to Polit et al. (2007),  $I-CVI = 0.67$  as considered as fair on CVI scoring with three experts, as it was equal to two out of three experts giving relevant scores (3 and 4). Based on the explanation, I-CVI scores was explained as follows:

I-CVI  $\geq$  0.78 = Extremely relevant items, used in scale  
 $0.67 \leq$  I-CVI  $<$  0.78 = Relevant items, revisions required  
I-CVI  $<$  0.67 = Irrelevant items, not used in scale

Based on the CVI analysis on the career well-being scale, the score of I-CVi = 1.00 on every item was obtained, with S-CVI/AVE = 1.00. Therefore, it could be concluded that the validity of the CWB scale based on evidence was high. However, based on qualitative suggestions from the experts, several minor changes were conducted on several items.

The next step was conduction internal structure analysis with Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). There were two interrelated steps: the first step being the goodness-of-fit (GOF) test to test how fast the developed theoretical model fit the field data and the second being the identification of valid items. The second step could be conducted if GOF was fulfilled. Items were determined to be valid based on two criteria, being: (1) positive factor loading score; and (2) t-value score higher than 1.96. According to Hair et al. (2014), the validity valued after setting reliability was the convergent validity, discriminant validity, and nomological validity. However, according to Hulland (1999), a good measurement model should at least fulfill three criteria, being reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity. From the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), the path diagram shown in Figure 1 was obtained.

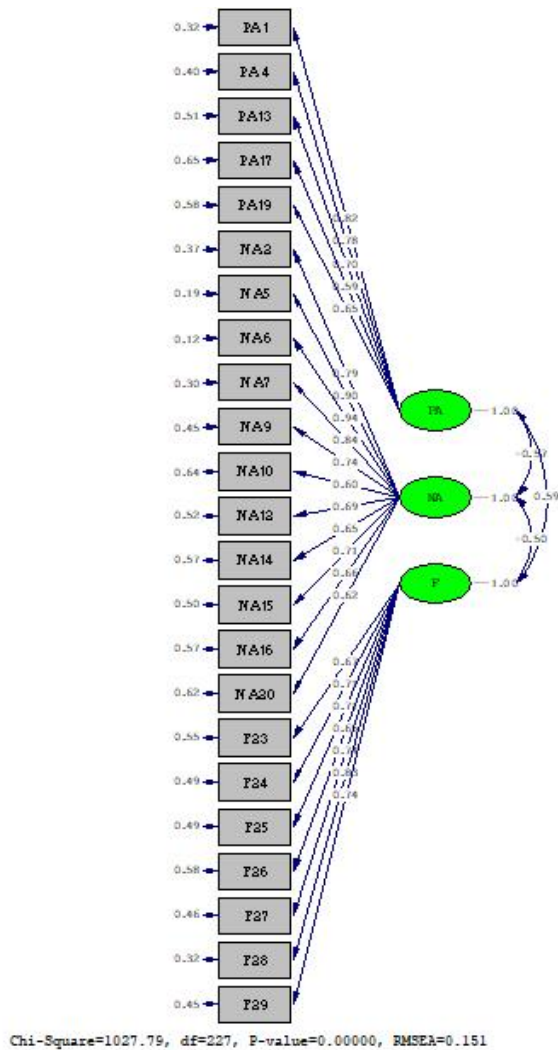


Figure 1. Path Diagram of the Career Well-Being Scale.

Based on the GOF testing for the career well-being construct, results showed absolute fit index including chi-square = 127.79 ( $p = 0.00$ ), GFI = 0.89, RMR = 0.05, RMSEA = 0.15; incremental fit index including NFI = 0.86, CFI = 0.90, IFI = 0.90; parsimony fit index including PNFI = 0.81, PGFI = 0.82. Based on Hair et al. (2014), fitness index used in scoring model suitability should involve one absolute fit index and one incremental fit index. Therefore, it could be concluded that the measurement model of career well-being had fulfilled GOF criteria.

