

DO INFANTS HAVE A SENSE OF FAIRNESS?

BY

STEPHANIE M. SLOANE

THESIS

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Master of Arts in Psychology
in the Graduate College of the
University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, 2011

Urbana, Illinois

Adviser:

Professor Renée Baillargeon

ABSTRACT

Two experiments examined infants' expectations about how an experimenter should distribute resources and rewards to others. In Experiment 1, 19-month-olds expected an experimenter to divide two items equally, as opposed to unequally, between two individuals. Infants held no particular expectation when the individuals were replaced with inert objects, or when the experimenter simply removed covers in front of the individuals to reveal the items (instead of distributing them). In Experiment 2, 21-month-olds expected an experimenter to give a reward to each of two individuals when both had worked to complete an assigned chore, but not when one of the individuals had done all the work while the other played. Infants held this expectation only when the experimenter could determine through visual inspection who had worked and who had not. Together, these results provide converging evidence that infants in the second year of life already possess context sensitive-expectations relevant to fairness.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to thank everyone who made this project possible. Thanks to all of my wonderful labmates and to the babies and moms of Champaign-Urbana. I would also like to thank the NICHD for providing the funding for this project, as well as Andrei Cimpian for his willingness to read and offer feedback. And most of all I would like to thank my adviser, Renee Baillargeon for her patience and sagacity, and for encouraging me in moments of doubt.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION.....	1
CHAPTER 2: EXPERIMENT 1.....	4
2.1 Methodology.....	5
2.2 Results and Discussion.....	7
CHAPTER 3: EXPERIMENT 2.....	9
3.1 Methodology.....	11
3.2 Results and Discussion.....	12
CHAPTER 4: GENERAL DISCUSSION.....	14
FIGURES.....	16
REFERENCES.....	20

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Research on the development of morality has a long history within the field of psychology that weaves together two major approaches: one examines how parental practices and other socialization processes help children internalize and conform to societal norms, whereas the other approach adopts a more cognitive stance and explores how children gradually construct moral concepts and norms through their interactions with others (for reviews, see Eisenberg, Fabes, & Spinrad, 2006; Killen & Smetana, 2006; Turiel, 2006). Despite their marked differences, both approaches generally assume that sensitivity to moral norms does not emerge until the preschool years. Recently, this conclusion has been called into question by widespread speculations, from various disciplines within cognitive science, that moral development builds on early-emerging sociomoral intuitions about how individuals should act toward each other (e.g., Boyd & Richerson, 2005; Dwyer, 2007; Greene, 2005; Haidt, 2008; Jackendoff, 2007; Mikhail, 2007; Premack, 2007; Sigmund, Fehr, & Novak, 2002). These speculations naturally give rise to the empirical question of whether sociomoral expectations are already present in infancy. Here we focused on the norm of **fairness** and examined 19- to 21-month-old infants' expectations about individuals' actions in two contexts commonly used in research on fairness with children and adults: the allocation of resources and the dispensation of rewards for effort.

Developmental investigations of fairness in resource-allocation and reward-dispensation contexts typically use either **first-party** tasks, where the children tested are potential recipients, or **third-party** tasks, where they are not. There is considerable evidence, from first- and third-party investigations, that children ages 5-7 years demonstrate sensitivity to fairness in both

contexts (e.g., Damon, 1975; Enright, Franklin, & Manheim, 1980; Fehr, Bernhard, & Rockenbach, 2008; Gummerum et al., 2010; Moore, 2009; Rochat et al., 2009; Thompson, Baresi, & Moore, 1997; Ugurel-Semin, 1952).

In contrast, the evidence with children ages 3-5 years has been more mixed. On the one hand, results from first-party tasks have been generally negative: when dividing resources or rewards between themselves and others, preschoolers tend to act selfishly and show signs of inequity aversion only when they are the disadvantaged party (e.g., Damon, 1975; Fehr et al., 2008; Fraser, Kemp, & Keenan, 2007; Gummerum et al., 2010; Hook & Cook, 1979; Lane & Coon, 1972; Lerner, 1974; LoBue, Nishida, Chiong, DeLoache, & Haidt, 2009; McCrink, Bloom, & Santos, 2010; Rochat et al., 2009). For example, in one experiment, children chose how sweets should be shared between themselves and an anonymous child (Fehr et al., 2008). Children chose between an allocation of one sweet for themselves and one sweet for their partner (1,1) and an allocation of either (1,0), (1,2), or (2,0) across conditions. At ages 3-6, children chose randomly in the first two conditions (they received one sweet either way and did not much consider what their partner would get), and they chose (2,0) in the last condition to maximize their own gain. Only at ages 7-8 did children begin to evidence some degree of inequality aversion. On the other hand, results from third-party tasks with 3- to 5-year-olds have tended to be more positive and suggest that, at least under some conditions, preschoolers expect resources and rewards to be divided fairly among recipients (e.g., Olson & Spelke, 2008; Peterson, Peterson, & McDonald, 1975; Thomson & Jones, 2005; Tsutsu, 2010). In one experiment, for example, 3.5-year-olds were shown five dolls; one was identified as the protagonist and the other four were identified as the protagonist's siblings and friends or as strangers (Olson & Spelke, 2008). When asked to help the protagonist allocate four items, children divided the items equally among the other dolls,

regardless of how they were identified.

