

Are You Happy Now? Agreement of Self-, Father-, and Mother-Reports on Judgments of Life Satisfaction of Filipino College Students

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How satisfied are Filipino college students with their lives and do their respective fathers and mothers accurately gauge this? In an empirical demonstration of self-other agreement in a family context, we investigated self-reports of global life satisfaction vis-à-vis father- and mother-judgments in a sample of $N = 68$ student-mother-father triads using Diener et al's (1985) Satisfaction With Life Scale validated using Sycip et al. (2000) measure of Filipino well-being. Results showed moderate convergence for self vs mother-reports, with a general overestimation bias for both fathers and mothers. Multiple regression analysis suggested that mother-reports, compared to father-reports, appeared to be better predictors of adolescent children's self-reported levels of life satisfaction. Students with mothers and fathers who made less discrepant judgments also tended to have higher self-reported life satisfaction. Results are discussed using the Realistic Accuracy Model (RAM) of personality judgment (Funder, 1995) as well as findings in family psychology.

One of the most important empirical issues in contemporary personality psychology has been the topic of self-other agreement (Funder & West, 1993; Pervin, 1996). Is there convergence between person judgments made by the self and those made by knowledgeable others such as peers, family members, or coworkers? That is, do our judgments of ourselves (how we know ourselves) and the judgments made by other people (how they

know us) agree? Do other people view us the same way as we view ourselves? This is the central question of the self-other agreement problem.

According to Funder (1995), the issue of self-other agreement is central to the interface of personality and social psychology, and its investigation is important for methodological, theoretical, and philosophical reasons. First, human judgments of others' characteristics are important forms of assessment used in personality, developmental, clinical, and industrial/organizational psychology. Informants like peers, parents, clinically trained assessors, or supervisors are relied upon in much of our studies. Second, self-other agreement is one theoretical avenue that bridges personality and social psychology as it involves both the question of how one's traits, needs, emotions, and other internal units translate into behaviors (traditionally a domain of personality psychologists) and the question of how behavioral cues are used by others in perceiving targets (traditionally a domain of social psychologists). Third, self-other agreement belongs to a larger set of basic epistemological questions regarding the self, self-knowledge, and knowledge of others.

Convergence between one's self-views and how others view the self is also important as an end in itself (Funder & Colvin, 1997). Navigating the social world often requires the ability to predict what others think of the self, especially the ability to discern whether these judgments are in line with self-views or not. In many everyday situations, the degree of convergence of self and others' views may have very real consequences for the self (for example, being vouched for by a guarantor as honest and responsible in order to obtain a loan or asking a former professor for a recommendation letter attesting to one's conscientiousness as a student). All these reasons have made self-other agreement a critical empirical issue for a number of personality and social psychologists.

Multiple data sources in personality and social psychology

Although self-reports (or S-data), typically in the form of responses by persons to a systematically constructed and validated measure, are the most common type of data collected in personality psychology and perhaps even psychology in general (Larsen & Buss, 2002), there are many other possible sources of information about human affect, behavior, and cognition (Mayer, 2004). These include data from records, archives, and creative products like diaries or artwork which document a person's life (called L-data); information that comes from machines, laboratory procedures, and standardized instruments like projective techniques and physiological tests (T-data); and of course, reports made by observers (O-data).

A robust finding in the personality research literature has been the moderately high agreement of self-reports and observer-reports across a number of personality dimensions (Funder, Kolar, & Blackman, 1995; Kolar, Funder, & Colvin, 1996). Correlations of 0.40 or higher are typical—especially when self and other are highly acquainted. According to one explanation called the informational hypothesis, the more two individuals interact with each other, the more opportunities there will be to observe a person and his or her behaviors across various situations. More information is hypothesized to lead to higher accuracy, the most common operationalization of which is self-other agreement (Funder & Colvin, 1997).

