

1 Imagination: A Creative Tool to Achieve Meaningful 2 Understanding of New Information

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6

7 **Abstract**

8 This paper discusses how imagination mediates children's understanding of new knowledge.
9 Through a theoretical framework based on Vygotsky's concept of "creative imagination", this
10 study looks at children's imagination as a way to make new information meaningful. Verbal
11 stimuli, a story about the world read by four Kindergarten teachers provide grounds to
12 investigate how children's imagination gives meaning to new information. The paper reports
13 the findings of a research project that compares and analyses the use of reading groupwork in
14 four kindergarten schools, two in Burgos, Spain and two in Tampico, México. We begin by
15 providing the theoretical stance that supports the study. Next, we explain the methodology
16 used in the study. The data is then discussed and interpreted. While Imagination appears to
17 be a source of information, it seems to be a process generated between the teacher and the
18 student stemming from teacher's requests.

19

20 **Index terms**— cognitive processes, preschool education, information management, imagination, joint
21 construction of knowledge, narratives.

22 **1 Introduction**

23 In this paper we will discuss how imagination mediates children's understanding of new knowledge. Through
24 a theoretical framework based on Vygotsky's concept of "creative imagination", this study looks at children's
25 imagination as a way to make new information meaningful. Verbal stimuli, a story about the world read by
26 four Kindergarten teachers provide grounds to investigate how children's imagination gives meaning to new
27 information. The paper reports the findings of a research project that compares and analyses the use of reading
28 group-work in four kindergarten schools, two in Burgos, Spain and two in Tampico, México. We begin by
29 providing the theoretical stance that supports the study. Next, we explain the methodology used in the study.
30 The data is then discussed and interpreted. While the study suggests that Imagination is a source of information,
31 this appears to be a process generated between the teacher and the student; stemming from teacher's requests.

32 **2 II.**

33 **3 Theoretical Stance**

34 Author : Avda Cantabria 51, 2nd F2 CP: 09006 Burgos. E-mail : jr2000x@yahoo.es Human activity does not limit
35 itself to reproduce facts or lived events. It creates new images and actions. The amalgamation of imagination
36 and language allows for a new kind of dialogue which accepts exchange and the collection of a series of situations
37 that are imaginable, "the distant past and future, the magic and impossible" ??Harris, 2005:209).

38 The brain has the capacity of re-developing and creating new forms and approaches to newly encountered events
39 which we interpret and understand based on past experiences. An example of this would be when we pretend
40 to ride a horse using a broom. Imagination constitutes a "specifically human form of conscious activity". Like
41 all other functions of knowledge, it originally stems from "action" (Vygotsky, 1989:141) and it can be discovered

42 "while thinking creatively, because other people push us to do so" ??Tough, 1989:205). The "combinative" 43 capacity exercised when one gives form to the figments of imagination together with technical knowledge and 44 traditions are the "models of creation that influence human beings reflecting the creative work which constitutes 45 a "consecutive historical process where each new form is supported by previous ones". "Creative-combinatory" 46 activity does not happen suddenly. It appears slowly and gradually, growing from simple and elemental forms 47 to more complex ones. Vygotsky (1990) explains "the mechanism of creative imagination" as four stages in the 48 process of creation: a mixture of elements taken from previous experiences; products developed from fantasy and 49 certain complex phenomena from reality; those stemming from emotions; and those that arise from images that 50 crystallize as a form of reality.

51 Imagination is one of the main forms children use to make things meaningful and to express information. It is 52 their way of making new knowledge meaningful; story reading and discussion become stimuli for new experiences, 53 as is the case in this investigation. If we want to stimulate a "sense of signifying and interest in relation to reality", 54 we must explore why fantasy worlds are "so significant and interesting"; we also need to find how to use "what 55 we learn for educational purposes" ??Egan, 1994:53).