The preceding results suggest that, when tested in third-party tasks where self-interest cannot intrude, even 3.5-year-old children show some sensitivity to fairness. Does this sensitivity gradually emerge during the first three years of life or is it already present in infancy, as the speculations discussed earlier would suggest (e.g., Dwyer, 2007; Haidt, 2008; Jackendoff, 2007; Premack, 2007)? To address this question, the present experiments tested infants in two third-party tasks. In Experiment 1, 19-month-olds saw an experimenter divide two desirable items either equally or unequally between two individuals. In Experiment 2, 21-month-olds saw an experimenter give a reward to each of two individuals either after both had worked to complete an assigned chore or after one (the worker) had done all the work while the other (the slacker) played. We tested whether infants would detect a violation (as indexed by longer looking times) when the experimenter allocated the resources **unequally** (Experiment 1) or rewarded the worker and the slacker **equally** (Experiment 2). The apposition of these two contexts allowed us to examine whether infants would view the same behavior on the part of the experimenter—giving one item to each individual—as expected in the first context but as unexpected in the second. Positive results with both tasks would thus indicate that infants in the second year of life already possess context-sensitive expectations relevant to fairness.

CHAPTER 2

EXPERIMENT 1

In the **experimental** condition of Experiment 1, 19-month-olds watched live events in which a female experimenter divided resources between two identical animated puppet giraffes (Fig. 1). Infants saw an unequal and an equal event on alternate trials for three pairs of trials (order was counterbalanced across infants). Each trial had an initial and a final phase. During the initial (24-s) phase, the two giraffes (placed on the hands of a hidden assistant) protruded from openings in the back wall of the apparatus; in front of each giraffe was a small placemat. The giraffes “danced” from side to side in unison until the experimenter opened a curtained window in the right wall of the apparatus; the giraffes then turned toward the experimenter, as though to observe her actions. The experimenter placed a tray with two identical objects (toy ducks, edible cookies, or toy cars) in front of her window and announced, “I have toys (cookies, cars)!”; the giraffes answered excitedly “Yay, yay!” (in two distinct voices). Next, the experimenter placed one object on the placemat in front of one giraffe; she then placed the other object in front of either the same giraffe (unequal event) or the other giraffe (equal event). Finally, the experimenter left, closing her window as she went, and the two giraffes looked down at their placemats and paused (which giraffe received two objects was counterbalanced). During the final phase of the trial, infants watched this paused scene until the trial ended.

Additional infants were tested in two control conditions. The **inert-control** condition served to rule out the possibility that infants simply preferred seeing the experimenter create an asymmetrical over a symmetrical display. Events were identical to those in the experimental condition except that the giraffes were inert (they rested on hidden posts). The **cover-control**

condition involved animated giraffes and was included to rule out the possibility that infants merely expected similar individuals to have similar numbers of objects (Fig. 2). In the initial (24-s) phase of each trial, instead of bringing in and distributing the two objects, the experimenter removed covers resting over the giraffes' placemats to reveal the objects; the covers were removed one at a time, with order counterbalanced. The experimenter did not speak in this condition, but the giraffes greeted her ("Yay, yay!") as she arrived. In the unequal event, the covers were removed to reveal two objects on one placemat and none on the other; in the equal event, the covers were removed to reveal one object on each placemat. After the experimenter removed the last cover and left, the giraffes looked down at their placemats and paused, as in the experimental condition.

We reasoned that if infants in the experimental condition looked reliably longer at the unequal than at the equal event, but infants in the inert- and cover-control conditions looked about equally at the two events, it would indicate that 19-month-olds expect a distributor to divide resources equally between two similar individuals.

2.1 METHODOLOGY

Participants

Participants were 48 healthy full-term infants from English-speaking families, 24 male (18 months, 8 days to 19 months, 27 days, $M = 18$ months, 25 days); 16 infants (8 male) were randomly assigned to each condition. Another 10 infants were excluded because they were overly active (4), fussy (3), distracted (2), or inattentive (1).

Apparatus

The apparatus consisted of a brightly lit display booth (201.5 cm high X 102 cm wide X

58 cm deep) with a large opening (56 cm X 95 cm) in its front wall; between trials, the supervisor lowered a curtain in front of this opening. Inside the apparatus, the side walls were painted white, and the back wall and floor were covered with pastel contact paper.

The experimenter was a female native English speaker. She wore a green shirt, knelt at a window (51 cm X 38 cm) in the right wall of the apparatus, and slid a white curtain to open or close her window. A large screen behind the experimenter hid the test room.

The giraffes were identical puppets (about 26 cm X 15 cm X 11 cm at their largest points) made of beige and brown fabric. The giraffes protruded from openings (each 20 cm X 12.5 cm and filled with beige felt) located 20 cm apart in the back wall of the apparatus, 5.5 cm above the floor and 14 cm from the right wall. Centered beneath each giraffe was a white placemat (1 cm X 20 cm X 13 cm). In the cover-control condition, identical tan covers (each 10 cm X 22.5 cm X 15.5 cm) stood over the placemats at the start of each trial; each cover had a wooden knob centered on its top surface.

The three pairs of identical items used in the trials included purple toy ducks, edible brown cookies, and red toy cars. In the experimental and inert-control conditions, the items were introduced into the apparatus on a round blue tray (1.5 cm X 17 cm).

During each test session, one camera captured an image of the events, and another camera captured an image of the infant. The two images were combined, projected onto a TV set located behind the apparatus, and monitored by the supervisor to confirm that the events followed the prescribed scripts. Recorded sessions were also checked offline for accuracy.