Assessment and analysis of self-other agreement

In terms of measurement, self-other agreement can be assessed using two fundamentally different approaches (Funder & Colvin, 1997). The preferred method is correlational analysis, in order to determine whether a relationship exists between others' and self-judgments (Kurtz & Sherker, 2003). For example, do people who give themselves relatively high ratings on happiness (compared to other respondents) also tend to receive relatively high happiness ratings from their acquaintances? And are people

who view themselves as unhappy also viewed as unhappy by external observers? Correlational and regression analysis allow for the specification of the relationship between S-data and O-data, as well as the magnitude of this relationship.

The other method, which is more useful for the examination of cognitive biases that may *systematically* influence judgments across the range of observers, involves the analysis of mean differences. Mean differences have been used, mostly by social psychologists using an “error” (as opposed to accuracy) paradigm, to investigate cognitive tendencies like self-enhancement, false uniqueness, and false consensus, which produce an overall shift in judgments across perceivers but not necessarily reduce the relationship between self- and observer-views (Funder, 1995; Funder & Colvin, 1997). It should also be remembered that systematic bias does not necessarily imply error (Zebrowitz, 1990). For example, when judges and targets are high in similarity, cognitive strategies like availability and representativeness heuristics yield accurate judgments despite being “biased.”

These two approaches are therefore orthogonal (logically and empirically; see Funder & Colvin for a more detailed discussion) and often complementary. Researchers interested in self-other agreement using an accuracy paradigm use—and have been using—variations of correlational analysis (e.g., Kolar, Funder, & Colvin, 1996; Kurtz & Sherker, 2003; Watson, Hubbard, & Wiese, 2000). Those who wish to explore perceiver biases, on the other hand, utilize mean comparisons in order to ascertain systematic shifts in judgments. Both approaches contribute to the investigation of person judgment accuracy.

The many faces of accuracy

Modern accuracy research beginning the 1980’s has often considered self-other agreement as an important operationalization of judgment accuracy (Funder, 1995; Funder & West, 1993; Larsen & Buss, 2002; Pervin, 1996). Congruence of self-

reports and observer-reports, especially those made by multiple judges is argued to be, in most cases, a useful and valid criterion for accuracy assessment (Zebrowitz, 1990).

While it is tempting to assume that agreement and accuracy are synonymous, the two constructs are, in fact, distinct. As pointed out in an influential review of this issue (Funder & Colvin, 1997), self-other agreement is only one possible *indicator* of accuracy—not accuracy itself. Accuracy is similar to (and may even be the same thing as) construct validity, i.e., it can never be assessed directly or proven with a single method, but requires an accumulation of evidence from different sources and methods (“converging operations”). Multifaceted criteria are thus ideal in accuracy research, including the use of multiple measures, multiple sources of data (e.g., many as opposed to simply one observer), and if possible, behavioral prediction.

According to Funder (1995), such research on person judgment accuracy can be thought of as taking place in three phases. First, one must be able to empirically demonstrate the validity of human judgments of the variable in question, i.e., to document judgments that show either good self-other agreement, or good predictive ability, or both. This is basically the question of “Are judgments on this variable ever accurate?” The second phase involves moderator analysis in order to examine factors that make accurate judgments more or less likely, in order to answer the question of “When are judgments on this variable accurate?” This requires an investigation of possible factors that influence the accuracy of personality judgments. The final and most complex phase is the conceptual and empirical analysis of the precise mechanisms by which these moderators result in changes in judgment accuracy.

In the following paper, we present a Phase 1 empirical demonstration of judgment accuracy (operationalized as self-other agreement) on a specific individual difference variable that is of interest to researchers using a positive psychology perspective.

We explore agreement of self-reports made by young Filipino college students vis-à-vis independent observer judgments made by their respective mothers and fathers on a component of their subjective well-being called life satisfaction.

Life satisfaction judgments as subjective well-being

Positive psychologists in recent years have become interested in the phenomenon of subjective well-being (SWB), defined as how an individual evaluates her or his life (Diener, Suh, Lucas, & Smith, 1999). SWB is thought to be composed of two distinct but related components: an affective component called *hedonic balance* (an individual's balancing of positive and negative affect) and a cognitive component called *life satisfaction* (an individual's evaluation of her or his life according to subjectively defined standards).