56 episodes may incorporate images from other stories, films or television series. An emotional subtext 57 ??Gonzalez, 2006 ??Gonzalez, , 2007)) emerges from the interpretation of the story's central conflict and 58 the emotional association of an individual's previous experiences. Imagination constitutes a "new psychological 59 process" for the child. It represents a "specifically human form of conscious activity". Like all other forms of 60 knowledge, it stems originally from "action" ??Vygotsky, 1989:141). The use of imagination can be discovered 61 "when thinking creatively because other people push you to do so" allowing the individual to live experiences 62 that help them to discover new ways and the satisfaction of using creative expressions.

63 The capacity that children have to see themselves as the protagonist of a story in their own context is a function 64 of how the child transfers previous knowledge to a new context; for that, they need to begin with minimum "direct 65 and relevant experiences". The process begins through the creative use of language transcending mechanistic 66 levels, "signaling and emission" ??Tough, 1989:205). Some children, a minority though, work with words in 67 symbolic and playful ways enabling the understanding of metaphors. Previous knowledge and tales' messages 68 enable children to project themselves over the main acts of the protagonists. To understand new information, 69 children do not seem to retrieve information from existing memory models because they have never come across 70 those events; therefore, they construct and update previous models for new situations. At school, this seems to 71 happen when their teachers guide them through their assertions.

72 The situational model (Harris, 2005) establishes a complementary and collaborative relationship between 73 simulation and language. Swan (1999) suggests the same for narratives showing that when adults process a 74 fictional story, they construct, in their imagination, a mental model of the narrative. As the narrative develops, 75 they update that situational model maintaining a good level of understanding of the main arguments. When 76 listeners or readers construct a situational model, they usually imagine a developing scene from a particular 77 spatial-temporal locus. This "deictic centre" is usually selected based on the actions of the main protagonist. 78 Objects or other characters in the story, close to the protagonist, are found at the front. Actions that attract the 79 listener and which were either heard or about to happen, are accessed while previous information is retrieved. 80 Finally, adults insert causal conations between actions and successive episodes even if conations are not explicit 81 in the narrative. Children exhibit similar cognitive processes when they are engaged in simulation games.

82 According to Harris (2005) the similarities between the way an adult processes a narrative and the way children 83 compromise an imaginative situation is not a coincidence. During the process of linguistic development, children 84 need to build a situational model not only when they listen to a narrative, but also when they encounter connected 85 discourses like deictic centers, the here and now. These include fairy tales and conversations which may involve 86 collective discussions of events observed by children. To understand new information in those conversations, 87 children cannot retrieve existing situational models. There is not a situational model because the child has never 88 encountered the event being described. Thus, the child has to construct and update a situational model guided 89 by the assertions of the interlocutor (Egan, 1994;Rodari, 1980Rodari, , 2000)). The capacity to set aside objective 90 reality and construct a situational model that is accessible, suggest that children's comprehension is a displayed 91 narrative chain within the context of the simulation. Apparently, conversation is one of the most complex and 92 transparent vehicles through which others can learn about our thoughts.

93 4 III.

94 5 The Study

95 To help us establish if imagination can act as the source of children's comprehension of stories, we first draw on 96 a qualitative description of several didactic sequences that show the process of communication in the classroom. 97 Using a quantitative approach, we analyzed and compared the evolution of the strategies children used to make 98 sense of the story.

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101 7 Year 2013

102 Imagination: A Creative Tool to Achieve Meaningful Understanding of New Information Research was carried
103 out in two periods of time, ??002-2003 and 2005-2006. We observed and recorded classes three times along these
104 two periods. The objective was to uncover the evolution of existing scaffolding processes between teachers and
105 students. The study took place in four classrooms; two urban public schools in Burgos, Spain and two public
106 schools in Tampico, Mexico. A common characteristic among these schools is that they foster reading programs.
107 These four schools were located in medium to low class suburbs where most of the population is young couples
108 (average age 30). Several research studies suggest that social class may be an influence in the level of reading
109 comprehension (Boron, 2005), a variable also highlighted by ??onzalez (2006 ??onzalez (, 2009)).

