

## Imagination: Creating Alternatives in Everyday Life

*Tania Zittoun and Alex Gillespie*

AU1  
AU2

Imagination and creativity are closely related. Creativity has recently received increased research attention (Glăveanu 2014; Glăveanu et al. 2015; Kaufman and Baer 2006; Kaufman and Beghetto 2009; Kozbelt and Durmysheva 2007; Moran and John-Steiner 2003; Sawyer et al. 2003; Sternberg 1999), while imagination has received less attention. Arguably this difference is because creativity focuses more on visible, and potentially profitable, outcomes, whereas imagination is often associated with being private, immature, and gratuitous (Piaget 1992). However, we take here the opposite stance. Following Vygotsky, we will be starting with the proposition that imagination is the psychological process at the heart of creativity, and that it is, as such, at the heart of culture:

It is precisely human creative activity that makes the human being a creature oriented toward the future, creating the future and thus altering his own present. This creative activity, based on the ability of our brain to combine elements, is called imagination or fantasy in psychology. [...] But in actuality, imagination, as the basis of all creative activity, is an important component of absolutely all aspects of cultural life, enabling artistic, scientific, and technical creation alike. (Vygotsky 1967/2004, pp. 9–10)

---

T. Zittoun (✉)  
Institute of Psychology and Education, University of Neuchâtel,  
Espace Louis-Agassiz 1, 2000 Neuchâtel, CH, Switzerland

A. Gillespie  
Department of Social Psychology, London School of Economics, 3rd Floor,  
Queens House, 55/56 Lincoln's Inn Fields, London WC2A 3LJ, UK

22 In this chapter, we will argue that a sociocultural account of imagination  
 23 can enrich the literature on creativity. Specifically, we introduce a sociocul-  
 24 tural model for conceptualizing imagination proposed by Zittoun and Gillespie  
 25 (2016). This model distinguishes the triggers, sequence, and outcomes of  
 26 imagination. We will then use this model to show how imagination is central to  
 27 the creativity of everyday life, and, moreover, how it can inform interventions  
 28 in creativity.

### 29 THE PSYCHOLOGICAL AND CULTURAL ANTECEDENTS 30 OF CREATIVITY

31 Although creativity has recently been conceptualized as a process (Glăveanu  
 32 2012; Sawyer et al. 2003), it is still predominantly defined in terms of outputs, AU3  
 33 such as ideas, artifacts, or products which are deemed to be original, surpris-  
 34 ing, and potentially valuable (Boden 1996). While there is some debate about AU4  
 35 how original something needs to be (i.e., something original within the daily  
 36 life of an individual or something original within the life of the community;  
 37 Glăveanu and Gillespie 2014) and whether being valuable is necessary, there is  
 38 a widespread assumption that creativity needs an output that can be evaluated.  
 39 This process of evaluation is not necessarily an individual process, because cre-  
 40 ativity always pertains to an output, and this output can be judged by an audi-  
 41 ence. Indeed, it has been argued that the judgment of the audience is central  
 42 to the determination of creativity (Dewey 1934; Csikszentmihalyi 1999). The  
 43 role of the audience in creativity makes it an inherently cultural and normative  
 44 phenomenon.

45 Creativity has been widely researched, as it is a key topic in the fields of edu-  
 46 cation, management, technology, and arts (Beghetto and Kaufman 2010; Craft  
 47 2000; Davies et al. 2013; Sternberg 1999). Increasingly, in the knowledge  
 48 economy, there is an emphasis on increasing innovation, and in this political  
 49 agenda, creativity is a key component. But, again, this brings us back to the  
 50 outputs of creativity; the focus is on objects, products, patents, and so on;  
 51 measurable outcomes begin to determine what creativity is. This focus on the  
 52 outputs, we suggest, has led to some oversight regarding the psychological  
 53 antecedents or conditions, specifically, the role of imagination. Imagination is  
 54 often opposed to outputs; it is seen to be unproductive, fanciful, and poten-  
 55 tially distracting. We will argue that it is precisely imagination's lack of con-  
 56 straints in terms of both outputs and reality itself then makes it an important  
 57 ingredient in the process of creativity.

58 Unlike creativity, the value of imagination resides in its very existence, inde-  
 59 pendent of any output, community judgment, or validation. Although imagi-  
 60 nation often has consequences, both emotional and practical, it is not defined  
 61 by its consequences. Imagination is an experience that can remain completely  
 62 private (Singer and Singer 1992), but it can also be shared. Accordingly, we  
 63 would argue that imagination is usually part of the process of producing some-  
 64 thing that is judged creative. Indeed, imagination is likely a necessary condi-

tion for creativity, but it is not the case that all imagination leads to creative outcomes.

Not only are imagination and creativity two different moments in a chain of events; the concepts also have different statuses. The concept of imagination designates a specific psychological process, different from other processes because of inherent properties. In contrast, the concept of creativity is a social qualification to evaluate positively certain range of conduct or their outputs. The same event can be judged creative or not depending on the values and criteria of a given community (Glăveanu and Gillespie 2014), whereas an occurrence of imagination is independent of any such judgment.

Finally, in addition to arguing for imagination as psychological phenomena and as a necessary precondition for creativity, we also want to argue for a thoroughly cultural conception of imagination, and thus, creativity. In this sense, we align with existing work that emphasizes the cultural dimension of creativity (Glăveanu 2010; Sawyer 2011). To focus on imagination is to focus on the contents of thought, on the stream of experience. When we look into this stream, we find elements that are cultural in many ways. First, much of the content of imagination pertains to imagery and ideas widely circulating in a culture. Second, the very motivations and wishes being vicariously satisfied by imagination are also often refracted through culture. Finally, even imagination that is based on the individuals' own practical experience of the world tends to be cultural because the world that was experienced is a world that has been shaped by other people, in different times and places.