Procedure

Infants sat on a parent's lap centered in front of the apparatus; parents were instructed to

remain silent and to close their eyes during the trials. Each infant's looking behavior was monitored by two naive observers hidden behind large cloth-covered frames on either side of the apparatus. Looking times during the initial and final phases of each trial were computed separately, using the primary observer's responses. The infants were highly attentive during the initial (24-s) phases of the trials and looked for 23.5 s on average across conditions. The final phase of each trial ended when infants (1) looked away for 1.5 consecutive seconds after having looked for at least 4 cumulative seconds or (2) looked for a maximum of 60 cumulative seconds. Interobserver agreement during the final phase of each trial averaged 93% per trial per infant. Preliminary analyses revealed no significant interaction involving condition and event with sex, order, or which giraffe received two objects; the data were therefore collapsed across these factors.

2.2 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Infants' looking times during the final phases of the test trials (Fig. 3) were averaged across pairs and compared by means of an analysis of variance (ANOVA) with condition (experimental, inert-control, or cover-control) as a between-subjects factor and event (unequal or equal) as a within-subject factor. The analysis yielded only a significant condition X event interaction, $F(1, 45) = 3.71, p = .032$. Planned comparisons revealed that infants in the experimental condition looked reliably longer at the unequal ($M = 19.5, SD = 11.1$) than at the equal ($M = 13.4, SD = 6.7$) event, $F(1, 45) = 6.31, p = .016$, Cohen's $d = 0.665$; infants in the inert-control condition looked about equally at the unequal ($M = 14.5, SD = 6.8$) and equal ($M = 16.9, SD = 10.6$) events, $F(1, 45) = 1.04, p = .313, d = -0.270$; and infants in the cover-control condition also looked about equally at the unequal ($M = 15.2, SD = 6.5$) and equal ($M = 16.6, SD$

= 6.8) events, $F(1, 45) = 0.34$, $p = .563$, $d = -0.210$. Examination of individual responses indicated that 12/16 infants in the experimental condition looked longer at the unequal event (cumulative binomial probability, $p = .038$), but only 7/16 infants in the inert-control condition ($p = .773$) and 8/16 infants in the cover-control condition ($p = .598$) did so.

The results of Experiment 1 support three conclusions. First, 19-month-olds expect a distributor to divide resources equally between two similar individuals. Second, this expectation is unlikely to reflect low-level factors, because it is absent when the individuals are replaced with inert objects. Third, infants do not merely expect similar individuals to have similar numbers of items: when covers are removed to reveal unequal numbers of items, and it is unclear how this outcome arose, infants do not view it as unexpected.

CHAPTER 3

EXPERIMENT 2

In Experiment 2, 21-month-olds watched live events in which a female experimenter asked two female individuals to put away toys. In one (explicit) condition, the experimenter told the individuals they would receive a reward if they complied. In another (implicit) condition, the experimenter did not mention rewards beforehand; we wanted to ascertain whether infants would hold expectations about the dispensation of rewards even in the absence of an explicit contract. In each condition, infants received a single trial in which they saw either a one-works or a both-work event (in pilot work, infants showed clear expectations only in the first trial, most likely because our events were long and linguistically demanding and thus tended to tax infants' information-processing resources).

During the initial (83-s) phase of the trial in the **explicit** condition, two individuals knelt at open windows in the right and left walls of the apparatus (Fig. 4). Next to each individual, against the back wall of the apparatus, was an open transparent box, and at the center of the floor was a pile of 20 colorful foam toys. Each individual played with two toys (one red and one yellow) until the experimenter opened doors at the back of the apparatus. The experimenter exclaimed, "Wow! Look at all these toys! It's time to clean them up! If you put the toys away, you can have a sticker!" She then held up a clear bag filled with identical stickers and added, "See? I have stickers! If you put the toys away, you can have a sticker!" (as she spoke, the experimenter looked at the two individuals in turn, and order was counterbalanced). Next, a bell rang; the experimenter said "I'll be back!" and left with her bag of stickers, closing her window as she went. In the one-works event, one individual (the slacker) continued to play while the other individual (the worker) placed the toys, two at a time, into her box; after several seconds,

the slacker tossed the toys she was holding onto the pile and thereafter simply watched the worker (which individual was the slacker or the worker was counterbalanced). In the both-work event, both individuals worked at putting away the toys and each placed half in their respective boxes. In either event, after the toys were put away, both individuals closed their boxes. At that point, the experimenter returned and said, “Wow! Good job cleaning up all the toys!” She then looked carefully at each individual’s box (order was counterbalanced); because the boxes were transparent, the experimenter could determine who had worked in her absence. She then placed her bag of stickers on the apparatus floor, placed a sticker on each individual’s box (order was counterbalanced), and exited the apparatus. Each individual then grasped her sticker and affixed it to a mark on her box. During the final phase of the trial, each individual peeled off her sticker, placed it back on the box, and repeated these actions until the trial ended.

The **implicit** condition was similar with the following exceptions. When the experimenter first arrived, she did not show her stickers but simply said “Wow! Look at all these toys! Its time to clean them up! Yes, it’s time to put the toys away! It’s time to clean them up!” When she returned, the experimenter said, “Wow! Good job cleaning up all the toys!” and then, after placing her bag of stickers on the apparatus floor, she added “Now you can have a sticker!” Finally, the worker was always rewarded first in the one-works event (i.e. order was counterbalanced only in the both-work event).