110 Classroom observations focused on six groups of three children each. Participants were chosen at random
111 by classroom teachers. Recorded sessions (72) involved 11,614 conversational turns during classroom reading
112 sessions, four weeks before the end of term.

113 Teachers used the same activity. The activity involved reading a suggested story; reading was followed by a
114 discussion with each group. The teacher divided the class in groups of three, read the selected text and established
115 the objective of the discussion process. Teachers read for about three or four minutes () G (this part was not
116 considered for the analysis). The component considered for this study took place after that when the teacher
117 initiated the discussion. To observe children's reactions to words and voice resources that teachers drew on,
118 the story's drawings and frames were not taken into consideration. To select narratives we chose Van Dijk and
119 Kitsch's (1983) criteria: the stories' macrostructure clarity, degree of redundancy, theme, source quality, style,
120 novelty, ethical pertinence, lexis and length.

121 Data from recorded classroom dialogues was transcribed keeping track of prosodic and paralinguistic
122 components: pauses and intonation, negative and affirmative gestures, finger and arm signals, head and body
123 movements. Emerging categories became unit of analysis. We followed the same process for each story read to
124 the groups. The defined categories are exhaustive and exclusive (Anguera, 1992), flexible and defined.

125 To discriminate categories that were not relevant, it was necessary to analyze again the conversations. To
126 have excluding categories, we considered categories belonging to only one dimension of analysis. This allowed
127 us to observe multiple combinations among categories which enabled a multifunctional categorization. We then
128 codified every recorded session. This was done by the main researcher and two psychologists who were not part
129 of the study; the role of these psychologists was to obtain a more objective view. As we analyzed data, we found
130 that there was a 98% agreement between the main researcher and the two psychologists.

131 To compare data from the observations we interviewed each teacher during the last week of the school term.
132 Our purpose was to confirm the objectives set by each teacher at the beginning of the investigation and gather
133 information about their teaching style. The interview was divided in three parts. In the first part we analyzed
134 their teaching style and how this was enacted while narrating and discussing. For the second part we gathered
135 information about the objectives teachers had previously set. In the last part teachers explained their views
136 about the events (see Appendix).

137 IV.

138 8 Defining Categories

139 The categorization process involved a progressive systematization of emerging items to define flexible, exhaustive
140 and exclusive categories (Angora, 1990). To achieve this aim, we inductively generated the observation criteria
141 of the recorded sessions we Considered relevant and which rendered dimensions of analysis we used. Once the
142 dimensions of analysis were defined, we returned to the conversations to analyze their internal variation. This
143 approach allowed us to discriminate the categories that constituted them. After defining the categories to be
144 used, we codified each of the recorded sessions.

145 9 a) Imagination as source of information

146 We found that when imagination is seen as a source of information used by children which may enable them to
147 project themselves in an action or a conflict stemming from the narrative, the process usually involves a teacher's
148 request: "Imagine that you are the main character, what would you have done in this situation?"

149 To find connections with Vygotsky's (1990) "mechanism of creative imagination" we analyzed four links. The
150 first refers to the connections between previous experience and creativity, assuming that creativity processes are
151 construed over elements of previous experiences. When children project themselves as the main character, they
152 reveal previously lived events (Turns 1671 and 1675) as Table 1 The second link refers to the connection between
153 complex elements from reality and products of fantasy. Children apparently generate products from fantasy and
154 complex phenomena from reality. Table 2 shows a sequence where children first make an analogy with their
155 school and then they imagine the story's school. The third connection consists of two laws. One where feelings
156 influence imagination and a second one where imagination influences feelings. They are the Law of common
157 emotional sign and the Law of emotional representation of reality.