### A SOCIOCULTURAL APPROACH

We adopt a perspective in which culture is not so much a question of research, as a starting and end point of our enquiry. Sociocultural psychology is developing as a new general psychology (Valsiner 2014), drawing on authors of the past that considered humans' complex inclusive separation to their social and cultural worlds (e.g., Lewin 2000; Mead 1934; Vygotsky 1986). Such psychology starts with the assumption of the uniqueness of each human person, together with its necessary location in a web of interactions with others beings, in socially and materially bounded situations. Its two specificities, compared to other interactive approaches, are its emphasis on temporal dynamics, that is, development, and on sense making, for which it pays a special attention to semiotic processes. Such emphasis enables us to analyze how socially constructed meanings or discourses eventually become psychological, and thus guiding human action, and how, conversely, a person's unique understanding or thought about the world can lead to specific activities in the world—through signs, things that designate something for a mind under some specific regard (Peirce 1974).

Drawing on Schuetz (1945, p. 552), we call "paramount reality" the taken-for-granted world in which people live. It includes the others with whom we interact, material things, physical time, and social and symbolic realities which

108 we assume to be out there. Thus, paramount reality includes the mountains  
 109 at the horizon, the educational system, the chair on which one is sitting, and  
 110 widespread ideas about too much sitting being a health hazard. People in their  
 111 interaction with paramount reality constitute “spheres of experience”. A sphere  
 112 of experience designates “a configuration of experiences, activities, represen-  
 113 tations and feelings, recurrently occurring in a given type of social (material  
 114 and symbolic) setting—it is one of the various regular, stabilized patterns of  
 115 experience in which a person is likely to engage on a regular basis” (Zittoun  
 116 and Gillespie 2016, p. 8). A sphere of experience combines the perspective of  
 117 a specific person, engaged in a specific situation with its “cultural pattern of  
 118 group life” (Schuetz 1944, p. 499).

119 If we want to account for experienced lives, we have to distinguish two types  
 120 of spheres of experience: proximal and distal (Zittoun and Gillespie 2015).  
 121 “Proximal experiences” are directly located in the paramount reality. People  
 122 are engaged in irreducible time, actions have causal consequences. Cooking  
 123 an egg, or meeting people at a café belong to proximal experiences. In con-  
 124 trast, “distal experiences” are lived as if partly, if not fully, disconnected from  
 125 the present constraints; people can imagine situations independently of their  
 126 bodily location, beyond the laws of time and space, and also, independently of  
 127 logic and causality. Dreaming, daydreaming, or being engrossed in a novel are  
 128 distal experiences. Finally, on a daily basis, people constantly alternate between  
 129 spheres of experiences; places where they sleep and wake up, the sphere of  
 130 work, specific friendships, and so on, each demanding the mastery of certain  
 131 activities, relational modes, emotional experiences, and specific values and proj-  
 132 ects. Schuetz (1945, p. 553) has called mild “shock experience” that of mov-  
 133 ing between spheres, such as falling asleep and entering in a dream, or finding  
 134 one’s way back to reality after seeing a movie. We believe that imagination is a  
 135 powerful means for traveling, at a psychological level, in and through spheres  
 136 of experiences.

### 137 IMAGINATION AS UNCOUPLING

138 Imagination has been studied as a process of seeing things in their absence  
 139 in one’s mind eyes, in a more or less accurate fashion (Descartes 1641); it  
 140 also has been seen as the process by which human can give meaning to the  
 141 impressive world in which they live and the emotions they feel (Vico 1993).  
 142 Arguably, it is a form of “stimulus independent thought” (Killingsworth and  
 143 Gilbert 2010, p. 932), in the sense that the flow of experience is not directly  
 144 guided by the proximal situation (although it might be facilitated by a sym-  
 145 bolic resource, such as a book or film). It is often seen as an emotional, slightly  
 146 irrational capacity, which soon gets tamed by reason (Piaget 1945), or possibly,  
 147 that plays a role in regret (Byrne 2005) and ruminations. Only more recently  
 148 authors have started to see its functions in its capacity of “bracketing” real-  
 149 ity (Bogdan 2013), which eventually also allows exploring alternative realities  
 150 (Singer and Singer 1992, 2005), finding some freedom from social constraints

(Cohen and Taylor 1992) or is pleasurable in itself (Oppenheim 2012). Hence, seen as creative or reproductive (James 1890; Ribot 2007), representational or embodied, negative or positive, imagination has had all possible status in the literature. Drawing on Freud, and then Vygotsky and Winnicott, we consider imagination as a dynamic which is creative, multimodal, and able to substantially expand experience (Pelaprat and Cole 2011; Zittoun and Cerchia 2013).

We conceptualize imagination as a looping experience. Imagination is “disengaging from the here-and-now of a proximal experience, which is submitted to causality and temporal linearity, to explore, or engage with alternative, distal experiences, which are not submitted to linear or causal temporality. An imagination event thus begins with a decoupling of experience and usually concludes with a re-coupling” (Zittoun and Gillespie 2016, p. 40). Defined in these terms, imagination includes dreaming, daydreaming or mind wandering, remembering, anticipating, exploring alternatives, or enjoying fiction or any other cultural experiences. Imagination is thus an embodied experience, often emotionally engaging, and potentially transformative for self and others.

