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The scientific study of inspiration in the creative process: Challenges and opportunities

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7 Williamsburg, VA, 23187-8795, USA
8 tmthra@wm.edu9 **Keywords:** *inspiration, creativity, insight, effort, approach motivation.*10 **Abstract**

11 Inspiration is a motivational state that compels individuals to bring ideas into fruition. Creators have
12 long argued that inspiration is important to the creative process, but until recently, scientists have not
13 investigated this claim. In this article, we review challenges to the study of creative inspiration, as
14 well as solutions to these challenges afforded by theoretical and empirical work on inspiration over
15 the past decade. First, we discuss the problem of definitional ambiguity, which has been addressed
16 through an integrative process of construct conceptualization. Second, we discuss the challenge of
17 how to operationalize inspiration. This challenge has been overcome by the development and
18 validation of the Inspiration Scale, which may be used to assess trait or state inspiration. Third, we
19 address ambiguity regarding how inspiration differs from related concepts (creativity, insight,
20 positive affect) by discussing discriminant validity. Next, we discuss the preconception that
21 inspiration is less important than “perspiration” (effort), and we review empirical evidence that
22 inspiration and effort both play important—but different—roles in the creative process. Finally, with
23 many challenges overcome, we argue that the foundation is now set for a new generation of research
24 focused on neural underpinnings. We discuss potential challenges to and opportunities for the
25 neuroscientific study of inspiration. A better understanding of the biological basis of inspiration will
26 illuminate the process through which creative ideas “fire the soul,” such that individuals are
27 compelled to transform ideas into products and solutions that may benefit society.

28

29 1. **Introduction**

30 Describing his creative process, Mozart observed, “Those ideas that please me I retain in
31 memory, and am accustomed, as I have been told, to hum them to myself. If I continue in this way,”
32 he writes, “it soon occurs to me how I may turn this or that morsel to account so as to make a good
33 dish of it... All this fires my soul” (Jahrgang, 1815). Mozart’s depiction of inspiration possesses all
34 of the core elements of the modern scientific inspiration construct—appreciation of new or better
35 possibilities (“ideas that please me”), passive evocation (“it...occurs to me”), and motivation to bring
36 the new possibilities into fruition (turning a morsel into a dish; “fires my soul”). Like Mozart,
37 writers, artists, and other creators commonly emphasize the importance of inspiration in the creative

38 process (Harding, 1948). Despite this, until recently, scientists have given little attention to
39 inspiration.

40 Perhaps it is not surprising that inspiration has received little attention within the scientific
41 community, given the numerous challenges that the inspiration concept has presented. Among these
42 challenges have been (a) a lack of clarity about the meaning of inspiration, (b) difficulty of
43 operationalization, (c) ambiguity about whether inspiration is distinct from related constructs, (d)
44 preconceptions that inspiration is unimportant relative to “perspiration,” and (e) a variety of barriers
45 to neuroscientific investigation. The overarching goal of this article is to address each of these
46 challenges and to point to opportunities for expanding upon the emerging scientific literature on
47 inspiration. We address the first challenge, ambiguity of definition, in the next section.

48 2. Conceptualization

49 The term “inspiration” has been used in a variety disciplines (e.g., literary criticism, theology,
50 psychology) and literatures within psychology (e.g., social comparison, humanism, creative process;
51 for a review, see Thrash & Elliot, 2003). Often the term is not defined, is used interchangeably with
52 other constructs, or is referenced only to be critiqued as mythical, unimportant, or unscientific.
53 Further complicating matters, inspiration historically has been studied in a domain-specific manner,
54 with little communication between researchers across domains. Recognizing the need for a unified,
55 integrated definition of the inspiration construct, Thrash and Elliot (2003, 2004) undertook the task of
56 developing a domain-general conceptualization that drew upon the core commonalities across diverse
57 literatures. These efforts have yielded three complementary frameworks for conceptualizing
58 inspiration that focus on different aspects of construct definition: core characteristics, component
59 processes, and the transmission model. In this section, we review these domain-general
60 conceptualizations and then show how they may be applied specifically to the case of inspiration to
61 create.