158 For the Law of common emotional sign, every emotion tends to manifest itself in agreement with certain
159 images and ideas which are consistent with the individual's mood. The best way to observe changes and reasons
160 behind the actions taken by a character is through the mood that dominates it. Perceiving their mood is a way

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161 of discovering what pushes the character to do something. Remembering a dream may provide material to be
162 used by our memory when linking emotions and images as data in Table 3 suggests. Year 2013

163 According to the Law of emotional representation of reality, all forms of creative representation involve affective
164 elements. This emotional implication is provoked by the children's animism of their interpretation of the world
165 which gives color, movement and life to everything they imagine as data provided in Table 4 seems to imply.
166 Finally, the fourth link refers to fantasy. Fantasy can create something completely new that has not been part of
167 human experience. When the image is transformed into an object, it begins to exist in the world and influences
168 other objects. This is the most elaborated form of a creative process. Data (Turns 761, 773) shows how Fernando
169 creates a magic narrative parallel to the story he has just listened to. The parallel narrative involves the teacher
170 who tries to get involved in the magical interpretation providing more details (Table 5). Furthermore, it involves
171 the rest of the group (Turns 781 and 787). ()G

172 It seems that children's capacity to imagine is influenced by their stage of mental evolution. Vygotsky
173 (1990) describes an infant's syncretism as a characteristic of their thoughts with which they invent and imagine,
174 particularly everything they say. In the transcription, Alva constructs a narrative based on images and experiences
175 (Turn 762, 773). Using conditional linguistic structures, the teacher mediates the children's construction of the
176 main character (Turn 761). The teacher exhorts the children to situate themselves in the tale's store. They do so
177 remembering experiences or previously lived knowledge within the classroom, or relying on anecdotes or personal
178 events. These become new imagined situations which could happen. Having described our understanding of
179 imagination, we will introduce a brief description of its developmental process which was a useful tool to interpret
180 the data. b) Imagination's developmental process: strategies and formats Imagination's developmental process
181 is formed by two sub-dimensions. The first one is strategies, actions that refer to the individual who provides the
182 information; the second sub-dimension is developmental formats or levels of development or abstraction of the
183 information. Both sub-dimensions respond to the questions: Does the statement contribute to the development
184 of the conversation? How is the discourse constructed? Developmental strategies are actions taken to elaborate
185 on information from each conversational turn. They tend to complement information already given; each action
186 taken by an interlocutor influences what follows. These strategies or actions are categorized as two processes:

187 ? What is given or the strategies that support previously known information. This is done through repetition
188 which is a strategy used to reiterate information already given in a conversation. A second strategy is reproduction
189 which involves recovering information from the reading, or from previous experiences. It is information from
190 memory. Complex developmental formats involve Episodes which link two or more sequences. They make
191 reference to time and the logical sequencing of a story.

192 The second developmental formal is Main meaning. This is the message or moral. It connects the author's
193 purpose when writing the story with the teacher's objective while reading and discussing the story.

194 At another level, there are developmental request formats. These are the complete narrative which refers to
195 the story's global evaluation. The second is a Call for information. This refers to the process of open elicitation
196 of information about aspects that the children liked the most.

197 We begin this section with the global percentages for each group observed. After that, we analyze the results for
198 all categories; then, we look at percentages of kinds of information which contributed more to the discourse. We
199 explain the distribution of the turns comparing between groups A and B (Spain) and groups C and D (Mexico).

200 After categorizing and contrasting interview data, we carried out a quantitative analysis and a comparison of
201 the evolution of the information sources from the four groups observed during the reconstruction of the story. To
202 do that, we used SPSS. Keeping in mind that the objective of the study was exploratory and not experimental,
203 we compared groups and did not have control groups. Future research would necessarily call for a rigorous
204 replication of the study following the interventions and the children's development through frequent evaluation.

205 To present the results of this study we will first look at the Evolution of the use of imagination. Table 6
206 presents percentages of how the two groups of Spanish children used imagination as a source of information.