### THE SEQUENCE OF IMAGINATION

Given our sociocultural approach, our aim is to study imagination as a concrete stream of experience, as something that unfolds in time, within a specific context, but also drawing upon the past and giving shape to the possible future. We have thus proposed to conceptualize imagination as a “loop”, that is, as a temporal sequence with triggers, resources, and outcomes. Before describing these three moments, and the psychological processes by which the resources are utilized to create alternatives, let us first give an example of imagination.

In the most standard case, imagination demands our consciousness to leave the proximal sphere of experience, to expand into a distal experience. For example, a person engaged in a task at work, gets bored, looks up out of the window, and starts to imagine how to refurbish his summerhouse. Here, the proximal sphere of experience is the task-at-the workplace, the trigger for disengagement is boredom, and the distal experience is the sphere of the distant house. Imagining refurbishing a summerhouse requires the person to mobilize images of his summerhouse, his experience of painting and building, his experience of houses seen, decoration catalogues browsed, memories of childhood informed by the family photo album, and so on; such a reverie might also entail constraints, such as the reality of the budget available, or the possibility of the neighbors’ disapproval. The loop ends, or experience recouples, when the daydream ends, and the present task comes back to the fore. Maybe the reverie runs its course or maybe the person’s boss appears. The outcome of the imagination might be simple relief (of having temporally escaped a boring situation) or pleasure (of enjoying the vicarious experience of refurbishment in the warm summer sun); in this case, it might also be a starting point for a series of activities, such as convincing his partner about a paint color, buying paint, or planning the work, which in turn might lead the summerhouse to become more valuable, to be sold

194 for a higher price, or starting a new a decoration trend, and so on and so forth.  
 195 In other words, the outcomes feedforward into the life trajectory, potentially  
 196 causing changes for self, others, and the material and sociocultural world.

197

### *Triggers*

198 Triggers are defined as that which provokes the disengagement from the proximal  
 199 sphere of experience. Besides boredom, ruptures—the end of the taken  
 200 for granted—can also trigger imagination: being in a new environment, or  
 201 in the dark; having a new neighbor; or becoming a parent. Third, a too high  
 202 intensity or invasive quality of a sphere of experience can trigger imagination: a  
 203 too strong pain, a too difficult task, or imprisonment, may all demand mind to  
 204 wander off. Fourth, culturally designed techniques for uncoupling experience  
 205 can be used: going to the cinema theater, taking recreational drugs, or engag-  
 206 ing in ritual or meditation, aim precisely at uncoupling from the proximal expe-  
 207 rience and engaging into a distal one.

208

### *Resources*

209 The loop of imagining itself builds upon various resources. What “nourishes”  
 210 the loop are all the past experiences, images, embodied memories, present  
 211 perceptions, that will enter in the bricolage of imagining. The most typical  
 212 resources for imagining are traces or past experiences, or personal memories—  
 213 to continue the summerhouse example, one’s memories of houses and places.  
 214 Second, uses of symbolic resources play an important role: using images seen in  
 215 books, magazines, films, or any other cultural artifact (Zittoun 2006). Third,  
 216 social representations can be used as resources for imagining (Marková 2003;  
 217 Moscovici 2000): the shared ideas, norms, and values for instances associated  
 218 to houses and tastes, likely guide people’s actions. Fourth, interpersonal rela-  
 219 tions also offer resources to give shape to imagining.

220 These four types of elements used as resources both nourish and constrain.  
 221 These elements make imagination possible, they help imagination to deploy,  
 222 but also, they circumscribe the limit of imagination within a given cultural  
 223 milieu. For instance, they forbid some types of colors or designs that would be  
 224 considered bad taste, or they more radically prevent all range of possibilities.  
 225 A given state of the paramount reality hence entails an “imaginative horizon”  
 226 (Crapanzano 2004)—a zone beyond which people do not imagine, mostly by  
 227 lack of means. For example, before photovoltaic cells were invented, one would  
 228 not imagine installing solar panels on one’s summerhouse.

229

### *Semiotic Work*

230 Imagination is a semiotic process by which various materials collected through  
 231 present, past, and vicarious experiences is mobilized and used as resources, to  
 232 give shape to an emotional, embodied experience. In addition, imagination can

be elaborated with diverse material, including complex semiotic systems mastered by a person (musical codes, rules of construction, etc.). This is why the imagination of a trained architect is different of that of a child building shelters; both draw on what knowledge and experience they have, and the semiotic systems they master, in imagining a possible house.

This semiotic process demands the creations of new forms, which can be described along two lines. First, semiotic construction functions laterally: ideas, images, meanings get assembled and transformed. Here, we can assume that the main processes involved correspond to these identifies by Freud in his analysis of the dream work (Freud 2001a, b). These include the processes of condensation, by which diverse meanings and experiences become designated by a semiotic construct which thus becomes heterogeneous; displacement, by which some meaning is displaced from one construct to another one; figuration, by which some ideas or concepts of feelings can find a concrete form; and synthesis, which gives a new unity or consistency to diverse experiences within an imaginary experience.

Second, semiotic constructs in imagination can be seen as deployed along a vertical axis of generalization. Processes of generalization are involved in imagination, both process of categorization corresponding to socially accepted classes (as when Irish shepherds, fox terrier and basset hounds become subsumed in the category of “dog”) and processes based on more experiential or emotional generalization (such as, all situations in which one feels uncomfortable) (see also the two processes of schematization and pleromatization in Valsiner 2014).

Imagination thus is a process of semiotic construction, bringing in diverse experiences to create new ones, which are emotionally laden and multimodal, and, because of this emotional and experiential involvement, may transform the experience of the person.