Life satisfaction reflects an integration of one's satisfaction with life across many domains (Kwan, Bond, & Singelis, 1997). These may include health, finances, family relations, romantic relationships and sexuality, friendships, housing, recreational activities, religion, and education. Cross-cultural studies of life satisfaction suggest that the construct is robust across diverse cultures, including Japan, China, Israel, Germany, North America, and the Philippines. Indeed, local survey organizations such as the Social Weather Station periodically track Filipino ratings of global life satisfaction in their research, usually using single-item measures.

Because life satisfaction—and SWB itself—are by their very definitions subjectively experienced, self-reports are assumed to be the standard by which external indicators like observer judgments can be assessed in terms of accuracy. Based on a large body of research by personality psychologists, self-reports of life satisfaction have been found to be valid and trustworthy (Larsen & Buss, 2002), suggesting S-data are the most useful criterion for judgment accuracy on this domain (Zebrowitz, 1990).

Thus, while it is theoretically possible for judges to converge but both be wrong (a case of inter-judge agreement but not accuracy), especially on intrapersonal dimensions that are difficult to access even for the self (e.g., mental processes like decision-making; see Nisbett & Wilson, 1977), in the case of life satisfaction at least, convergence of O-data with S-data serves as an index of accuracy.

Adolescent life satisfaction and SWB

While life satisfaction and SWB of adult populations are frequent topics of study in positive psychology, equivalent research on adolescents and young adults beyond investigations of maladjustment, delinquency, and low self-esteem are becoming more popular (e.g., Rask et al., 2003). Arguing from a developmental perspective, Bradley and Corwyn (2004) have pointed out that because adolescence is a period characterized by emerging beliefs and goals related to relationships, work, and life in general, as well as advancing cognitive abilities that make complex judgments possible, evaluations of one's life begin to be particularly psychologically meaningful. Levels of life satisfaction during adolescence may set the stage for the formation of goals and identities that will be useful in maintaining or improving one's life as an adult, for example, the development of goals to finish school and seek gainful employment overseas in response to dissatisfaction with one's economic status.

Studies on adolescent life satisfaction and SWB identify the family context as a critical ecological setting (Dmitrieva et al., 2004; Rask et al., 2003). Structural features of families like configuration (living in a single vs two-parent household), family socioeconomic status, and family dynamics like parenting styles, parental involvement, family conflict, and communication patterns are often hypothesized to be related to adolescent life satisfaction although the research evidence has been mixed (Bradley & Corwyn, 2004; Dmitrieva et al., 2004).

Nevertheless, parents do appear to be important figures in adolescents' lives (Gastardo-Conaco, Jimenez, & Billedo, 2003). Majority of Filipino youth (83%) have been raised by both parents, and most young Filipinos ages 15 to 24 (about 62%) currently co-reside with both their mother and father (Raymundo et al., 2004). In one national survey of Filipino youth, many respondents cited their mother or father as their personal role models, and 95% agreed that regardless of what qualities and faults parents may have, one must always love and respect them (Sandoval, Mangahas, & Guerrero, 1998). Given the ubiquity of parental presence in children's lives as well as the importance of parents in the socioemotional development of children (Santrock, 1999), mothers and fathers suggest themselves to be in a position to serve as observers of their adolescent children's functioning, including their life satisfaction levels. However, the question remains: even in co-residential, dual-parent family configurations, how well do parents perceive their child's life satisfaction?

Problem

The objective of the current study was to explore self-other agreement on life satisfaction judgments of Filipino college students coming from two-parent households. Specifically, we wanted to determine how well mothers and fathers accurately perceived the life satisfaction levels of their adolescent children in terms of self-other agreement and possible systematic bias.

METHOD

Participants

A sample of $N = 68$ Filipino college students (46 females and 22 males) from the University of the Philippines Diliman voluntarily participated in the study, along with their

corresponding mothers ($N = 68$) and fathers ($N = 68$), who provided observer-report data. College students were limited to currently enrolled students co-residing with their mothers and fathers. Students' age ranged from 17 to 22 years ($M = 18.84$, $SD = 1.12$). Mothers' average age was $M = 47.69$ ($SD = 5.00$) while fathers were slightly older ($M = 49.55$, $SD = 5.52$).