Based on the initial model for CFA testing, it was found that factor loading score on nine items of PA dimension ranged from 0.48 - 0.76. After modification for model fit, the valid items were five items. Factor loading score on 12 items of NA dimension ranged from 0.5 - 0.93; after modification for model fit, the valid items were 11 items. While factor loading score for eight items of F dimension ranged from 0.5 - 0.79; and after modification for model fit, the valid items were seven items. Therefore, from 29 items, 23 items were obtained, which could measure the career well-being construct. Factor loading scores on the career well-being scale are available in Table 3.

Tabel 3.  
*Factor Loading of Career Well-Being Scale*

	Indicators	Factor Loading
<i>Positive Affect (PA)</i>		
1	Over the past six months, my career made me feel cheerful	0.82
4	Over the past six months, my career made me feel content	0.78
13	Over the past six months, my career made me feel happy	0.70
17	Over the past six months, my career made me feel excited	0.59
19	Over the past six months, my career made me feel proud	0.65
<i>Negative Affect (NA)</i>		
2	Over the past six months, my career made me feel worried	0.79
5	Over the past six months, my career made me feel upset	0.90
6	Over the past six months, my career made me feel depressed	0.94
7	Over the past six months, my career made me feel bored	0.84
9	Over the past six months, my career made me feel annoyed	0.74
10	Over the past six months, my career made me feel impatient	0.60
12	Over the past six months, my career made me feel anxious	0.69
14	Over the past six months, my career made me feel frustrated	0.65
15	Over the past six months, my career made me feel distressed	0.71
16	Over the past six months, my career made me feel jittery	0.66
20	Over the past six months, my career made me feel angry	0.62
<i>Fulfillment (F)</i>		
23	In my career, I achieve my potential	0.67
24	In my career, I develop abilities that I considered important	0.71
25	In my career, I engage in activities	0.71
26	In my career, I overcome challenges	0.65
27	In my career, I achieve results that I regard as valuable	0.74
28	In my career, I express what is the best in me	0.83
29	In my career, I advance in the goals I set for my life	0.74

The next step after model and loading factor testing was reliability testing. Construct reliability coefficient focused on how far measurement indicators reflected the built latent factors. The more the indicator reflected the latent factor, the higher the reliability score. Reliability score was obtained from construct reliability/composite reliability (CR) and average variance extracted (AVE). On construct reliability, the set minimum score to indicate acceptable construct was  $CR \geq 0.7$  (Hair

et al., 2014). Based on analysis results, CR from each construct of career well-being scale was 0.83 (positive affect), 0.93 (negative affect), and 0.88 (fulfillment).

Other measurements conducted in testing reliability was by utilizing AVE, which was the variance total of a construct explainable by the conducted measurement. AVE score was obtained from the squared average of factor loading score or means of variance extracted (VE). The recommended minimum AVE score was  $AVE \geq 0.5$  (Hair et al., 2014). Based on analysis results, AVE score of each construct were 0.51 (positive affect), 0.56 (negative affect), and 0.52 (fulfillment).

In essence, reliability testing, convergent validity testing, and discriminant validity testing were conducted simultaneously. Convergent validity referred to the degree of suitability between attributes of measurement results with the theoretical concept, being a single union with previously conducted reliability testing. An instrument was determined to fulfill the convergent validity if: (a) factor loading score was a minimum of 0.5; (b) construct reliability was higher or at least 0.7; (c) average variance extracted (AVE) was a minimum of 0.5 (Hair et al., 2014). As previously stated, career well-being scale had items with factor loading scores above 0.5, CR scores higher than 0.7, and AVE scores higher than 0.5 on each dimension, therefore the convergent validity of the career well-being construct was adequate. Results of convergent validity are available in Table 4.

Discriminant validity showed how far latent construct discriminated itself with another latent construct. Discriminant validity was set if latent variable contributed more variance in the related indicator variable compared to other constructs in the same model. Referring to Formell and Larcker (1981), in order to fulfill the requirement, each average variances of constructs (AVE) must be compared with the AVE Root-Square) with other constructions in the model (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hamid et al., 2017). Analysis results showed that AVE Root-Square of each constructs were higher than the inter-construct correlations. A summary of convergent and discriminant validity of each construct are available in Table 4.