Infants were also tested in a **control** condition identical to the explicit condition except that the individuals’ boxes were no longer transparent. For half the infants, the boxes were completely opaque (painted beige); for the other infants, the boxes retained a clear window at the front through which the infants (but not the experimenter) could see their contents (this manipulation had no effect). This control condition was included to confirm that infants expected

the slacker not to be rewarded only when the experimenter could determine, by inspecting the boxes, that the slacker had done no work.

We reasoned that if infants in the explicit and implicit conditions looked reliably longer when shown the one-works as opposed to the both-work event, and infants in the control condition looked about equally at either event, this would indicate that 21-month-olds expect a distributor to reward individuals according to (her knowledge of) their efforts.

3.1 METHODOLOGY

Participants

Participants were 54 healthy full-term infants from English-speaking families, 27 male (20 months, 5 days to 22 months, 16 days; $M = 21$ months, 0 day); 18 infants (9 male) were randomly assigned to each condition. Another 5 infants were excluded because they were fussy (1), declined to continue (2), or had test looking times that were more than 3 standard deviations from the condition mean (2). Within each condition, half the infants saw the one-works event, and half saw the both-work event.

Apparatus

The apparatus was the same as in Experiment 1 except that the windows in the right and left walls of the apparatus were both open and the back wall had a large central window (71.5 cm X 56 cm) that could be closed with two identical doors. The experimenter was a female native English speaker; she wore a beige turtleneck and sat in a chair behind the back window. The two individuals wore black turtlenecks and knelt at the right and left windows. Stimuli included 20 two-dimensional foam shapes (7 cm X 15.5 cm) in red, yellow, green, and blue; 10 yellow smiley-face stickers (6 cm round) in a clear quart-size zip-loc bag; and two identical plastic

boxes (35.5 cm X 11 cm X 19.5 cm) with hinged lids.

Procedure

Infants were highly attentive during the initial (83-s) phase of the trial and looked for 81.0 s on average across conditions. The final phase of the trial ended when infants (1) looked away for 1 consecutive second after having looked for at least 5 cumulative seconds or (2) looked for a maximum of 90 cumulative seconds. Interobserver agreement during the final phase of the trial averaged 98% per infant. Preliminary analyses revealed no significant interaction involving condition and event with sex, which individual was the worker, or which individual was addressed first; the data were therefore collapsed across these factors.

3.2 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Infants' looking times during the final phase of the trial (Fig. 5) were compared by means of an ANOVA with condition (explicit, implicit, or control) and event (one-helps or both help) as between-subject factors. The analysis yielded a significant main effect of event, $F(1, 48) = 8.10$, $p = .007$, and a significant condition X event interaction, $F(2, 48) = 3.33$, $p = .044$. Planned comparisons revealed that infants in the explicit condition looked reliably longer if shown the one-helps ($M = 58.4$, $SD = 25.4$) as opposed to the both-help ($M = 30.2$, $SD = 13.4$) event, $F(1, 48) = 7.17$, $p = .010$, $d = 1.389$; infants in the implicit condition also looked reliably longer when shown the one-helps ($M = 66.9$, $SD = 23.6$) as opposed to the both-help ($M = 38.3$, $SD = 22.2$) event, $F(1, 48) = 7.38$, $p = .009$, $d = 1.248$; and infants in the control condition looked about equally at the one-helps ($M = 33.9$, $SD = 26.9$) and both-help ($M = 38.8$, $SD = 19.7$) events, $F(1, 48) = 0.22$, $p = .641$, $d = -0.208$. Wilcoxon sum-rank tests confirmed the results of the explicit ($W = 59$, $p < .025$), implicit ($W = 58$, $p < .025$), and control ($W = 71$, $p > .20$) conditions.

The results of Experiment 2 support three conclusions. First, 21-month-olds expect individuals to be rewarded according to their efforts: infants in the explicit and implicit conditions detected a violation when the worker and the slacker were rewarded equally. Second, a prior explicit contract is not necessary for infants to hold expectations about the dispensation of rewards: responses were similar in the explicit and implicit conditions. Finally, infants showed clear expectations about the experimenter's actions only when she could determine who had worked and who had not; when the experimenter could not see the boxes' contents, infants no longer detected a violation when she rewarded the worker and the slacker equally.

CHAPTER 4

GENERAL DISCUSSION

In Experiment 1, 19-month-olds expected an experimenter to distribute two desirable items equally between two individuals; in Experiment 2, 21-month-olds expected an experimenter to distribute rewards equally between two individuals when both had worked, but not when one had worked while the other had chosen not to. The same behavior on the part of the experimenter—giving one item to each individual—was thus viewed as expected in the first context, but not in the second. Together, these results suggest that, by 19-21 months, infants show context-sensitive expectations about the allocation of resources and the dispensation of rewards, at least in simple situations.