Measures

Life Satisfaction. Students answered the Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS) developed by Diener, Emmons, Larsen, and Griffin (1985), a standard measure of global life satisfaction. The five-item SWLS requires respondents to gauge life satisfaction using seven-point Likert-type scaling. The self-report version (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.91$) was administered to the college students on campus. Mothers and fathers independently answered observer-report versions which required them to judge how satisfied they believed their child to be (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.73$ and 0.78 for mother-report and father-report versions, respectively). Observer-report versions had the same items as the self-report version, except for all first-person pronouns which were reworded into third-person pronouns, e.g., from "I am satisfied with *my* life" to "He/she is satisfied with *his/her* life"). Factor analysis confirmed a single-factor structure that accounted for 75.2% of the variance in the self-report version, 51.5% in the mother-report version, and 57.8% in the father-report version.

Filipino SWB Validation. For additional construct validation, respondents also answered the single-item Filipino well-being measure developed by Sycip, Asis, and Luna (2000). This measure asked students to place themselves in a five-point ladder-type scale with *Hinding-hindi masaya* and *Masayang-masaya* as anchors. Parents were asked in the observer-report versions to indicate how they judged their child's SWB using the same scaling. For both SWLS and the Filipino SWB measure, higher scores indicate higher levels of well-being.

Procedure

Students were administered questionnaires containing the self-report SWLS and Filipino SWB scales in groups. Upon returning completed forms, they were given the father-report and the mother-report versions to take home, with instructions to ask both their parents to independently answer the designated questionnaire, to be placed in separate sealed envelopes to ensure confidentiality and independence. Forms also contained explicit instructions for mothers and fathers not to discuss with each other or with their child the questionnaires.

Ethical considerations

Respondents (students and parents) were reminded of the voluntary nature of the study in the questionnaire cover letter. No names or personal identifiers were collected, and all data was used for research purposes only. Students were debriefed as to the background of the study upon submission of the parent-answered questionnaires.

RESULTS

Descriptives

Mean score for self-reported life satisfaction was $M = 4.56$ ($SD = 1.19$, 95% CI = 4.27 to 4.85). Mean score for fathers' observer-judgments was $M = 5.25$ ($SD = 0.93$, 95% CI = 5.02 to 5.48), while for mothers', mean score was $M = 5.30$ ($SD = 0.89$, 95% CI = 5.09 to 5.52). For the five-point single-item Filipino SWB measure, college students reported an average rating of 3.75 ($SD = 0.66$) while fathers' and mothers' average ratings were 4.03 ($SD = 0.67$) and 4.25 ($SD = 0.66$), respectively.

SWLS scores were significantly correlated with the Filipino SWB measure, for the self-report versions, $r(68) = 0.75$, $p < 0.001$,

one-tailed; for the father-reports, $r(68) = 0.60$, $p < 0.001$, one-tailed; and for the mother-reports, $r(68) = 0.60$, $p < 0.001$, one-tailed, suggesting good construct validity for the SWLS. Students who reported higher life satisfaction scores were more likely to consider themselves *masayang-masaya*. Likewise, parents who judged their child to have higher life satisfaction were also more likely to perceive him or her as *masayang-masaya*.

Agreement in life satisfaction judgments

For the purposes of the current analysis, we were interested in the convergence of self-reports and parent-reports on students' life satisfaction, assessed using correlational analysis. In addition, we sought to explore any systematic biases in parental judgments of children's life satisfaction by analyzing mean differences for possible overestimation or underestimation.

We first examined zero-order correlations between self-reported life satisfaction vis-à-vis judgments made by mothers and by fathers. Self-reports were significantly correlated with mother-reports, $r(68) = 0.48$, $p < 0.001$, and with father-reports, $r(68) = 0.35$, $p < 0.003$. In addition, there was considerable interjudge agreement among mothers and fathers, $r(68) = 0.41$, $p < 0.001$.