### *Three Dimensions*

Imagination as temporary disengagement from proximal experiences can be described as a loop, which varies in a three-dimensional field, and along three dimensions. A first dimension is time, or the temporal orientation of imagining. The act of imagining occurs as the person lives in an irreversible, physical time, defining the paramount reality and mostly the proximal experience. However, imagination precisely disconnects from the proximal experiences located in the ongoing present. It allows to explore distal experiences in the past (former proximal experiences), or to explore experiences in the future, or in a time that could have existed or could exit in a twin planet. It allows traveling forth and back, imagining how Neanderthal would live in a space rocket allowing traveling in other galaxies, or how one’s life could develop if one had studied, or not moved country. Hence, imagination is a loop that allows a disjunction from the physical time, and as such, it escapes the rules of temporality. Only, it imposes that, when a loop is ending, it comes back to the present of the person, that

276 is, the present at time  $t + n$ , the time of imagining. Hence, one can be absent  
 277 to one's mathematics class, or to one's driving, for the time of imagining. In  
 278 that sense, imagination includes remembering, anticipating, and counterfactual  
 279 reasoning.

280 The second dimension of imagining is its distance from the concrete here  
 281 and now into more general experiences, along the processes of generalization  
 282 mentioned above. Because imagination operates on semiotic material, that  
 283 semiotic stuff can be more or less indicial or indexical, or more or less symbolic  
 284 and distanced from actual occurrences. Hence, imagining whether it would  
 285 be nicer to cut one's apple horizontally or vertically demands a clear reference  
 286 to an actual apple. However, imagining making the world a better place, or  
 287 imagining a chiliagon, to use Descartes' example, are very general statements,  
 288 that do not translate immediately into actual actions or experiences, but that  
 289 can only mediate further meaning and actions. Imagination can demand more  
 290 or less distanced semiotic experience, that is, use semiotic means that refer to  
 291 further semiotic means. In that sense, exploring plans for action, or dream-  
 292 ing about a better world, are variations of imagination on the generalization  
 293 dimension.

294 The third dimension of loops of imagining defines their distance from the  
 295 paramount reality, or their plausibility. In a given social environment, with  
 296 a certain shared knowledge and certain norms, and for a given person with  
 297 skills and experience, some imagining clearly depart from what is or could  
 298 ever be possible, while other are quite likely, or could or could have been the  
 299 case. Hence, imagining that a blue hippo would pick one up after lunch to  
 300 bring one to Saturn is quite implausible; imagining how one's garden could  
 301 flourish might be more plausible. Plausibility thus depends on various mate-  
 302 rial, social, and symbolic constraints and enabling conditions. In that sense,  
 303 having precursor ideas, being creative, or being considered as mad or heretic,  
 304 depend on the implausibility of one's imagination in a given time and space  
 305 (Fig. 11.1).



AU6

306

### *Outcomes of Imagination*

307 If imagination is a disjunction triggered by various events, its loop ends when a  
 308 person's experience rejoins the present proximal situation and its course in the  
 309 physical time. One of the great interests of imagination is that such jointure  
 310 actually usually has outcomes—it slightly changes the person's experience in  
 311 the proximal world (unlike the sort or rumination that Winnicott (2001) calls  
 312 fantasizing, and that does not change the person).

313 Outcomes of imagination can have various scales and orientation. Imagination  
 314 can mainly change a person's mood (feel less tensed after imagining that one  
 315 could be sitting on a beach rather than in the tube) or her understanding of a  
 316 problem; it is thus oriented toward self. Imagination can also bring to change  
 317 one's relationship to someone else—to offer a present, to pursue a dialogue—  
 318 or it can bring to actions in the world—plant a tree, change one's movement



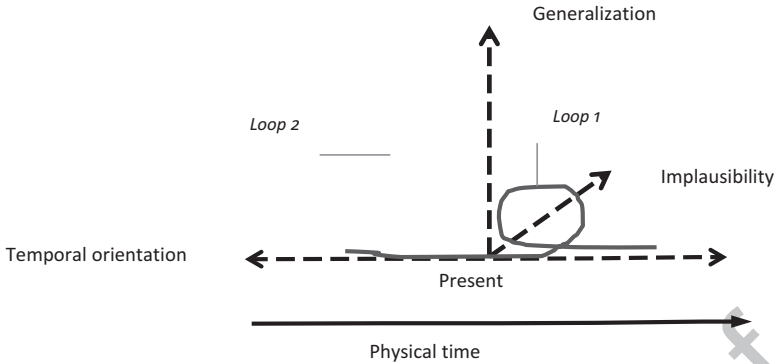


Fig. 11.1 Loops of imagination in a three-dimensional space

during an aikido lecture. It can finally be oriented toward a more general social entity, as when imagines how to limit the warming of the planet. 319 320

One could also say that some of the outcomes of imagining are microge- 321 netic: they affect how a situation keeps unfolding leading to everyday creativity 322 with a “mini-c” (Kaufman and Beghetto 2007). Some outcomes are imagi- 323 nation can play a role in the definition of possible selves, and progressively, 324 in the creation of one’s life path. Finally, imagination can have sociogenetic 325 outcomes, for instance, when the imagination of some people, such as that of 326 flying to the moon, becomes translated by semiotic artifacts, which are likely 327 to become resources for other people’s imagination, until the imagination 328 becomes a social project, then turned by some, with financial and technical 329 resources, into an actual trip to the moon—which marks a turning point in 330 the history of society. In that sense, working through and emotional change, 331 creativity, or social innovation can be seen as a continuation of imagination. 332