62

63 2.1. Tripartite conceptualization

64 The *tripartite conceptualization* (Thrash & Elliot, 2003) specifies the three core
65 characteristics of the state of inspiration: *evocation*, *transcendence*, and *approach motivation*.
66 Evocation refers to the fact that inspiration is *evoked* rather than initiated volitionally by the
67 individual. In other words, one does not feel directly responsible for becoming inspired; rather, a
68 stimulus object, such as a person, an idea, or a work of art, evokes and sustains the inspiration
69 episode. During an episode of inspiration, the individual gains awareness of new possibilities that
70 *transcend* ordinary or mundane concerns. The new awareness is vivid and concrete, and it surpasses
71 the ordinary constraints of willfully generated ideas. Once inspired, the individual experiences a
72 compelling *approach motivation* to transmit, actualize, or express the new vision. This set of three
73 characteristics is intended to be minimally sufficient to distinguish the state of inspiration from other
74 states.

75

76 2.2. Component processes

77 Inspiration may be conceptualized not only in terms of the characteristics of the inspired state,
78 but also in terms of the temporally and functionally distinct processes that compose an episode of
79 inspiration. Thrash and Elliot (2004) argued that inspiration involves two distinct processes—a
80 relatively passive process that they called being inspired *by*, and a relatively active process that they
81 called being inspired *to*. The process of being inspired *by* involves appreciation of the perceived
82 intrinsic value of a stimulus object, whereas the process of being inspired *to* involves motivation to
83 actualize or extend the valued qualities to a new object. For example, one might be inspired by a

84 breathtaking sunrise, or by the elegance of a new idea that arrives during an insight or “aha” moment.
85 Thereafter one might be inspired to paint or undertake a new research project. The individual can, at
86 any time, look to (or recall) the evoking stimulus for motivational sustenance. Thrash and Elliot
87 (2004) further proposed that the process of being inspired *by* gives rise to the core characteristics of
88 evocation and transcendence, whereas the process of being inspired *to* gives rise to the core
89 characteristic of approach motivation.

90 These component processes are posited to be present across diverse manifestations of
91 inspiration. Thrash and Elliot (2004) asked participants to produce narratives recalling either a time
92 when they were inspired or a baseline experience (control condition). The inspiration narratives
93 spanned topics such as becoming animated by a scientific or artistic insight, discovering one’s
94 calling, being influenced by a role model to succeed or live virtuously, and realizing that greatness is
95 possible in response to an unexpected success. Despite superficial differences in narrative content,
96 the inspiration narratives shared the underlying themes of having one’s eyes opened during an
97 encounter with a person, object, event, or idea (i.e. being inspired “by”), and wishing to express or
98 actualize one’s new vision (i.e. being inspired “to”).

99 **2.3. Transmission model**

100 From a less descriptive and more theoretical standpoint, inspiration may be conceptualized in
101 terms of its purpose or function (Thrash & Elliot, 2004; Thrash, Maruskin, Cassidy, Fryer, & Ryan,
102 2010). Whereas simpler forms of approach motivation serve the function of movement toward and
103 attainment of desired goal objects (e.g., food or affiliation), inspiration is posited to serve a unique
104 approach function: it motivates the transmission or expression of the newly appreciated qualities of
105 the evoking object (Thrash & Elliot, 2004; Thrash, Maruskin, et. al., 2010). Inspiration thus serves
106 the role of a mediator in a statistical sense. For instance, certain virtues that one observes in another
107 person may lead to inspiration, which, in turn, leads the inspired individual to pursue these same
108 virtues in a future self. Similarly, a creative seminal idea may inspire the individual, compelling him
109 or her to bring the idea into fruition in the form of a creative invention, poem, or other tangible
110 product.

111 **2.4. Inspiration to create**

112 The general inspiration construct as conceptualized above may be applied straightforwardly to
113 the specific domain of creative activity. From the perspective of the tripartite conceptualization, the
114 general characteristic of transcendence takes the form of *creativity*—the new or better possibilities
115 are appreciated specifically for their creative potential. Regarding the component process
116 conceptualization, the process of being inspired *by* is prompted by the emergence of creative ideas in
117 consciousness, often during a moment of insight. Under optimal conditions (e.g., if the idea is
118 actionable, and the person has the capacity for approach motivation), the process of being inspired *by*
119 gives way to the process of being inspired *to*, which motivates action. Regarding the transmission
120 model, creative inspiration often takes a specific form of transmission called *actualization* (Thrash,
121 Maruskin, et al., 2010), in which one is inspired to bring a creative idea into fruition (i.e., the
122 desirable features of the elicitor are transmitted from a seminal idea to a completed product).