207 V. Regarding the Mexican groups of children, their evolution was different as Table 7 suggests. Percentage of
208 imagination used as a form of information within these groups is lower than that of the Spanish children in group
209 B (Table 6). When looking at the result from the analysis of the Mexican groups we found that groups C and
210 D displayed a wider range of strategies as Table 9 demonstrates. For their teachers, the children's imagination
211 appears to stem from previous knowledge rather than re-elaboration. There was a smaller percentage of the use
212 of imagination stemming from the children's constructions. The discourse seemed to be superficial, less developed
213 and children played more with the information given in the text. 10 and 11).

214 10 Data Analysis and Results

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216 While Group A used episodes, in group B we found that the dominant format was the sequence; however, it is
217 not possible to reach a conclusion given that there were few events. Of all the events based on imagination, only
218 24.5% focused on details. The teacher would stop at any point in the story and elicited details with little or no
219 relationship to the story's messages. However, only the most fluent children were able of elaborating episodes,
220 chains of sequences where they could let their imagination act. The use of episodes involved rich and elaborated
221 turns; the child added important quantities of new information to the discussion. In groups C and D we observed

222 that children focused more on details than the Spanish children in groups A and B. Sequences were the preferred
223 formats for the groups of children who did not tend to develop episodes. In fact, Mexican children seldom
224 participated in a conversation with more than a few phrases per turn. The resulting formats were the product of
225 the strategies used and thus closely related; simple formats appear to correlate with the use of strategies based
226 on text information.

227 **12 DEVELOPMENTAL**

228 **13 VI. Conclusion**

229 Imagination as a source of information appears to be a process generated between the teacher and the child; the
230 process seems to be based on requests made by the teacher. It is a projection rooted on meaningful conflicts
231 experienced by the protagonist. This type of information helps unravel the children's interests about the story as
232 they talk about topics that catch their attention. To see how children at a lower level of evolution develop this
233 particular ability, it seems necessary to carry a longitudinal study to observe children throughout their six years
234 of basic education. Data from group B demonstrate that at this age children can generate information based on
235 the persons' projection based on new situations. An understanding of the children's capacity to respond in a
236 discussion, informs the teacher on the kind of support children might need to project or to imagine themselves in
237 a narrative's conflictive situations. We have discussed the meaning of values based on children's universal rights:
238 family and adoption, identity and belonging, parental care and attention. Through events narrowly linked to the
239 children's realities, concealed within colorful and dynamic magical moments that capture the children's attention
240 and more importantly provide grounds to develop the capacity to sequence interdependent events present in the
241 narrative, Teacher B managed to promote the children's ability to project around other people's experiences,
242 feelings, characters' 1-5). This teacher apparently enhanced the children's ability to imagine actions rooted in
243 real life situations as well as imagined ones without explicit reference to personal experiences.

244 Children's fantasy at this age seems to be one of the most significant and active parts of their mental life.
245 Through the analysis of the children's verbal imagination, we confirmed within the limits of our study, how
246 Vygotsky's (1990) "mechanism of creative imagination" functions. If we compare an adult's fantasy with that
247 of a child, their products differ; for instance, the low number of possible combinations between experiences and
248 previous knowledge. Children appear to believe more in the product of their fantasy (Vygotsky, 1990(Vygotsky,
249 , 2005)).

250 Many classroom activities cannot begin with an observation task; tasks require that children imagine unknown
251 people, places and activities. These may be real, like when they have to discover the environment; they can be
252 part of history; or they might be functioned as in literature. However, to project in new situations, children use
253 as support, relevant direct experience. This should be one of the teacher's roles; the teacher should offer children
254 adequate information using books and maybe other information resources. Dialogues and narratives may also be
255 used, depending on the children's needs. The latter acts as scaffolding while children explore experiences that
256 otherwise would not be accessible to them (Tough, 1989). As made evident in the transcribed examples (Tables
257 1-5) and the results (Tables 7-11) only teacher B opted for imagination as a resource.

258 Teacher A does not perceive this type of information part of the activity's objectives. Results from group B
259 suggest a progressive percentile fall in the use of imagination as source of information or as type of information
260 (Tables 6 and 7). The reason might be that as the activity evolves, the focus is more on previous reading and
261 on the fact that children have acquired a larger number of experiences that allow them to associate the story's
262 events; it also increases the need to retell a previous event as initial inhibition decreases (Bruner, 2004).