USING IMAGINATION TO UNDERSTAND CREATIVITY 333

Imagination and creativity intersect at the outcomes of imagination. While not all 334 outcomes of imagination are necessarily creative (i.e., respite from boredom or 335 taking a predictable course of action), all genuine creative acts, we would argue, 336 necessarily begin with the human imagination. Accordingly, we are going to focus 337 on sequences of imagination that lead to creative outcomes, specifically outcomes 338 that alter the life trajectories of an individual or the history of a community. 339

As we have seen, imagination occurs at the level of individual experience, 340 and refers to the stream of uncoupled experience within which the world as it 341 is can be reconfigured into what it might become. Accordingly, the antecedents 342 of creativity are to be found in the uncoupling of experience, and the stepwise 343 movement of imagination, carving a line between the dimensions of time, gen- 344 eralization, and plausibility. We are going to illustrate this link between imagi- 345 nation and creativity by considering creative outputs at both the level of the 346 individual and the community. 347

348 First, imagination occurs all along the lifecourse, but only some of its occur-  
 349 rences actually lead to specific actions which can change or reorient it, and thus  
 350 be seen or evaluated by others. We have called these instances of imagination  
 351 about one's life, which many enrich and transform its course, "life-creativity"  
 352 (Zittoun and de Saint-Laurent 2015). Life-creativity can thus be defined as  
 353 a way to create a life-path, that is, "refusing to be stumped by circumstances  
 354 but being imaginative in order to find a way around a problem" (Craft 2000,  
 355 pp. 3–4, quoted in Banaji et al. 2010, p. 29).

356 Second, imagination can lead to new practices and products, collectively  
 357 acknowledged as such, and then reverberated in the social group and beyond.  
 358 Creativity thus becomes innovation, feeding forward into cultural change. As  
 359 an individual act of creativity is acknowledged and valued by the community,  
 360 it becomes part of the resources that nourish future imaginings. This circular  
 361 dynamic can, as we will show, guide trans-individual traditions of imagina-  
 362 tion, with potentially huge creative societal consequences. We will now closely  
 363 examine imagination leading to creativity as these two levels, namely, at the  
 364 individual and community levels.

### 365 *Imagination as Life-Creativity*

366 Imagination occurs in different locations of the lifecourse. It can be the main  
 367 activity of a given sphere of experience, as when one is engaged in a proximal  
 368 experience of storytelling with a child, or one is at the theater. Imagination  
 369 might also be what connects or relates a proximal experience to a distal expe-  
 370 rience, for example, thinking back about a past experience or imagining the  
 371 future. Or imagination might occur precisely when one proximal experience  
 372 threatens to end, and thus the person has to envisage possible futures or alter-  
 373 natives. Because people's imaginings have specific idiosyncratic qualities, and  
 374 use as resources memories of past imagination, these can layer up, and slowly  
 375 give a specific direction to a lifecourse.

376 An example of the role of imagination in the lifecourse can be found in  
 377 the Czech documentary *Studies of marriage* (Třeštková 2009) that follows six  
 378 couples along 25 years of their married lives starting in 1980 in Communist  
 379 Czechoslovakia to end up in early 2000s in liberal Czech Republic (for a full  
 380 analysis see Zittoun [In press](#); Zittoun and Gillespie 2016, Chap. 6). In one  
 381 of the couples, Stanislav appears as a young man who deploys a lot of imagi-  
 382 nation in his leisure time, next to his work as technician and his life with his  
 383 young wife and children. With an interest for small transistors and low-voltage  
 384 installations, he progressively gets interested in more complex electronics and  
 385 computing. For instance, he builds a small telescope; now able to see the sky  
 386 from closer, he then becomes curious about what is behind. He progressively  
 387 builds a large telescope, directed by his computer, and is able to see quite far  
 388 away, which leads his imagination to the limits of our galaxy, as he imagines  
 389 what is beyond the visible galaxy and the origins of the universe. In Stanislav's  
 390 case, imagination is largely limited to a leisure time activity, and the distal imag-

ination becomes more and more mediated; by tools and knowledge, until he ends up, according to his own account, with one of the best telescopes in the Czech Republic.

On the other hand, young Stanislav transposes his interest for what is beyond the visible and the reachable in another sphere of experience. He builds, during the communist years, a satellite dish that allows him to view German TV channels. Curious of what these people said and eager to imagine their lives, he teaches himself German. Eventually, some years later, after the end of communism and the opening of a liberal market, Stanislav has to define a new occupation, as people lost their state-given jobs. As with many young adults, he then had to imagine possible life-paths for himself; to imagine himself as another, he first draws on his past leisure time occupation to imagine possibilities. He thus first tries to create a technological company, which however fails—here, imagination leads to one option which is not socially validated. Maybe the idea for a technological company was not particularly creative or original, but, nonetheless his believing in the vision and altering his life course according entailed imagination.

Later, Stanislav becomes a translator from German to Czech for a large company (Zittoun and Gillespie 2016). In that case, imagination leads to actions which are now socially accepted and validated. In other words, an outcome of his imagination—life beyond the borders—is his learning of German; and mastering German opens a new life-path, which can then be followed, when the paramount reality and the social environment acknowledged and validates that skill. In that sense, Stanislav interests for technical artifacts, and his imagination of what is beyond the given, become key constituents of his life-creativity.