Table 4.  
*Career Well-Being Scale Reliability and Validity*

Latent Constructs	CR	AVE	Latent Constructs		
			(PA)	(NA)	(F)
Positive Affect (PA)	0.83	0.51	<b>0.71</b>		
Negative Affect (NA)	0.93	0.56	-0.57	<b>0.75</b>	
Fulfillment (F)	0.88	0.52	0.59	-0.5	<b>0.72</b>

Note. AVE Root-Square = scores in bold.

## Discussion

The translation process started with pre-condition phase resulted with the portrait that statements in the original scale was quite suitable with the socio-cultural condition of Indonesia, resulting in no statements requiring adjustments other than changing the word "work" into "career" as per research concept and goal. The difficulty in this phase was translation of words with similar meanings, requiring further discussions to translate into more fitting words. Words with similar meaning were mostly found on the positive affect factor.

This study was an effort in measurement career well-being on working mothers. The difference of career concept based on gender, showed that the career pattern on working mothers to be more dynamic with the developmental stages and traditional roles, compared to men (Racene, 2014; O'Neil et al., 2008). However, factors forming career well-being on working mothers in essence could be measured with the same factors from the original scale. Further, CFA analysis confirmed that the same with three factor model was already suitable with the obtained data. This showed that factors such as positive affect, negative affect, and fulfillment were factors able to explain career well-being on working mothers. The findings were also in line with the qualitative analysis conducted in relation to working mothers by Anwar et al. (2017).

This model was consistent with the study stating that the classification system of mental health and well-being was incomplete if only focused on several parts of mental health (Compton & Hoffman, 2013). This scale consisted of two perspectives of well-being. Hedonic perspective in this scale was shown through positive affect (PA) and negative affect (NA), which expressed emotional experience. While the eudaimonia perspective referred to the growth and long-term actualization process, in the scale shown by the fulfillment factor. The division between the two perspectives



often reduced the comprehension of well-being as a whole. Therefore, the two experiences must be evaluated simultaneously (Demo & Paschoal, 2016; Linley et al., 2009; Page & Vella-Brodrick, 2008). However, just as the original scale (VWBS), statements in the career well-being scale were common, enabling future research development to implement on career men or women.

Results of the career well-being scale analysis showed that several indicators were unfit to use further. According to Hair et al. (2014), on most social researches, construct measurement was often conducted indirectly through indicators. Indicator with low loading factor had low contribution in explaining the latent constructs, therefore not used further. Moreover, low score could be interpreted as most respondents scoring the indicator to be unsatisfactory or rarely implemented in the respondents' lives (Hartanto, 2017).

In this research, there were 29 analyzed indicators, later on selected based on factor loading score into 23 items. The indicators on negative affect factor and fulfillment factors mostly showed relatively high loading factor. The discarded items were mostly of the positive affect factor (PA). Despite previously pre-conditioned, many words were found to have meaning similarities on the PA factor, resulting in the lack of data variation. On indicators which were reflective such as career well-being scale, the factor loading level was also affected by data variation in the indicators, where latent construct, in this case being PA, was more difficult to explain by the indicators with lower data variation. This showed that the indicator was not fully capable in explaining career well-being of the PA factor. In line with the research conducted by Hartanto (2017) which found that the concept of well-being tended to be correlated with achievement and material objects. Moreover, the culture in Indonesia, especially with women, it was uncommon to express emotions with words such as "feeling stimulated" or "feeling moved".

## **Conclusion**

The model of career well-being which consisted of three factors, being positive affect, negative affect, and fulfillment showed good suitability. From the analysis results it was also found that the internal structure validity showed good convergent and discriminant validity. Moreover, composite reliability was classified as high. Based on the proofs, it could be concluded that the career well-being scale would be implemented on working mothers as respondents.

This research had limitations to be taken into consideration for understanding and interpreting the results further. First, the involved sample was limited (N = 156), in both numbers and respondent criteria, while also only conducted in a single town. Therefore, this research required further testing in wider sample with more variative socio-demographic variables. Second, the validity testing in this research included content and construct validities which included discriminant and convergent validities. Nomological validity was also required and not just discriminant and convergent validities. Nomological validity was a conceptual network formed from the relationship of each constructs with one another, theoretically. Therefore, for future researchs, it is suggested to conduct nomological testing by associating with other similar instruments or with other construct which supports the theoretical framework.