123 We emphasize that, according to our conceptualization, inspiration is not posited to be the
124 *source* of creative ideas. Instead, inspiration is a motivational *response* to creative ideas. Thus
125 inspiration explains the transmission, not the origin, of creativity. This distinction is critical for at
126 least three reasons. First, claiming that creativity comes from inspiration would not aid scientific
127 understanding, much as attributing creativity to a “muse” would be an exercise in labeling a
128 mysterious cause, not a scientific explanation. Second, scientists have already developed a variety of

129 scientific constructs and theories to explain the origins of creative ideas, which include situational,
130 dispositional, self-regulatory, cognitive, historical, and neurological processes (e.g., Amabile, 1996;
131 Baas, Roskes, Sligte, Nijstad, de Dreu, 2013; Bowden & Jung-Beeman, 2003; Feist, 1998; Finke,
132 Ward, & Smith, 1992; Koestler, 1964; Martindale, 1990; Rothenberg, 1990; Simonton, 2003;
133 Sternberg & Davidson, 1995). In contrast, scientists have given relatively little attention to the
134 processes through which creative ideas are transformed into creative products. The inspiration
135 construct helps fill this gap in the research literature. Finally, because this conceptualization of
136 creative inspiration is derived from a general conceptualization, it is consistent with usage of the
137 inspiration construct in other literatures. For instance, creative inspiration is a response to (not the
138 cause of) creative ideas, much as interpersonal inspiration is a response to (not the cause of) virtuous
139 qualities in others.

140 3. **Operationalization**

141 Given the personal nature and elusiveness of the experience of inspiration, how can it
142 possibly be measured in the laboratory? One might be tempted to throw up one's hands and turn
143 instead to something that is more amenable to direct experimental control.

144 3.1. **The value of self-report**

145 We maintain that self-report is a straightforward and appropriate method for operationalizing
146 inspiration, because the inspiration construct is inextricably intertwined with a distinctive
147 phenomenological experience. Numerous creators have claimed—through conscious self-reports—
148 that they experience inspiration and that this experience is critical to their creative process (Harding,
149 1948). Operationalizing inspiration through self-report allows researchers to put such claims to the
150 test.

151 Thrash and Elliot (2003) developed a trait measure of inspiration called the Inspiration Scale
152 (IS). Although the term “trait” has a variety of connotations, trait inspiration refers to nothing other
153 than individual differences in the tendency to experience the state of inspiration. Because inspiration
154 is a construct that is meaningful in individuals' lives but underappreciated by psychologists, the
155 measure was designed to be straightforward and face valid. Items include statements such as,
156 “Something I encounter or experience inspires me” and “I am inspired to do something.” The IS has
157 two internally consistent 4-item subscales: inspiration frequency and intensity. Both subscales are
158 internally consistent, with Cronbach's α s equal to or greater than .90. The two subscales have been
159 demonstrated to be highly correlated ($r = .60$ to $.80$), and therefore scores may be summed to form an
160 internally consistent 8-item index of overall inspiration. The IS demonstrates measurement
161 invariance across time (2 months) and across populations (patent holders, university alumni),
162 indicating that the underlying latent constructs have comparable meaning at different points in time
163 and in different populations. Two-month test-retest reliabilities for both subscales are high, $r = .77$. In
164 short, the IS has excellent psychometric properties. Notably, the intensity subscale has been adapted
165 for use as a state measure (e.g., Thrash & Elliot, 2004; Thrash, Elliot, Maruskin, & Cassidy, 2010).

166 Some may worry that self-reported inspiration cannot be trusted, that it is not objective, or
167 that it does not provide a full explanation. We respond to each of these potential limitations. First,
168 inspiration, as assessed with the IS, tends to be unrelated or weakly related to social desirability, and
169 its predictive validity is robust when social desirability is controlled¹ (Thrash & Elliot, 2003; Thrash,
170 Elliot et al., 2010). Second, although the IS provides a subjective indicator of inspiration, scores on
171 this measure have been linked to a variety of external criteria and objective outcomes, as reviewed in
172 the following section. Moreover, consciousness plays a critical role in the simulation of future action
173 in humans (Baumeister & Masicampo, 2010) and may be necessary for inspired action. Accordingly,

174 conscious self-report is intrinsically appropriate to the construct. Finally, we recognize that self-
175 report measures may leave some researchers with a hunger for lower-level explanations, such as
176 those involving physiological or neurological processes, but we see this as an opportunity rather than
177 a problem—the inspiration construct may see an exciting second generation of research regarding
178 neural underpinnings. In this case, self-reported inspiration provides a “bootstrap” that may guide
179 researchers to underlying process. Although it is true that the self-report method is limited in some
180 ways, it offers a well-validated starting point for neuroscientific investigations. Moreover, not
181 investigating inspiration on the grounds that it is measured by self-report would lead researchers to
182 overlook a critical predictor of creative output, the biological underpinnings of which would remain
183 undiscovered.