Partial correlations computed to isolate associations with specific parent types revealed that judgments made by mothers converged with children's reports of life satisfaction, partial $r(65) = 0.39$, $p < 0.001$. Judgments by fathers (partialing out mother-reports), however, failed to be associated with life satisfaction reports of children, partial $r(65) = 0.19$, $p > 0.12$.

Multiple regression analysis further indicated that self-reported life satisfaction scores were significantly predicted by mother-reports, $B = 0.53$ ($SE = 0.16$, $t = 3.95$, $p < 0.001$) but not father-reports, $B = 0.24$ ($SE = 0.15$, $t = 1.65$, $p > 0.11$). This overall model was significant, $F(2, 67) = 11.24$, $p < 0.001$, adjusted

$R^2 = 0.23$. Overall, mothers in the present sample tended to be more predictive than fathers in gauging their college student children's levels of life satisfaction.

Overestimation of adolescent children's life satisfaction

In addition to assessing the extent of self-other agreement in life satisfaction judgments, we examined how much mothers and fathers under- or overestimated how satisfied their children were with their lives by comparing mean scores on the SWLS (see Table 1). Such an analysis of absolute mean differences allow for the examination of systematic biases in judgment like enhancement biases, actor-observer effects, and other response sets like positivity or negativity biases (Funder & Colvin, 1997).

Table 1. Means and standard deviations of self vs father vs mother reports of life satisfaction and subjective well-being

	Self-reports	Father-reports	Mother-reports
Satisfaction With Life Scale			
M	4.56	5.25	5.30
SD	1.19	0.93	0.89
Filipino SWB Measure			
M	3.75	4.03	4.25
SD	0.66	0.67	0.66

Fathers made higher estimates of children's life satisfaction ($M = 5.25$ for father-reports vs 4.56 for self-reports), as did mothers ($M = 5.30$). Both mothers and fathers reported significantly higher life satisfaction judgments than the college students themselves, $F(2, 203) = 19.07$, $p < 0.001$, indicating that parents in the sample tended to overestimate how happy their college student children were with their lives. Examination of 95% confidence intervals for SWLS mean scores indicated that fathers and mothers did not differ in terms of their overestimation of children's life satisfaction.

Further evidence for the overestimation bias by both parents came from mean scores on the one-item Filipino SWB measure. Both mothers and fathers reported SWB judgments higher than their own children's, $F(2, 203) = 15.0, p < 0.001$, again indicating an overall systematic bias wherein parents judged their college student children to be happier than they actually were.

Association between parents' accuracy and children's life satisfaction levels

In order to explore whether accuracy in judgments by mothers and fathers was related to college students' actual life satisfaction levels, self-reported SWLS ratings were subtracted from mother-reported and father-reported ratings to derive two discrepancy scores (i.e., self-mother discrepancy and self-father discrepancy). A positive discrepancy score indicated that a parent had a higher SWLS rating than his or her child, thus overestimating his or her life satisfaction level.

Mean self-father discrepancy was $M = +0.69$ ($SD = 1.23$, 95% CI = +0.39 to +0.99, range = -2.00 to +4.20) while mean self-mother discrepancy was $M = +0.74$ ($SD = 1.09$, 95% CI = +0.48 to +1.01, range = -1.80 to + 3.40). Discrepancy scores did not differ significantly across parents, $t(67) = -0.44, p > 0.6$, indicating that the slight overestimation bias generally held for both fathers and mothers.

Life satisfaction of college students was significantly correlated with self-father discrepancy scores, partial $r(65) = -0.46, p < 0.001$ (controlling for self-mother discrepancy) as well as with self-mother discrepancy scores, partial $r(65) = -0.45, p < 0.001$ (controlling for self-father discrepancy). These suggest that judgment accuracy of parents may in fact be related to actual life satisfaction of children, such that happier children tend to have more accurate mothers and fathers, at least on this domain.