## References

- AERA, APA, & NCME. (2014). *Standards for educational and psychological testing*.
- Anwar, 2014. Hubungan antara otonomi kerja, orientasi peran gender keluarga, keseimbangan kerja-keluarga dengan kepuasan kerja dan kepuasan keluarga pada perempuan yang berperan ganda. *Intuisi Jurnal Ilmiah Psikologi*, 6(2), 60-67.
- Anwar, H., Suhariadi, F., & Fajrianthi (2017). Career well being, the role challenge on working mothers. *Asian Association of Indigenous and Cultural Psychology, The 8<sup>th</sup> International Conference*. Atlantis Press.
- BPS. (2014). *Indeks pembangunan gender 2014*. Jakarta: Badan Pusat Statistik.
- BPS. (2017). *Keadaan ketenagakerjaan Indonesia Agustus 2017*. Jakarta: Badan Pusat Statistik.
- Beaton, D. E., Bombardier, C., Guillemin, F., & Ferraz, M. B. (2000). Guidelines for the process of cross-cultural adaptation of self-report measures. *Spine*, 25(24), 3186-3191.
- Beutell, N. I. (2007). Self-employment, work-family conflict and work-family synergy: Antecedents and consequences. *Journal of Small Business & Entrepreneurship*, 20(4), 325-334.
- Byron, K. (2005). A meta-analytic review of work-family conflict and its antecedents. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 67, 169–198.
- Chen, C. P., & Haller, S. (2015). The role of career counselling in supporting career well-being of nurses. *Australian Journal of Career Development*, 24(1), 15–26.
- Coetzee, M., & Schreuder, D. A. (2014). *Psycho-social career meta-capacities*. New York: Springer.

- Compton, W., & Hoffman, E. (2013). *Positive psychology - the science of happiness and flourishing* (2nd ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing.
- Connerley, M. L., & Wu, J. (Eds.). (2016). *International handbooks of quality-of-life. Handbook on well-being of working women*. New York: Springer.
- Cram, B., Alkadry, M. G., & Tower, L. E. (2016). Social costs: The career-family tradeoff. In M. L. Connerley, & J. Wu (Eds.), *International handbooks of quality-of-life. Handbook on well-being of working women* (pp. 473–488). New York: Springer.
- Creed, P. A., & Blume, K. (2013). Compromise, well-being, and action behaviors in young adults in career transition. *Journal of Career Assessment*, 21(1), 3-19.
- Demo, G., & Paschoal, T. (2016). Well-being at work scale: Exploratory and confirmatory validation in the USA. *Paideia*, 26(63), 35–43.
- Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18(1), 39-50.
- Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2014). *Multivariate data analysis* (7th Ed.). London: Pearson.
- Hamid, M. R. A, Sami, W., & Sidek, M. M. (2017). Discriminant validity assessment: Use of Fornell & Larcker criterion versus HTMT criterion. *Journal of Physics: Conference Series* 890 (1). IOP Publishing.
- Hartanto. (2017). Analisis faktor konfirmatori dan reliabilitas komposit pada “Warwick-Edindburg Mental Well Being Scale”. *Intuisi Jurnal Psikologi* 9(1), 18-25.
- Heggstad, E. D., Scheaf, D. J., Banks, G. C., Monroe Hausfeld, M., Tonidandel, S., & Williams, E. B. (2019). Scale adaptation in organizational science research: A review and best-practice recommendations. *Journal of Management*, 45(6), 2596-2627.
- Hendryadi, H. (2017). Validitas isi: tahap awal pengembangan kuesioner. *Jurnal Riset Manajemen dan Bisnis (JRMB) Fakultas Ekonomi UNIAT*, 2(2), 169-178.
- Hofstede, G., & Bond, M. H. (1988). The Confucius connection: From cultural roots to economic growth. *Organizational Dynamics*, 16(4), 5-21.
- Hulland, J. (1999). Use of partial least squares (PLS) in strategic management research: A review of four recent studies. *Strategic Management Journal*, 20(2), 195-204.
- International Test Commission (ITC). (2016). *The ITC guidelines for translating and adapting tests* (2nd Ed.). [www.InTestCom.org].
- Johansson, G., Huang, Q., & Lindfors, P. (2007). A life-span perspective on women’s careers, health, and well-being. *Social Science and Medicine*, 65(4), 685–697.