184 3.2. The place of inspiration in creativity research paradigms

185 The field of creativity assessment is active and dynamic, and thus a review of the literature is
186 well beyond the scope of this article (for a review, see Plucker & Makel, 2010). We note, however,
187 that the dominant research paradigms used in the study of creativity have unwittingly precluded
188 attention to inspiration. Creativity is most often assessed using tests of creative ideation (e.g.,
189 Alternate Uses) or creative insight (e.g., Remote Associates Test). While such tests are very practical
190 in laboratory contexts and allow researchers to focus on the processes underlying the emergence of
191 creative ideas, they do not allow participants to transform creative ideas into creative products.
192 Failure to accommodate the idea actualization process—that is, creation per se—renders inspiration
193 speciously immaterial to the creative process. If the function of inspiration within the context of
194 creativity is the actualization of creative ideas into creative products, useful paradigms must allow for
195 idea actualization. Product-based assessments, such as the Consensual Assessment Technique (CAT;
196 Amabile, 1982) and analysis of patent data, are the gold standard if one wishes to investigate the
197 unique contribution of inspiration to the creative process.² In fact, relevance to inspiration aside,
198 assessment of creative products is considered by some to be the most appropriate and valid
199 operationalization of creativity (Baer, Kaufman, & Gentile, 2004; Baer & McKool, 2009).

200 4. Discriminant validity

201 Ambiguity about whether inspiration is distinct from other constructs has been another
202 impediment to research activity. If one presumes that inspiration is the same thing as, for example,
203 creativity or insight, then one has no reason to study it. In this section, we clarify the distinctions
204 between inspiration and several other constructs (creativity, insight, and positive affect).

205 4.1. Inspiration and Creativity

206 While there is considerable variability in the definition and usage of the term creativity within
207 psychology (Silvia & Kaufman, 2010), there is some degree of consensus that creativity implies two
208 qualities: novelty and usefulness (e.g., Feist, 1998; Plucker, Beghetto, & Dow, 2004). We find it
209 useful to explicitly conceptualize creativity as an *appraisal* of novelty and usefulness that may be
210 applied to any of a variety of objects, particularly ideas and resulting products. Depending on the
211 aims of the research, this appraisal may be made by the creator herself, by gatekeepers within a field,
212 by an audience, or through various other operationalizations available to the researcher. We note that
213 researchers often appear to have either ideas or products in mind as the ultimate objects of creativity
214 appraisals, even when the term “creative” precedes other nouns (e.g., creative activity [Simonton,
215 2000], creative insights [Csikszentmihalyi & Sawyer, 1995], creative personalities [Feist, 2010],
216 creative states [Jamison, 1989], or creative processes [Kris, 1952]).

217 Although the terms inspiration and creativity have occasionally been used synonymously
218 (e.g., Chamorro-Premuzic, 2006; Schuler, 1994), our conceptualizations of inspiration and creativity

219 involve a clear delineation. Creativity is an appraisal of novelty and usefulness that may apply (to
220 various degrees) to content at any point in the creative process, from a seminal idea to the completed
221 product. Inspiration, in contrast, is a motivational state. We posit that inspiration is often elicited
222 when a creator appraises his or her idea as creative, and it is posited to motivate actualization of the
223 idea in the form of a product that is likewise appraised (by its creator and perhaps others) as creative.
224 We discuss empirical support for these proposals below.

225 4.2. Inspiration and Insight

226 Conflation of inspiration with insight is common in everyday language.³ An individual might
227 exclaim, “I had an inspiration,” where “inspiration” refers to the idea itself, not to the motivational
228 response. In the scientific context, the term insight has been used to describe the process by which a
229 problem solver suddenly moves from a state of not knowing how to solve a problem to a state of
230 knowing how to solve it (Mayer, 1992). Within the creativity context, insight has also been
231 conceptualized as the cognitive content that enters consciousness suddenly; the “aha!” moment
232 (Csikszentmihalyi & Sawyer, 1995). Regardless of its exact usage, insight can be differentiated from
233 inspiration in terms of its theoretical function. Whereas insight research is an attempt to explain the
234 cognitive mechanisms, such as restructuring (Ohlsson, 1984), by which ideas enter awareness,
235 inspiration research is attempt to explain the motivational response that often (but not always)
236 follows creative insight (see Thrash, Maruskin, et al., 2010).