Because self-parent discrepancy scores were computed from SWLS scores and could be inflating correlation coefficients as a result of this derivation, we further examined if the association between discrepancy of judgments and subjective well-being would also hold for the one-item Filipino SWB measure. Partial correlations confirmed a similar pattern for SWB and self-father discrepancy, partial $r(65) = -0.31$, $p < 0.01$, and for SWB and self-mother discrepancy, partial $r(65) = -0.23$, $p < 0.05$.

Multiple regression analysis of self-father and self-mother discrepancy scores as predictors indicated that both fathers' discrepancy ($B = -0.42$, $SE = 0.10$, $t = -4.22$, $p < 0.001$) and mothers' discrepancy ($B = -0.46$, $SE = 0.11$, $t = -4.10$, $p < 0.001$) negatively predicted life satisfaction of children, $F(2, 67) = 47.93$, $p < 0.001$, adjusted $R^2 = .58$. This suggested that the smaller the judgment discrepancy, the higher the life satisfaction of children.

As a further test, the one-item Filipino SWB scores were also regressed on the discrepancy scores. Both self-father discrepancy ($B = -0.19$, $SE = 0.07$, $t = -2.60$, $p < 0.01$) and self-mother discrepancy ($B = -0.16$, $SE = 0.08$, $t = -1.93$, $p < 0.05$) similarly predicted children's SWB levels. Overall, college students whose parents had less biased (i.e., less discrepant) judgments reported higher life satisfaction and overall SWB.

DISCUSSION

Examination of self-reports of life satisfaction in our Filipino college student sample vis-à-vis independent observer-reports from their respective fathers and mothers demonstrated moderate self-other agreement on this intrapersonal variable. Mother-reports of children's life satisfaction, in particular, were found to converge significantly with self-reports, indicating a moderate degree of judgment accuracy. Both fathers and mothers also showed an overall overestimation bias in their observer ratings, judging their college student children to be happier than they actually

were. Bias in judgments was found to be related to life satisfaction and SWB of students, with happier students having less biased mothers and fathers.

A moderate degree of self-other agreement on life satisfaction was found, comparable to previous studies that demonstrate correlations of 0.40 or higher between S-data and O-data, indicating that although life satisfaction may very well be internal and subjectively experienced, it is open to empirical investigation following a realistic judgment accuracy paradigm. According to the Realistic Accuracy Model (RAM; Funder, 1995), accurate person judgments occur as a function of four interacting factors: (1) good judges, (2) good targets, (3) good traits, and (4) good information. Good judges of personality are those who are able and motivated to detect and utilize available relevant cues that relate to a particular dimension of interest. Good targets are individuals who engage in enough diagnostic behaviors that can be associated to a particular personality variable. Good traits are those dimensions that have high visibility that translate into relatively unambiguous behavioral cues. Finally, good information refers to the quantity and quality of relevant cues available in the perception process, usually a function of the relationship between judge and target (e.g., from zero-acquaintance to complex configurations like romantic couples and parent-child relationships).

Although emotions are usually thought of as low-visibility characteristics that are difficult for external observers to judge (Okazaki, 2002), the present study supports current findings that affect-related variables like life satisfaction and SWB are actually accessible not only to the self and may in fact, to a certain degree of accuracy, be observable to knowledgeable others (Watson, Hubbard, & Wiese, 2000). Further research in this domain may help identify the processes by which life satisfaction translates into cues that are used by observers to make accurate judgments (Phase 3 in the accuracy research program, according to Funder, 1995).

For example, emotion researchers have demonstrated that affective states like happiness can be reliably expressed (and accurately perceived by observers) through a person's facial expression, paralinguistic voice quality, and even gait, posture, and gestural cues like touching, eye contact, forward lean, and torso orientation (Zebrowitz, 1990). On the other hand, interpersonal mechanisms can also be at work allowing parents a degree of judgment accuracy, including more contact with one's child, active parental supervision, more unsolicited disclosure from one's child about his or her life satisfaction, and information from third-party sources like a child's friends or romantic partners regarding his or her subjective well-being (Waizenhofer, Buchanan, & Jackson-Newsom, 2004).