How might infants attain such expectations? There are at least two broad possibilities. One is that infants' expectations reflect an early-emerging concern for fairness. This possibility is consistent with recent speculations that a few sociomoral norms—evolved to facilitate positive interactions and cooperation within social groups—are innate and universal, though elaborated in various ways by cultures (e.g., Boyd & Richerson, 2005; Dwyer, 2007; Fiske, 1991; Greene, 2005; Haidt, 2001; Jackendoff, 2007; Mikhail, 2007; Premack & Premack, 2003). Although researchers widely disagree about what these norms may be, a sense of fairness is often listed as a possible candidate, and our findings would provide evidence for this norm. The other possibility is that infants acquire a list of behavioral rules, from observing and participating in everyday social interactions, about how individuals typically distribute resources and rewards (e.g., Sripada & Stich, 2006; Turiel, 2006). From this perspective, our results would suggest that by 19-21 months, infants have already identified some of the rules that prevail in their social environment and can extend these rules to new situations.

Whichever possibility turns out to be correct, the present findings indicate that infants in the second year of life already demonstrate rich and subtle expectations about how individuals should distribute resources and rewards to others. These findings raise important questions for future research about the nature of these expectations, about the role they play in infants' own social interactions, and about the factors that affect them. For example, would infants expect a distributor to act selfishly when dividing resources between herself and others, or to show ingroup favoritism when dispensing rewards to members of her own social group and members of other groups? Answers to these questions should help us better understand the developmental origins of human sociomoral reasoning.

FIGURES

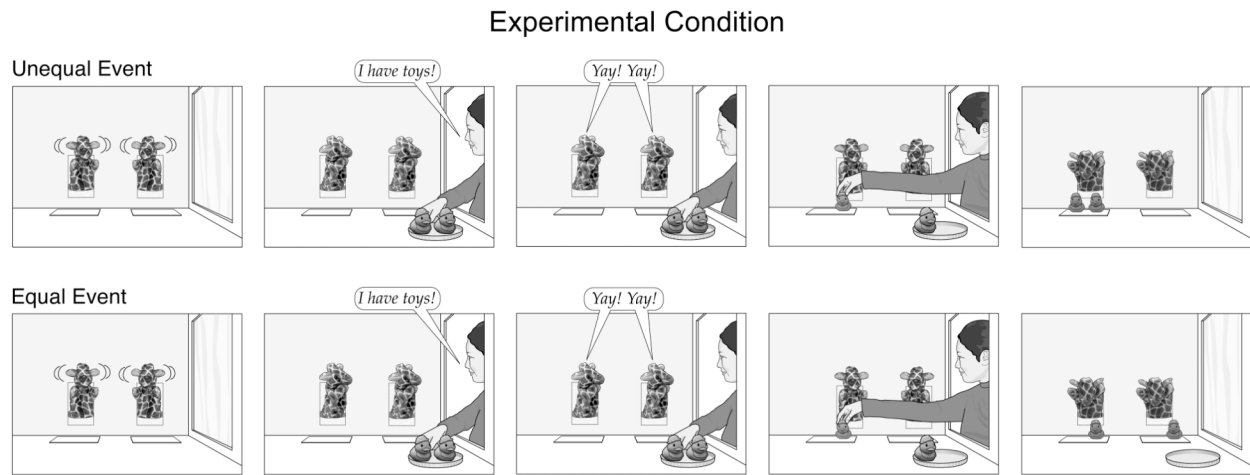


Figure 1. Events shown in the experimental condition of Experiment 1. Two toy ducks (shown here), two edible cookies, and two toy cars were distributed in the three pairs of trials. The events shown in the inert-control condition were similar except that the giraffes were inert: they did not move or talk and simply faced forward.

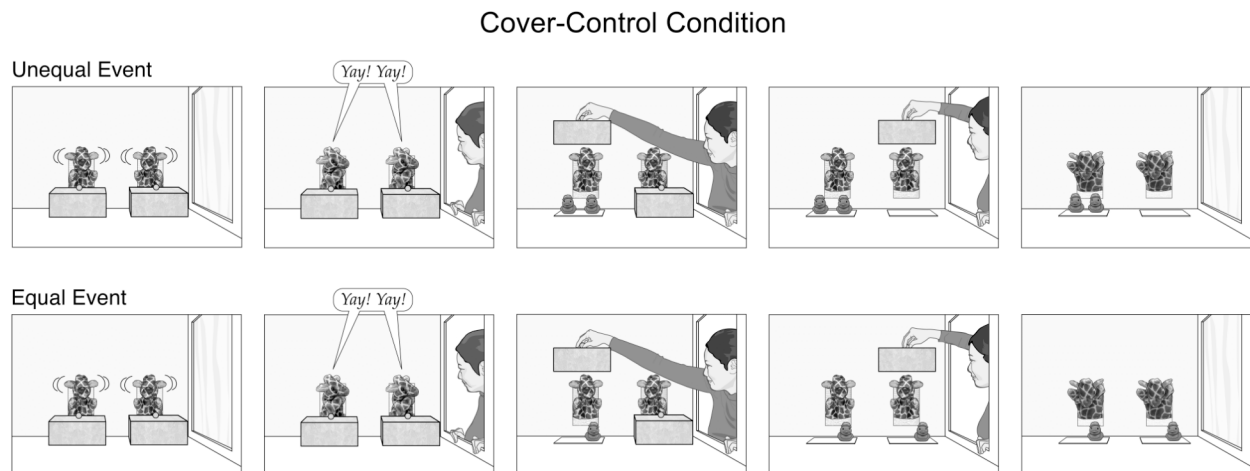


Figure 2. Events shown in the cover-control condition of Experiment 1.