237 If inspiration always followed from insight, then perhaps the inspiration construct would be
238 superfluous. However, inspiration does not always follow. Thrash, Maruskin et al. (2010) found that
239 creative ideation tends to lead to inspiration but that this effect is moderated by individuals’ approach
240 temperament (i.e., sensitivity to reward; Elliot & Thrash, 2010). Individuals with a strong approach
241 temperament tend to get inspired to create in response to creative insight, whereas individuals with a
242 weak approach temperament report feeling a lack of inspiration in spite of their insight. Inspiration
243 thus has important implications for the behavioral transmission of a creative insight into a creative
244 product.

245 Recent work on the phenomenology of insight offers hints about how insight may lead to
246 inspiration. Abrupt changes in processing fluency during insight have been found to endow an
247 individual with elevated levels of positive affect and perceived truth regarding his or her solution
248 (Topolinski & Reber, 2010). Given that positive affect is involved in both the insight “aha”
249 experience and inspiration, it may facilitate a fluid transition from insight to inspiration. Moreover,
250 perceiving one’s solution as true, a consequence of insight, may bolster inspired motivation. As we
251 have noted, however, insight can occur without inspiration. Dispositional factors of the individual
252 (e.g., low approach temperament) and situational factors (e.g., contexts in which opportunities for
253 transmission are not available) can impede inspiration. Likewise, inspiration can occur outside of the
254 problem-solving context and without a discrete and sudden insight.

255 4.3. Inspiration and Positive Affect

256 Activated positive affect (PA), a high-arousal form of pleasant affect, is the strongest known
257 correlate of inspiration (Thrash & Elliot, 2003). Indeed, the term “inspired” appears on the PANAS
258 measure of activated PA (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). Because activated PA is often present
259 during states of approach motivation (Watson, Wiese, Vaidya, & Tellegen, 1999), it particularly
260 resembles the inspired *to* component process.

261 Although inspiration and activated PA overlap to some degree empirically and conceptually,
262 considerable evidence supports their discriminant validity. First, inspiration and activated PA are
263 factorially distinct (Thrash & Elliot, 2003). Second, consistent with the tripartite conceptualization of

264 inspiration, experiences of inspiration involve greater levels of transcendence and lower levels of
265 volitional control and ascriptions of personal responsibility (indicative of “evocation”) compared to
266 experiences of activated PA (Thrash & Elliot, 2004). Third, inspiration and activated PA have
267 different proximal and distal antecedents (Thrash & Elliot, 2004). Activated PA is triggered
268 proximally by reward salience (environmental cues and perceptions that something desired is
269 attainable) and distally by approach temperament. In contrast, inspiration is triggered proximally by
270 experiences of insight and distally by openness to experience. Finally, inspiration and activated PA
271 have different distributions across days of the week; on Fridays, for instance, activated PA is at its
272 peak while inspiration is at its trough (Thrash, 2007).

273 5. **Inspiration, perspiration, and creativity**

274 Perhaps the most pernicious obstacle to research on inspiration has been the longstanding
275 belief that it is perspiration, and not inspiration, that is critical for creative output. Thomas Edison,
276 regarding his work, once remarked that, “what it boils down to is one per cent inspiration and ninety-
277 nine per cent perspiration” (Edison, Spoken statement, c. 1903; published in Harper’s Monthly,
278 September 1932). This comment has sometimes been offered in support of the idea that effort is
279 important to creativity and that inspiration, by comparison, is unimportant (e.g., Martindale, 1989,
280 2001; Sawyer, 2006). Furthering this line of reasoning, Fehrman (1980) offered an account of why
281 inspiration nonetheless endures as a folk explanation of creativity: when individuals are exposed to
282 creative works, they misattribute creators’ effort to inspiration, unaware how much effort was
283 required to produce the work. It appears that reasoning such as this has precluded attention to a
284 legitimate role of inspiration in the creative process.

285 Empirical data related to inspiration, perspiration, and creativity are now available for
286 consideration. A number of studies indicate that inspiration is a robust predictor of creativity. At the
287 between-person (i.e., trait) level, inspiration and creative self-concept are positively correlated, and
288 inspiration predicts longitudinal increases in creative self-concept (Thrash & Elliot, 2003). Trait
289 inspiration also predicts objective indicators of creative output. In a sample of U.S. patent holders,
290 inspiration frequency was found to predict the number of patents held (Thrash & Elliot, 2003).
291 Inspiration also predicts creativity at the within-person level, such that inspiration and self-reported
292 creativity fluctuate together across days (Thrash & Elliot, 2003).