263 The main difference between the Spanish and Mexican groups when elaborating information rooted in the
264 children's imagination is that Spanish groups used strategies supported by new knowledge; these were teachers'
265 re-developments and children's contributions. It seems that only Spanish children were able to elaborate episodes;
266 that is, several phrases in one conversational turn (Tables 7-11). Apparently, the dominant way of developing
267 imagination among these 5-6 year old groups of children is through the re-elaboration of previous experiences.
268 With the teacher's support, children developed the capacity to project a situation described by the story's author
269 that stemmed from real experiences.

270 We also observed a relationship between experiences and imagination. They appear to feed each other (Bruner,
271 2004). Through the use of imagination and previous experiences it seems possible to help children develop scenes
272 of life happening in places and times that are not theirs. This could offer a new role of their experiences: new
273 situations emerge when experiences are combined with text information. This type of information may also be
274 considered new: imagination, which may be real or imaginary.

275 In the representation model described by Harris (2005) simulations are said to be a good path to access and
276 develop the imagination of children between 5 and 6 years of age. It could be said that teacher B managed to
277 establish such a path. She requests each child to take the place of the main character. In this manner, she
278 establishes a verbal simulation game. The latter initiates an exploration of possible worlds; it is a way to search
279 for coherent and consequential alternatives. At this age, stage simulations appear to be suitable to access and
280 develop children's imagination. Simulation establishes possibilities to search for life's alternatives (Harris, 2005).

281 The evolution of the explicit and the implicit suggests an exercise of autonomy when work is based on evidence
282 allowing us to work on suppositions. This opens spaces to develop and exercise our imagination and memory to

283 create and construct a part of reality that is still manifesting itself. This evolving step may open spaces to other
284 possible worlds beyond repetition and reproduction of the same models.

285 New questions arise. The first one is to think if one of the causes of failure in the classroom relates to
286 a disconnection between the children's habitual activity and the school's curricular content. Future research
287 should question if the teacher really becomes "a dynamic educator, mediator and intercommunication tactician
288 who provokes situations" ??Rosary, 1980). We should also ask if the teacher actually presents artistic material
289 to stimulate the children's capacity to be amazed or astonished. The critical question would be if material can
290 generate multiple didactic approaches (Egan, 1991(Egan, , 1994)) or if it is just another exercise to reproduce
291 the same question-evaluation scheme (Mercer, 1997).

292 **14 Bibliografía**

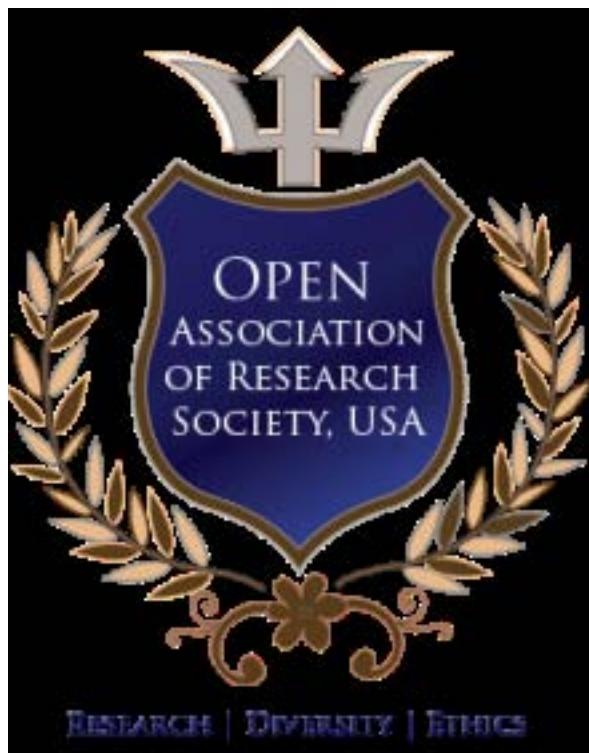


Figure 1:

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[Note: g]

Figure 2: Table 1 :

293 1

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Turn	Speaker
2109	TEACHER Yes, I think so. This way all the children would eat, wouldn't they, Daniel?
2110	ALEJANDRA Otherwise, what a story.
2111	TEACHER Yes, what a story. They would starve to death, right? And to sleep, where would the children sleep if they had to stay at school all the time?
2112	ALICIA On the carpet.
2113	DANIEL They could take a sleeping bag.
2114	ALICIA And they would keep warm with something they had there.

Figure 3: Table 2 :

3

Turn	Speaker
4471	ALEJANDRA I had a really nice dream.
4472	TEACHER Would you like to tell us your dream?
4473	ALEJANDRA Yes well, I was playing with Jesus.
4474	ALICIA Yes, Jesus doesn't have toys, kiddo.
4475	TEACHER But she was playing without toys, can you play without toys?
4476	DANIEL Yes, like hide and seek.
4477	ALEJANDRA Yes, we were playing hide and seek in the clouds.

Figure 4: Table 3 :

4

Turn	Speaker
3875	TEACHER Esther, Esther, she hasn't told us anything, how would the invisible girl look like? Before becoming invisible, of course.
3876	ESTHER Pause
3877	TEACHER What color would her face be?
3878	ESTHER Pink.

Figure 5: Table 4 :

5

Turn	Speaker
767	TEACHER And Fernando, how would you protect the child?
768	FERNANDO Well,

[Note: I would find a magic tree, open the door and I would send him to another country.]

Figure 6: Table 5 :

6

Figure 7: Table 6

7

Figure 8: Table 7 :

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[Note: G]

Figure 9: Table 8 :

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Figure 10: Table 9

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Figure 11: Table 10 :

Imagination's Developmental Strategies in Mexico						
GROUP C				GROUP D		
STRATEGIES	Teacher	Children	Total	Teacher	Children	Total
REPETITION	54,5%	23,5%	49%	49,5%	26,2%	38,5%
REPRODUCTION	5,9%	12,1%	6%	7,8	9,8%	9,2%
WORKING	34,6%	5,5%	23,4%	43,7%	7,2%	24,6%
THROUGH						
CONTRIBUTION	4%	53,9%	23,6%		54,2%	30,7%
Total	100% (131)	100% (164)	100% (295)	100% (87)	100% (119)	100% (206)
Imagination's Developmental Formats in Spain						
DETAILS OF				GROUP		
A				B		
DEVELOPMENTAL	Teacher	Children	Total	Teacher	Children	Total
FORMATS		n				
SEQUENCE				23%	25,7%	24,5%
EPISODES	16,7%		54,5%	62,4%	64,3%	63,5%
MAIN MEANING	83,3%	100%	45,5	14,6%	9,8%	11,9%
COMPLETE						
NARRATIVE						
CALL FOR INFOR-					0,2%	0,1%
MATION.						
DEVELOPMENTAL						
FORMAT						
Total	100% (6)	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
		(5)	(11)	(479)	(614)	(1093)
DETAILS OF				GRUPO C		
GRUPO D				GRUPO D		
DEVELOPMENT	Teacher	Children	Total	Teacher	Children	Total
FORMATS						
SEQUENCE	37,1%	51,2%	46,1%	43%	37,3%	39,5%
EPISODES	17,7%	46,7%	34,3%	53,4%	61,2%	58,6%
MAIN MEANING	8,6%		4,3%	2,6%	0,6%	0,9%
COMPLETE	2,7%	2,1%		1,1%	0,7%	
NARRATIVE						
CALL FOR INFOR-						
MATION.						
DEVELOPMENT	27,9%		13,9%			
FORMATS						
Total	100% (131)	100% (164)	100% (295)	100% (87)	100% (119)	100% (206)

Figure 12: Table 11 :

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