Experiment 1

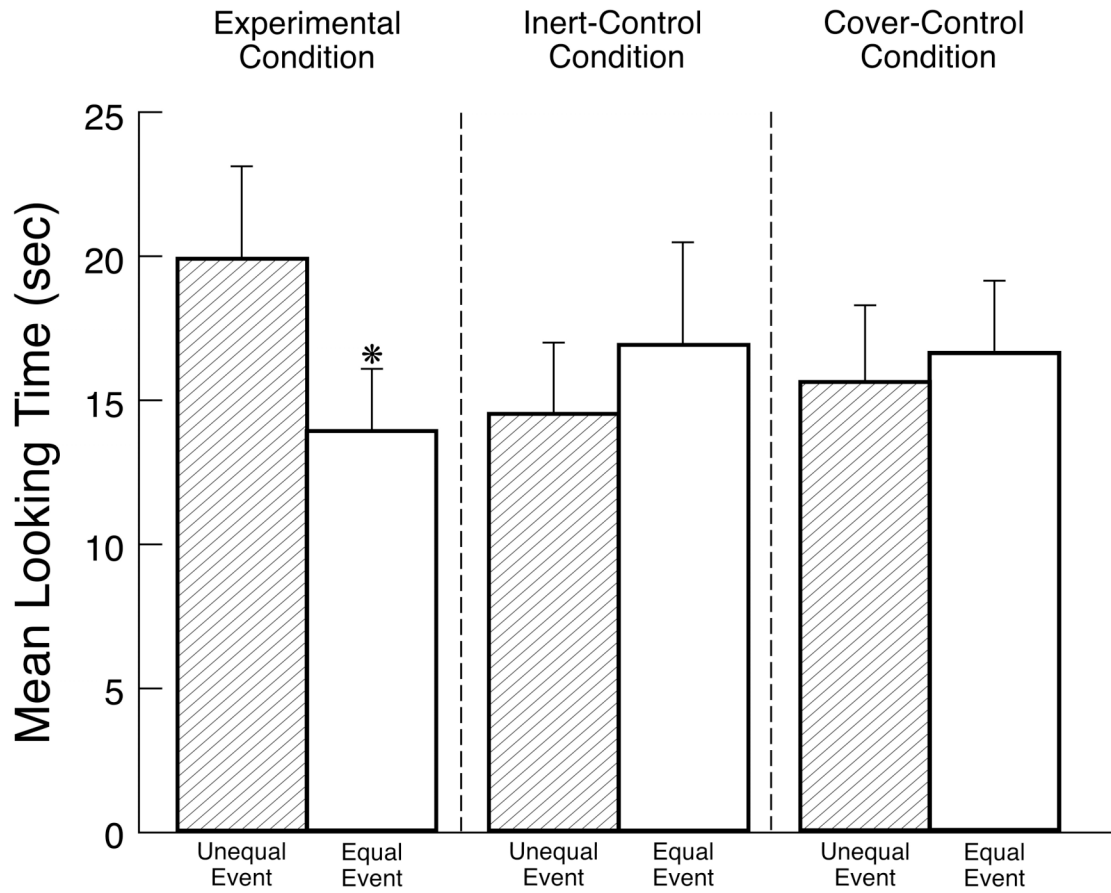


Figure 3. Mean looking times at the unequal and equal events in the experimental, inert-control, and cover-control conditions of Experiment 1. Errors bars represent standard errors, and an asterisk denotes a significant difference ($p < .05$ or better).