293 In three studies of different types of writing (poetry, science, and fiction), self-reported state
294 inspiration during the writing process uniquely predicted creativity of the final product, as assessed
295 by expert judges using the Consensual Assessment Technique (Thrash, Maruskin et al., 2010). These
296 findings held when a variety of covariates (e.g., openness to experience, effort, activated PA, awe)
297 were controlled. Finally, inspiration has been shown to mediate between the creativity of seminal
298 ideas and the creativity of final products in a manner consistent with the posited transmission
299 function⁴ of inspiration (Thrash, Maruskin, et al., 2010). Covariates of inspiration (effort, activated
300 PA, awe) failed to mediate transmission, indicating that the transmission function is unique to
301 inspiration.

302 Having established a relation between inspiration and creativity, we now consider the role of
303 “perspiration” in the creative process. Notably, Thrash, Maruskin et al. (2010) documented a positive
304 relation, rather than negative relation, between inspiration and effort, indicating that these constructs
305 are not mutually exclusive as the Edison quote may imply. The assumption that the presence of effort
306 indicates low levels of inspiration is further challenged by a positive relation between inspiration and
307 the work-mastery component of need for achievement (Thrash & Elliot, 2003). Both of these findings
308 were documented at two statistically independent levels of analysis (between-persons, within-
309 persons).

310 Certainly effort is important to the creative process, but its role is different than that of
311 inspiration. Whereas writers' inspiration predicts the creativity of the product, writers' effort predicts
312 the technical merit of the product (Thrash, Maruskin et al., 2010). Thus inspiration and effort are
313 unique predictors of different aspects of product quality. Moreover, screen capture data indicate that
314 inspiration is involved in the automatic/generative aspects of the writing process (e.g., inspired
315 writers produce more words and retain more of their original typing), whereas effort is related to
316 controlled self-regulation (e.g., writers who exert effort delete more words and pause more to think;
317 Thrash, Maruskin et al., 2010). In short, inspiration and "perspiration" are not mutually exclusive,
318 and they contribute in qualitatively different ways to the creative process and product.

319 The question of whether the audience correctly infers the presence of inspiration remains. The
320 misattribution hypothesis states that it is the creator's *effort* that predicts the creativity of the product
321 but that the audience incorrectly attributes this creativity to *inspiration* in the creator. An alternative
322 to this model is the possibility that the audience correctly infers inspiration (Bowra, 1977). Thrash,
323 Maruskin et al. (2010) tested these competing hypotheses. Readers were found to correctly attribute
324 creativity to writers' inspiration; likewise, they correctly attributed technical merit to writers' effort.
325 These results, in addition to providing the first empirical evidence that readers can make veridical
326 inferences about writers' motivational states, indicate that folk notions of the importance of
327 inspiration are borne out by empirical data.

328 The psychological science of inspiration, as well as its relation to creativity, is now well-
329 established. Inspiration has been conceptualized through integration of usages in diverse literatures,
330 operationalized using a well-validated measure, discriminated from related constructs, and linked to
331 creativity in multiple populations, contexts, and levels of analysis. Prior work provides a solid
332 foundation on which investigations into the neuroscience of inspiration can rest.

333 6. **Inspiration in the neuroscience laboratory?**

334 In most respects, the challenges associated with studying creative inspiration are similar
335 regardless of whether one approaches the topic as a neuroscientist, a psychologist, etc. Therefore, the
336 preceding general challenges and solutions are also relevant specifically in the neuroscience context.
337 However, we reiterate the importance of attending carefully to construct definition, because the term
338 "inspiration" has occasionally been used in the neuroscience literature to refer to constructs that are
339 quite different than the inspiration construct that we have discussed. In his classic EEG studies of the
340 creative process, for instance, Martindale and Hasenpus (1978) used the terms inspiration and
341 elaboration to refer to the stages that precede and follow, respectively, creative insight (see Kris,
342 1952, for a precedent for such usage in psychoanalysis). Inspiration as we have defined it—i.e., as a
343 conscious motivational state rather than as a stage—is more likely to occur during Martindale and
344 Hasenpus's elaboration stage than during the inspiration stage. We now turn to challenges that are
345 particularly relevant within a neuroscience context.

346 One obstacle in studying inspiration in the laboratory is the impossibility of direct
347 manipulation through exposure to exogenous elicitors. If one seeks to elicit inspiration through use of
348 some kind of "inspiring" stimulus, then the manipulated elicitor is the independent variable and
349 inspiration is a dependent variable. Thus caution is needed regarding causal inference, despite use of
350 the experimental method (Thrash, Elliot et al., 2010). Although inspiration cannot be directly
351 manipulated through exposure to exogenous stimuli, a researcher may build a case for causality using
352 manipulation of elicitors in combination with statistical controls and cross-lagged analyses, as
353 demonstrated by Thrash, Elliot, et al. (2010). We note that these problems are not unique to the study
354 of inspiration. Emotions, insight, and many other constructs elude strict experimental control; at best,
355 they may be "elicited" rather than "manipulated."