- Keyes, C. L. M. (2002). The mental health continuum: from languishing to flourishing in life. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior*, 43(2), 207-222.
- Kidd, J. M. (2008). Exploring the components of career well-being and the emotions associated with significant career experiences. *Journal of Career Development*, 35(2), 166–186.
- Larson, L. M., Toulouse, A. L., Ngumba, W. E., Fitzpatrick, L. A., & Heppner, P. P. (1994). The development and validation of coping with career indecision. *Journal of Career Assessment*, 2, 91–110.
- Linley, P. A., Maltby, J., Wood, A. M., Osborne, G., & Hurling, R. (2009). Measuring happiness: The higher order factor structure of subjective and psychological well-being measures. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 47(8), 878–884.
- Lundberg, U., & Frankenhaeuser, M. (1999). Stress and workload of men and women in high-ranking positions. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 4(2), 142-163.
- Mankani, R.V. & Yenagi, G.V. (2012). Comparative study of mental health of working and non-working women. *Karnataka Journal Agricultural Science*, 25(4), 510-513.
- Maume, D. J., & Sebastian, R. A. (2012). Gender, nonstandard work schedules, and marital quality. *Journal of Family and Economic Issues*, 33(4), 477-490.
- O'Neil, D. A., Hopkins, M. M., & Bilimoria, D. (2008). Women's careers at the start of the 21st century: Patterns and paradoxes. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 80(4), 727–743.
- Page, K. M., & Vella-Brodrick, D. A. (2009). The “what”, “why” and “how” of employee well-being: A new model. *Social Indicators Research*, 90(3), 441–458.
- Pesch, K. M., Larson, L. M., & Surapaneni, S. (2016). Parental autonomy support and career well-being. *Journal of Career Assessment*, 24(3), 497–512.
- Polit, D. F., & Beck, C. T. (2006). The content validity index: are you sure you know what's being reported? Critique and recommendations. *Research in nursing & health*, 29(5), 489-497.
- Polit, D. F., Beck, C. T., & Owen, S. V. (2007). Is the CVI an acceptable indicator of content validity? Appraisal and recommendations. *Research in Nursing & Health*, 30(4), 459-467.
- Rene, A. (2014). Development of women's career pattern in relation of employment. *Baltic Journal of Career Education and Management*, 2(1), 16-23.
- Rachmayani, D., & Ramadhani, N. (Mei, 2014). Adaptasi bahasa dan budaya skala psychological well-being. Makalah dipresentasikan pada Seminar Nasional Psikometri, Surakarta.
- Richardsen, A. M., Traavik, L. E. M., & Burke, R. J. (2016). Women and work stress: More and different? In M. L. Connerley, & J. Wu (Eds.), *International handbooks of quality-of-life. Handbook on well-being of working women* (pp. 123–140). New York: Springer.

- Richardson, J. D., Lounsbury, J. W., Bhaskar, T., Gibson, L. W., & Drost, A. W. (2009). Personality traits and career satisfaction of health care professionals. *The Health Care Manager, 28*(3), 218-226.
- Ryff, C. D. (1989). Happiness is everything, or is it? Explorations on the meaning of psychological well-being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 57*(6), 1069–1081.
- Ryu, G. (2015). The cross-domain effects of work and family role stressors on public employees in South Korea. *Review of Public Personnel Administration, 35*(3), 238–260.
- Sireci, S., & Faulkner-Bond, M. (2014). Validity evidence based on test content. *Psicothema, 26*(1), 100-107.
- Sperber, A. D. (2004). Translation and validation of study instruments for cross-cultural research. *Gastroenterology, 126*, S124-S128.
- Zamanzadeh, V., Ghahramanian, A., Rassouli, M., Abbaszadeh, A., Alavi-Majid, H., & Nikanfar, A. (2015). Design and implementation content validity study: Development of an instrument for measuring patient-centered communication. *Journal of Caring Science 4*(2), 165-178.