Explicit Condition

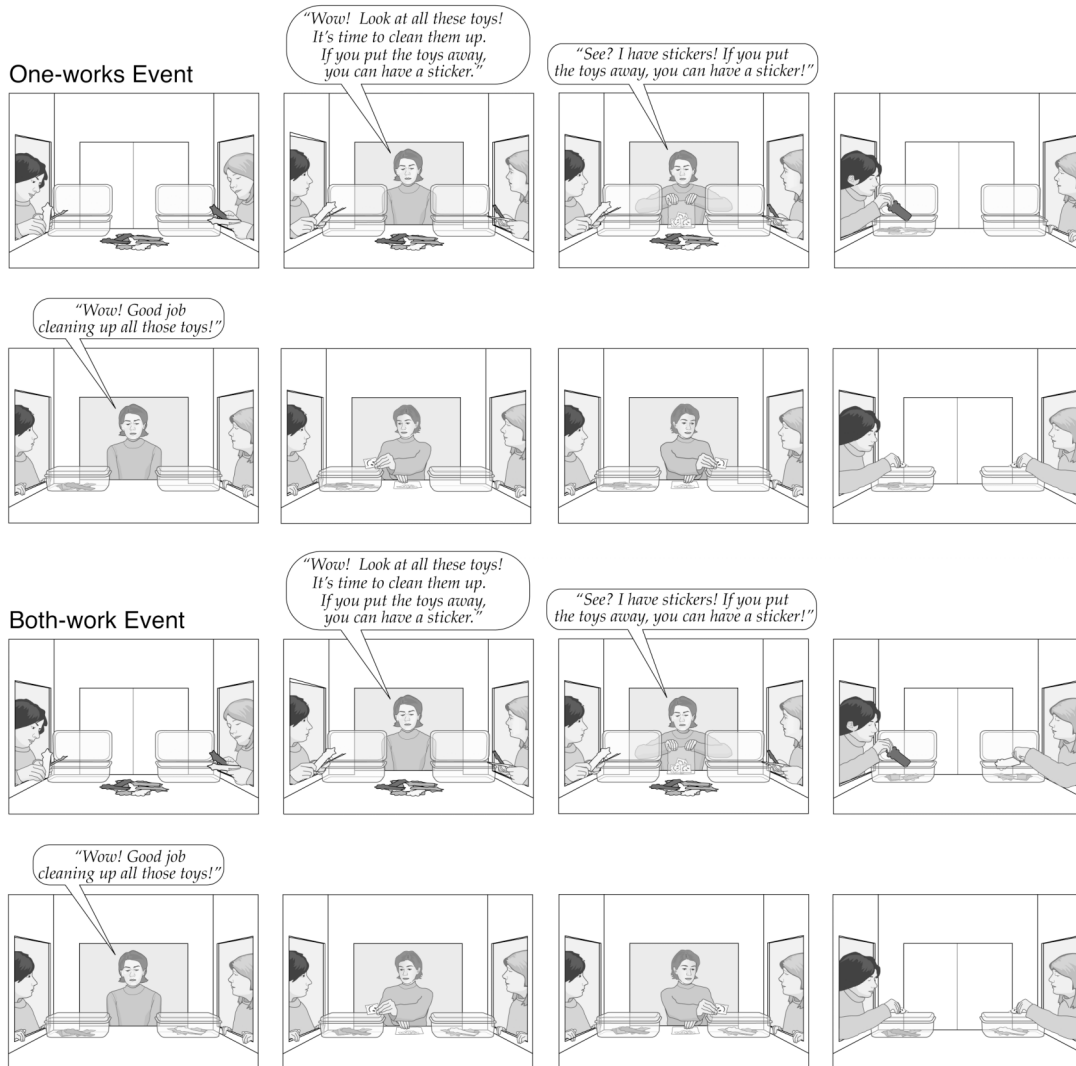


Figure 4. Events shown in the explicit condition of Experiment 2. The events shown in the implicit condition were similar except that the experimenter did not promise a reward beforehand (see text). The events shown in the control condition were similar to those in the explicit condition except that the boxes were either completely opaque or had a clear window at the front through which the infants (but not the experimenter) could see the boxes' contents.

Experiment 2

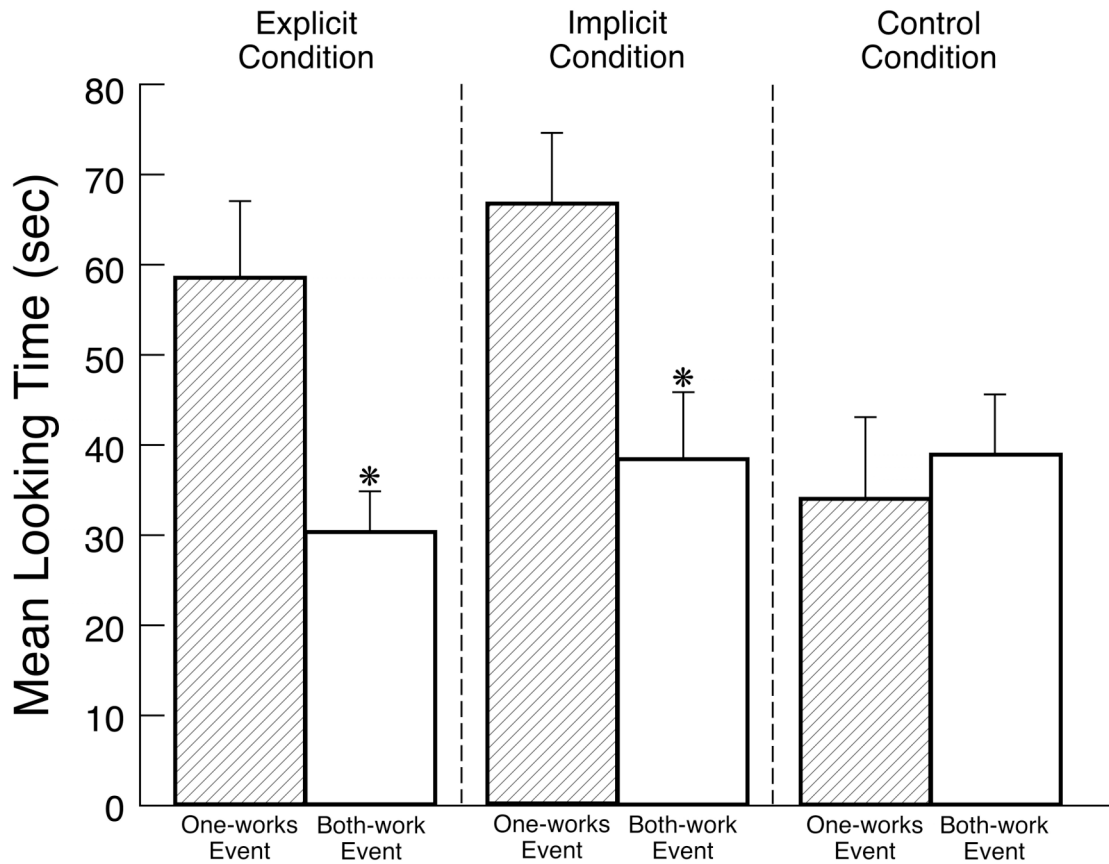


Figure 5. Mean looking times at the one-works and both-work events in the explicit, implicit, and control conditions of Experiment 2. Errors bars represent standard errors, and asterisks denote significant differences ($p < .05$ or better).