### *Imagination as Cultural Creativity*

The history of our human society is filled with instances of collective imagination which fed forward into more or less creative outcomes. Indeed, the history of utopian projects is based upon a history of the human imagination (for a discussion see Zittoun and Gillespie 2016, Chap. 7). However, the example that we want to analyze briefly is the 1969 moon landing. For most of human history, the moon was not seen to be a place, certainly not a place that humans could reasonably visit. It was only after the widespread use of telescopes in the seventeenth century that it became apparent that the moon was not spherical, but instead was a landscape. The patterns observed on the surface of the moon where generalized, from earthly experience, to become mountains, valleys, and even rivers. The craters, produced by meteor impact, were thought to be, again on the basis of earthly experience, volcanos. Initial imaginations of actually traveling to this alien landscape were highly implausible. Dreams (Kepler 1608) and swans (Godwin 1638) were the initial means of transport. However, as the industrial and scientific revolutions unfolded, more plausible means were proposed (McCurdy 2011). Jules Verne (1865), *for example, calculated the details for a cannon that could shoot a projectile carrying humans* to the moon.

434 Needless the initial acceleration proved problematic. This method was taken up  
 435 and used by Miles (1902) in *Le Voyage dans la Lune*. This film, which is argu-  
 436 ably the first science fiction film, was hugely popular in both Europe and the  
 437 USA—filling the minds of viewers with vivid images of traveling to the moon,  
 438 seeing earth-rise from the moon, and encountering life on the moon. These  
 439 vivid images, arguably, provided some of the motivation and focus that would  
 440 culminate in the moon landing

441 The imagination of traveling to the moon was further nourished by the  
 442 rocketry used in World War II. The German V2 rockets, which terrorized  
 443 London, received a lot of publicity. Self-steering rockets traveling at high speed  
 444 provided the resources for imagining a new way to travel to the moon, namely  
 445 using rockets. The world's first satellite to orbit earth, in 1957, again made  
 446 space travel seem achievable. So vivid did this imagination become that, in  
 447 1961, when President Kennedy announced the plan to send people to the  
 448 moon, it was seen as ambitious, but not implausible.

449 The actual work of landing people on the moon entailed numerous creative  
 450 outputs. Solutions had to be found for how to steer the rocket, how to land  
 451 it, how to live in minimal gravity, how to maintain communication, and so on.  
 452 The interesting fact is that each creative solution to a problem was feeding  
 453 forward into making the overall imagination of landing on the moon more  
 454 vivid and plausible. Moreover, had the landing failed, then history might have  
 455 judged these innovations as less valuable, and less creative. But, the success of  
 456 the moon landing, celebrated across the globe, provided the audience legitima-  
 457 tion to say, categorically, that this was a major creative achievement.

458 At this cultural level, that is the level of a tradition of imagining landing on  
 459 the moon which spans nearly 400 years, individual acts of imagination form the  
 460 bedrock. Yet, no individual act of imagination is absolutely necessary. There  
 461 seems to have been a cultural momentum, a preferred persistent tendency  
 462 toward this imagination. And thus, individual sequences of imagination, indi-  
 463 vidual loops of imagination, give way to larger looping sequences; namely, the  
 464 outputs of one imagination feeding forward and becoming the resources for  
 465 the next loop of imagination.

#### 466 IMAGINATION AT THE CORE OF CREATIVITY

467 Following Vygotsky (2004, discussed above), we consider imagination to be  
 468 the psychological process at the heart of creativity. According to our proposi-  
 469 tion, imagination designates a basic process (i.e., uncoupling, elaborating new  
 470 semiotic constructs, and then recoupling to proximal experience) that can take  
 471 many forms and variations. In some cases, imagination can be externalized,  
 472 leading to actions or the creation of new cultural elements or even guiding  
 473 ideas and ideals. Thus, the outcomes of imagination, at the level of the life  
 474 course or the community, can actually have a guiding function, feeding into  
 475 the life of the individual or the history of society. These outputs cross over into  
 476 the domain of creativity if other people judge the outputs as creative (or if the

creator imagines an audience which gives appropriate recognition). We thus suggest that creativity designates the dynamic or the outcomes of imagination, at various scales, when these are acknowledged by social others.

The model we have proposed also allows us to conceptualize how imagination can be limited, specifically by a lack of resources, when generalization cannot be achieved, or when temporal horizons are too constrained. Also, if the outcomes of imagination are not socially acknowledged, then creativity—in the lifecourse, or as social phenomena—cannot take place.

One of the consequences of such analysis is that, in order to foster creativity, a group or a society should foster and support imagination (see also Zittoun and Gillespie 2016, Chap. 8). Supporting creativity does not only depend on developing lateral thinking techniques, brainstorming, or mind-mapping. Rather, as creativity is often the unexpected outcome of local or collective forms of imagination, then creativity can be enhanced by supporting the imagination. Specifically, imagination can be facilitated, our analysis suggests, if people have the time and place to disconnect from ongoing demands, have access to diverse resources to nourish their thoughts, and can freely play with alternatives, without being afraid of their consequences. In that sense, supporting and preserving the diversity of creations of the present and the past (i.e., books, arts, fictions, and sculptures) is a crucial part of supporting resources for imagining. Imagination needs resources, and, simply put, the more diverse and rich those resources, the more diverse and rich the human imagination. Also, creating spaces for thinking and imagining should be facilitated—but the means by which this can be done are diverse (i.e., limiting productivity demands, boredom, or major uncertainty). Tolerating individual idiosyncrasies and originalities in ways of doing and modes of expression, and therefore, people’s work of imagination, might also in the long run allow individuals to contribute in a novel manner to their lives or to society as a whole.