356 A related challenge is that it may be difficult to capture authentic or intense experiences of
357 inspiration in a laboratory setting, given that inspiration is elusive for certain individuals or under
358 certain circumstances. One solution may be to, in effect, lower the threshold for what constitutes an
359 episode of inspiration. Thrash and Elliot (2004), for instance, studied “daily inspiration” using
360 experience sampling methods, and we suggest that such tolerance for less intense manifestations of
361 inspiration can be extended to a laboratory study. Much as creativity is not the same thing as genius
362 (Bruner, 1962), inspiration is a matter of degree, and moderate levels might be achievable even in
363 some invasive neuroscience paradigms.

364 A third challenge is the need for repeatable trials and time-locking. Brain imaging techniques
365 (e.g., fMRI, EEG, MEG) require designs in which the mental event under consideration may be (a)
366 temporally isolated so that the recorded data and the mental event can be time-locked to an eliciting
367 stimulus and (b) elicited repeatedly during a recording session in order to improve the signal-to-noise
368 ratio (Dickter & Kieffaber, in press). One possible method to address these requirements is to use
369 participant self-report (indicating the onset of inspiration) as the time-locking event. Suppose, for
370 example, participants invent captions for each of a series of photographs (a highly-repeatable
371 activity) and report on levels of inspiration at the moment of getting an idea for each caption.
372 Bowden and Jung-Beeman (2007) used a method similar to this in order to identify processes that
373 distinguish solutions involving the experience of insight from those that do not. We caution,
374 however, that inspiration generally is more prolonged in time than is insight (particularly when
375 considerable activity is needed to actualize an idea), and therefore methods that capture subsequent
376 variability in inspiration across time—not just the level of inspiration at the moment of insight—will
377 be particularly valuable.

378 One such method for capturing variability in inspiration across time, while simultaneously
379 reducing the burden of eliciting inspiration repeatedly, is to record electrical brain activity using a
380 non-invasive technique (such as EEG) during the creative process. For instance, if researchers record
381 screen capture data during the writing process as in Thrash, Maruskin, et al. (2010), they can
382 subsequently play back the recording to participants and collect continuous measures of recalled
383 inspiration during the creative process (e.g., using a dial or slider input device). These ebbs and flows
384 of inspiration can then be linked to variability in neural processes.

385 The difficulties associated with eliciting inspiration in order to study it at the within-person
386 level may also be addressed by simply focusing on the individuals who are likely to be inspired (i.e.
387 those who are high in trait inspiration). Elicitation may be circumvented altogether by examining
388 structural brain differences between groups known to be high versus low in trait inspiration. One may
389 separate groups into “more inspired” and “less inspired” using the Inspiration Scale. Additionally, as
390 individuals higher in trait inspiration tend to exhibit greater levels of openness and extraversion, one
391 might expect, for example, reduced latent inhibition and increased activity in the ventral tegmental
392 area dopamine projections (Peterson, Smith, & Carson, 2002; Depue & Collins, 1999; Ashby & Isen,
393 1999) for these individuals. Thus, inspiration’s nomological network can serve as an informative
394 starting point for between-person neurological analyses.

395 Next, we consider the question of where to look in the nervous system. While at present there
396 is no neuroscience of the inspiration construct per se, literatures on related constructs can offer us
397 some hints.

398 Insight relates to inspiration within the tripartite conceptualization in terms of both evocation
399 and transcendence, and within the component processes model as the initial event that often leads one
400 to become inspired *by*. During “Aha!” moments, one *transcends* a mental set and experiences a
401 conceptual expansion (Abraham, et al., 2012), and the experience feels automatic and unexpected; it

402 feels *evoked* (Bowden, Jung-Beeman, Fleck, & Kounios, 2005). Therefore, certain neural
403 components involved in insight experiences may be present at the onset of an inspiration episode.
404 However, given that the literature on the neural correlates of insight is complex and that neural
405 processes are under debate (Dietrich & Kanso, 2010), we caution against relying too heavily upon
406 any one finding in guiding work on inspiration.