REFERENCES

- Boyd, R. T., & Richerson, P. (2005). *The origin and evolution of cultures*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Damon, W. (1975). Early conceptions of positive justice as related to the development of logical operations. *Child Development, 46*, 301-312.
- Dwyer, S. (2007). How good is the linguistic analogy? In P. Carruthers, S. Laurence, & S. Stich (Eds.), *The innate mind, Vol. 2. Culture and cognition* (pp. 237-256). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Eisenberg, N., Fabes, R. A., & Spinrad, T. L. (2006). Prosocial development. In W. Damon & R. M. Lerner (Series Eds.) & N. Eisenberg (Vol. Ed.), *Handbook of child psychology, Vol. 3. Social, emotional, and personality development* (6th ed., pp. 646-718). New York: Wiley.
- Enright, R. D., Franklin, C. C., & Manheim, L. A. (1980). Children's distributive justice reasoning: a standardized and objective scale. *Developmental Psychology, 16*, 193-202.
- Fehr, E., Bernhard, H., & Rockenbach, B. (2008). Egalitarianism in young children. *Nature, 454*, 1079-1083.
- Fiske, A. P. (1991). *Structures of social life*. New York: Free Press.
- Fraser, H. P., Kemp, S., & Keenan, T. (2007). How do children behave when they distribute rewards from task participation? *European Journal of Developmental Psychology, 4*, 198-219.
- Greene, J. (2005). Cognitive neuroscience and the structure of the moral mind. In P. Carruthers, S. Laurence, & S. Stich (Eds.), *The innate mind, Vol. 1. Structure and contents* (pp. 338-352). New York: Oxford University Press.

- Gummerum, M., Hanoch, Y, Keller, M., Parsons, K. & Hummel, A. (2010). Preschoolers' allocations in the dictator game: The role of moral emotions. *Journal of Economic Psychology, 31*, 25-34.
- Haidt, J. (2001). The emotional dog and its rational tail: A social intuitionist approach to moral judgment. *Psychological Review, 108*, 814-834.
- Haidt, J. (2008). Morality. *Perspectives on Psychological Science, 3*, 65-72.
- Hook, J., & Cook, T. D. (1979). Equity theory and the cognitive ability of children. *Psychological Bulletin, 86*, 429-445.
- Jackendoff, R. (2007). *Language, consciousness, culture: Essays on mental structure*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Killen, M., & Smetana, J. (2006). *Handbook of moral development*. Mahwah, New Jersey: Erlbaum.
- Lane, I. M., & Coon, R. C. (1972). Reward allocation in preschool children. *Child Development, 43*, 1382-1389.
- Lerner, M. (1974). The justice motive: Equity and parity among children. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 24*, 539-550.
- LoBue, V., Nishida, T., Chiong, C., DeLoache, J. S., & Haidt, J. (2011). When getting something good is bad: Even three-year-olds react to inequality. *Social Development, 20*, 154-170.
- McCrink, K., Bloom, P., & Santos, L. R. (2010). Children's and adults' judgments of equitable resource distributions. *Developmental Science, 13*, 37-45.
- Moore, C. (2009). Fairness in children's resource allocation depends on the recipient. *Psychological Science, 20*, 944- 948.

- Olson, K. R., & Spelke, E. S. (2008). Foundations of cooperation in young children. *Cognition*, *108*, 222-231.
- Peterson, C., Peterson, J., & McDonald N. (1975). Factors affecting reward allocation by preschool children. *Child Development*, *46*, 942-947.
- Premack, D. (2007). Foundations of morality in the infant. In O. Vilarroya, & F. Form i Argimon (Eds.), *Social brain matters: Stances on the neurobiology of social cognition* (pp.161-167). Amsterdam/New York: Rodopi.
- Premack, D. & Premack, A. J. (2003). *Original intelligence: Unlocking the mystery of who we are*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Rochat, P., Dias, M. D. G., Liping, G., Broesch, T., Passos-Ferreira, C., Winning, A., & Berg, B. (2009). Fairness in distributive justice by 3- and 5-year-olds across seven cultures. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, *40*, 416-442.
- Sigmund, K., Fehr, E., & Novak, M. A. (2002). The economics of fair play. *Scientific American*, *286*, 82-87.
- Sripada, C., & Stich, S. (2006). A framework for the psychology of norms. In P. Carruthers, S. Laurence, & S. Stich (Eds.), *The innate mind, Vol. 2. Culture and cognition* (pp. 280-301). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Thompson, C., Barresi, J., & Moore, C. (1997). The development of future-oriented prudence and altruism in preschool children. *Cognitive Development*, *12*, 199-212.
- Thomson, N. R., & Jones, E. F. (2005). Children's, adolescents', and young adults' reward allocations to hypothetical siblings and fairness judgments: Effects of actor gender, character type and allocation pattern. *Journal of Psychology*, *139*, 349-367.

- Tsutsu, K. (2010). Influences on the amount of the reward: how five-year-old children distribute rewards. *Japanese Journal of Psychology*, *81*, 201-209.
- Turiel, (2006). The development of morality. In W. Damon & R. M. Lerner (Series Eds.) & N. Eisenberg (Vol. Ed.), *Handbook of child psychology, Vol. 3. Social, emotional, and personality development* (6th ed., pp. 789-857). New York: Wiley.
- Ugurel-Semin, R. (1952). Moral behavior and moral judgment of children. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, *47*, 463-474.