Conceptualizing imagination and creativity together opens up new paths for both intervention and research, and, as such, provides the justification for linking these concepts together. In the present chapter, we have begun to sketch out how this link might work at the level of psychological process, and we have illustrated it with two examples, one from the individual level and the other from a community level. Imagination, in short, is the play of ideas that can occur before any movement of actualization. Although imagination is often opposed to that which is real, in so far as individual life courses and history is made by people, then, we would argue, imagination contains the seeds of what might become real tomorrow.

[AU7]

## REFERENCES

- Beghetto, R. A., & Kaufman, J. C. (2007). Toward a broader conception of creativity: A case for “mini-c” creativity. *Psychology of Aesthetics, Creativity, and the Arts*, 1(2), 73–79.
- Beghetto, R. A., & Kaufman, J. C. (2010). *Nurturing creativity in the classroom*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

- 520 Boden, M. A. (Ed.) (1996). *Dimensions of creativity*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- 521 Bogdan, R. J. (2013). *Mindvaults: Sociocultural grounds for pretending and imagining*.  
522 Cambridge, MA.: MIT Press.
- 523 Byrne, R. M. J. (2005). *The rational imagination: How people create alternatives to real-*  
524 *ity*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- 525 Cohen, S., & Taylor, L. (1992). *Escape attempts: The theory and practice of resistance to*  
526 *everyday life* (Original 1976). London: Routledge.
- 527 Craft, A. (2000). *Teaching creativity: Philosophy and practice*. London: Routledge.
- 528 Crapanzano, V. (2004). *Imaginative horizons: An essay in literary-philosophical anthro-*  
529 *pology*. Chicago/London: The University of Chicago Press.
- 530 Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1999). Implications of a systems perspective for the study of  
531 creativity. In R. J. Sternberg (Ed.), *Handbook of creativity* (pp. 313–335). Cambridge,  
532 UK: Cambridge University Press.
- 533 Davies, D., Jindal-Snape, D., Collier, C., Digby, R., Hay, P., & Howe, A. (2013).  
534 Creative learning environments in education—A systematic literature review.  
535 *Thinking Skills and Creativity*, 8, 80–91.
- 536 Descartes, R. (1641). *Méditations métaphysiques*. PhiloSophie. Retrieved from [http://](http://www.ac-grenoble.fr/PhiloSophie/file/descartes_meditations.pdf)  
537 [www.ac-grenoble.fr/PhiloSophie/file/descartes\\_meditations.pdf](http://www.ac-grenoble.fr/PhiloSophie/file/descartes_meditations.pdf)
- 538 Dewey, J. (1934). *Art as experience*. New York: Minton, Balch & Company.
- 539 Freud, S. (2001a). On dreams (1901). In *The complete psychological works of Sigmund*  
540 *Freud* (Vol. 5, New ed., pp. 631–714). London: Vintage Classics.
- 541 Freud, S. (2001b). *The interpretation of dreams* (Vol. 4–5, New ed.). London: Vintage.
- 542 Glăveanu, V. P. (2010). Principles for a cultural psychology of creativity. *Culture &*  
543 *Psychology*, 16(2), 147–163.
- 544 Glăveanu, V. P. (2014). *Distributed creativity: Thinking outside the box of the creative*  
545 *individual*. Cham/Heidelberg: Springer International Publishing.
- 546 Glăveanu, V. P., & Gillespie, A. (2014). Creativity out of difference: Theorising semi-  
547 otic, social and temporal gaps. In V. Glăveanu, A. Gillespie, & J. Valsiner (Eds.),  
548 *Rethinking creativity: Contributions from cultural psychology* (pp. 1–15). London:  
549 Routledge.
- 550 Glăveanu, V. P., Gillespie, A., & Valsiner, J. (Eds.) (2015). *Rethinking creativity:*  
551 *Perspectives from cultural psychology*. London: Routledge.
- 552 Godwin, F. (1971). *The man in the moon*. Menston: Scolar Press. (Original work pub-  
553 lished 1638)
- 554 James, W. (1890). *The principles of psychology* (Vol. II). New York: Dover publications.
- 555 Kaufman, J. C., & Baer, J. (Eds.) (2006). *Creativity and reason in cognitive develop-*  
556 *ment*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- 557 Kaufman, J. C., & Beghetto, R. A. (2009). Beyond big and little: The four c model of  
558 creativity. *Review of General Psychology*, 13(1), 1–12. doi:10.1037/a0013688.
- 559 Killingsworth, M. A., & Gilbert, D. T. (2010). A wandering mind is an unhappy mind.  
560 *Science*, 330, 932.
- 561 Kozbelt, A., & Durmysheva, Y. (2007). Lifespan creativity in a non-western artistic  
562 tradition: A study of Japanese Ukiyo-e printmakers. *The International Journal of*  
563 *Aging & Human Development*, 65(1), 23–51.  
564 doi:10.2190/166N-6470-1325-T341.
- 565 Lewin, K. (2000). *Resolving social conflicts & field theory in social science* (Original pub-  
566 lication 1948 & 1951). Washington, DC American Psychological Association (APA).
- 567 Marková, I. (2003). *Dialogicality and social representations: The dynamics of mind*.  
568 Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- McCurdy, H. E. (2011). *Space and the American imagination*. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press. 569-570
- Mead, G. H. (1934). In C. W. Morris (Ed.), *Mind, self and society, from the standpoint of a social behaviorist*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press. 571-572
- Moran, S., & John-Steiner, V. (2003). Creativity in the making: Vygotsky's contemporary attribution to the dialectic of development and creativity. In R. K. Sawyer, V. John-Steiner, S. Moran, R. J. Sternberg, D. H. Feldman, J. Nakamura, & Csikszentmihalyi (Eds.), *Creativity and development* (pp. 61-90). New York: Oxford University Press. 573-577
- Moscovici, S. (2000). In G. Duveen (Ed.), *Social representations: Studies in social psychology*. Cambridge: Polity Press. 578-579
- Oppenheim, L. (2012). *Imagination from fantasy to delusion*. New York: Routledge. 580
- Peirce, C. S. (1974). *Collected papers of Charles Sanders Peirce* (Vol. 5). Harvard: Harvard University Press. 581-582
- Pelapat, E., & Cole, M. (2011). "Minding the gap": Imagination, creativity and human cognition. *Integrative Psychological and Behavioral Science*, 45, 397-418. doi:10.1007/s12124-011-9176-5. 583-585
- Piaget, J. (1992). *La formation du symbole chez l'enfant: Imitation, jeu et rêve, image et représentation* (8e éd, ed. originale 1945). Delachaux & Niestle. 586-587
- Ribot, T. (2007). *Essai Sur L'imagination Créatrice (1900)*. Paris: L'Harmattan. 588
- Sawyer, R. K. (2011). *Explaining creativity: The science of human innovation*. Oxford: Oxford University Press. 589-590
- Sawyer, R. K., John-Steiner, V., Moran, S., Sternberg, R. J., Feldman, D. H., Nakamura, J., et al. (2003). *Creativity and development*. New York: Oxford University Press. 591-592
- Schuetz, A. (1944). The stranger: An essay in social psychology. *American Journal of Sociology*, 49(6), 499-507. doi:10.2307/2771547. 593-594
- Schuetz, A. (1945). On multiple realities. *Philosophy and Phenomenological Research*, 5(4), 533-576. doi:10.2307/2102818. 595-596
- Singer, D. G., & Singer, J. L. (1992). *The house of make-believe: Children's play and the developing imagination*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press. 597-598
- Singer, D. G., & Singer, J. L. (2005). *Imagination and play in the electronic age*. Cambridge, MA/London: Harvard University Press. 599-600
- Sternberg, R. J. (1999). *Handbook of creativity*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press. 601-602
- Třeštíkova, H. (2009). *Manželské etudy + po dvaceti letech. 2 dokumentární cykly*. [Studies of marriage + twenty years later. 2 documentary cycles]. Documentaire, Praha: Česká televize/Negativ s.r.o. 603-605
- Valsiner, J. (2014). *An invitation to cultural psychology*. London: Sage. 606
- Verne, J. (2009). *From the earth to the moon*. Mineola: Dover Publications. (Original work published 1865). 607-608
- Vico, G. (1993). *L'Antique sagesse de l'Italie (1710)*. B. Pinchard (Ed.), (trans: Michelet, J.). Paris: Flammarion. (Original work 1710). 609-610
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1986). In A. Kozulin (Ed.), *Thought and language*. (Revised). Cambridge, MA: MIT Press. 611-612
- Vygotsky, L. S. (2004). Imagination and creativity in childhood. *Journal of Russian and East European Psychology*, 42(1), 7-97. (Original Russian publication 1967). 613-614
- Winnicott, D. W. (2001). *Playing and reality*. Philadelphia/Sussex: Routledge. 615
- Zittoun, T. (2006). *Transitions. Development through symbolic resources*. Greenwich: Information Age Publishing. 616-617