407 As inspiration involves not only transcendence and evocation, but also approach motivation,
408 we may also look to the neuroscience literature on states of approach motivation (Elliot, 2008). There
409 exists a burgeoning literature on approach motivation and appetitive affect, with attention to
410 underlying neuronal circuitry (e.g., Aron, et al, 2005; Bradley, et al., 2001; Junghöfer, et al., 2010),
411 subcortical reward systems (e.g., Alcaro, Huber, and Panksepp, 2007; Rozenkranz and Grace, 2002;
412 Wise, 2004), neurotransmitters (e.g., Hoebel, Avena, and Rada, 2008; Bassareo, De Luca, and Di
413 Chiara, 2002), and neurohormones (e.g., Frye and Lacy, 2001; Frye and Seliga, 2003; Frye, 2007).
414 Findings in this area may offer suggestions for the neural underpinnings of the inspired *to* process.

415 Although the neurological findings regarding certain aspects of the inspiration construct can
416 offer clues, the neural components of these pieces alone are unlikely to tell the full story. After all,
417 we have already argued above that inspiration is not the same thing as insight or activated PA, nor is
418 it the sum of these parts. For instance, an individual could be in an appetitive motivational state at the
419 same time that he or she gets a creative insight, but he or she would not be inspired if the appetitive
420 state reflects anticipation of eating, rather than of bringing the idea into fruition. The evoking object,
421 in this case, the insight, does not meaningfully relate to the motivational object. The critical question
422 for neuroscience is how processes related to generation of creative ideas recruit appetitive
423 motivational processes, such that individuals respond to creative ideas not with indifference, but
424 rather with a feeling of being compelled to act. How exactly does the prospect of turning a morsel
425 into a dish fire the soul, as Mozart put it (in the opening quotation)?

426 In the initial stages of research on the neurological basis of inspiration, it may be useful to
427 begin with a focus on overall inspiration instead of particular aspects or component processes.
428 Inspiration as a unified concept can be measured quite efficiently using the 4-item intensity subscale
429 of the Inspiration Scale (Thrash & Elliot, 2004). If necessary, inspiration could be assessed with a
430 single item from the Inspiration Scale. Such items are surprisingly effective at capturing the full
431 inspiration construct as we have defined it (Thrash, Maruskin, et al., 2010).

432 7. **Conclusion**

433 Writers, artists, and other creators have long argued that inspiration is a key motivator of
434 creativity. Over the past decade, scientists have tested and found strong support for these claims.
435 Scientific progress has required overcoming a number of challenges, including definitional
436 ambiguity, difficulties of operationalization, ambiguities about discriminant validity, and skepticism
437 about the importance of inspiration relative to perspiration. By developing an integrative
438 conceptualization, operationalizing inspiration with the Inspiration Scale, establishing discriminant
439 validity, and addressing skepticism with empirical evidence, these challenges have been largely
440 overcome. Although additional challenges face the neuroscientist who wishes to study inspiration,
441 similar challenges have already been overcome in relation to insight and other constructs. We believe
442 that the stage has been set for a rigorous neuroscience of inspiration.

443 Brain-level explanations of an inspiration episode can then be integrated with explanations at
444 other levels of analysis to produce a richer and more holistic understanding of inspiration. This
445 deeper understanding will aid in determining how and why individuals sometimes feel (or do not
446 feel) compelled to act on their creative ideas. Inspiration has the power to effect change not just for
447 individuals, but also for societies. Technological advancements, cures for diseases, and solutions to

448 environmental problems first emerge as seminal ideas. It is difficult to overstate the importance of
449 figuring out why, how, and for whom creative ideas to societal problems fire the soul and inspire the
450 idea actualization process.

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618 10. Footnotes

619 ¹ In these instances, social desirability was assessed using either the Marlowe-Crowne Social
620 Desirability Scale (Crowne & Marlow, 1964) or the Paulhus Deception Scales (Paulhus, 1998).

621 ²We note that the Consensual Assessment Technique has also been used to assess the creativity of
622 ideas (e.g., Faure, 2004). Here, we refer specifically to the use of this technique in assessing the
623 creativity of products.

624 ³ The language of the items and response options of the Inspiration Scale eliminate this problem by
625 clearly using the term "inspiration" to mean a state, not a cognition or idea.

626 ⁴The authors empirically tested the *transmission model*, which specifies that inspiration mediates the
627 relation between the creativity of the seminal idea and the creativity of the product. Two alternate
628 theoretical models, the *epiphenomenon model* and the *self-perception model*, which suggest that
629 creativity of the idea influences both inspiration and creativity of the product, or that creativity of the
630 idea influences creativity of the product which in turn influences reports of inspiration, respectively,
631 were also tested using structural equation modeling. The authors found support for the transmission
632 model of inspiration over the epiphenomenon and self-perception models.

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