Mothers as good judges of children's life satisfaction

Mother-reports were found to have better convergence with self-reported life satisfaction of college students, which corroborates recent findings by family psychologists that indicate that in heterosexual dual-parent households, mothers may know more about their adolescent children's lives than do fathers (Waizenhofer, Buchanan, & Jackson-Newsom, 2004). This gender difference in parental knowledge may be related to family research that shows that mothers spend more time in caregiving, joint activities, and conversations with their adolescent children than fathers do (Crouter, McHale, & Bartko, 1993). It may not be too surprising to find Filipino adolescents who report preferring their mother to their father when it comes to intimate conversation or help-seeking (Gastrado-Conaco, Jimenez, & Billedo, 2003). Such differences in contact and communication cues, combined with gender socialization into roles that push women to become more relationship-oriented and empathic and better at affect-reading (Larsen & Buss, 2002), may translate into higher judgment accuracy of mothers in the context of the family.

Less happy than what parents think: Overestimation bias by mothers and fathers

Regardless of any gender differences in parental convergence with children's self-views, both mothers and fathers in the study displayed a general overestimation bias in their appraisals of their children's life satisfaction. This systematic enhancement may be related to a form of positively biased perceptions of the in-group (in this case, the family), wherein parents are motivated to believe that their child is happier than she or he actually is, thereby enhancing their view of their family as a whole (Leary & Miller, 2000). Many Filipino adults (about 91%) including parents hold the normative view that parents should do their best for their children's happiness, even at the expense of their own well-being (Sandoval, Mangahas, & Guerrero, 1998), so it would not be surprising if perceptual biases like a "family-serving bias" help maintain a positive view of one's children and family beyond actual evidence thereof (Larsen & Buss, 2002).

Accurate parents, happy children

Accuracy of fathers and mothers was related to life satisfaction levels of adolescent children, suggesting potentially interesting links between the judgment process and well-being within the family context. When parents had less discrepant perceptions, college student children were generally happier. Parent-child communication may moderate this association, given that communication has been found to be associated with both accuracy in person judgment (Watson, Hubbard, & Wiese, 2000) and adolescent well-being (Rask et al., 2003). Parental involvement, defined as the combination of children's perception of parental warmth and of parental knowledge of children's lives (Dmitrieva et al., 2004) may also be a significant third-variable that gives rise not just to judgment accuracy but also to adolescent life satisfaction and SWB.

Family and developmental psychologists interested in pursuing this line of inquiry would be well-served to consider currently researched parenting processes that go beyond the older parenting typologies (e.g., authoritarian vs authoritative vs permissive) as moderators for judgment accuracy. In particular, future research could assess parental accuracy of children's life satisfaction as a function of the three cross-culturally robust dimensions of the parenting process (Vazsonyi, Hibbert, & Blake Snider, 2003). These processes are harmony (the level of acceptance, closeness, and warmth in the parent-adolescent relationship), autonomy (the balance of control, monitoring, supervision, and approval of adolescents by parents), and conflict (the amount of tension and goal incongruence between parent and adolescent). Both harmony and autonomy are hypothesized to be related to children's life satisfaction and parental accuracy, while conflict may be related to lower life satisfaction and lower self-parent agreement.

Limitations and further research

A number of caveats, particularly sample limitations, should be kept in mind. The current study focused on global life satisfaction of volunteer college students residing in two-parent households. Future investigations could look into the dynamics of self-other agreement in single-parent households, which represent the living situation of about 6% of Filipino youth or roughly 906,000 young Filipinos (Raymundo et al., 2004). Self-other agreement using non-parent observers is also a critical configuration, since 15% of young Filipino men and 29% of young Filipino women currently do not co-reside with parents, reflecting the diversity in Filipino families and household setups.

Other variables like domain-specific life satisfaction and even meta-accuracy (how accurate a person thinks an observer judges him or her; see Levesque, 1997) will make for a more complex analysis of the problem of self-other agreement. Expanding the methodological reach of our investigations into individual

differences and intrapersonal processes beyond the traditional self-report to include observers and the process of judgment accuracy is a challenge made to researchers working at the dynamic interface of personality and social psychology.

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