- 618 Zittoun, T. (~~In press~~). Imagining self in a changing world – An exploration of “Studies  
619 of marriage”. In M. Han & C. Cunha (Eds.), *The subjectified and subjectifying mind*.  
620 Zittoun, T., & Cerchia, F. (2013). Imagination as expansion of experience. *Integrative  
621 Psychological and Behavioral Science*, 47(3), 305–324. doi:10.1007/  
622 s12124-013-9234-2.
- 623 Zittoun, T., & de Saint-Laurent, C. (2015). Life-creativity : Imagining one’s life. In  
624 V. P. Glăveanu, A. Gillespie, & J. Valsiner (Eds.), *Rethinking creativity: Contributions  
625 from cultural psychology* (pp. 58–75). Hove/New York: Routledge.
- 626 Zittoun, T., & Gillespie, A. (2015). *Integrating experiences: Body and mind moving  
627 between contexts*. In B. Wagoner, N. Chaudhary, & P. Hviid (Eds.), *Integrating expe-  
628 riences: Body and mind moving between contexts* (pp. 3–49). Charlotte: Information  
629 Age Publishing.
- 630 Zittoun, T., & Gillespie, A. (2016). *Imagination in human and cultural development*.  
631 London: Routledge.



# Author Queries

Chapter No.: 11 0002814429

Queries	Details Required	Author's Response
AU1	Please provide the email address for the corresponding author.	tania.zittoun@unine.ch
AU2	Please check if author affiliations are okay.	ok
AU3	Please provide details of Glaveanu (2012), Piaget (1945), Kaufman and Beghetto (2007), Banaji et al. (2010) in the reference list.	edited
AU4	Boden (1986) has been changed to Boden (1996) as per the reference list. Please check if okay.	ok
AU5	The sentence "Imagination is a semiotic process by which various materials..." has been edited for better clarity. Kindly check whether the changes convey the intended meaning.	ok
AU6	Please check if the inserted citation for Fig. 11.1 is okay.	proposed move
AU7	Please cite Beghetto and Kaufman (2007) in text.	now ok
AU8	Please provide the publisher location and name for Zittoun (In Press).	done